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Life Update

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# Decoded Quantum Interferometry for the max-XORSAT Problem

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## Introduction

This tutorial compares the performance of classical methods and Decoded Quantum Interferometry (DQI) implemented by quairkit for the max-XORSAT problem.

## MAX-XORSAT

Finding the best solution(s) from a large, finite set of possible candidates is known as **combinatorial optimization**. A well-known problem from this field is the **traveling salesman problem**. Mathematically, this can be phrased as trying to maximize an objective function whose domain is large and discrete.

The **max-XORSAT** problem is a simple example of this, where we are given an  $m \times n$  matrix  $B$  (with  $m > n$ ) and a vector  $\mathbf{v}$  of length  $m$ , and are required to find the  $n$ -bit string  $\mathbf{x}$  that satisfies the maximum number of constraints imposed by the  $m$  linear mod-2 equations,

$$B\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v}$$

Since this system of equations is over  $\mathbb{F}_2$ , the matrix and vectors only contain zeros and ones.

The objective function we are aiming to maximize is:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^m (-1)^{v_i + \mathbf{b}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}} = \sum_{i=1}^m f_i(\mathbf{x}),$$

where  $\mathbf{b}_i$  is the  $i$ -th row of matrix  $B$ .

You can verify that this function represents the **number of satisfied equations minus the number of unsatisfied ones**, by considering that when the equation is satisfied, the exponent  $v_i + \mathbf{b}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}$  is always even, and that it is odd in the opposite case.

## Classical Solutions & Their Complexity

Type	Algorithm	Idea	Time
Exact	Brute force	Try all $2^n$ assignments; evaluate each in $O(m)$	$O(2^n m)$
	Rank-based search	Do Gaussian elimination over $\mathbb{F}_2$ to reduce to rank (r); branch only on (r) “free” variables (or use nullspace basis)	$O(m^3)$
	Branch-and-bound + elimination	Repeated elimination to simplify + upper bounds to prune	Exponential (in worst case)
	0-1 ILP / Pseudo-Boolean (PB)	Encode parity clauses; modern PB/SAT solvers with cutting/branching	Worst case exponential
Feasibility (XORSAT) only	Gaussian elimination	Solve $(Bx=v)$ over $\mathbb{F}_2$	$O(m^3)$
Approximation	Random assignment	Set each bit uniformly at random	$O(m)$ evaluation

Heuristics	Method of conditional expectations	Greedily fix bits to keep expected score $\geq$ baseline	$O(n^2)$
	Max-2-Lin(2) via SDP (GW)	Reduce to signed Max-Cut; solve SDP, round (Goemans–Williamson)	Polynomial $\tilde{O}(n^2)$
	LP/SDP for $k \geq 3$	Relax to LP/SDP then round	Polynomial
	Spectral (k=2)	Use top eigenvector of signed Laplacian; threshold	$O(n^2)$
	Belief / Max-Sum Propagation	Message passing on factor graph	$O(n^2)$
	Local search (bit-flip / Kernighan–Lin style)	Maintain clause gains; flip improving bits or blocks	$O(n^2)$ (arbitrary)
	Simulated annealing /	Escape local minima with randomness /	Depends on schedule

Tabu

memory

# Quairkit Implementation

```
import torch
import quairkit as qkit
from quairkit import Circuit
from quairkit.database import *
from quairkit.qinfo import *
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

qkit.set_dtype('complex128')

from quairkit import *
import numpy as np
from itertools import combination
import warnings
warnings.filterwarnings("ignore")
```

Let's define the conditions for our specific max-XORSAT problem and visualize the objective function in a histogram when randomly sampling bit strings  $x$  from a uniform distribution. Later, we'll use samples generated by the DQI algorithm and compare their quality, in terms of the objective function, to this initial plot to see how well DQI performs.

```
torch.manual_seed(0)
```

```

B = torch.tensor([[1, 0, 0, 0], [
v = torch.tensor([1, 0, 1, 0, 1],

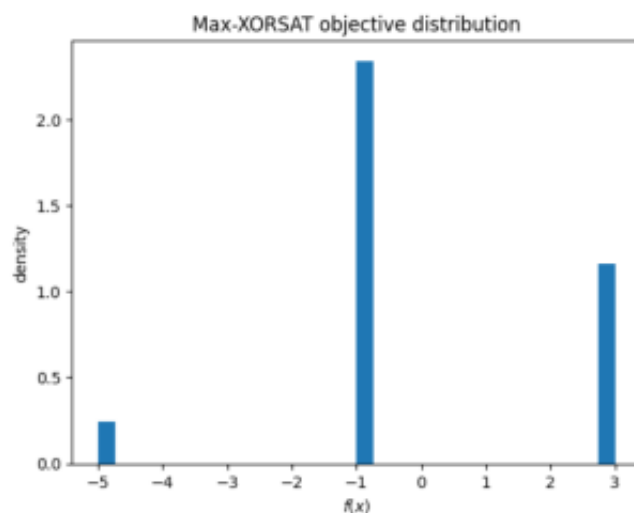
m, n = B.shape
n_samples = 10000

def objective_function(x: torch.T
    Bx = (B @ x) % 2
    parity = (v + Bx) % 2
    f = (1 - 2 * parity).sum()
    return f.item()

samples = torch.randint(0, 2, size
f_x_array_random = [objective_fun

plt.hist(f_x_array_random, bins=30
plt.xlabel(r"$f(x)$")
plt.ylabel("density")
plt.title("Max-XORSAT objective d
plt.show()

```



## Amplitude

# Encoding: Weight Coefficients

We are going to prepare the superposition

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\ell} w_k |k\rangle.$$

```
p = 2
r = 1
d = (p - 2 * r) / torch.sqrt(torch.tensor(p))
l = 2
```

```
num_weight_qubits = int(torch.ceil(torch.log2(d)))
weight_register = range(num_weight_qubits)
m_register = range(num_weight_qubits)
n_register = range(m + num_weight_qubits)
```

```
def w_k_optimal(m: int, l: int, d: float):
    dtype = torch.float64
    diag_main_vals = torch.arange(1, l + 1, dtype=dtype)
    A = torch.diag(diag_main_vals, 0)
```

```
    i = torch.arange(1, l + 1, dtype=dtype)
    sup_vals = torch.sqrt(i * (m - i + 1))
    A[:-1, 1:] += torch.diag(sup_vals, 1)
    A[1:, :-1] += torch.diag(sup_vals, -1)
```

```
    eigvals, eigvecs = torch.linalg.eigh(A)
    w = eigvecs[:, -1]
```

```
    return w
```

```
w_k = w_k_optimal(m, l, d)
print("The optimal values for w are", w_k)
```

The optimal values for  $w$  are  
 [0.4385290096535146,  
 0.7071067811865476,  
 0.5547001962252291]

## Prepare Dicke states with $k$ excitations

For this step, we need a conditional operation that prepares Dicke states  $|D_k^m\rangle$  – where the superscript is the number of qubits and the subscript is the number of excitations – for each index  $k$  in the weight register. Dicke states are another way of referring to a uniform superposition of all bit strings of a determined Hamming weight. For our particular example, we will prepare Dicke states with one and two excitations. Before implementing the conditional operation, let's briefly review a method for preparing such states as presented in [2].

```
def ccry(cir, theta, controls, ta
    """Implements CCRY using deco
    c1, c2 = controls
    cir.ry(target, theta / 4)
    cir.cnot([c2, target])
    cir.ry(target, -theta / 4)
    cir.cnot([c1, target])
    cir.ry(target, theta / 4)
```

```

        cir.cnot([c2, target])
        cir.ry(target, -theta / 4)
        cir.cnot([c1, target])

def SCS(m_val, k, cir: Circuit):
    theta_1 = 2 * torch.arccos(
        torch.sqrt(torch.tensor(1
    )

    cir.cx([m_val - 2, m_val - 1])
    cir.cry(qubits_idx=[m_val - 1
    cir.cx([m_val - 2, m_val - 1])

    for ell in range(2, k + 1):
        theta_ell = 2 * torch.arccos(
            torch.sqrt(torch.tensor(1
        )

        cir.cx([m_val - ell - 1, m_val - 1])

        ccry(
            cir,
            theta_ell,
            controls=[m_val - 1, m_val - 2],
            target=m_val - ell - 1
        )

        cir.cx([m_val - ell - 1, m_val - 1])

def prepare_dicke_cir(m, k):
    """Prepares a Dicke state with m qubits and k excitations"""
    cir = Circuit(m)

    for wire_idx in range(m - k, m):
        cir.x(wire_idx)

```

```

        for i in reversed(range(k + 1)):
            SCS(i, k, cir)
        for i in reversed(range(2, k + 1)):
            SCS(i, i - 1, cir)

    return cir

def embed_weights(cir, w_k, weights):
    """Prepare 2-qubit weight register
     $w_0|00\rangle + w_1|01\rangle + w_2|10\rangle + w_3|11\rangle$ 
    """
    weight_register = [q0, q1]

    vec = torch.tensor(w_k, dtype=torch.float)
    w0, w1, w2 = vec

    # --- Step 1: Apply an RY on q0
    #  $|\psi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{s_1}(w_0|0\rangle + w_1|1\rangle)$ 
    # That is:  $\sin(\alpha/2) = w_2$ ,  $\cos(\alpha/2) = w_0/s_1$ 
    s01 = torch.sqrt(w0**2 + w1**2)

    alpha = 2 * torch.arcsin(w2/s01)

    q0, q1 = weight_register[0], weight_register[1]
    cir.ry(q0, alpha)

    # The full state is now:
    #  $\frac{1}{s_1}(w_0|0\rangle + w_1|1\rangle) \otimes |0\rangle$ 

    # --- Step 2: In the subspace spanned by  $|0\rangle, |1\rangle$ 
    #  $|0\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{s_1}(w_0|0\rangle + w_1|1\rangle)$ 
    # i.e., apply a controlled-RY on q1
    #  $\cos(\beta/2) = w_0/s_1$ ,  $\sin(\beta/2) = w_1/s_1$ 
    if s01 > 1e-12:

```

```

w0p = w0 / s01
w1p = w1 / s01
beta = 2 * torch.arctan2(

# Implement controlled RY
cir.x(q0)
cir.cry(qubits_idx=[q0, q
cir.x(q0)

# Final state (theoretically)
# w0 |00> + w1 |01> + w2 |10>

def weight_error_prep(m, w_k):
    total_systems = num_weight_qu
    cir = Circuit(total_systems)

    weight_register = [0, 1]
    embed_weights(cir, w_k, weigh

    error_idx = list(range(2, 2 +

    dicke1 = prepare_dicke_cir(m,
    U1 = dicke1.unitary_matrix()

    cir.x(weight_register[0])
    cir.control_oracle(
        oracle=U1,
        system_idx=[weight_regist
    )
    cir.x(weight_register[0])

    dicke2 = prepare_dicke_cir(m,
    U2 = dicke2.unitary_matrix()

    cir.x(weight_register[1])
    cir.control_oracle(

```

```

        oracle=U2,
        system_idx=[weight_register[1]]
    )
    cir.x(weight_register[1])

    return cir

```

```

state = zero_state(m+n+num_weight)
cir1 = weight_error_prep(m, w_k)
state = cir1(state)

```

## Uncompute the weight register

After preparing the Dicke states, we uncompute and discard the state of the weight register. In general, this is a straightforward process, as the Hamming weights encoded are known. We accomplished this by generating bit strings of length  $m$  with Hamming weight of 2 using the `generate_bit_strings` function. We then applied a controlled bit flip to the weight register for these specific cases. We did not need to perform any action for bit strings with a Hamming weight of 1, as the qubit state was already  $|0\rangle$ . From now on, we can choose to disregard the weight register.

```

def mcx_matrix(num_controls):
    """Builds the unitary matrix

```

```

        size = 2 ** (num_controls + 1)
        mat = np.eye(size, dtype=complex)
        mat[-1, -1] = 0
        mat[-1, -2] = 1
        mat[-2, -1] = 1
        mat[-2, -2] = 0
        return torch.tensor(mat, dtype=torch.complex64)

def phase_Z(cir, v, error_start=1):
    """Imparts a phase  $(-1)^{\sum v_i}$ 
    for i in range(len(v)):
        if v[i] == 1:
            cir.z(error_start + i)

def generate_bit_strings(length):
    """Generates all bit strings of length length
    results = []
    for positions in combinations(range(length), 1):
        bit_string = [0] * length
        for p in positions:
            bit_string[p] = 1
        results.append(bit_string)
    return results

def uncompute_weight_to_zero(cir, m_register, num_controls):
    mcx_mat = mcx_matrix(num_controls, num_controls)

    for pattern in generate_bit_strings(num_controls):
        flips = [m_register[j] for j in range(num_controls) if pattern[j]]

        for q in flips: cir.x(q)

    cir.oracle(
        mcx_mat,
        system_idx = m_register
    )

```

```

    )

    for q in flips: cir.x(q)

for pattern in generate_bit_strings:
    flips = [m_register[j] for j in range(2, 2+m)]

    for q in flips: cir.x(q)

    cir.oracle(
        mcx_mat,
        system_idx = m_register,
    )

    for q in flips: cir.x(q)

```

## Encode constraints vector

To impart a phase  $(-1)^{v \cdot y}$ , we perform a Pauli- $Z$  on each qubit for which  $v_i = 1$ . This is simply a conditional operation within a for loop in the `phase_Z` function. Let's now implement this step, together with the weight uncomputation, in a function `encode_v`, and output the resulting quantum state.

```

def encode_v(m):
    cir = Circuit(2 + m + n)
    weight_register = [0,1]
    m_register = list(range(2, 2+m))

```

```

        uncompute_weight_to_zero(cir,
                                   phase_Z(cir, v, error_start=2

    return cir

cir2 = encode_v(m)
state = cir2(state)
print(state)

```

Backend: default-pure System dimension: [2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2] System sequence: [6, 4, 2, 3, 5, 0, 1, 7, 8, 9, 10] [0.44+0.j 0. +0.j 0. +0.j ... 0. +0.j 0. +0.j 0. +0.j]

## Encode matrix $B$ in the syndrome register

We are almost finished, hang in there! Now, we need to compute  $B^T \mathbf{y}$  in the syndrome register. While it may not be immediately obvious how to implement this as a unitary operation, the binary nature of the matrix and vector allows for a smooth translation. This operation can be realized using CNOT gates, with controls on the error register and targets on the syndrome register[1]. Specifically, a CNOT is applied for every entry  $B_{ij}^T = 1$ , controlled on the  $j$ -th qubit

of the error register and with the  $i$ -th qubit of the syndrome register as the target. Let's implement this in the quantum function `syndrome_prep`.

```
def B_T_multiplication(cir, B_T, m_local, n_local):
    for row_idx in range(n_local):
        for col_idx in range(m_local):
            if B_T[row_idx, col_idx] == 1:
                cir.cnot([error_register, row_idx], [syndrome_register, col_idx])

def syndrome_prep_circuit():
    cir = Circuit(n+m+2)
    B_T = B.T
    B_T_multiplication(cir, B_T, m, n)
    return cir

cir3 = syndrome_prep_circuit()
state = cir3(state)
```

## Decoding

This step is the main challenge of the algorithm: uncomputing the error register  $y$  using the information from the syndrome register  $s = B^T y$  in an efficient way. This would be an easy task if  $B$  were always a square matrix; however, since it is not, we need to solve an underdetermined linear

system of equations  $\mathbf{s} = B^T \mathbf{y}$  subject to the constraint  $|\mathbf{y}| \leq \ell$  given by the known Hamming weights of  $\mathbf{y}$ . The problem we have just described is precisely the syndrome decoding problem, where  $B^T$  is the parity-check matrix,  $\mathbf{s}$  is the syndrome, and  $\mathbf{y}$  is the error.

The kernel of  $B^T$  defines an error-correcting code. The distance  $d$  of this code determines the number of errors it can correct, given by  $\lfloor (d - 1)/2 \rfloor$ . This condition ensures that the decoding problem has a unique solution. For this demo, we choose  $\ell = 2$  such that it is less than half the distance of the code  $d = 5$  and this condition is met. For a detailed discussion of the restrictions on  $\ell$ , please refer to the original paper[1].

To keep things simple, we will use a straightforward approach for decoding by building a Lookup Table (LUT) where we compute the syndrome for each possible error using the classical function `syndrome_LUT`. While this function might look daunting, it is simply calculating a product between a matrix and a vector, and storing the results in a usable format. (Feel free to explore other decoders such as belief propagation.)

Then, for each syndrome in the syndrome register, the corresponding error is uncomputed in the error register using controlled bit-flip operations. We will now integrate this into our decoding quantum function and see how the syndrome register is uncomputed.

```
def syndrome_LUT(parity_check_mat
    """Generates the Lookup table
    num_data_qubits = parity_chec
    syndrome_dict = {}

    for i in range(2**num_data_qu
        error_bitstring = format(
        error_vector = torch.tens

        syndrome_vector = torch.m
        syndrome_bitstring = "".j

        if syndrome_bitstring not
            syndrome_dict[syndrom
        else:
            existing_error = synd
            existing_weight = sum
            current_weight = sum(
            if current_weight < e
                syndrome_dict[syn

    # Convert to list-of-lists
    lookup_matrix = []
    for syndrome_str, error_str i
        syndrome_list = [int(bit)
        error_list = [int(bit) fo
```

```

        lookup_matrix.append([syndrome, error])

    # Sort by syndrome
    lookup_matrix.sort(key=lambda x: x[0])

    return lookup_matrix

# Generate the lookup table
decoding_table = syndrome_LUT(B.T)

def decoding(m, n, previous_state):
    """Quantum circuit decoding algorithm"""
    total_systems = m + n + num_wires
    cir = Circuit(total_systems)

    # Uncompute syndrome register
    error_idx = list(range(2, 2 + num_wires))
    syndrome_idx = list(range(2 + num_wires, 2 + num_wires + num_wires))

    for syndrome, error in decoding_table:
        for i in range(len(error)):
            if error[i] == 1:
                # Flips for control
                flips = [syndrome_idx[i]]

                # Pre-flip: Apply X gates to control qubits
                for wire in flips:
                    cir.x(wire)

                # Build and apply multi-controlled NOT
                num_controls = len(flips)
                mcx_mat = mcx_mat_builder(num_controls)
                qubits_idx = syndrome_idx[:num_controls]
                cir.oracle(mcx_mat, qubits_idx, syndrome_idx[num_controls])

    # Post-flip: Restore original state of syndrome register

```

```

        for wire in flips:
            cir.x(wire)

    # Execute on previous_state
    state = cir(previous_state)

    return state

# Usage (assuming raw_state_vector)
state = decoding(m, n, state)
print(state)

```

Backend: default-pure System dimension: [2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2] System sequence: [7, 8, 9, 10, 5, 3, 4, 2, 6, 0, 1] [0.44+0.j 0. +0.j 0. +0.j ... 0. +0.j 0. +0.j 0. +0.j]

## Hadamard transform and sample

After the previous step, we obtained the Hadamard transform of the state we are looking for. The final step is to apply the Hadamard transform to this state to obtain  $|P(f)\rangle = \sum_{\mathbf{x}} P(f(\mathbf{x})) |\mathbf{x}\rangle$ . Let us write a DQI quantum function containing all the steps of the algorithm previously described.

```
def Hadamard(previous_state):
```

```

total_systems = 2 + m + n
cir = Circuit(total_systems)

for q in range(2 + m, 2 + m +
               cir.h(q)

state = cir(previous_state)

traced_state = partial_trace(

return traced_state

```

We will collect samples, calculate their objective values, and build a histogram to compare with the random sampling done at the beginning of the demo.

```

state = Hadamard(state)
prob = state.measure()

for i, p in enumerate(prob):
    bitstring = format(i, f"0{n}b")
    print(f"x = {bitstring} → p(x)

samples_dict = prob_sample(prob,

f_x_array_dqi = []

for bitstring, counts in samples_
    num = int(counts.item())
    x_bits = torch.tensor([int(b)
    fx = objective_function(x_bits

```

```

f_x_array_dqi.extend([fx] * n)

plt.figure(figsize=(6, 4))
plt.hist(f_x_array_random, bins=30)
plt.hist(f_x_array_dqi, bins=30)

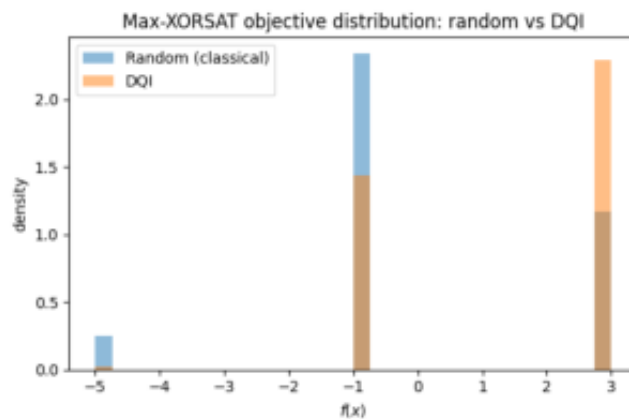
plt.xlabel(r"$f(x)$")
plt.ylabel("density")
plt.title("Max-XORSAT objective distribution")
plt.legend()
plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()

```

```

x = 0000 → p(x) = 0.028846
x = 0001 → p(x) = 0.028846
x = 0010 → p(x) = 0.028846
x = 0011 → p(x) = 0.028846
x = 0100 → p(x) = 0.006015
x = 0101 → p(x) = 0.006015
x = 0110 → p(x) = 0.006015
x = 0111 → p(x) = 0.006015
x = 1000 → p(x) = 0.028846
x = 1001 → p(x) = 0.028846
x = 1010 → p(x) = 0.028846
x = 1011 → p(x) = 0.028846
x = 1100 → p(x) = 0.186293
x = 1101 → p(x) = 0.186293
x = 1110 → p(x) = 0.186293
x = 1111 → p(x) = 0.186293

```



# References

[1] Jordan, Stephen P., et al. “Optimization by decoded quantum interferometry.” Nature 646.8086 (2025): 831-836.

[2] Bärtschi, Andreas, and Stephan Eidenbenz. “Deterministic preparation of Dicke states.” International Symposium on Fundamentals of Computation Theory. Cham: Springer International Publishing, 2019.

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