

# LECTURE 4

## INTRODUCTION TO QUANTUM COMPUTING, THE CIRCUIT MODEL

INF587 Quantum computer science and applications

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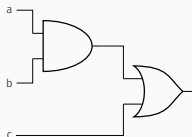
*Computer science: art of computing...*

What do we mean by **quantum computing**?

→ The **quantum circuit model**!

1. Notation and basic circuits
  - Quantum circuits: representation of unitaries and measurement
  - The quantum gate **CNOT**
  - Controlled unitaries
2. The Solovay-Kitaev theorem and the quantum gate model (universal quantum gates)
3. Simulating classical circuits with quantum circuits
4. Quantum parallelism and interference
5. A quantum algorithm: Simon's algorithm

**Boolean circuit:** finite directed acyclic (no loop) graph with **AND**, **OR** and **NOT** **classical** gates which has input and output nodes.



**A circuit computes**  $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$  if given  $n$  input bits  $x$ , it outputs  $m$  bits given by  $f(x)$ .

**A circuit  $C_n$  decides a language  $L \subseteq \{0, 1\}^n$**  if  $C_n$  given  $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$  outputs one if and only if  $x \in L$ .

Two questions:

- What are the **classical** gates that enable to compute any function  $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$ ?
- What class of languages circuits recognize?

## Universality

Logic gates **AND**, **OR** and **NOT** are enough to compute any function  $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$ .

→ Is it doable quantumly?

**Problem:** *any quantum operation is invertible (even unitary) but **AND** is not invertible...*

## Universality

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## Toffoli (also CCNOT) Gate

The Toffoli gate takes 3 input bits and outputs 3 bits as follows:

$$\text{Toffoli}(x, y, z) = (x, y, z \text{ XOR } (x \text{ AND } y))$$

## Proposition: Inversability and Universality

- The Toffoli gate is **invertible**,
- Any classical circuit computing a function  $f$  consisting of  $N$  gates in the set  $\{\text{AND}, \text{OR}, \text{NOT}\}$  can be computed using  $O(N)$  **Toffoli gates**.

→ In particular: the number of Toffoli gates is **roughly the same**

*But is the classical circuit model meaningful?*

### Complexity Theory: uniformly polynomial circuits

Family of circuits  $C \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{C_n\}_n$  with  $n$  input bits and one output bit such that there is  $\text{polylog}(n)$ -space Turing machine that outputs  $C_n$  given  $n$ .

$$L_C \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \bigcup_n \{x \in \{0, 1\}^n : C_n(x) = 1\}$$

$L \in P$  if and only if there exists a uniform family of circuits  $C$  such that  $L = L_C$ .

→ Given a uniform family of circuits  $C = \{C_n\}$ :  $C_n$  has at most  $\text{poly}(n)$ -gates!

*What about quantum computation?*

*Is the circuit model reasonable? If yes, what is doable quantumly and at which cost?*



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Two intuitions:

- ▶ “Quantum circuit” **can simulate classical circuits** because Toffoli gates are universal...  
—→ Therefore: **quantum circuits** define a “reasonable” model of computation.
- ▶ Complexity of computation will be taken into account from **the number of “quantum gates”**  
—→ Therefore: we expect quantum circuits to **measure the complexity** as in the classical case

# NOTATION AND BASIC CIRCUITS

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During this course we consider the state space  $\mathbb{C}^{2^n} = \underbrace{\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \dots \otimes \mathbb{C}^2}_{n \text{ times}}$  of  $n$ -qubits register

### State space, computational basis and measurement

We will always write  $n$ -qubits registers as

$$\sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^n} \alpha_{\mathbf{x}} |\mathbf{x}\rangle \quad \text{where } |\mathbf{x}\rangle = |x_1, \dots, x_n\rangle (= |x_1\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes |x_n\rangle) \text{ and } \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^n} |\alpha_{\mathbf{x}}|^2 = 1.$$

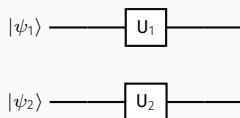
The family  $(|\mathbf{x}\rangle)_{\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^n}$  is known as the **computational basis**

→ All the considered measurements (in this course) will be in the computational basis.

Given two quantum states  $|\psi_1\rangle, |\psi_2\rangle$  and two unitaries  $U_1, U_2$ , the circuit representation of

$$(U_1 \otimes U_2)(|\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle)$$

is given by



## Exercise

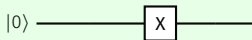
1. What becomes  $\frac{|00\rangle + |01\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$  when feeding to the above circuit?
2. Describe a quantum circuit that transforms  $|00\rangle$  into  $\frac{|10\rangle - |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$ .

## Solution

1. What becomes  $\frac{|00\rangle + |01\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$  when feeding to the above circuit?

It becomes:  $U_1 |0\rangle \otimes U_2 \left( \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} U_1 |0\rangle \otimes U_2 |0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} U_1 |0\rangle \otimes U_2 |1\rangle.$

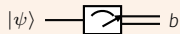
2. Describe a quantum circuit that transforms  $|00\rangle$  into  $\frac{|10\rangle - |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}.$



A measurement converts  $|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$  into a probabilistic classical bit  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  where

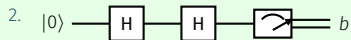
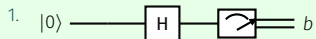
$$\mathbb{P}(b = 0) = |\alpha|^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{P}(b = 1) = |\beta|^2.$$

The circuit representation of a measurement is



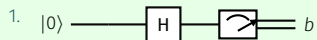
## Exercise

Give the distribution of the following probabilistic bits  $b$ :

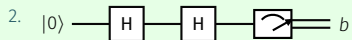


## Exercise

Give the distribution of the following probabilistic bits  $b$ :



The output bit  $b$  is uniform, namely:  $\mathbb{P}(b = 0) = \mathbb{P}(b = 1) = \frac{1}{2}$ .



As  $H^2 = I_2$ , the output bit  $b$  is always zero.

Let us introduce the Controlled-NOT gate (unitary) over 2-qubits:

$$|a, b\rangle \mapsto |a, a \oplus b\rangle$$

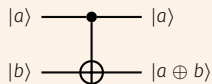
It is a unitary (it maps the computational basis to the computation basis).

Quantum CNOT-gate  $|a, b\rangle \mapsto |a, a \oplus b\rangle$

- Matrix representation:

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

- Circuit representation:





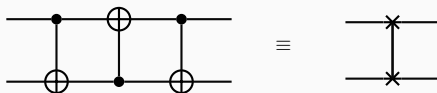
$$|a, b\rangle \mapsto |a, a \oplus b\rangle$$

is the quantum generalization of the XOR operation!

Be careful

The XOR operation  $(a, b) \mapsto a \oplus b$  cannot be a quantum operation **because is not invertible**.

Given two wires, is it possible to **swap** two qubits?



$$\begin{aligned}
 |a, b\rangle &\longrightarrow |a, a \oplus b\rangle \\
 &\longrightarrow |a \oplus (a \oplus b), a \oplus b\rangle \\
 &\longrightarrow |b, (a \oplus b) \oplus b\rangle \\
 &= |b, a\rangle.
 \end{aligned}$$

Given a qubit  $|\psi\rangle$ , is it possible to build a quantum circuit that copies it?

→ **No!** Because the no-cloning theorem (see Exercise session 1)

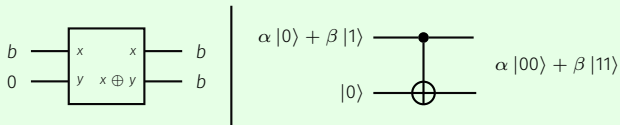
But it is doable for classical bit  $(b, 0) \mapsto (b, 0 \oplus b) = (b, b)$ ...

Given a qubit  $|\psi\rangle$ , is it possible to build a quantum circuit that copies it?

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But it is doable for classical bit  $(b, 0) \mapsto (b, 0 \oplus b) = (b, b)$ ...

Take a look at the quantum case

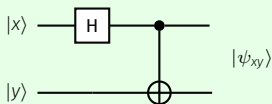


We have built an **entangled** state!

## Bell States

$$|\psi_{xy}\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{|0, y\rangle + (-1)^x |1, (1 \oplus y)\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

## The quantum circuit building Bell states



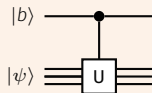
$$|x, y\rangle \xrightarrow{H \otimes I_2} \frac{|0\rangle + (-1)^x |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \otimes |y\rangle = \frac{|0, y\rangle + (-1)^x |1, y\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \xrightarrow{\text{C-NOT}} \frac{|0, y\rangle + (-1)^x |1, (1 \oplus y)\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

## Controlled U-gate

Let  $U$  be any unitary over  $n$ -qubits. The controlled  $U$ -gate has one control qubit  $|b\rangle$  and  $n$  target qubits  $|\psi\rangle$ . It is defined as

- If  $b = 0$ , it outputs  $|b\rangle \otimes |\psi\rangle$ .
- If  $b = 1$ , it outputs  $|b\rangle \otimes U|\psi\rangle$ .

## Circuit representation:



→ Controlled- $U \equiv$  **If condition then instruction  $U$**

## Exercise

Show that the CNOT gate is the controlled  $X$ -gate.

# QUANTUM CIRCUITS

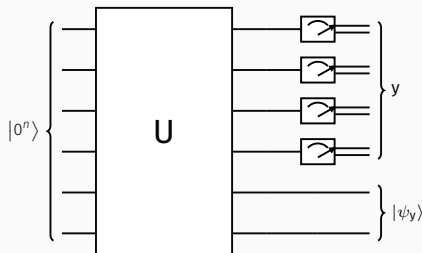
**Quantum circuits:** starting from  $n$  qubits initialized at  $|0^n\rangle$  and then successively apply the two admissible operations (unitary and measurements).

Applying  $U_1$  and then  $U_2$  is equivalent to applying  $(U_2U_1)$

→ we can assume the algorithm performs a unitary, then a measurement, then a unitary, then measurement and so on...

We will consider only algorithms where **we first perform all the unitary operations and then perform measurements in the computational basis.**

→ As powerful as general algorithms (admitted)



$$U : |\psi\rangle \longrightarrow U|\psi\rangle$$

→ It is often easier to build  $U' : |\psi\rangle |0\rangle_{\text{aux}} \longrightarrow U(|\psi\rangle) |0\rangle_{\text{aux}}$

Extra qubits are called **auxiliary qubits**, **ancillary qubits** or **workspace**.

→ it is important that they start at  $|0\rangle$  and end at  $|0\rangle$  (see Exercise session)



# SOLOVAY-KITAEV THEOREM AND GATE MODEL

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Any classical function can be computed with gates {AND, OR, NOT} (**universal gates**)

*What are the quantum universal gates?*

The following gate is important (**first time in this course**)

## The $\pi/8$ -gate

It maps  $|0\rangle \mapsto |0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle \mapsto e^{i\pi/4} |1\rangle$ :

$$\mathbf{T} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\pi/4} \end{pmatrix}$$

## Origin of the terminology

Up to an unimportant global phase  $\mathbf{T}$  is equal to  $\mathbf{T} = e^{i\pi/8} \begin{pmatrix} e^{-i\pi/8} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\pi/8} \end{pmatrix}$

## Solovay-Kitaev Theorem (admitted)

Let  $\mathcal{G} = \{\text{CNOT}, \text{H}, \text{T}\}$ . Any unitary  $\mathbf{U}$  over  $n$ -qubits can be approximated by applying

$$O\left(2^{2n} \log^4\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)\right)$$

gates from  $\mathcal{G}$  with accuracy  $\varepsilon$ .

In other words, from the description of  $\mathbf{U}$ , one can construct a sequence  $\mathbf{G}_1, \dots, \mathbf{G}_N \in \mathcal{G}$  with  $N = O(2^{2n} \log^4(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}))$  and

$$\|\mathbf{G}_N \dots \mathbf{G}_1 - \mathbf{U}\| \leq \varepsilon,$$

where  $\|\mathbf{G}_N \dots \mathbf{G}_1 - \mathbf{U}\| \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \max_{|\psi\rangle} \|\mathbf{G}_N \dots \mathbf{G}_1 |\psi\rangle - \mathbf{U} |\psi\rangle\|$  is the *operator norm*.

→ The **log** term is important: exponential accuracy with a **polynomial** number of gates

## Other universal gates?

Yes! The **CNOT** and qubits gates are also universal

Quantum circuits  $\iff$  Unitary evolutions

$O\left(2^{2n} \log^4\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)\right)$  gates {CNOT, H, T} to approximate **any** unitary **U**

→ exponential cost  $2^{2n}$

Does any unitary need an exponential number of gates to be built?

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→ exponential cost  $2^{2n}$

Does any unitary need an exponential number of gates to be built?

No! As for classical computations there are unitaries easy to compute, other not...

## The Quantum Gate Model

The quantum running time of a unitary  $U$  is the amount of 1 and 2-qubit gates needed to apply  $U$ .

The running time of a single-qubit measurement is 1.

One may say that estimating the running time as the number of 1-2 qubits unitaries is an overkill

→ It can be hard to implement some 1 or 2 qubits unitary..

### A more reasonable model

Running time: number **H**, **T** and **CNOT** gates that are used

→ The “difficulty” to implement quantum circuits reduces to compute this small set of gates!

### By the Solovay-Kitaev theorem

The running time of the above model is the same than in the quantum gate model, **but up to polynomial factor (in the input length  $n$ ) if one targets an exponentially close accuracy...**

In conclusion: lot of debates to define the running time of quantum circuits...

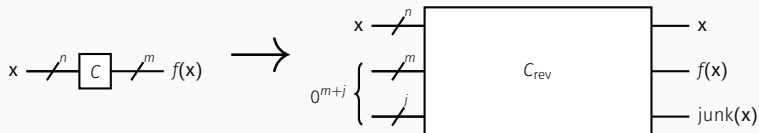
For us: no debates, we don't care of polynomial factors (**even if it is a hard problem to handle in “practice”...**) and we will use the quantum gate model

# CLASSICAL CIRCUITS WITH QUANTUM CIRCUITS

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$C$  computing a function  $f$  with  $T$  gates can be transformed into a reversible circuit  $C_{\text{rev}}$  that consists only of  $O(T)$  Toffoli gates, possibly with some junk state  $\text{junk}(\mathbf{x})$ .



Informally, the junk part keeps a place to perform intermediary computations

## Simulating classical circuits with quantum circuits

Classical Toffoli gates can be interpreted as a quantum unitary acting on three qubits:

$$\text{Toffoli } |x, y, z\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |x, y, z \oplus xy\rangle$$

Therefore:  $C_{\text{rev}}$  can be interpreted as a unitary  $U$ :

$$U |x, 0^{m+j}\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |x\rangle |f(x)\rangle |junk(x)\rangle$$

—> Quantum computers are at least as powerful as classical computers!

**The unitary  $U_f$** 

For any function  $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$  that can be computed classically with a circuit that runs in time  $T$ , there exists a quantum circuit on  $n + m$  qubits that runs in time  $O(T)$  that can perform the unitary

$$U_f : |x\rangle |y\rangle \rightarrow |x\rangle |y \oplus f(x)\rangle .$$

**Be careful:**

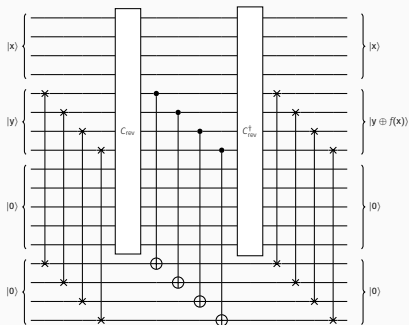
$|x\rangle \mapsto |f(x)\rangle$  may not be a quantum operation (for instance  $f$  be the zero function).

→ The auxiliary qubit  $|y\rangle$  ensures that  $U_f$  is a unitary!

# REMOVING THE JUNK PART AND IMPLEMENTING $u_f$

## Proof

1. On input  $|x\rangle |y\rangle |0\rangle |0\rangle$ , first swap the second and fourth registers to get  $|x\rangle |0\rangle |0\rangle |y\rangle$ .
2. Apply  $C_{rev}$  on the 3 first registers to get the state  $|x\rangle |f(x)\rangle |junk(x)\rangle |y\rangle$ .
3. For  $i$  from 1 to  $m$ , apply a **CNOT** gate between the  $i^{th}$  wire of the second register and the  $i^{th}$  wire of the fourth register. We then have the state  $|x\rangle |f(x)\rangle |junk(x)\rangle |y \oplus f(x)\rangle$ .
4. Apply  $C_{rev}^\dagger$  on the three first registers to get the state  $|x\rangle |0\rangle |0\rangle |y \oplus f(x)\rangle$ .
5. Swap the second and fourth register to get the state  $|x\rangle |y \oplus f(x)\rangle |0\rangle |0\rangle$ .



# QUANTUM PARALLELISM AND INTERFERENCE

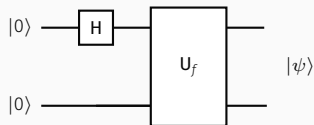
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## QUANTUM PARALLELISM: ONE BIT FUNCTIONS

$$\text{Let } f : \{0, 1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$$

$$U_f : |x\rangle |y\rangle \rightarrow |x\rangle |y \oplus f(x)\rangle$$

Consider the following quantum circuit:



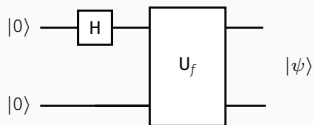
What quantum state is  $|\psi\rangle$ ?

## QUANTUM PARALLELISM: ONE BIT FUNCTIONS

Let  $f: \{0, 1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$

$U_f: |x\rangle |y\rangle \rightarrow |x\rangle |y \oplus f(x)\rangle$

Consider the following quantum circuit:



What quantum state is  $|\psi\rangle$ ?

1. After the first gate we have:  $\frac{|0\rangle+|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \otimes |0\rangle = \frac{|00\rangle+|10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$ ,
2. Applying  $U_f$  leads to (use the linearity):

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{|0, f(0)\rangle + |1, f(1)\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

→ We have a **superposition of the values of  $f$**

## Tensorization of the Hadamard Gate

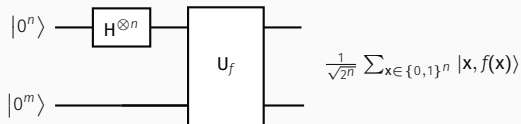
Consider,

$$H^{\otimes n} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \underbrace{H \otimes \dots \otimes H}_{n \text{ times}}$$

Then (see Exercise session 1),

$$H^{\otimes n} |0^n\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^n} |\mathbf{x}\rangle.$$

The following circuit performs the quantum parallelism (here  $f : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m$ )



Measurement of  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_x |x, f(x)\rangle$  gives  $f(x)$  for only one value of  $x$ ...

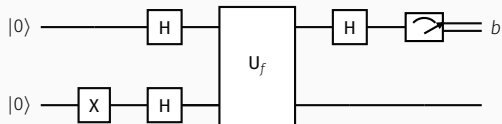
→ **Interference** is a nice example of how using quantum parallelism!

*Remember, the “-1” of the Hadamard gate gives you a huge power...*



# INTERFERENCE (DEUTSCH'S ALGORITHM)

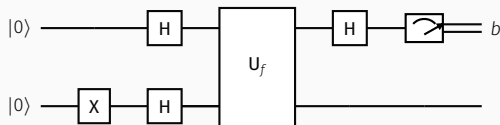
Consider the following circuit (here  $f : \{0, 1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ )



What is the value of  $b$ ?

# INTERFERENCE (DEUTSCH'S ALGORITHM)

Consider the following circuit (here  $f : \{0, 1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ )



What is the value of  $b$ ?

1. After applying the X and H gates:  $\frac{|0\rangle+|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \otimes \frac{|0\rangle-|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{|00\rangle - |01\rangle + |10\rangle - |11\rangle}{2}$ ,

2. Applying  $U_f$  leads to (use the linearity):

$$\frac{|0, f(0)\rangle - |0, 1 \oplus f(0)\rangle + |1, f(1)\rangle - |1, 1 \oplus f(1)\rangle}{2} = \begin{cases} \pm \frac{|0\rangle+|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \otimes \frac{|0\rangle-|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} & \text{if } f(0) = f(1) \\ \pm \frac{|0\rangle-|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \otimes \frac{|0\rangle+|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} & \text{if } f(0) \neq f(1) \end{cases}$$

3. Applying the last Hadamard gate leads to (use that  $H^2 = I_2$ ):

$$\begin{cases} \pm |0\rangle \otimes \frac{|0\rangle-|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} & \text{if } f(0) = f(1) \\ \pm |1\rangle \otimes \frac{|0\rangle+|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} & \text{if } f(0) \neq f(1) \end{cases}$$

4. Measuring the first qubit always leads to  $f(0) \oplus f(1)$ !

→ We obtained a global property of  $f$  (i.e.,  $f(0) \oplus f(1)$ ) with **only one evaluation of  $f(x)$ !**

# SIMON'S ALGORITHM

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## The problem

- **Input:** A function  $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ .
- **Promise:**  $\exists s \in \{0, 1\}^n : (f(x) = f(y) \iff (x = y) \text{ or } (x = y \oplus s))$ .
- **Goal:** Find  $s$ .

1. Start from the  $2n$  qubit state, with 2 registers of  $n$  qubits.

$$|\psi_0\rangle = |0^n\rangle |0^n\rangle.$$

2. Apply  $H^{\otimes n}$  on the first  $n$  qubits to get

$$|\psi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle |0^n\rangle.$$

3. Apply  $U_f$  on the state to get

$$|\psi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle |f(x)\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\text{Im}(f)|}} \sum_{y \in \text{Im}(f)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|x_y\rangle + |x_y \oplus s\rangle) |y\rangle.$$

4. Measure the second register and obtain some value  $y \in \text{Im}(f)$ . The resulting state on the first register is

$$|\psi_4(y)\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|x_y\rangle + |x_y \oplus s\rangle).$$

5. Apply  $H^{\otimes n}$  on the first register to get

$$|\psi_5(y)\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{z \in \{0,1\}^n} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-1)^{x_y \cdot z} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-1)^{(x_y \oplus s) \cdot z} \right) |z\rangle.$$

5. Apply  $H^{\otimes n}$  on the first register to get

$$|\psi_5(\mathbf{y})\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \{0,1\}^n} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-1)^{\mathbf{x}_y \cdot \mathbf{z}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-1)^{(\mathbf{x}_y \oplus \mathbf{s}) \cdot \mathbf{z}} \right) |\mathbf{z}\rangle.$$

Now, if  $\mathbf{s} \cdot \mathbf{z} = 0$ , we have  $\left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-1)^{\mathbf{x}_y \cdot \mathbf{z}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-1)^{(\mathbf{x}_y \oplus \mathbf{s}) \cdot \mathbf{z}} \right) = \sqrt{2} (-1)^{\mathbf{x}_y \cdot \mathbf{z}}$  and if  $\mathbf{s} \cdot \mathbf{z} = 1$ , we have  $\left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-1)^{\mathbf{x}_y \cdot \mathbf{z}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-1)^{(\mathbf{x}_y \oplus \mathbf{s}) \cdot \mathbf{z}} \right) = 0$ . Therefore, we can write

$$|\psi_5(\mathbf{y})\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{2}{2^n}} \sum_{\substack{\mathbf{z} \in \{0,1\}^n \\ \mathbf{s} \cdot \mathbf{z} = 0}} (-1)^{\mathbf{x}_y \cdot \mathbf{z}} |\mathbf{z}\rangle.$$

6. Measure this state in the computational basis. You get a random  $\mathbf{z}$  satisfying  $\mathbf{z} \cdot \mathbf{s} = 0$ .

This algorithm gives  $(z_1, \dots, z_n)$  s.t.  $\sum_{i=1}^n z_i s_i = 0$ .

We **repeat the algorithm**  $m$  times to get  $m$  random values  $\mathbf{z}^1, \dots, \mathbf{z}^m$  satisfying  $\mathbf{z}^k \cdot \mathbf{s} = 0$

We obtain the following system ( $\mathbf{s}$  is the unknown):  $\mathbf{Z}\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{0}$  where  $\mathbf{Z} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} z_i^j \end{pmatrix}_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq n \\ 1 \leq j \leq m}}$ .

→ If  $\mathbf{Z}$  has rank  $n$ , we perform a Gaussian elimination to recover  $\mathbf{s}$ !

It will be verified with high probability if  $m$  large enough,  $m = Cn$  for some constant  $C > 0$ .

- ▶ We have solved Simon's problem in polynomial time with high probability with **only  $O(n)$  queries to  $f$**  (i.e.,  $O(n)$  calls to  $U_f$ , step 3)

→ Is it doable classically?

- ▶ Simon has proved that any classical randomized algorithm that finds  $s$  with high probability needs **to make  $\geq C\sqrt{2^n}$  queries to  $f$**  where  $C$  constant

→ **Quantum computing provides an exponential advantage!**

There are many results about the query complexity of quantum algorithm

- ▶ *Ronald de Wolf's lecture notes, Chapters 11-12.*

<https://arxiv.org/pdf/1907.09415.pdf>



## CONCLUSION

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*But one may say that solving Simon's problem is useless...*

Simon's algorithm has been "the starting point" of Shor's algorithm that quantumly breaks all current deployed public key cryptography

→ Come at Lecture 6!

# EXERCISE SESSION

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