QUANTUM COMPUTATION AND QUANTUM INFORMATION: THE QUANTUM FOURIER TRANSFORM

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We consider the linear map in \mathbb{C}^N which acts on the computational basis as

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

Let A be the matrix of the transformation in the computational basis.

$$\forall (k,l) \in [0, N-1]^2, \quad a_{kl} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} e^{\frac{2i\pi kl}{N}}$$

The adjoint matrix A^{\dagger} is then

$$\forall (k,l) \in [0, N-1]^2, \quad b_{kl} = a_{lk}^*$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} e^{-\frac{2i\pi kl}{N}}$$

We compute the coefficient k, l of the product AA^{\dagger} :

$$\begin{split} \forall (k,l) \in [\![0,N-1]\!]^2, \quad c_{kl} &= \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} a_{kj} b_{jl} \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} e^{\frac{2i\pi j}{N}(k-l)} \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} (e^{\frac{2i\pi}{N}(k-l)})^j \\ &= \begin{cases} \frac{1}{N} \frac{1 - (e^{\frac{2i\pi}{N}(k-l)})^N}{1 - e^{\frac{2i\pi}{N}(k-l)}} = 0 & \text{if } e^{\frac{2i\pi}{N}(k-l)} \neq 1, \\ 1 & \text{if } e^{\frac{2i\pi}{N}(k-l)} = 1. \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k \neq l, \\ 1 & \text{if } k = l. \end{cases} \\ &= \delta_{kl} \end{split}$$

which shows that $AA^{\dagger} = A^{\dagger}A = I$ i.e. A is unitary.

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Here the dimension of the state space is $N=2^n$. The Fourier transform of the n qubit state $|00...0\rangle$ is

$$A|0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} |k\rangle$$

we can write k in binary $k_{n-1} \dots k_1 k_0$

$$A|0\rangle = \frac{1}{2^{n/2}} \sum_{k_0, k_1, \dots, k_{n-1} = 0}^{1} |k_{n-1} \dots k_1 k_0\rangle$$

or in product representation,

$$= \frac{1}{2^{n/2}} \underbrace{(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \dots (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)}_{\substack{n \text{ qubits}}}$$

Let $N=2^n$ and $Y=(y_k)_{k\in \llbracket 0,N-1\rrbracket}$ be the classical fourier transform of $X=(x_k)_{k\in \llbracket 0,N-1\rrbracket}$.

$$\forall k \in [0, N-1], \quad y_k = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} e^{\frac{2i\pi kj}{2^n}} x_j$$

The factor $\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}$ is omitted for clarity. We can write j in binary $j_{n-1} \dots j_1 j_0$

$$y_{k} = \sum_{j_{0}, j_{1}, \dots, j_{n-1} = 0}^{1} e^{\frac{2i\pi k(2^{n-1}j_{n-1} + \dots + 2j_{1} + j_{0})}{2^{n}}} x_{j}$$

$$= \sum_{j_{1}, \dots, j_{n-1} = 0}^{1} e^{\frac{2i\pi k(2^{n-1}j_{n-1} + \dots + 2j_{1})}{2^{n}}} x_{j_{n-1} \dots j_{1}0} + \sum_{j_{1}, \dots, j_{n-1} = 0}^{1} e^{\frac{2i\pi k(2^{n-1}j_{n-1} + \dots + 2j_{1} + 1)}{2^{n}}} x_{j_{n-1} \dots j_{1}1}$$

$$= \sum_{j_{1}, \dots, j_{n-1} = 0}^{1} e^{\frac{2i\pi k(2^{n-1}j_{n-1} + \dots + 2j_{1})}{2^{n}}} x_{j_{n-1} \dots j_{1}0} + e^{\frac{2i\pi k}{2^{n}}} \sum_{j_{1}, \dots, j_{n-1} = 0}^{1} e^{\frac{2i\pi k(2^{n-1}j_{n-1} + \dots + 2j_{1})}{2^{n}}} x_{j_{n-1} \dots j_{1}1}$$

$$= \sum_{j_{1}, \dots, j_{n-1} = 0}^{1} e^{\frac{2i\pi k(2^{n-2}j_{n-1} + \dots + j_{1})}{2^{n-1}}} x_{j_{n-1} \dots j_{1}0} + e^{\frac{2i\pi k}{2^{n}}} \sum_{j_{1}, \dots, j_{n-1} = 0}^{1} e^{\frac{2i\pi k(2^{n-2}j_{n-1} + \dots + j_{1})}{2^{n-1}}} x_{j_{n-1} \dots j_{1}1}$$

We see the first sum is the k^{th} coefficient of the FT of the sequence $(x_{2k})_{k \in [0,N/2-1]}$ and the second is the k^{th} coefficient of the FT of $(x_{2k+1})_{k \in [0,N/2-1]}$. This shows that to compute FT of sequence of length N, we have to compute 2 FT of sequence of length $\frac{N}{2}$ and do 2N complex additions/multiplications. The complexity of the operation T(N) follows the recurrence:

$$T(N) = 2T(\frac{N}{2}) + 2N$$

We can use the Master theorem ¹:

Theorem. Let $a \ge 1$ and b > 1 be constants, let f(n) be a function, and let T(n) be defined on the non negative integers by the recurrence

$$T(n) = aT(\frac{n}{h}) + f(n)$$

where we interpret $\frac{n}{h}$ to mean either $\lfloor \frac{n}{h} \rfloor$ or $\lceil \frac{n}{h} \rceil$. Then T(n) has the following asymptotic bounds:

- (1) If $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a \epsilon})$ for some constant $\epsilon > 0$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$.
- (2) If $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n)$.
- (3) If $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \epsilon})$ for some constant $\epsilon > 0$, and if $af(\frac{n}{b}) \leqslant cf(n)$ for some constant c < 1 and n sufficiently large, then $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.

Here we are in the second case of the theorem, so $T(N) = \Theta(N \log(N)) = \Theta(n2^n)$.

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The inverse Fourier Transform

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

is the adjoint of the Fourier Transform. The quantum circuit of figure $\ref{eq:condition}$ is obtained from the FT's circuit, replacing each R_k gate by its adjoint

$$R_k^{\dagger} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-\frac{2i\pi}{2^k}} \end{bmatrix}$$

¹Thomas H. Cormen and Charles E. Leiserson: Introduction to algorithms, MIT Press (2009)



FIGURE 1. Quantum circuit for IFT.



FIGURE 2. Sequence of controlled U.

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In figure $\ref{eq:controlled-V}$, the t qubits of the first register are prepared with $|j\rangle = |j_{t-1}\dots j_1 j_0\rangle$, the second register is prepared with some state $|u\rangle$. After the first controlled-U operation, the state is $|j\rangle |U^{j_02^0}u\rangle$. After the second controlled-U, the state is $|j\rangle |U^{j_12^1}U^{j_02^0}u\rangle = |j\rangle |U^{j_02^0+j_12^1}u\rangle$ and so on. The final state is $|j\rangle |U^{j_02^0+j_12^1+\dots+j_{t-1}2^{t-1}}u\rangle = |j\rangle |U^ju\rangle$.

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By linearity, the phase estimation algorithm takes input $|0\rangle |\Sigma_{u \in A} c_u |u\rangle$, where A is some orthonormal basis of eigenstates of U, to output $\sum_{u \in A} c_u |\widetilde{\varphi_u}\rangle |u\rangle$, where $\widetilde{\varphi_u}$ is an estimation of the phase of the eigenvalue associated with eigenstate u. If we fix $u_0 \in A$ beforehand, the probability to measure $\widetilde{\varphi_{u_0}}$ when measuring the first register in the computational basis is

$$\begin{split} (\sum_{u \in A} c_u^* \left\langle \widetilde{\varphi_u} \middle| \left\langle u \middle| \right) P_{\widetilde{\varphi_{u_0}}} \otimes I(\sum_{u \in A} c_u \left| \widetilde{\varphi_u} \right\rangle \middle| u \right\rangle) &= (\sum_{u \in A} c_u^* \left\langle \widetilde{\varphi_u} \middle| \left\langle u \middle| \right) (\sum_{\substack{u \in A \\ \widetilde{\varphi_u} = \widetilde{\varphi_{u_0}}}} c_u \left| \widetilde{\varphi_u} \right\rangle \middle| u \right\rangle) \\ &= (\sum_{u \in A} c_u^* \left\langle \widetilde{\varphi_u} \middle| \left\langle u \middle| \right) (\sum_{\substack{u \in A \\ \widetilde{\varphi_u} = \widetilde{\varphi_{u_0}}}} c_u \left| \widetilde{\varphi_{u_0}} \right\rangle \middle| u \right\rangle) \\ &= \sum_{\substack{v \in A \\ \widetilde{\varphi_u} = \widetilde{\varphi_{u_0}} \\ \widetilde{\varphi_{u}} = \widetilde{\varphi_{u_0}}}} c_u^* c_u \left\langle \widetilde{\varphi_v} \middle| \widetilde{\varphi_u} \right\rangle \left\langle v \middle| u \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{\substack{u \in A \\ \widetilde{\varphi_u} = \widetilde{\varphi_{u_0}} \\ \widetilde{\varphi_u} = \widetilde{\varphi_{u_0}}}} |c_u|^2 \\ &\geqslant |c_{u_0}|^2 \end{split}$$

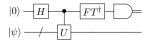


FIGURE 3. Phase estimation circuit with t = 1.

I is the identity operator of whatever state space U operates on, while $P_{\widetilde{\varphi_{u_0}}}$ is the orthonormal projector onto the space generated by the vector $|\widetilde{\varphi_{u_0}}\rangle$ of the computational basis. Besides, following the analysis of the book, $\widetilde{\varphi_{u_0}}$ is an approximation to φ_{u_0} to an accuracy 2^{-n} with probability at least $1-\epsilon$ if we make use of $t=n+\lceil\log(2+\frac{1}{2\epsilon})\rceil$ bits in the first register. We conclude we get the desired approximation of φ_{u_0} at the end of the phase estimation algorithm with probability at least $|c_{u_0}|^2(1-\epsilon)$.

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U being unitary with eigenvalues -1 and +1, the state space is the direct sum of the two orthogonal eigenspaces $E_{-1} \oplus E_1$. Thus we can uniquely decompose any $|\psi\rangle = |\psi_{-1}\rangle + |\psi_{+1}\rangle$, with $|\psi_{-1}\rangle \in E_{-1}$ ans $|\psi_{+1}\rangle \in E_{+1}$. Then $-1 = e^{i\pi} = e^{2i\pi 0.1}$ and $1 = e^0 = e^{2i\pi 0.0}$ shows that is is sufficient to make use of t=1 wire in the first register in the phase estimation procedure to read directly the phase of any eigenvector. If we use $|0\rangle |\psi\rangle$ as input in the circuit of figure ??, the output before the final measurement will be $|0\rangle |\psi_{+1}\rangle + |1\rangle |\psi_{-1}\rangle$.

When we measure the first register, we obtain 0 with probability

$$(\langle 0 | \langle \psi_{+1} | + \langle 1 | \langle \psi_{-1} |) P_0 \otimes I(|0\rangle | \psi_{+1}\rangle + |1\rangle | \psi_{-1}\rangle) = (\langle 0 | \langle \psi_{+1} | + \langle 1 | \langle \psi_{-1} |) (|0\rangle | \psi_{+1}\rangle)$$

$$= \langle 0 | 0 \rangle \langle \psi_{+1} | \psi_{+1}\rangle$$

$$= \langle \psi_{+1} | \psi_{+1}\rangle$$

or 1 with probability

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\left\langle 0 \right| \left\langle \psi_{+1} \right| + \left\langle 1 \right| \left\langle \psi_{-1} \right| \right) P_1 \otimes I(\left| 0 \right\rangle \left| \psi_{+1} \right\rangle + \left| 1 \right\rangle \left| \psi_{-1} \right\rangle \right) &= \left(\left\langle 0 \right| \left\langle \psi_{+1} \right| + \left\langle 1 \right| \left\langle \psi_{-1} \right| \right) (\left| 1 \right\rangle \left| \psi_{-1} \right\rangle \right) \\ &= \left\langle 1 \right| 1 \right\rangle \left\langle \psi_{-1} \left| \psi_{-1} \right\rangle \\ &= \left\langle \psi_{-1} \right| \psi_{-1} \right\rangle \end{aligned}$$

The state will collapse respectively into $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\langle \psi_{+1} | \psi_{+1} \rangle}} |0\rangle |\psi_{+1}\rangle$ or $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\langle \psi_{-1} | \psi_{-1} \rangle}} |1\rangle |\psi_{-1}\rangle$. Thus if we read 0 in the first register, that means that we have an eigenvector associated to eigenvalue +1 in the second register, and if we read 1 in the first register, that means that we have an eigenvector associated to eigenvalue -1 in the second register.

Once we have noticed that the FT in dimension $N = 2^1$ is just the Hadamard operator, we conclude the phase estimation circuit in this particular case is the just the same as the circuit of exercice 4.34.

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$$x^{2} = 25 = 4$$

$$x^{3} = 20 = -1$$

$$x^{4} = 4^{2} = 16$$

$$x^{5} = 16 \times 5 = 80$$

$$= 17$$

$$x^{6} = (-1)^{2} = 1$$
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Theorem (Euler). For $N \in \mathbb{N}^*$, let

$$\varphi(N) = \#\{m \in [1, N], m \land N = 1\}$$

We have

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{N}^*$$
, $x \wedge N = 1 \Rightarrow x^{\varphi(N)} = 1 \mod N$

Then by definition of the order $r, r \leq \varphi(N) \leq N$.

Since $x \wedge N = 1$, from Bezout's Theorem $\exists (u, v) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ such that ux + vN = 1 that is $\exists u$ such that ux = 1 mod N which shows that x has a multiplicative inverse $x^{-1} = u$ in the ring $(\frac{\mathbb{Z}}{N\mathbb{Z}}, +, \times)$. We define the linear map U' on $(\mathbb{C}^2)^{\otimes L} \cong \mathbb{C}^{2^L}$ that acts on the computational basis as

$$\forall y \in \{0,1\}^L, \quad U' \left| y \right\rangle = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \left| x^{-1}y \mod N \right\rangle & \text{if } y < N, \\ y & \text{if } y \in [\![N,2^L-1]\!]. \end{array} \right.$$

We have

$$\forall y_{1}, y_{2} \in \{0, 1\}^{L}, \quad \langle y_{1} | U(y_{2}) \rangle = 1 \Leftrightarrow y_{1} = y_{2} \in \llbracket N, 2^{L} - 1 \rrbracket \text{ or } (y_{1}, y_{2} < N \text{ and } xy_{2} = y_{1} \mod N)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow y_{1} = y_{2} \in \llbracket N, 2^{L} - 1 \rrbracket \text{ or } (y_{1}, y_{2} < N \text{ and } \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, xy_{2} = y_{1} + kN)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow y_{1} = y_{2} \in \llbracket N, 2^{L} - 1 \rrbracket \text{ or } (y_{1}, y_{2} < N \text{ and } \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, y_{2} = x^{-1}y_{1} + x^{-1}kN)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow y_{1} = y_{2} \in \llbracket N, 2^{L} - 1 \rrbracket \text{ or } (y_{1}, y_{2} < N \text{ and } \exists k' \in \mathbb{Z}, y_{2} = x^{-1}y_{1} + k'N)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow y_{1} = y_{2} \in \llbracket N, 2^{L} - 1 \rrbracket \text{ or } (y_{1}, y_{2} < N \text{ and } x^{-1}y_{1} = y_{2} \mod N)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \langle U'(y_{1}) | y_{2} \rangle = 1$$

so, since $\langle U'(y_1)|y_2\rangle$, $\langle y_1|U(y_2)\rangle \in \{0,1\}$,

$$\forall y_1, y_2 \in \{0, 1\}^L, \quad \langle y_1 | U(y_2) \rangle = \langle U'(y_1) | y_2 \rangle$$

This shows that $U' = U^{\dagger}$, since it is obvious that U is invertible and $U^{\dagger} = U^{-1}$, we have shown that U is unitary.

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 $(|u_s\rangle)_{s\in[0,r-1]}$ is defined to be the IFT of the sequence $(|x^k \mod N\rangle)_{k\in[0,r-1]}$:

$$\forall s \in [0, r-1], \quad |u_s\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} e^{-\frac{2i\pi sk}{r}} |x^k \mod N\rangle$$

Thus the equalities

$$\forall k \in [0, r-1], \quad |x^k \mod N\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} e^{\frac{2i\pi sk}{r}} |u_s\rangle$$

just express the fact that $(|x^k \mod N\rangle)_{k \in [0,r-1]}$ is the FT of the sequence $(|u_s\rangle)_{s \in [0,r-1]}$. Let's check this. Let $k \in [0,r-1]$,

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} e^{\frac{2i\pi sk}{r}} |u_s\rangle = \frac{1}{r} \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} e^{\frac{2i\pi sk}{r}} \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} e^{-\frac{2i\pi sj}{r}} |x^j \mod N\rangle
= \frac{1}{r} \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} (\sum_{s=0}^{r-1} (e^{\frac{2i\pi(k-j)}{r}})^s) |x^j \mod N\rangle
= \frac{1}{r} \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} r \delta_{jk} |x^j \mod N\rangle
= |x^k \mod N\rangle$$

For k = 0 we obtain

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} |u_s\rangle = |1\rangle$$

The easiest way is to think with the prime decomposition of the integers x and y. Let $d = x \wedge y$ and $m = x \vee y$. Let p_0, p_1, \ldots, p_n be the prime numbers which appear in either prime decomposition. We can write

$$x = p_0^{\alpha_0} p_1^{\alpha_1} \dots p_n^{\alpha_n}$$
$$y = p_0^{\beta_0} p_1^{\beta_1} \dots p_n^{\beta_n}$$

where $\alpha_i, \beta_i \in \mathbb{N}$. Then it is clear that

$$d = p_0^{\gamma_0} p_1^{\gamma_1} \dots p_n^{\gamma_n} \\ m = p_0^{\delta_0} p_1^{\delta_1} \dots p_n^{\delta_n}$$

where $\gamma_i = \min(\alpha_i, \beta_i)$ and $\delta_i = \max(\alpha_i, \beta_i)$. We have $\alpha_i + \beta_i = \gamma_i + \delta_i$. Then,

$$\begin{split} md &= p_0^{\gamma_0} \, p_1^{\gamma_1} \dots p_n^{\gamma_n} \, p_0^{\delta_0} \, p_1^{\delta_1} \dots p_n^{\delta_n} \\ &= p_0^{\gamma_0 + \delta_0} \, p_1^{\gamma_1 + \delta_1} \dots p_n^{\gamma_n + \delta_n} \\ &= p_0^{\alpha_0 + \beta_0} \, p_1^{\alpha_1 + \beta_1} \dots p_n^{\alpha_n + \beta_n} \\ &= xy \end{split}$$

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Let $x \geqslant 2$.

$$\int_{x}^{x+1} \frac{1}{y^2} dy = \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{x+1}$$
$$= \frac{1}{x(x+1)}$$

since

$$x + 1 \leqslant \frac{3}{2}x \Leftrightarrow 2 \leqslant x$$

$$\int_{x}^{x+1} \frac{1}{y^2} \, \mathrm{d}y = \frac{1}{x(x+1)} \geqslant \frac{2}{3x^2}$$

If we sum these inequalities

$$\sum_{q=2}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{q^2} \leqslant \frac{3}{2} \sum_{q=2}^{+\infty} \int_x^{x+1} \frac{1}{y^2} \, \mathrm{d}y = \frac{3}{2} \int_2^{+\infty} \frac{1}{y^2} \, \mathrm{d}y = \frac{3}{4}$$

and finally

$$\sum_{\substack{q \in \mathbb{N}^* \\ q \text{ is prime}}} \frac{1}{q^2} \leqslant \sum_{q=2}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{q^2} \leqslant \frac{3}{4}$$