

2.5.3. Quantum counting algorithm

How quickly can we determine the number of target states in Grover's algorithm, i.e. marked states, r , to an $N=2^n$ data base search problem, if r is not known in advance.

Classical search $\sim O(N)$

Quantum search $\sim O(\sqrt{N})$

(Grover iteration + phase estimation algorithm)

↓ applications

- 1) Quantum search, even if the number of solutions is unknown
- 2) NP-complete SAT (satisfiability) problems
(= existence of a solution to a search problem)

Quantum algorithm:

$|a\rangle, |b\rangle$: the two eigenvectors of the Grover iteration

$\hat{Q} = -\hat{I}_\gamma \hat{U}^{-1} \hat{I}_\tau \hat{U}$ in the space spanned by

$|\alpha\rangle$ (non-solution state) and $|\beta\rangle$ (solution state).

$\theta = \sin^{-1}(2U_{\tau\gamma})$: the angle of rotation determined by \hat{Q}

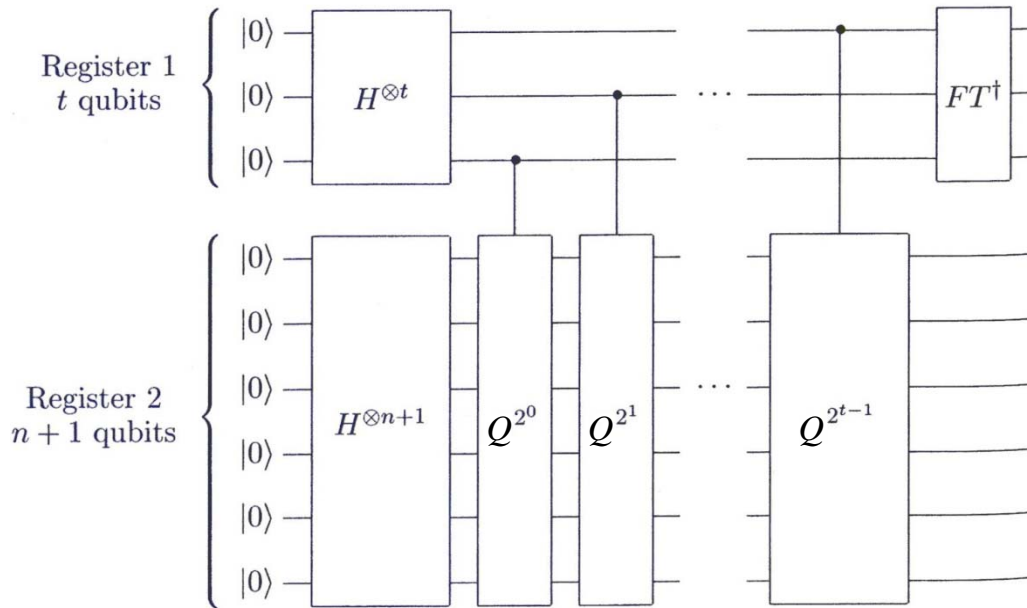
↓

$$\hat{Q} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} |\alpha\rangle \\ |\beta\rangle \end{matrix}$$

← basis

↓

Corresponding eigenvalues $e^{i\theta}$ and $e^{i(2\pi-\theta)}$



Step 1: initialization

$|0\rangle_1 |0\rangle_2$ ← $n+1$ qubits \Rightarrow enough to implement the Grover iteration
 ($2N=2^{n+1}$ expanded search space)

$t \equiv m + \log\left(2 + \frac{1}{2\varepsilon}\right)$ qubits \Rightarrow estimate θ to m bits of accuracy with a probability of success $\geq 1 - \varepsilon$.

Step 2: Walsh-Hadamard transform on the first and second register

$$\xrightarrow{\hat{H}_1 \otimes \hat{H}_2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^t}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^t-1} |x\rangle_1 \otimes \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}} \sum_{y=0}^{2^{n+1}-1} |y\rangle_2$$

Linear superposition of $|a\rangle$ and $|b\rangle$
 $C_a |a\rangle + C_b |b\rangle$

\Rightarrow The above circuit provides an estimate of θ and $2\pi - \theta$.

Step 3: Controlled $-Q^{2^j}$ operation

$$\xrightarrow{c-Q^{2^j}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^t}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^t-1} |x\rangle_1 \left(e^{2\pi i x \theta} C_a |a\rangle_2 + e^{2\pi i x (2\pi - \theta)} C_b |b\rangle_2 \right)$$

Step 4: inverse Fourier transform on the first register

$$\xrightarrow{\hat{F}_1^{-1}} C_a |\tilde{\theta}\rangle_1 |a\rangle_2 + C_b |2\pi - \tilde{\theta}\rangle_1 |b\rangle_2$$

↙ equivalent ↗

Step 5: projective measurement of the first register

→ estimate of θ with an accuracy of $|\Delta\theta| \leq 2^{-m}$ with probability of success $1 - \varepsilon$

$$\rightarrow \boxed{\text{estimate } r \text{ through } \sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{r}{2N}}$$

How large an error, Δr , in this estimate?

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{|\Delta r|}{2N} &= \left| \sin^2 \left(\frac{\theta + \Delta\theta}{2} \right) - \sin^2 \left(\frac{\theta}{2} \right) \right| \\ &= \left| \left[\sin \left(\frac{\theta + \Delta\theta}{2} \right) + \sin \left(\frac{\theta}{2} \right) \right] \left[\sin \left(\frac{\theta + \Delta\theta}{2} \right) - \sin \left(\frac{\theta}{2} \right) \right] \right| \\ &< \left(2 \sin \left(\frac{\theta}{2} \right) + \frac{|\Delta\theta|}{2} \right) \frac{|\Delta\theta|}{2} \\ &\quad \sin \frac{\theta}{2} = \sqrt{\frac{r}{2N}} \quad \quad \quad |\Delta\theta| < 2^{-m} \end{aligned}$$

$$|\Delta r| \leq \left(\sqrt{2rN} + \frac{N}{2^{m+1}} \right) 2^{-m}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Downarrow \quad m = \left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil + 1, \varepsilon = 1/6 &\quad \rightarrow \quad t = \left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil + 3 \\ \Downarrow \quad |\Delta r| < \sqrt{\frac{r}{2}} + \frac{1}{4} \sim O(\sqrt{r}) &\quad \quad \quad \Downarrow \quad O\left(\sqrt{N} = 2^{\frac{n}{2}}\right) \text{ Grover iterations} \\ \Downarrow & \end{aligned}$$

allowable angle error and reasonable success probability

Number of required iterations:

$$R \sim \frac{\pi}{4} \sqrt{\frac{N}{r}}$$

Angle error:

$$\frac{\pi}{4} \left(1 + \frac{|\Delta\theta|}{\theta} \right) \sim \frac{3}{8} \pi$$

$$\left(m = \frac{n}{2} + 1 \right)$$

Success probability:

$$\cos^2 \left(\frac{3}{8} \pi \right) \sim 0.15$$

If $r = 0$ (no solution), $|\Delta r| = 1/4$ so that the algorithm produces the estimate $r = 0$ with the probability $> 5/6$.

\Rightarrow NP-complete SAT problems

Example: 3-SAT (satisfiability) problem

Find if the following Boolean function can be satisfied or not.

$$f(x) = (x_1 \vee x_2 \vee \bar{x}_3) \wedge (\bar{x}_4 \vee x_5 \vee x_3) \wedge \dots = 1$$



$$t = |f^{-1}(1)| \geq 1 \text{ or zero? (Solution exists or not)}$$

Classical brute-force algorithm requires $\sim O(\text{poly}(n)2^n)$
Grover algorithm requires $\sim O(\text{poly}(n)\sqrt{2^n})$

This is bad news for quantum computing. The essential reason for the difficulty of NP-complete problems is that their search space has essentially no structure. The best possible method for solving such a problem is to adopt a Grover search method. This means that NP-complete problems cannot be solved by quantum computers (except for a square-root speed up) since the Grover algorithm is known to be optimum.

2.6 Quantum simulation

- Digital quantum simulation:
A quantum computer solves a physical (many body) problem.
- Analog Quantum simulation:
An artificial and controllable quantum system simulates a real physical system under study.

In order to calculate thermodynamical properties of a many body system, an ensemble quantum computer, in which many independent microscopic quantum computers execute the same operation and produce a macroscopic readout signal, is more efficient than a standard quantum computer consisting of a qubit system.

2.6.1. Spin-lattice systems

System Hamiltonian $\hat{\mathcal{H}} (\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_n) \iff$ magnetic ordering
(phase transition)

Helmholtz free energy per spin

$$F = -\frac{k_B T}{n} \ln Z = -\frac{k_B T}{n} \ln \left(\sum_m e^{-\beta E_m} \right)$$

$$\beta = \frac{1}{k_B T} \quad : \text{temperature parameter}$$

$$Z = \sum_m e^{-\beta E_m} \approx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \rho(E) e^{-\beta E} dE \quad : \text{thermodynamic partition function}$$



$$m \quad : \text{eigenstate index}$$
$$\rho(E) \quad : \text{energy density of states}$$

thermodynamic properties (magnetization, specific-heat, magnetic susceptibility …) can be easily calculated by the free energy F once it is known.

A brute-force approach to enumerate the eigen-energies $\{E_m\}$ of $\hat{\mathcal{H}}$ is difficult, because the number of eigenstates grows exponentially with the number of spins in the lattice.

cf. quantum Monte Carlo methods

(sign problem: D.P. Landau and K. Binder, A Guide to Monte Carlo Simulation in Statistical Physics (Cambridge Univ. Press, Cambridge, 2000))

The following quantum algorithms are based on

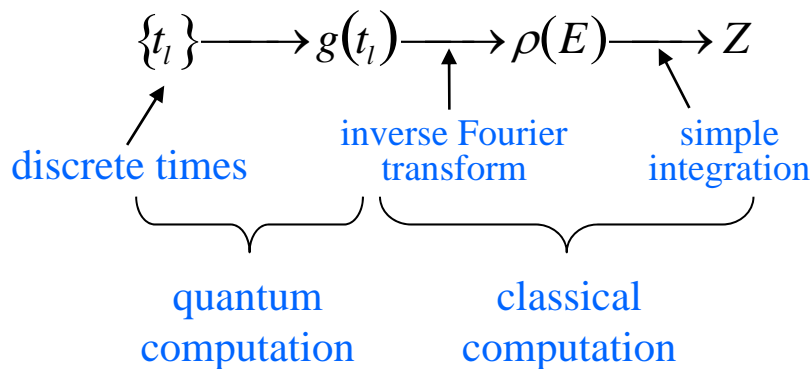
$$f(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \rho(E) e^{-iEt} dE = \sum_m e^{-iE_m t} = \text{Tr}(e^{-i\hat{\mathcal{H}}t})$$

Fourier transform of $\rho(E)$ ($\hbar = 1$) trace of the time evolution operator $\hat{U}(t)$

$$|f(t)| \leq 2^n \iff g(t) \equiv \frac{f(t)}{2^n} = \frac{1}{2^n} \text{Tr}(e^{-i\hat{\mathcal{H}}t})$$

of eigenstates $|g(t)| \leq 1$

flow of computational step:

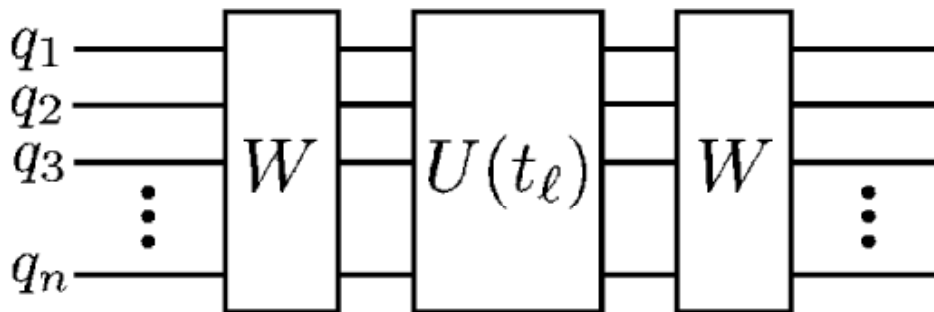


2.6.2 Ising model

$$\hat{\mathcal{H}} = -J_z \sum_{\{ij\}} \hat{\sigma}_z^{(i)} \hat{\sigma}_z^{(j)} - \sum_i h_i \hat{\sigma}_z^{(i)} : \text{diagonal in computational basis}$$

example: hetero-spin network with dipolar coupling under dc magnetic field

Simple configuration (failure case)



Step 1: $|0\rangle \xrightarrow{\hat{W}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{m=0}^{2^n-1} |m\rangle$

$$|0\rangle_1 |0\rangle_2 \cdots |0\rangle_n$$

$$= |\uparrow\rangle_1 |\uparrow\rangle_2 \cdots |\uparrow\rangle_n$$

example: $|0\rangle_1 |1\rangle_2 \cdots |0\rangle_n$


$$= |\uparrow\rangle_1 |\downarrow\rangle_2 \cdots |\uparrow\rangle_n \leftarrow \text{eigenstate of } \hat{\mathcal{H}}$$

Step 2:
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{m=0}^{2^n-1} |m\rangle \xrightarrow{\hat{U}(t_l)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{m=0}^{2^n-1} e^{-iE_m t_l} |m\rangle$$
eigen-energy

This step can be implemented as a sequence of single qubit and two-qubit gates, where the number of gates is a polynomial function of n . For Ising model in which the Hamiltonian consists of commuting pair-wise interactions, this decomposition is elementary. For the case of non-commuting terms, Trotter-Suzuki expansion can be employed.

Step 3:
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{m=0}^{2^n-1} e^{-iE_m t_l} |m\rangle \xrightarrow{\hat{W}} \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{m=0}^{2^n-1} e^{-iE_m t_l} |0\rangle + \text{orthogonal components}$$

$$\underbrace{\frac{1}{2^n} \text{Tr}(e^{-i\hat{H}t_l})}_{g(t_l)} \quad \sum_{m'=1}^{2^n-1} c_{m'} |m'\rangle$$



An unbiased estimator for $|g(t_l)|$ can be obtained by repeating the algorithm many times and counting the number of times all qubits are found in the logical $|0\rangle$ state. This probability is equal to $|g(t_l)|^2$. If an ensemble of identical microscopic quantum computers executes the same algorithm, the ensemble measurements for all qubits reveal $|g(t_l)|$ by only one computation:

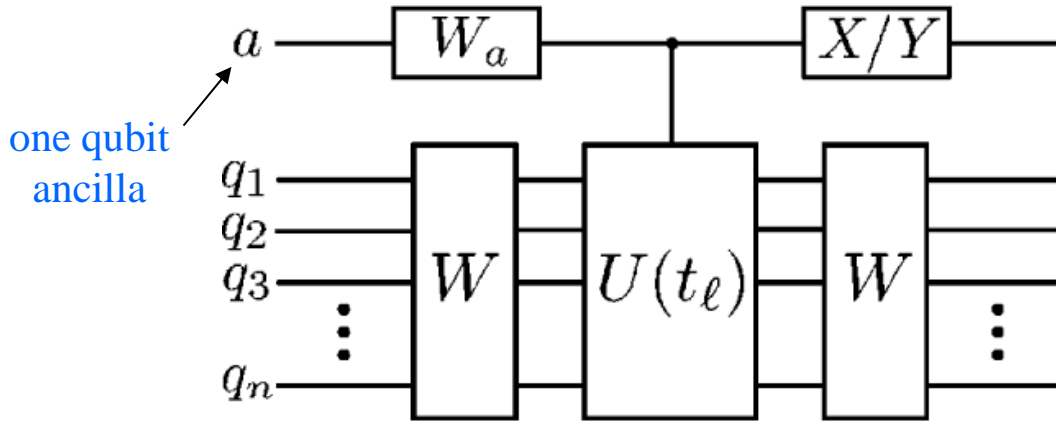


However, $|g(t_l)|$ is insufficient to reconstruct $\rho(E)$. We need $\text{Re}(g(t_l))$ and $\text{Im}(g(t_l))$.



failure

Modified configuration (successful case)



Step 1:

$$|0\rangle_a |0\rangle_q \xrightarrow{\hat{W}_a, \hat{W}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)_a \otimes \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{m=0}^{2^n-1} |m\rangle_q$$

Step 2:

$$\xrightarrow{c-\hat{U}(t_l)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[|0\rangle_a \otimes \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{m=0}^{2^n-1} e^{-iE_m t_l} |m\rangle_q + |1\rangle_a \otimes \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{m=0}^{2^n-1} |m\rangle_q \right]$$

Step 3:

$$\begin{aligned} \xrightarrow{\frac{\hat{R}_x}{\hat{W}}} & \frac{1}{2} \left\{ (i|0\rangle + |1\rangle)_a \otimes \frac{1}{2^n} \left[\text{Tr}(e^{-i\hat{H}t_l}) |0\rangle_q + \dots \right] \right. \\ & \left. + (|0\rangle + i|1\rangle)_a \otimes |0\rangle_q \right\} \\ & = \left[\frac{1+ig(t_l)}{2} \right] |0\rangle_a |0\rangle_q + i \left[\frac{1-ig(t_l)}{2} \right] |1\rangle_a |0\rangle_q + \text{orthogonal components} \end{aligned}$$

\hat{R}_x : rotation about x-axis by 90°

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} i & 1 \\ 1 & i \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} |0\rangle \\ |1\rangle \end{matrix}$$

Step 3':

$$\begin{aligned}
 \xrightarrow{\frac{\hat{R}_y}{\hat{W}}} & \frac{1}{2} \left\{ (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)_a \otimes \frac{1}{2^n} \left[\text{Tr}(e^{-i\hat{H}t_l}) |0\rangle_q + \dots \right] \right. \\
 & \left. + (|0\rangle - |1\rangle)_a \otimes |0\rangle_q \right\} \\
 & = \left[\frac{1+g(t_l)}{2} \right] |0\rangle_a |0\rangle_q - \left[\frac{1-g(t_l)}{2} \right] |1\rangle_a |0\rangle_q + \text{orthogonal components}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\hat{R}_y : \text{rotation about y-axis by } 90^\circ \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} |0\rangle \\ |1\rangle \end{matrix}$$



$$\text{Pr}(X,0,0) = \left| \frac{1+ig(t_l)}{2} \right|^2$$

$$\text{Pr}(X,1,0) = \left| \frac{1-ig(t_l)}{2} \right|^2$$

$$\text{Pr}(Y,0,0) = \left| \frac{1+g(t_l)}{2} \right|^2$$

$$\text{Pr}(Y,1,0) = \left| \frac{1-g(t_l)}{2} \right|^2$$



$$\text{Re}[g(t_l)] = \text{Pr}(Y,0,0) - \text{Pr}(Y,1,0)$$

$$\text{Im}[g(t_l)] = \text{Pr}(X,1,0) - \text{Pr}(X,0,0)$$



success

2.6.3 General spin Hamiltonian

Heisenberg model:

$$\hat{\mathcal{H}} = \sum_{\{i,j\}} J_{ij} \hat{\sigma}^{(i)} \cdot \hat{\sigma}^{(j)} - \sum_i h_i \hat{\sigma}_z^{(i)}$$

example: electron spin network with exchange coupling

XXZ model:

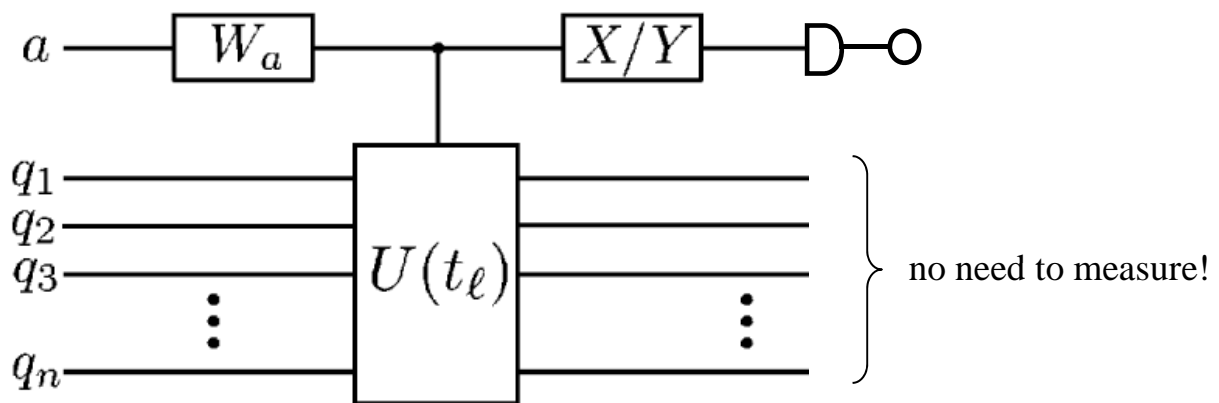
$$\hat{\mathcal{H}} = \sum_{\{i,j\}} J_x \left[\hat{\sigma}_x^{(i)} \hat{\sigma}_x^{(j)} + \hat{\sigma}_y^{(i)} \hat{\sigma}_y^{(j)} \right] + J_z \hat{\sigma}_z^{(i)} \hat{\sigma}_z^{(j)} - \sum_i h_i \hat{\sigma}_z^{(i)}$$

example: electron/nuclear homo-spin network with dipolar coupling



Hamiltonians are not diagonal in the computational basis.

E. Knill and R. Laflamme, Phys. Rev. Lett. 81, 5672 (1998)



The ancilla qubit is initialized in $|0\rangle_a$ state, while the remaining n qubits are in a fully mixed state:

$$\hat{\rho} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\hat{I}^{(a)} + \hat{\sigma}_z^{(a)} \right) \otimes \frac{1}{2^n} \hat{I}^{(q_1)} \hat{I}^{(q_2)} \cdots \hat{I}^{(q_n)}$$

$\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} [|0\rangle\langle 0| + |1\rangle\langle 1|]$

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

$\sum_l |\psi_l\rangle\langle\psi_l| = \hat{I} : \text{decomposition of unity}$

orthonormal set of states for $q_1 \cdots q_n$



We can choose the eigen-states of $\hat{\mathcal{H}}$ as $\{|\psi_i\rangle\}$



The initial density matrix can be considered as an incoherent mixture of the eigen-states of $\hat{\mathcal{H}}$.

We choose the eigenstates of the given Hamiltonian $\hat{\mathcal{H}}$ as $\{|\psi_i\rangle\}$. Even though we do not know explicitly $\{|\psi_i\rangle\}$, the initial density matrix $\frac{1}{2^n} \hat{I}^{(q_1)} \hat{I}^{(q_2)} \dots \hat{I}^{(q_n)}$ can be considered as an incoherent mixture of eigenstates for any Hamiltonian.

$$\hat{R}_x \rightarrow \langle \hat{\sigma}_z^{(a)} \rangle = \text{Im}[g(t_l)]$$

$$\hat{R}_y \rightarrow \langle \hat{\sigma}_z^{(a)} \rangle = \text{Re}[g(t_l)]$$

ensemble averaged result

The required accuracy for measuring $\hat{\sigma}_z^{(a)}$ scales exponentially ($\Delta\sigma_z^{(a)} \sim 1/2^n$) as the problem size.

$$f(t) = 2^n \cdot g(t) \iff \# \text{ of molecules} \approx 10^{24} \iff n = 40 \text{ spins}$$

The computational time scales polynomially with the problem size, $\approx O(n^2)$.

C.P. Master et al., Phys. Rev. A 67, 032311 (2003)

2.6.4 Jordan-Wigner transformation

In order to simulate a many-fermion system, we need a mapping between the algebra of fermionic system and the algebra of spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ system.

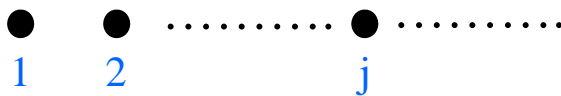
$$\{\hat{a}_j, \hat{a}_k^+\}_+ = \delta_{jk}, \quad \{\hat{a}_j, \hat{a}_k\}_+ = \{\hat{a}_j^+, \hat{a}_k^+\}_+ = 0$$

\Downarrow mapping onto spin-operators (isomorphism)

$$\hat{a}_j \rightarrow \left(\prod_{l=1}^{j-1} -\hat{\sigma}_z^{(l)} \right) \hat{\sigma}_-^{(j)} = (-1)^{j-1} \hat{\sigma}_z^1 \hat{\sigma}_z^2 \cdots \hat{\sigma}_z^{j-1} \hat{\sigma}_-^j$$

$$\hat{a}_j^+ \rightarrow \left(\prod_{l=1}^{j-1} -\hat{\sigma}_z^{(l)} \right) \hat{\sigma}_+^{(j)} = (-1)^{j-1} \hat{\sigma}_z^1 \hat{\sigma}_z^2 \cdots \hat{\sigma}_z^{j-1} \hat{\sigma}_+^j$$

example: 1-D spinless fermions



$$\hat{\mathcal{H}} = -t \sum_j \left(\hat{a}_{j+1}^+ \hat{a}_j + \hat{a}_j^+ \hat{a}_{j+1} \right) + U \sum_j \hat{n}_j \hat{n}_{j+1}$$

\nwarrow tunneling
 \swarrow mutual Coulomb interaction

$$\hat{\mathcal{H}} = -2t \sum_j \left(\hat{\sigma}_x^{(j)} \hat{\sigma}_x^{(j+1)} + \hat{\sigma}_y^{(j)} \hat{\sigma}_y^{(j+1)} \right) + 4U \sum_j \hat{\sigma}_z^{(j)} \hat{\sigma}_z^{(j+1)} + U_0$$

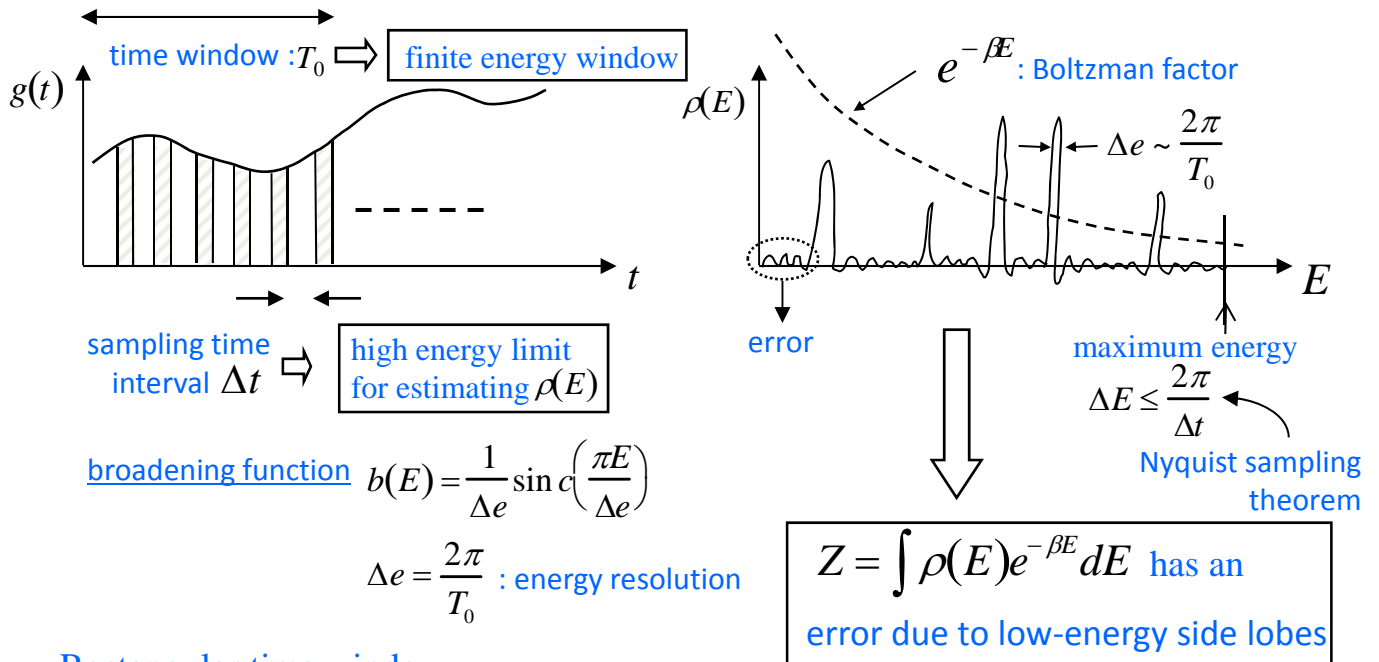
: anisotropic Heisenberg (XXZ) model



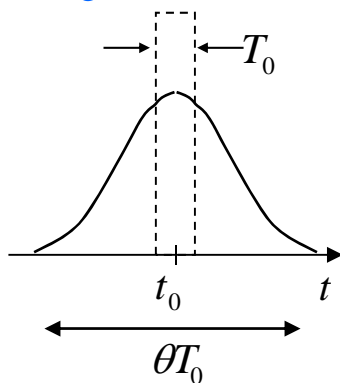
Ensemble quantum algorithm using mixed state qubits

2.6.5 Efficiency of the ensemble quantum algorithm

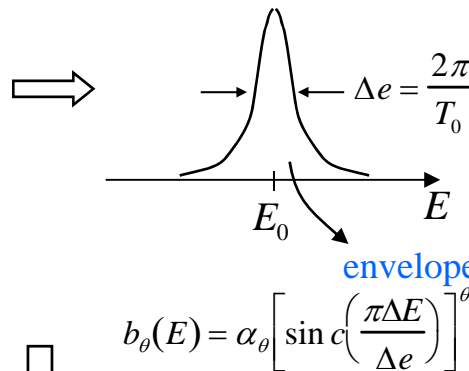
How many samples of $g(t)$ do we need to accurately calculate Z ?



Rectangular time window



Gaussian time window



The error can be minimized by small Δe and large θ , but the number of iterations $N = \frac{\theta T_0}{\Delta t}$ increases. How does N scale with the number of spins n ?

The total time scale polynomially with the number of spins ($\sim O(n^2)$).