Quantum Fourier Transform and Quantum Phase Estimation

P471: Quantum Computation and Quantum Information

Authors:

Mrinali Mohanty, 2011091 Varun Subudhi, 2011188 Hudha P M, 2011071

May 9, 2024

Contents

Introduction			2
1	Introduction 1.1 Fourier Transform 1.1.1 Fourier Transform of a Gaussian function 1.2 Discrete Fourier transform 1.3 Quantum Fourier Transform (QFT) 1.3.1 Basics to understand QFT 1.3.2 Mathematical derivation 1.3.3 Making the circuit 1.4 Quantum Phase Estimation (QPE) 1.4.1 Working Principle		. 2 . 3 . 4 . 4 . 5
2	 Numerical Procedures and Computational Setup 2.1 Qiskit Implementation 2.1.1 Qiskit 2.2 Execution of Algorithms 		. 6
3	B Results		6

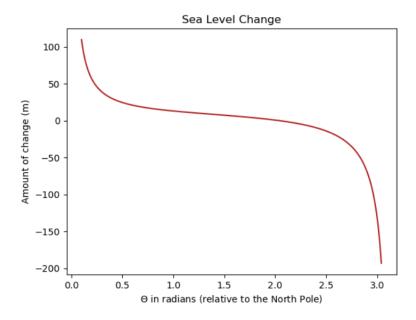


Figure 1: A graph of something.

1 Introduction

1.1 Fourier Transform

Fourier transform (FT) is an integral transform that takes a function as input and outputs another function that describes the extent to which various components of Fourier basis are present in the original function. The Fourier transform takes us from one basis to another, for example, from position to momentum or from time to frequency. It is defined by:

$$g(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)e^{i\omega t}dt \tag{1}$$

For analyzing a signal in time basis, the Fourier transform breaks down a function or signal into its sinusoidal parts with different frequencies. It represents a function f(t) in terms of its frequency spectrum $g(\omega)$, where ω is the angular frequency. This is done by using complex exponential functions $e^{i\omega t}$, oscillating at different frequencies. Integrating the signal with these complex exponentials over time gives the amplitude and phase of each frequency component present in the signal. Translation (i.e. delay) in the time domain is interpreted as complex phase shifts in the frequency domain. Functions concentrated in time spread out in frequency, and vice versa, a concept known as the uncertainty principle. For example, the Fourier transform of a Gaussian function is another Gaussian function. Let's check that in subsubsection 1.1.1. We are using the classical form of the Fourier transform, applicable to continuous, time-domain signals. It converts a function of time into a function of frequency.

1.1.1 Fourier Transform of a Gaussian function

Gaussian function has the following form:

$$f(t) = ae^{-(t-b)^2/2c^2} (2)$$

where a, b, and c are arbitrary constants representing the height of the curve's peak, the peak's position, and the distribution's width (standard deviation), respectively.

From Equation 1, its Fourier transform is:

$$g(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)e^{i\omega t}dt = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} ae^{-(t-b)^2/2c^2} e^{i\omega t}dt$$

$$\text{Let } \frac{t-b}{\sqrt{2}c} = y \implies dy = \frac{dx}{\sqrt{2}c}$$

$$g(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} ae^{-y^2} e^{i\omega(\sqrt{2}yc+b)} dy\sqrt{2}c$$
(3)

$$\begin{split} g(\omega) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} a e^{-(y^2 - i\omega\sqrt{2}yc)} e^{i\omega b} dy \sqrt{2}c \\ y^2 &- \frac{i\omega yc}{\sqrt{2}} = y^2 - \frac{i\omega yc}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{\omega^2c^2}{2} + \frac{\omega^2c^2}{2} = \left(y - \frac{i\omega c}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 \\ g(\omega) &= \frac{\sqrt{2}ca}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{i\omega b} e^{-\omega^2c^2/2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(y - i\omega yc/\sqrt{2})^2} dy \\ & \text{Let } y - \frac{i\omega yc}{\sqrt{2}} = z \implies dy = dz \\ g(\omega) &= \frac{ca}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{i\omega b} e^{-\omega^2c^2/2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-z^2} dz \\ g(\omega) &= \frac{ca}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{i\omega b} e^{-\omega^2c^2/2} \sqrt{\pi} \\ g(\omega) &= ca e^{i\omega b} e^{-\omega^2c^2/2} \end{split}$$

Thus, the Fourier transform of a Gaussian function results in another Gaussian function. The peak position of the Fourier-transformed Gaussian will be at origin. An oscillatory phase factor $e^{i\omega b}$ encodes the displacement of the peak from the origin in position space. The pulse width (standard deviation) of the Fourier-transformed Gaussian is inversely proportional to the pulse width of the original Gaussian. The amplitude of the Fourier-transformed Gaussian is scaled by a factor compared to the original Gaussian. This scaling ensures that the area under the curve is preserved during the transformation.

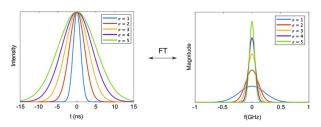


Figure 2: Fourier Transform of a Gaussian function

1.2 Discrete Fourier transform

Due to the use of digital computers, the continuum of values is replaced by a discrete set, and the integration is replaced by a summation. Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) converts a finite sequence of equally-spaced samples of a function into another sequence of equally-spaced samples. Consider a set of N time values:

$$t_k = \frac{kT}{N}, k = 0, 1..., N - 1$$

The reciprocal space, ω space, can be represented by:

$$\omega_p = \frac{2\pi p}{T}, p == 0, 1.., N - 1$$

So, the function of time in discrete space undergoes DFT to give the function of frequency as shown:

$$g(\omega_p) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{0}^{N-1} f(t_k) e^{i\omega_p t_k} \tag{4}$$

And the inverse DFT is done by:

$$f(t_k) = \sum_{0}^{N-1} g(\omega_p) e^{-i\omega_p t_k}$$
(5)

 $f(t_k)$ and $g(\omega_p)$ are discrete Fourier transforms of each other.

The DFT is widely used in digital signal processing for spectral analysis, filtering, and modulation tasks. It allows us to analyze the frequency components present in a discrete signal.

1.3 Quantum Fourier Transform (QFT)

QFT is effectively a change of basis from the computational basis to the Fourier basis. For 1 qubit, the computational basis is $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$, and the Fourier basis is $|+\rangle$ and $|-\rangle$. These states can be represented in a Bloch sphere, with $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ in the z-axis and $|+\rangle$ and $|-\rangle$ in the equator. So, when we do QFT, we go from top/bottom to being on the equator.

1.3.1 Basics to understand QFT

Qubits can be represented by states $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$.

$$|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix}; |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\1 \end{pmatrix};$$

The quantum states can be manipulated by quantum gates. Gates relevant to our topic are listed below:

• Hadamard gate: It converts $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ states to $|+\rangle$ and $|-\rangle$ states, which are superposition of $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ states.

$$H=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\begin{pmatrix}1&1\\1&-1\end{pmatrix}$$

$$H|0\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle+|1\rangle)=|+\rangle \text{ and } H|1\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle-|1\rangle)=|-\rangle$$

• X-gate: It rotates the state by 1800 about the x-axis

$$X=\begin{pmatrix}0&1\\1&0\end{pmatrix}$$

$$X|0\rangle=|1\rangle \text{ and } X|1\rangle=|0\rangle$$

• $UROT_k$ gate: It rotates the state by an angle $2\pi i/2^k$ around the z-axis and is controlled by another set of qubits.

$$U=\begin{pmatrix}1&0\\0&e^{2\pi i/2^k}\end{pmatrix}$$

$$UROT_k|0\rangle=|0\rangle \text{ and } UROT_k|1\rangle=e^{2\pi i/2^k}|1\rangle$$

1.3.2 Mathematical derivation

Let's consider n-qubits, which means there are $N=2^n$ basis states. Similar to the DFT, the QFT acts on a quantum state in computational basis to take it to Fourier basis. This can be expressed as:

$$\left| \tilde{X} \right\rangle = QFT \left| X \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{Y=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i \frac{XY}{N}} \left| Y \right\rangle \tag{6}$$

The tilde (\sim) are used to denote the states in Fourier basis.

If $|X\rangle=\sum_{j=0}^{N-1}\alpha_j\,|j\rangle$ and maps it to the quantum state $|Y\rangle=\sum_{k=0}^{N-1}\beta_k\,|k\rangle$. In the QFT, we do a DFT on the amplitudes of a quantum state:

$$\sum_{i} \alpha_{j} |j\rangle \to \sum_{k} \beta_{k} |k\rangle \text{ with } \beta_{k} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i \frac{jk}{N}} \alpha_{j}$$
 (7)

This can also be expressed by mapping of basis:

$$|j\rangle \to \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i \frac{jk}{N}} |k\rangle$$
 (8)

A unitary matrix can represent the above. The matrix is given as:

$$U_{QFT} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j,k=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i \frac{jk}{N}} |k\rangle \langle j|$$

$$\tag{9}$$

For a single qubit, H-gate does the QFT, and it transforms between the Z-basis states $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ to the Fourier basis states $|+\rangle$ and $|-\rangle$.

For n-qubits, $|x\rangle = |x_1...x_n\rangle$ where x_1 is the most significant bit. It can be represented in binary as:

$$\begin{split} x &= 2^{n-1}x_1 + 2^{n-2}x_2 + \ldots + 2^0x_n = \sum_{k=1}^n x_k 2^{n-k} \\ QFT \, |x\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i x y/N} \, |y\rangle \ \, \text{where, } N = 2^n \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i x \sum_{k=1}^n y_k 2^{n-k}/2^n} \, |y\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} \Pi_{k=1}^n e^{2\pi i y_k x/2^k} \, |y_1 \ldots y_n\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{y_1=0}^1 \ldots \sum_{y_n=0}^1 \Pi_{k=1}^n e^{2\pi i y_k x/2^k} \, |y_1 \ldots y_n\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \Pi_{k=1}^n \sum_{y_1=0}^1 e^{2\pi i y_1 x/2^1} \, |y_1\rangle \otimes \ldots \otimes \sum_{y_n=0}^1 e^{2\pi i y_n x/2^n} \, |y_n\rangle \\ &\Longrightarrow QFT_N \, |x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \bigotimes_{k=1}^n (|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i x/2^k} \, |1\rangle) \end{split}$$

$$QFT_N |x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} (|0\rangle + e^{2\pi ix/2} |1\rangle) \otimes (|0\rangle + e^{2\pi ix/2^2} |1\rangle) \otimes \dots \otimes (|0\rangle + e^{2\pi ix/2^{n-1}} |1\rangle) \otimes (|0\rangle + e^{2\pi ix/2^n} |1\rangle)$$

1.3.3 Making the circuit

From the above calculation, we can see that the phase is qubit-dependent, and we need to add more components with more "1"s. For this, Hadamard and $UROT_k$ gates are used. The circuit is given in Figure 3

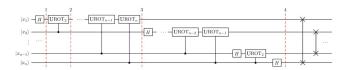


Figure 3: A circuit implementing the quantum Fourier transform.

As the QFT circuit size grows, more time is consumed by progressively smaller rotations. Thus, ignoring rotations below a certain threshold still yields satisfactory results. This is known as approximate QFT, and it is significant in physical setups, where minimizing operations can significantly mitigate decoherence and potential gate errors.

1.4 Quantum Phase Estimation (QPE)

Quantum Phase Estimation (QPE) is a quantum algorithm designed to estimate the eigenvalues of unitary operators, representing the phases acquired by quantum states under these operators' action.

1.4.1 Working Principle

1. QPE begins with an eigenvector of a unitary operator U and its corresponding eigenvalue ϕ . The algorithm takes U and $|\psi\rangle$ as inputs, where U acts on $|\psi\rangle$ as U $|\psi\rangle = e^{2\pi i \phi} |\psi\rangle$.

- 2. A quantum circuit is constructed to prepare an ancillary qubit in a superposition of states, representing different estimates of the phase ϕ . This involves applying controlled-unitary operations, with the number of controls increasing in each step.
- 3. The phase ϕ is encoded into the state of the ancillary qubit via phase kickback, occurring during the controlled-unitary operations.
- 4. QPE applies an inverse Quantum Fourier Transform to the ancillary qubits, transforming the phase-encoded state into a superposition of computational basis states, where the probability amplitudes correspond to estimates of the phase ϕ .
- 5. Finally, the ancillary qubits representing the phase information are measured, yielding an estimate of the phase ϕ with high probability, typically in the form of a binary fraction.

Quantum Phase Estimation (QPE) is pivotal in quantum computing, finding applications in various fields. In Shor's algorithm, QPE efficiently determines the period of a function, aiding in the factorization of large composite numbers—an arduous task for classical computers. Moreover, in quantum chemistry, QPE estimates molecular system energies, contributing to research in quantum chemistry and materials science. Furthermore, QPE facilitates quantum simulation by estimating Hamiltonian operator eigenvalues, enabling the exploration of complex quantum phenomena and simulating quantum system time evolution.

2 Numerical Procedures and Computational Setup

2.1 Qiskit Implementation

2.1.1 **Qiskit**

Qiskit, developed by IBM, is an open-source quantum computing software framework. It offers tools for designing quantum circuits, algorithms, and simulators, along with access to real quantum hardware via the IBM Quantum Experience platform. Utilizing a Python-based high-level programming language, users can specify quantum gates, qubit operations, and measurements to construct quantum algorithms. Qiskit's built-in simulators allow users to simulate quantum circuit behavior, aiding in testing and debugging before deploying algorithms on real quantum hardware. Through the IBM Quantum Experience platform, users gain access to various quantum processors with different qubit counts and error rates, facilitating quantum experimentation and research.

2.2 Execution of Algorithms

(Circuits with their Executions and Outputs can be accessed in the GitHub links.) Link to the Repository: https://github.com/MrinaliMohanty/QIQC-Project-

3 Results

Our project successfully executed the quantum Fourier transform (QFT) and quantum phase estimation (QPE) algorithms, constructing quantum circuits using Qiskit. To verify circuit accuracy, various tests were conducted. In the QFT circuit, a Gaussian function served as input, producing a Gaussian function as output. Even with changes in the mean position, the peak of the Fourier-transformed Gaussian remained at zero. Increasing the input Gaussian's standard deviation led to a corresponding increase in the Fourier-transformed Gaussian's amplitude, consistent with analytical calculations.

By applying an input state to the QPE circuit, the global phase of the state was determined from the probability distribution. Increasing the number of gubits resulted in enhanced precision in phase estimation.