

Quantum Computation

(Lecture 4)

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Quantum algorithms

The use of **superposition** as a basic quantum resource has been essential for all algorithms studied until now, illustrating

- the **phase kick-back** technique (**Deutsch-Jozsa**)
- the **phase amplification** technique (**Grover**)

Superposition introduces '**quantum parallelism**', whose miracle is, to a great extent, only apparent.

Actually, the result of the calculation is not the set of all 2^n evaluations of f : those evaluations **characterize the form of the state** that **describes the output of the computation**.

Quantum algorithms

What works indeed?

- What remains is the fact that the random selection of x , for which $f(x)$ can be learned, is made only **after** the computation has been carried out.
- Note that asserting that the selection was made **before** the computation corresponds to look at a superposition as merely a probabilistic phenomenon (i.e. the qubit described by a superposition is actually in one or the other of the basis states).
- Further computation makes possible to **extract useful information about relations** between several different values of x , which a classical computer could get only by making several independent evaluations.

Quantum algorithms

What works indeed?

- The price to be paid is the loss of the possibility of learning the actual value $f(x)$ for any individual x — cf Heisenberg **uncertainty** principle.
- cf the mistaken view that the quantum state encodes a property inherent to the qubits: it rather encodes only the **possibilities** available for the extraction of information from them.

Two further warming up algorithms

1. **Bernstein-Vazirani** algorithm
2. **Simon's** algorithm, bridging to the **quantum Fourier transform** and the **hidden subgroup problem**. (to be discussed in the next lecture)

The Bernstein-Vazirani algorithm

The problem

Let w be an unknown non-negative integer less than 2^n , encoded as a bit string, and consider a function which hides secret w as follows:

$f(x) = x \cdot w$, where

$$x \cdot w = x_1 w_1 \oplus x_2 w_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus x_n w_n$$

i.e. the bitwise product of x and w , modulo 2.

How many times one has to call f to determine w ?

- Classically, n times: the n values $2^m \cdot w$, for $0 \leq m < n$. Actually for each 1 in position i ,

$$f(00 \cdots 1_i \cdots 0) = w_i$$

- In a quantum computer a **single** invocation is enough, regardless of the number n of bits.

The Bernstein-Vazirani algorithm

The components

- An **oracle** $U_f|x\rangle|z\rangle = |x\rangle|z \oplus f(x)\rangle$, which when applied to $|x\rangle|-\rangle$ transforms $|x\rangle|-\rangle$ into $(-1)^{f(x)}|x\rangle|-\rangle$ (as used in the Deutsch-Jozsa algorithm.)
- **Superposition**

$$\begin{aligned} H^{\otimes n}|x\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{y_n=0}^1 \cdots \sum_{y_1=0}^1 (-1)^{\sum_{j=1}^n x_j y_j} |y_n\rangle \cdots |y_1\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{y=0}^{2^n-1} (-1)^{x \cdot y} |y\rangle_n \end{aligned}$$

recalling that

$$H|x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + (-1)^x|1\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{y=0}^1 (-1)^{xy} |y\rangle$$

Putting everything together

$$\begin{aligned}
 & (H^{\otimes n} \otimes H) U_f (H^{\otimes n} \otimes H) |0\rangle|1\rangle \\
 &= (H^{\otimes n} \otimes H) U_f \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} |x\rangle \right) |- \rangle \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} H^{\otimes n} \left(\sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} (-1)^{f(x)} |x\rangle \right) H |- \rangle \\
 &= \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} \sum_{y=0}^{2^n-1} (-1)^{f(x)} (-1)^{x \cdot y} |y\rangle |1\rangle \\
 &= \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} \sum_{y=0}^{2^n-1} (-1)^{x \cdot w \oplus x \cdot y} |y\rangle |1\rangle \\
 &= \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} \sum_{y=0}^{2^n-1} (-1)^{x \cdot (w \oplus y)} |y\rangle |1\rangle \\
 &= |w\rangle |1\rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

Putting everything together

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \dots \\
 &= \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} \sum_{y=0}^{2^n-1} (-1)^{x \cdot (w \oplus y)} |y\rangle |1\rangle \\
 &= \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

For each y , $(-1)^{x \cdot (w \oplus y)}$ is 1 iff $(w \oplus y) = 0$, which happens only if

$$w = y$$

In all other cases $(-1)^{x \cdot (w \oplus y)}$ is 0 .

Thus, the only non zero amplitude is the one associated to w .

The Bernstein-Vazirani algorithm: another explanation

The explanation of the algorithm is based, as usual, on the combination

quantum parallelism + suitable manipulation of the resulting
superposition

... but, in a sense, this is just [an explanation](#) ...

Let us see a different, simpler one (due to David Mermin)

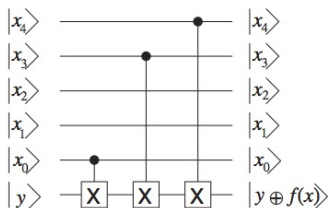
The Bernstein-Vazirani algorithm: another explanation

Observe that some **oracles can be implemented by simple circuits**.

- In this case, the action of U_f on the computational basis is to flip the 1 qubit target register once, whenever a bit of x and the corresponding bit of w are both 1.
- Put one CNOT for each nonzero bit of w , controlled by the qubit representing the corresponding bit of x .
- Their combined effect on every computational basis state is precisely that of U_f .

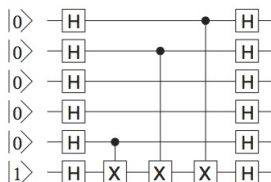
The Bernstein-Vazirani algorithm: another explanation

Example of the encoding for $w = 11001$



The Bernstein-Vazirani algorithm: another explanation

Enveloping U_f into the algorithm



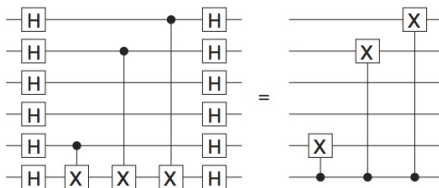
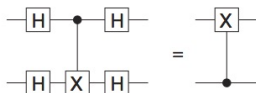
The effect is to convert every CNOT gate in the equivalent representation of U_f from C_{ij} to

$$C_{ji} = (H_i H_j) C_{ij} (H_i H_j)$$

reversing the target and control qubits.

The Bernstein-Vazirani algorithm: another explanation

Actually,



The Bernstein-Vazirani algorithm: another explanation

Thus

- After the reversal, the target register controls every one of the CNOT gates, and since the state of the target register is $|1\rangle$, every one of the NOT operators acts.
- That action flips just those qubits of the control register for which the corresponding bit of w is 1.
- Since the control register starts in the state $|0\rangle$, this changes the state of each qubit of the control to $|1\rangle$, iff it corresponds to a nonzero bit of w .
- Thus, in the end, the state of the input register changes from $|0\rangle$ to $|w\rangle$.