# Quantum Computing 

András Gilyén

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4 postulates of quantum mechanics

## 1: (Pure) states are unit-length vectors of a Hilbert space

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- Dirac notation: ket vector $|\psi\rangle=\binom{a}{b}=a|0\rangle+b|1\rangle-a, b$ are called amplitudes bra vector $\langle\psi|=|\psi\rangle^{\dagger}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}\bar{a} & \bar{b}\end{array}\right)$


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$$

Motivation: inner product notation (let $|\phi\rangle=c|0\rangle+d|1\rangle)$

$$
\langle\psi, \phi\rangle=\langle\psi| \cdot|\phi\rangle=\bar{a} c+\bar{b} d
$$

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Photon


Note: two states are "fully" distinguishable iff they are orthogonal

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2 qubits: $|0\rangle \otimes|0\rangle=\binom{1}{0} \otimes\binom{1}{0}=\left(\begin{array}{l}1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0\end{array}\right) ;|0\rangle \otimes|1\rangle=\binom{1}{0} \otimes\binom{0}{1}=\left(\begin{array}{l}0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0\end{array}\right) ; \ldots$
Generic two-qubit state $\left.|\psi\rangle=a_{00}|00\rangle+a_{01}|01\rangle+a_{10}|10\rangle+a_{11}|11\rangle\right)=\left(\begin{array}{c}a_{00} \\ a_{01} \\ a_{10} \\ a_{11}\end{array}\right)$

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$\vee|v\rangle \otimes|w\rangle$ is a product state; non-product sates are called entangled E.g., Einstein-Podolsky-Rosen (EPR)-pair: $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00\rangle+|11\rangle)$

## 3: Measurement is described by Born's rule

Measure state $|\psi\rangle=\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} a_{i}|i\rangle$ in orthonormal basis $(|0\rangle,|1\rangle, \ldots,|N-1\rangle) \Longrightarrow$
We get outcome $i$ with probability $\left|a_{i}\right|^{2}$, and the state collapses to $|i\rangle$

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- Extended Born's rule for partial measurememts:

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|\psi\rangle=\sum_{i=0}^{N-1}|i\rangle \otimes\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle \Longrightarrow \operatorname{Pr}(\text { outcome } i)=\left\|\phi_{i}\right\|^{2} \& \text { state "collapses" to } \frac{|i\rangle \otimes\left|\phi_{i}\right\rangle}{\left\|\phi_{i}\right\|}
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\operatorname{Pr}(\text { outcome } i j)=\operatorname{Pr}(\text { outcome jij) } \cdot \operatorname{Pr}(\text { outcome } i)
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- More general projective measurement:

$$
\Pi_{j} \text { orth. projectors s.t. } I=\sum_{j} \Pi_{j} \Longrightarrow \operatorname{Pr}(\text { outcome } j)=\| \Pi_{j}|\psi\rangle \|^{2} \text { collapse: } \frac{\Pi_{j}|\psi\rangle}{\| \Pi_{j}|\psi\rangle \|}
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## Quantum Circuits and algorithms

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- (circuit) complexity: number of elementary gates

$$
\begin{gathered}
X=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right) \quad H=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\begin{array}{rr}
1 & 1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right) \quad R_{\varphi}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & e^{2 \pi i \varphi}
\end{array}\right) \\
\text { CNOT }=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

(Gates extend by $\otimes /$ to the other qubits.)

- quantum circuit notation for $X, H, R_{\varphi}$, CNOT, and SWAP:



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- Reversible quantum version (a.k.a. Toffoli gate):

- For general logical operation $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}$ :



## The Quantum Fourier Transform

The (quantum) Fourier transform for $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{N}$ is defined as

$$
F_{N}:|k\rangle \mapsto \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} e^{\frac{2 \pi}{N} j \cdot k}|j\rangle,
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where $j \cdot k$ is the usual product of two integers in $\mathbb{Z}_{N}$.

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where $j \cdot k$ is the usual product of two integers in $\mathbb{Z}_{N}$. Let $\omega_{N}:=e^{2 \pi i / N}$, in matrix notation we can write:

$$
F_{N}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}\left(\begin{array}{ccc} 
& \vdots & \\
\cdots & \omega_{N}^{j k} & \cdots \\
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$$

Note that for $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ we have $H=F_{2}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\begin{array}{rr}1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1\end{array}\right)$.

## The Quantum Fourier Transform

$F_{N}$ is a unitary matrix, since each column has norm 1, and any two distinct columns $k$ and $k^{\prime}$ are orthogonal:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(F_{N}|k\rangle\right)^{\dagger} \cdot\left(F_{N}\left|k^{\prime}\right\rangle\right) & \left.=\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1}\left(\omega_{N}^{j k}\right)^{*}\langle j|\right) \cdot\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j^{\prime}=0}^{N-1}\left(\omega_{N}^{j k^{\prime}}\right) j^{\prime}\right\rangle\right) \\
& =\sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}\left(\omega_{N}^{j k}\right)^{*} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \omega_{N}^{j k^{\prime}} \\
& =\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \omega_{N}^{j\left(k^{\prime}-k\right)} \\
& = \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } k=k^{\prime} \\
0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $F_{N}$ is unitary we have that $F_{N}^{-1}=F_{N}^{\dagger}$. As $F_{N}$ is also symmetric we further get $F_{N}^{-1}=F_{N}^{+}=F_{N}^{*}$, i.e., $F_{N}^{-1}$ can be computed by simply conjugating each entry of $F_{N}$.

## Shor's factoring algorithm from period finding

For an $1<x<N, x \nmid N$ consider the sequence

$$
1=x^{0} \quad(\bmod N), \quad x^{1} \quad(\bmod N), x^{2} \quad(\bmod N), \ldots
$$

This sequence will cycle after a while: there is a least $0<r \leq N$ such that $x^{r}=1$ $(\bmod N)$. This $r$ is called the period of the sequence (a.k.a. the order of the element $x$ in the group $\mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}$ ).

Assuming $N$ is odd and not a prime power (those cases are easy to factor anyway), it can be shown that with probability $\geq 1 / 2$, the period $r$ is even and $x^{r / 2}+1$ and $x^{r / 2}-1$ are not multiples of $N$.

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In that case we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
x^{r} & \equiv 1 \bmod N \\
\left(x^{r / 2}\right)^{2} & \equiv 1 \bmod N \\
\left(x^{r / 2}+1\right)\left(x^{r / 2}-1\right) & \equiv 0 \bmod N \\
\underbrace{\left(x^{r / 2}+1\right)}_{N \nmid}(\underbrace{\left.x^{r / 2}-1\right)} & =\mathrm{kN} \text { for some } k .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Quantum Period Finding

Suppose $f$ has period $r$ and for all $x=1, \ldots, r$ the value $f(x)$ is distinct. Let $M:=2^{m}$.


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\begin{aligned}
& |0\rangle^{\otimes m}|0\rangle^{\otimes n} \xrightarrow{H^{\text {em }}} \sum_{j=0}^{M-1}|j\rangle|0\rangle^{\otimes n} \xrightarrow{O_{4}} \sum_{j=0}^{M-1}|j\rangle|f(j)\rangle \xrightarrow{\text { measure }} \propto \sum_{k=0}^{\left\lfloor\frac{M-1-s}{1}\right\rfloor}|s+k \cdot r\rangle|f(s)\rangle
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For simplicity let us assume that $r \mid M$, then

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\sum_{k=0}^{\frac{M}{r}-1}|s+k \cdot r\rangle \xrightarrow{F_{M}} \sum_{k=0}^{\frac{M}{r}-1} \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} e^{\frac{2 \pi j}{M} j \cdot(s+k \cdot r)}|j\rangle=\sum_{j=0}^{M-1} e^{\frac{2 \pi}{M} \cdot s}|j\rangle \sum_{(e^{\frac{2 \pi}{M} j \cdot r} \cdot \underbrace{M}_{r=0}-1) /\left(e^{\frac{2 \pi j}{M} ; \cdot r}-1\right)}^{\frac{M}{r-1}} e^{\frac{2 \pi j}{M} j \cdot r k}= \begin{cases}\frac{M}{r} & \text { if } j=c \cdot \frac{M}{r} \\
0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
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## The Hidden Subgroup Problem

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- For Abelian groups $G$, a generalized version of Shor's algorithm works.


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- This breaks discrete logartihm, elliptic curve based crypto, Diffie-Hellman, etc.
- For some types of non-Abelian groups we have efficient quantum algorithms.
- For the dihedral group $D_{n}$ (containing the symmetries of a regular $n$-gon), Kuperberg's sieve solves the problem in subexponential time (about $O\left(2^{\sqrt{n}}\right)$ ).


## Grover's algorithm and amplitude amplification

Suppose we have a probabilistic algorithm that detects "success"

$$
U|0\rangle^{\otimes n}=|\psi\rangle=\sqrt{p}\left|\psi_{\text {good }}\right\rangle|1\rangle+\sqrt{1-p}\left|\psi_{\text {bad }}\right\rangle|0\rangle .
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The Grover operator $G_{u}$ is defined as follows

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G_{u}=\left(2|\psi X \psi|-I_{n}\right) \cdot\left(2 I_{n-1} \otimes|0 X 0|-I_{n}\right) .
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- Grover's original problem - find a (unique) marked element $m$ among $N$ choices.


## Grover's algorithm and amplitude amplification



## The success probability after $k$ iteration is $\sin ^{2}((2 k+1) \theta)$ !

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- It is possible to over-rotate.
- Grover's original problem - find a (unique) marked element $m$ among $N$ choices. Prepare a uniform superposition and check:

$$
|0\rangle \xrightarrow{H} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j=0}^{N}|j\rangle|0\rangle \xrightarrow{\text { check }} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j=0}^{N}|j\rangle\left|\delta_{m j}\right\rangle \Rightarrow\left|\psi_{\text {good }}\right\rangle=|m\rangle \quad\left(p=\frac{1}{N}\right)
$$

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Efficient $A$ wins "security game" $\Rightarrow$ We get efficient $A^{\prime}$ solving hard problem

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For more details see the "Quantum Rewinding Tutorial" of Alex Lombardi (MIT) and Fermi Ma (UC Berkeley) recorded at the Simons Institute (available on YouTube).
[BCMVV18]: Zvika Brakerski, Paul Christiano, Urmila Mahadev, Umesh V. Vazirani, and Thomas Vidick. A cryptographic test of quantumness and certifiable randomness from a single quantum device. J. ACM (August 2021). Earlier version at FOCS 2018.

## Rewinding a'la Mariott-Watrous

## You hold a useful quantum state

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- Suppose you can measure projector $\Pi$ and any state in the image of $\Pi$ is good for you.


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Trick: alternately repeat the two measurements $\left(\Pi_{A}, I-\Pi_{A}\right)$ and $(\Pi, I-\Pi)$ until you get lucky and get back a state in the image of $\Pi$.

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Trick: alternately repeat the two measurements $\left(\Pi_{A}, I-\Pi_{A}\right)$ and $(\Pi, I-\Pi)$ until you get lucky and get back a state in the image of $\Pi$.

In expectation 4 measurements suffice to get back such a state!

## Further reading

- Parts of this presentation come from Ronald de Wolf's Quantum Coputing Lecture Notes - arXiv: 1907.09415.
- See also the "Quantum Rewinding Tutorial" Part 1,2, \& 3 of Alex Lombardi (MIT) and Fermi Ma (UC Berkeley) recorded at the Simons Institute on June 15th.

