# 計算機科学の視点からの 量子アルゴリズムの応用例

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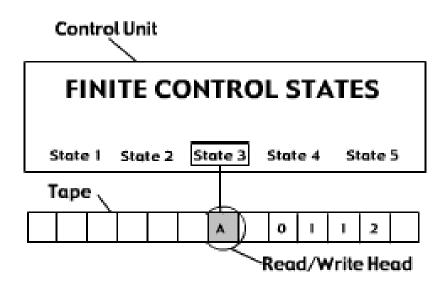
## **Today's Talk**

- Introduction
  - -Shigeru Yamashita
  - -Topics for C. S. people (Yamashita's Perspective)
    - NP, Query Complexity
- Amplitude Amplification and Its Applications
- Quantum Walk and Its Applications



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## **Turing's Machine**



• Alphabet  $\Sigma$ , state space K

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- $f: K \times \Sigma \rightarrow K \times \Sigma \times \{\leftarrow, \rightarrow, ?\} \times \{\text{Halt, Yes, No}\}$
- Language: L  $\mu$   $\Sigma^{\star}$  is decided by  $M_L$

## P vs. NP

## Polynomial Time (PTIME)

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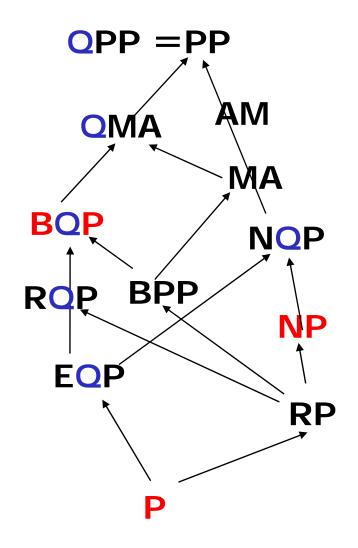
L is in P if there exists a Turing Machine M which for every x, decides if x is in L in polynomially many steps.

# Non-Deterministic Polynomial Time

L is in NP if there exists a Turing Machine M s.t. for every x

- If x is in L then there **exists w** s.t.  $M(x,w) \rightarrow$  "Yes" in PTIME.
- If x is **not** in L then there is **no** such w.

## **Computational Complexity Class**





## Most People in C. S. believe

#### **Polynomial Time Turing Hypothesis:**

Any physical computing device can be simulated by a randomizing Turing machine that takes a number of steps that grows as at most some fixed polynomial in the quantity T+S+E where T, A and E are the time, space and energy used by the computing device.

How about Quantum T. M. ....?



### **NP-completeness**

A problem P is NP-hard if **every** problem in NP has a polynomial-time reduction to P.

Moral: At least as hard as any other problem in NP

*If P is in NP and NP-hard then P is NP-complete.* 

## **Cook's Theorem**

Satisfiability (SAT) is NP-Complete



## What is SAT?

For *n* variable Boolean Function  $f(X) = (x_1 + x'_2 + x_3) (x'_4 + x_5 + x_6) \dots (x_n + x'_{n-2} + x_1)$ Find an variable assignment  $X = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ s. t. f(X) = 1

- There are obviously  $2^n$  possible assignments to the *n* variables, so exhaustive search takes time  $O(2^n)$
- It's NP-complete
  - -if we can solve SAT quickly, we can solve anything in NP quickly (Cook's theorem, 1971)
- Many and varied applications in itself:
  - -theorem proving
  - -hardware design
  - -machine vision

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## k-SAT

- If the maximum number of variables in each clause is *k*, we call the problem *k*-SAT
- 1-SAT is simple:  $f(X) = (x_1)(x'_2)(x_N)$ -and can be solved in time O(n)
- 2-SAT is also straightforward

   can be solved in time O(n<sup>2</sup>) using a simple
   random walk algorithm, which we will see later
- 3-SAT is NP-complete



### Very Hard to Analyze Computational Complexity; Consider "Query Complexity"

### Unstructured Search for SAT

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- Don't use any knowledge of the problem's structure; just pass in an assignment and ask "does this satisfy the expression?"
- What we can do is only to evaluate *f*
- # of such evaluations is called query complexity
- (Usually) Computational Complexity = # of queries \* (query cost)

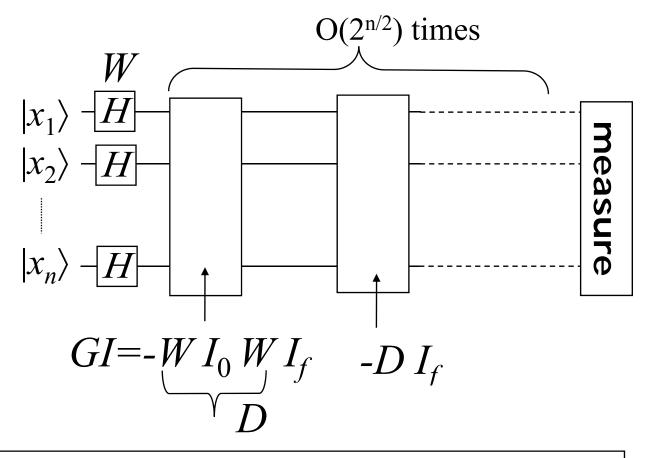
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## **Grover's Algorithm Revisited**

Find a variable assignment s. t. a function becomes 1 (among 2<sup>n</sup> possible assignments)



The computational cost = query comp =  $O(2^{n/2})$ 

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### Solving SAT based on Sampling

For *N* variable Boolean Function  $f(X) = (x_1 + x'_2 + x_3) (x'_4 + x_5 + x_6) \dots (x_N + x'_{N-2} + x_1)$ Find a variable assignment  $X = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N)$ s. t. f(X) = 1

(1) Select a variable assignment, *x*, from 2<sup>n</sup> assignments randomly
(2) Check whether *f*(*x*) = 1

$$\Box$$
 Succ. Prob. =  $1/2^n$ 

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 $\implies$  Succ. Prob. = const. by  $O(2^n)$  samplings (Quantumly,  $O(2^{n/2})$  by G. S.)

### Sampling from all the possible candidates



 $|0...00\rangle$   $|0...01\rangle$   $\cdots$   $|1...01\rangle$   $\cdots$   $|1...11\rangle$ 

Succ. Prob. of one sampling is  $1/2^n$ Classical Sampling :  $O(2^n)$ Grover Search:  $O(2^{n/2})$ 



(Classical) Sampling from narrowed set of candidates

•Solution candidates (range) is known

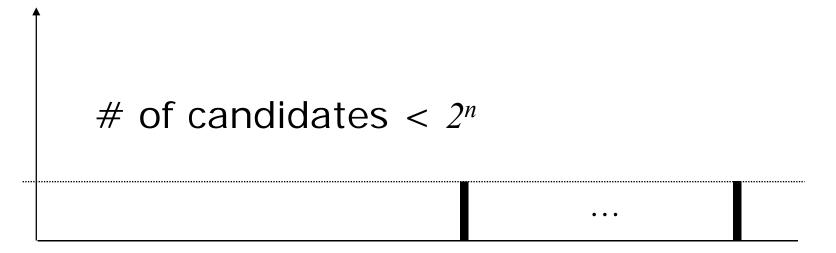
•Check an answer is easy

Then, we can do the following:

If the succ. prob. of a sampling is a, we can get an answer with constant prob. by repeating the sampling O(1/a) times.



#### Quantum Sampling from narrowed set of candidates



$$|0...00\rangle$$
  $|0...01\rangle$   $\cdots$   $|1...01\rangle$   $\cdots$   $|1...11\rangle$ 

If the succ. prob. of a sampling is a, we can get an answer with constant prob. by repeating the sampling O(1/a) times.

If we have a quantum algorithm, A, to create the above superposition,  $O(\sqrt{1/a})$  repetition is enough

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## (Quantum) Amplitude Amplification

- A:(Quantum) Algorithm without measurement
- a: The prob. of getting the correct answer by measuring the result of A
- To boost the succ. prob. to constant,

#### **By classical amplification**

Repeat A 
$$O(1/a)$$
 times

#### By quantum amplification

Repeat 
$$Q = -AI_0 A^{-1}I_f$$
  $O(\sqrt{1/a})$  times



## Relation to G. S.

Repeat 
$$Q = -AI_0 A^{-1}I_f \qquad O(\sqrt{1/a})$$
 times

Generalizations of G. S.

$$GI = -WI_0 WI_f$$

Without prior knowledge
→W: Generating uniform superposition
With some knowledge concerning solutions
→A: Generating narrowed superposition



Analysis of A. A. (1/2)  

$$|\Psi\rangle = A|0\rangle = |\Psi_1\rangle + |\Psi_0\rangle \longrightarrow Q = -AI_0A^{-1}I_f$$
*a*: Succ. Prob. of A  

$$(a = \langle \Psi_1 | \Psi_1 \rangle)$$

$$Q|\Psi_1\rangle = (1-2a)|\Psi_1\rangle - 2a|\Psi_0\rangle$$

$$Q|\Psi_0\rangle = 2(1-a)|\Psi_1\rangle + (1-2a)|\Psi_0\rangle$$

$$\alpha_1|\Psi_1\rangle + \alpha_0|\Psi_0\rangle \longrightarrow \beta_1|\Psi_1\rangle + \beta_0|\Psi_0\rangle$$

$$\binom{\beta_1}{\beta_0} = Q\binom{\alpha_1}{\alpha_0} = \binom{1-2a}{2(1-a)}\binom{\alpha_1}{1-2a}\binom{\alpha_1}{\alpha_0}$$



## Analysis of A. A. (2/2)

$$\begin{pmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_0 \end{pmatrix} = Q \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1-2a & -2a \\ 2(1-a) & 1-2a \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Q^{j} |\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}} \sin((2j+1)\theta_{a}) |\psi_{1}\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-a}} \cos((2j+1)\theta_{a}) |\psi_{0}\rangle$$

$$(\sin^{2}\theta_{a} = a)$$
Set  $j = \lfloor \pi/4\theta_{a} \rfloor = O(1/\sqrt{a})$ 

Then,  $|\psi_1\rangle$  is measured w.p. (at least) 1-a

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### Summary of A. A.

- A. A. is a generalization of G. S. algorithm
- It can boost the success probability of randomized algorithm quadratically faster than classically if we have a way to verify the solution
- Usually, we consider query complexity, and how to reduce it by using A. A. is one of research topics.



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### How to use A. A.

 Generally speaking, we can do quadratically faster than the classical corresponding search based on sampling

Example 1: How to use prior knowledge

Example 2: How to use A. A.



Example 1: How to use prior knowledge (1/3)

For *n* variable Boolean Function  $f(X) = (x_1 + x'_2 + x_3) (x'_4 + x_5 + x_6) \dots (x_n + x'_{n-2} + x_1)$ Find an variable assignment  $X = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ s. t. f(X) = 1

Prior knowledge: The variable assignment should have exactly k 1's

#### (Classical) sampling using the knowledge

Select a variable assignment that has exactly k 1's
 2n assignments randomly

2. Check whether f(x) = 1

Succ. Prob. = 
$$\frac{1}{n}C_k \longrightarrow O({}_nC_k) = O(\sqrt{2^n})$$

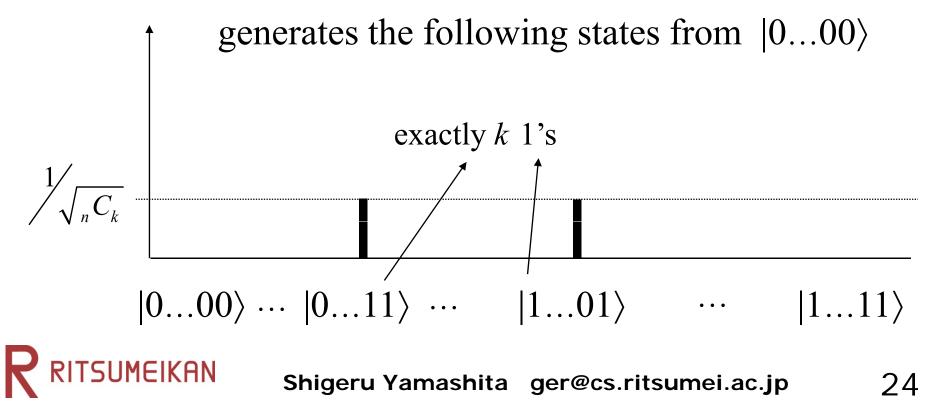


#### Example 1: How to use prior knowledge (2/3)

#### (Classical) sampling using the knowledge

- Select a variable assignment that has exactly k 1's
   2n assignments randomly
- 2. Check whether f(x) = 1

We need to construct a quantum algorithm A that



Example 1: How to use prior knowledge (3/3)

Example 2: How to use A. A. (1/3)

**Element distinctness** 

 $\mathbf{X}_1 \ \mathbf{X}_2 \ \mathbf{X}_3 \qquad \mathbf{X}_N$ 

- Numbers  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_{N.}$
- Determine if two of them are equal.
- Classically: N queries are needed



## Example 2: How to use A. A. (2/3)

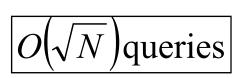
#### Randomized Algorithm for E. D.

1. Choose  $\sqrt{N}$  numbers  $i_1, \dots, i_{\sqrt{N}} \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ . If any two of  $f(i_1), \dots, f(i_{\sqrt{N}})$  are equal,

output the two equal elements.

2. Find k (by G.S.) s. t.  $f(k) = f(i_j)$  where k is

 $O(\sqrt{N})$ queries



chosen from the remaining  $N - \sqrt{N}$  indecies.

\* We do not need to query  $f(i_j)$  at step 2.

If there is a pair *i* and *j* s. t. f(i) = f(j), the algorithm succeds

when *i* is chosen at step 1. Thus, the success probability  $\geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}$ . **RITSUMEIKAN** Shigeru Yamashita ger@cs.ritsumei.ac.jp 27

## Example 2: How to use A. A. (3/3)

### Boost Succ. Prob. by A. A.

Recall that if the succ. Prob. = awe can get the constant error algorithm by repeating the algorithm  $O(\sqrt{1/a})$  times

Thus, in this case, we need to repeat

the algorithm  $O\left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{1/\sqrt{N}}}\right) = O(N^{1/4})$  times

The total query complexity is

$$O\left(N^{1/4}\sqrt{N}\right) = O\left(N^{3/4}\right)$$



### Summary of A. A.

- A. A. is a generalization of G. S. algorithm
- It can boost the success probability of randomized algorithm quadratically faster than classically if we have a way to verify the solution
- Usually, we consider query complexity, and how to reduce it by using A. A. is one of research topics.



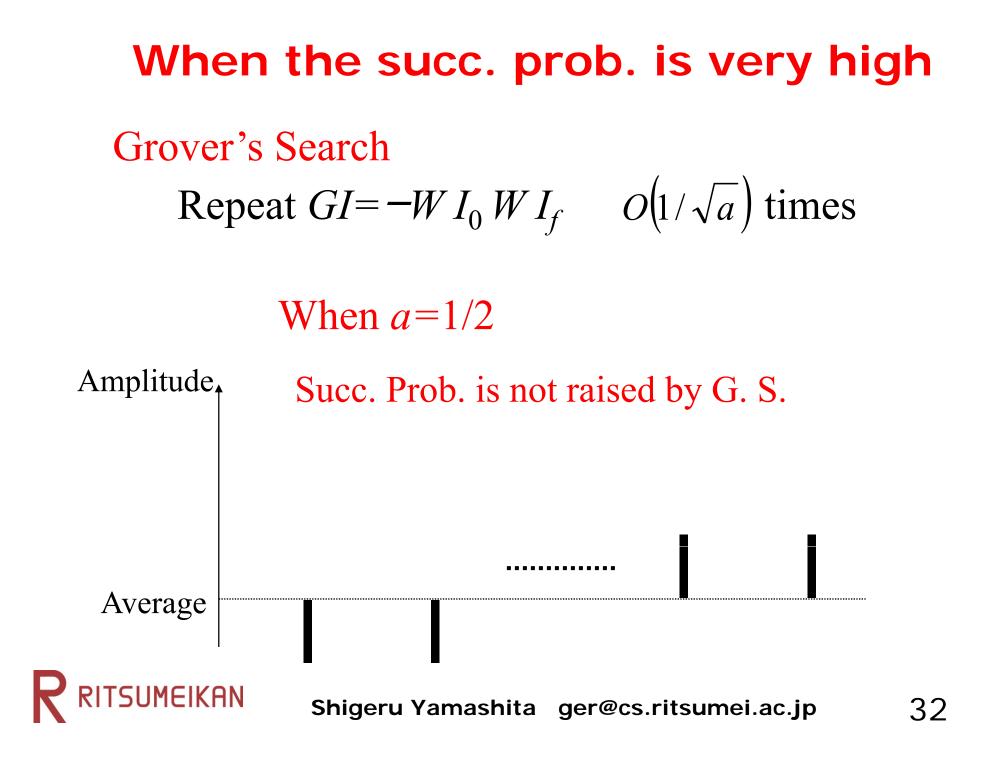
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  - -Additional Topic
- Quantum Walk and Its Applications



When the succ. prob. is very high Grover's Search Repeat  $GI = -WI_0 WI_f = O(1/\sqrt{a})$  times When a=1/2Amplitude, Succ. Prob. is not raised by G. S. .....

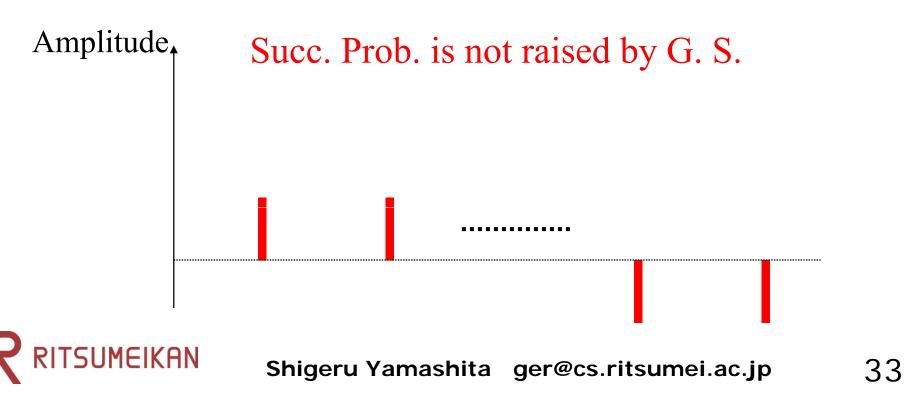




### When the succ. prob. is high

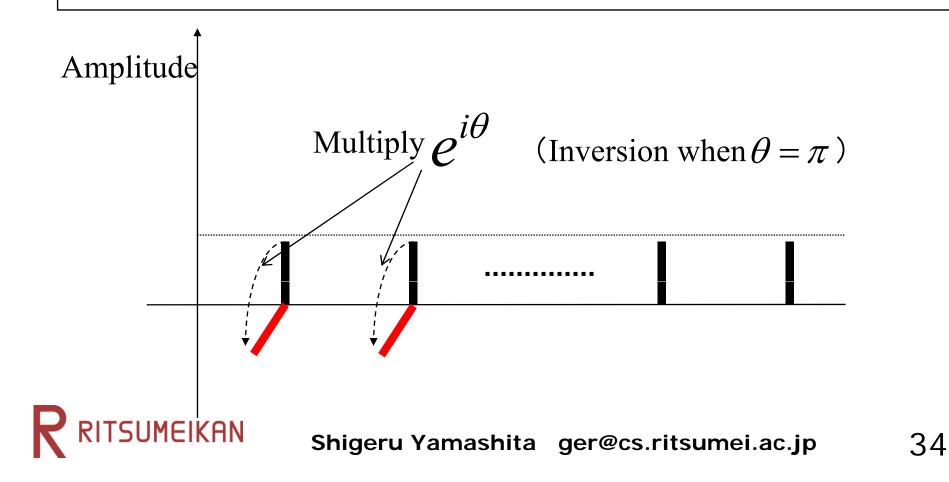
# Grover's Search Repeat $GI = -W I_0 W I_f \qquad O(1/\sqrt{a})$ times

When a = 1/2



## Generalization of $I_0$ and $I_f$ (1/4)

When the succ. prob. is high, A. A. does not help  $\rightarrow$  decrease the succ. prob. purposely



Generalization of  $I_0$  and  $I_f$  (2/4) Repeat  $Q = -WI_0WI_f O(1/\sqrt{a})$  times  $I_0 \dots$ Invert  $|0\rangle$  $I_f \dots$  Invert  $|i\rangle$  (s.t. f(i)=1)  $S_0 \dots$  Multiply  $e^{i\theta}$  to  $|0\rangle$  $S_f \dots$  Multiply  $e^{i\theta}$  to  $|i\rangle$  (s.t. f(i)=1)  $Q' = -WS_0WS_f$  Just apply once!



Generalization of  $I_0$  and  $I_f$  (3/4)  $W|0\rangle = |\psi_1\rangle + |\psi_0\rangle \left\{ \begin{array}{l} |\psi_1\rangle = 1/\sqrt{N} \sum_{f(i)=1} |i\rangle \\ |\psi_0\rangle = 1/\sqrt{N} \sum_{f(i)\neq 1} |i\rangle \\ (a = \langle \psi_1 | \psi_1 \rangle) \end{array} \right\}$  $(-2e^{i\theta}+1-(e^{i\theta}-1)^2a)|\psi_1\rangle+(-e^{i\theta}-(e^{i\theta}-1)^2a)|\psi_0\rangle$ The Prob. of getting  $|\psi_0\rangle$  (= error prob.) =  $(1-2\cos\theta - 2(1-\cos\theta)(1-a)^2)(1-a)$ 



# Generalization of $I_0$ and $I_f$ (4/4)

error prob. = 
$$(1-2\cos\theta - 2(1-\cos\theta)(1-a)^2)(1-a)$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{2a-1}{2a} \rightarrow \text{error prob.} = 0$$
  
$$\cos \theta = \frac{1}{2} \rightarrow \text{error prob.} = (1-a)^3$$
  
(Classically, error prob. = (1-a))



### Outline

- 1. What is query complexity?
- 2. Amplitude Amplification and Its Algorithmic Applications
- 3. Quantum Walk and Its Algorithmic Applications
  - 1. How important for computation
  - 2. Intuitive difference between random and quantum walks
  - 3. Algorithmic Applications
    - 1. Spatial Search

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- 2. Element Distinctness
- 4. (Some of my research topics) if time permits

# What are (quantum/random) walks?

- A random walk is the simulation of the random movement of a particle around a graph
- A quantum walk is the same but with a quantum particle
  - not the same as running a normal random walk algorithm on a quantum computer
- Random walks are a useful model for developing classical algorithms; quantum walks provide a new way of developing quantum algorithms
  - which is particularly important because producing new quantum algorithms is so hard



Example: Random walk for 2-SAT (1/3)

Input: Boolean formula (conjunction of clauses of 2 variables)

 $f(X) = (x_1 \lor x'_2) \land (x'_1 \lor x_3) \land (x_2 \lor x_3) \land (x'_1 \lor x'_3)$ 

Question: Is the formula satisfaisable? (ex. YES, 001 is satisfying assignment)

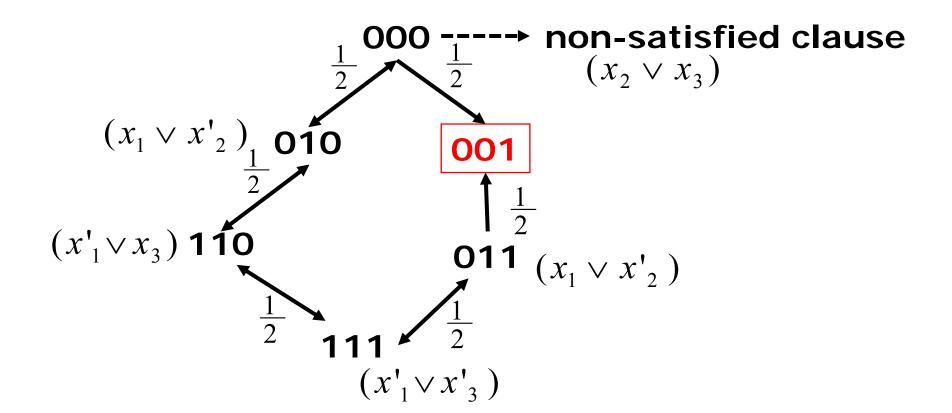
#### **Algorithm**:

- 1) initialise the variables u.a. random (ex. 000)
- 2) if all clauses satisfied STOP, otherwise:
- 3) chose a non-satisfied clause, chose one of its two variables and flip its value; return to 2)



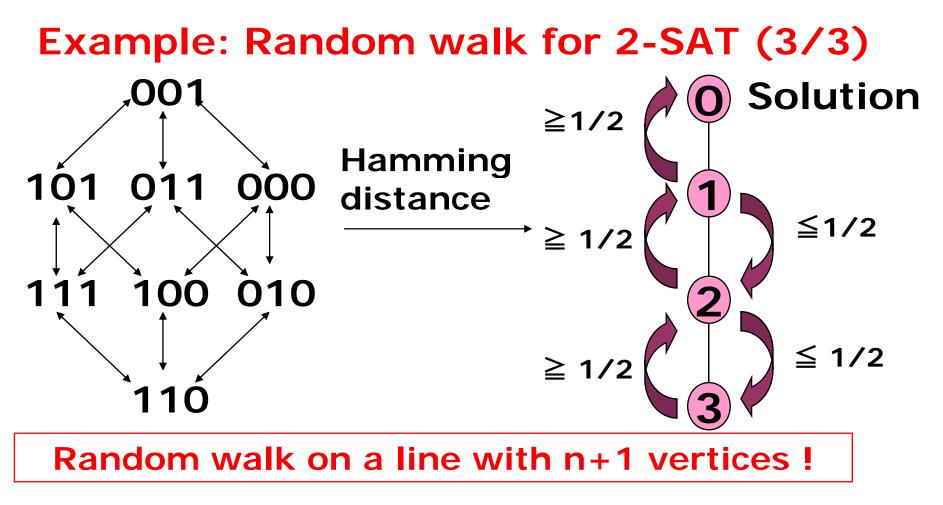
#### Example: Random walk for 2-SAT (2/3)

$$f(X) = (x_1 \lor x'_2) \land (x'_1 \lor x_3) \land (x_2 \lor x_3) \land (x'_1 \lor x'_3)$$





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After t=2n<sup>2</sup> repetitions, the succes probability is >1/2 (if the formula is satisfiable).

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# Random walk algorithm for 3-SAT

- Schöning developed (1999) a simple randomised algorithm for 3-SAT:
  - -start with a random assignment to all variables
  - -find which clauses are not satisfied by the assignment
  - -flip one of the variables which appears in that clause
  - –repeat until satisfying assignment found (or 3n steps have elapsed)
- This simple algorithm has worst-case time complexity of O(1.34<sup>n</sup>)

-Still exponential, but better than G. S.?



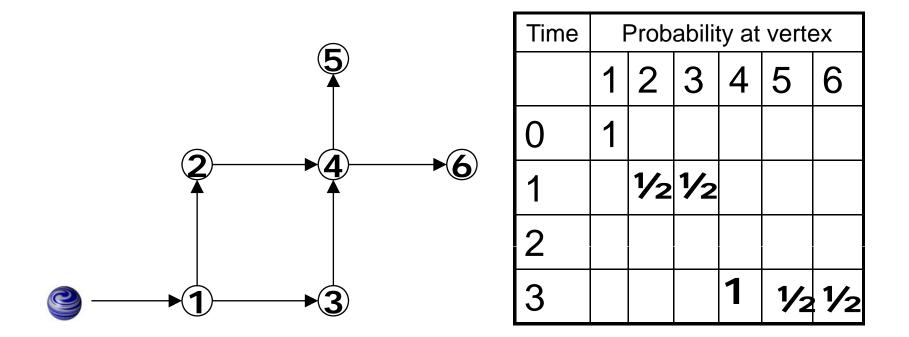
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# Physical intuition behind a classical random walk on a graph

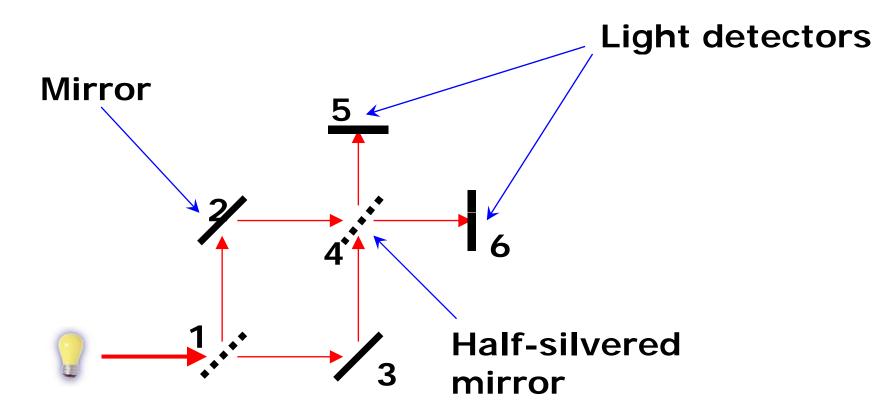


After 3 steps we are in position "5" or "6" with equal probability.

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# Physical intuition behind a quantum walk on a graph

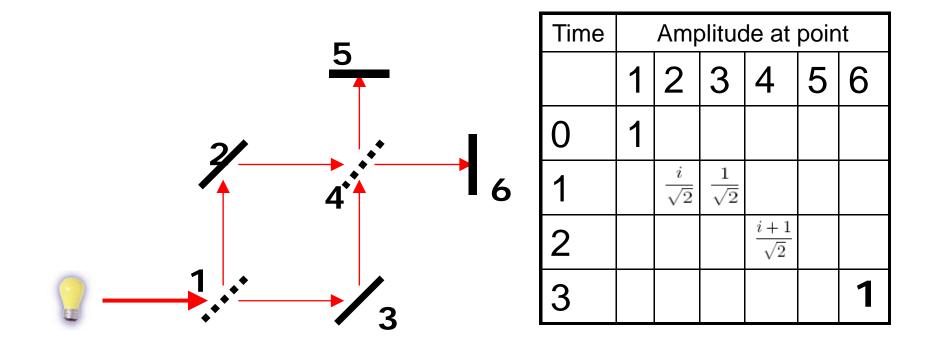




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# Physical intuition behind a quantum walk on a graph



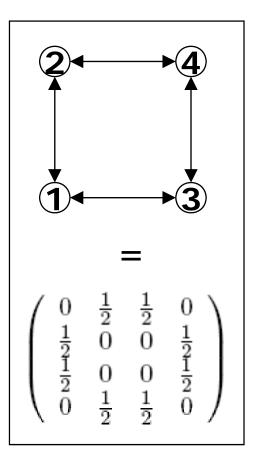
After 3 steps we are guaranteed to be in detector "6" – this is caused by quantum interference.

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#### Mathematical definition of a random walk

- Express a classical random walk as a matrix W of transition probabilities

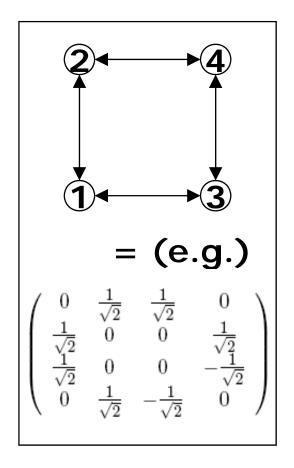
   where the entries in each column sum to 1
- Express a position as a column vector  $\boldsymbol{v}$
- Performing a step of the walk corresponds to pre-multiplying v by W
- Performing n steps of the walk corresponds to pre-multiplying v by W<sup>n</sup>





#### Mathematical definition of a quantum walk

- Very similar, but:
  - -probabilities combine differently (sum of the amplitudes squared must be 1)
  - the transition matrix must be *unitary* (ie. send unit vectors to unit vectors)
- This will not in general be the case, so we may need to modify the structure of the graph for example, by adding a *coin space*





#### **Classical random walk on the line**

Consider a walk on the following simple infinite graph:



- Useful models for many random processes
- When the walker has equal probability to move left or right, average distance from the start position after time *n* is  $\sqrt{n}$
- This is not reversible, so we cannot simply do this in quantumly.



#### Quantum walk on the line

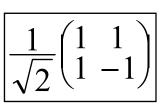
- We have two quantum registers:
  - $-a \operatorname{coin} \operatorname{register} \operatorname{holding} |L\rangle \operatorname{or} |R\rangle$
  - a position register  $|p\rangle$
- One step of the walk -coin flip:  $\begin{array}{c} |L\rangle \rightarrow |L\rangle + \mathbf{i}|R\rangle, \\ |R\rangle \rightarrow \mathbf{i}|L\rangle + |R\rangle \end{array}$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ i & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

unitary

- -shift:  $|L\rangle|p\rangle \rightarrow |L\rangle|p-1\rangle$  $|R\rangle|p\rangle \rightarrow |R\rangle|p+1\rangle$
- When the walker has equal probability to move left or right, average distance from the start position after time *n* is *n*

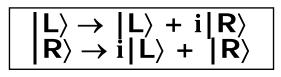
Any unitary operator can be used. E. g.,  $\left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\begin{pmatrix}1 & 1\\1 & -1\end{pmatrix}\right|$ 





## Quantum walk on the line

- 0. start  $\rightarrow |R\rangle|0\rangle$
- 1.  $coin \rightarrow (i|L\rangle + |R\rangle)|0\rangle$ shift  $\rightarrow i|L\rangle|-1\rangle + |R\rangle|1\rangle$



- 2.  $\operatorname{coin} \rightarrow (\mathbf{i}|L\rangle |R\rangle)|-1\rangle + (\mathbf{i}|L\rangle + |R\rangle)|1\rangle$ shift  $\rightarrow \mathbf{i}|L\rangle|-2\rangle - |R\rangle|0\rangle + \mathbf{i}|L\rangle|0\rangle + |R\rangle|2\rangle$
- 3.  $\operatorname{coin} \rightarrow (i|L\rangle |R\rangle)|-2\rangle |R\rangle|0\rangle + (i|L\rangle + |R\rangle)|2\rangle$  $\operatorname{shift} \rightarrow i|L\rangle|-3\rangle - |R\rangle|-1\rangle - |R\rangle|1\rangle + i|L\rangle|1\rangle + |R\rangle|3\rangle$

Time	Probability at vertex								
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3		
0				1					
1			$\frac{1}{2}$		$\frac{1}{2}$				
2		$\frac{1}{4}$		$\frac{1}{2}$		$\frac{1}{4}$			
3	$\frac{1}{8}$		$\frac{1}{8}$		<u>5</u> 8		$\frac{1}{8}$		

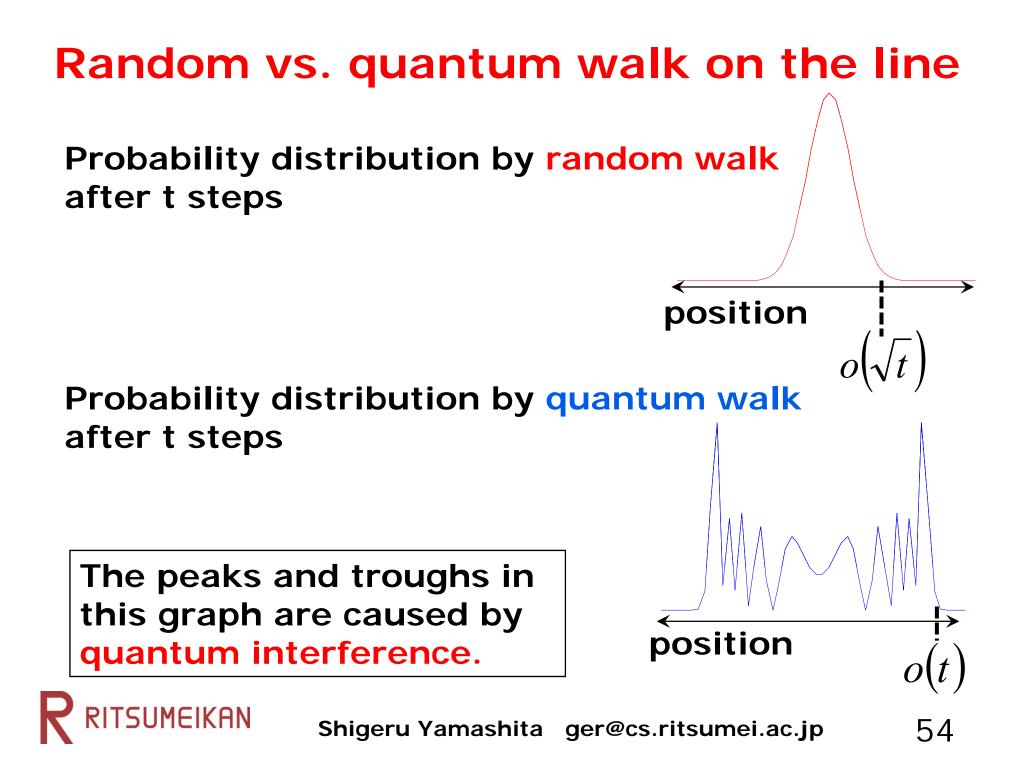


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# Random walk on the line

Probability at vertex									
-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3			
			1						
		$\frac{1}{2}$		$\frac{1}{2}$					
	$\frac{1}{4}$		$\frac{1}{2}$		$\frac{1}{4}$				
$\frac{1}{8}$	(	$\frac{3}{8}$		$\frac{3}{8}$		$\frac{1}{8}$			
		-3 -2	-3       -2       -1         Image: state sta	-3       -2       -1       0         Image: 1 minimum display="black; color: black; c	-3       -2       -1       0       1         Image: Image of the system of t	-3       -2       -1       0       1       2         1       1       1       1       1 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{1}{4}$			





### Outline

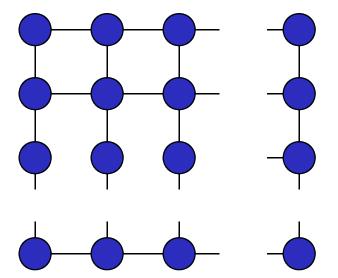
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# **Quantum search on grids**

$$\sqrt{N} \times \sqrt{N} = N$$
 nodes



- Find a marked node
  - Grover's algorithm takes  $O(\sqrt{N}) \times O(\sqrt{N}) = O(N)$  steps.

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### No quantum speedup.



#### Quantum walk on grid

• Basis states

 $|x,y,\leftrightarrow\rangle, |x,y,\rightarrow\rangle, |x,y,\uparrow\rangle, |x,y,\downarrow\rangle.$ 

• Coin flip on direction:

• Shift:

Coin flip on direction:  

$$\begin{cases}
-\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{1}{2} \quad -\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{1}{2} \quad -\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad -\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad -\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad -\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad -\frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1$$



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## Search by quantum walk

• Perform a quantum walk with "coin flip":

–C in unmarked locations;

--I in marked locations.

- After  $O(\sqrt{N \log N})$  steps, measure the state.
- Gives marked  $|x, y, d\rangle$  with prob. 1/log N

• By using A. A., total cost becomes  $O(\sqrt{N}\log N)$ 



### Outline

- 1. What is query complexity?
- 2. Amplitude Amplification and Its Algorithmic Applications
- 3. Quantum Walk and Its Algorithmic Applications
  - 1. How important for computation
  - 2. Intuitive difference between random and quantum walks
  - 3. Algorithmic Applications
    - 1. Spatial Search

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- 2. Element Distinctness
- 4. (Some of my research topics) if time permits

# **Element distinctness**

$$\mathbf{X}_1 \ \mathbf{X}_2 \ \mathbf{X}_3 \qquad \mathbf{X}_N$$

- Numbers  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_{N.}$
- Determine if two of them are equal.
- Well studied problem in classical CS.
- Classically: N steps.
- Quantumly, O(N<sup>2/3</sup>) steps.

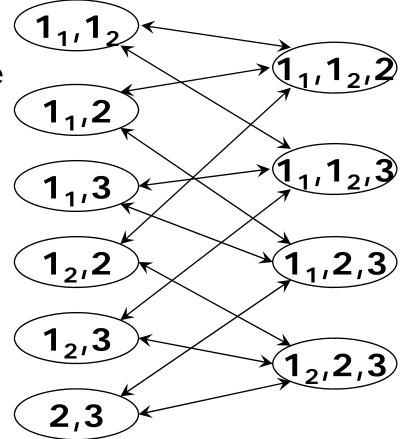


#### Quantum walk algorithm for E. D. (1/2)

- We use a quantum walk on a graph where the vertices are subsets of **S** containing either M or M + 1 elements for some M < N</li>
- Two vertices are connected if they differ in exactly one element
- The graph on the right encodes the set {1, 1, 2, 3} for M = 2

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**{1, 1, 2, 3}** 





#### Quantum walk algorithm for E. D. (2/2)

- Basic walk algorithm:
  - 1.start with some subset  $S' \subseteq S$  (where |S'| = M)
  - 2.check whether **S'** contains any duplicates (needs O(M) queries)
  - 3.if not, change to a different subset S'' that differs in exactly one element
  - 4.check S'' for duplicates (needs 1 query)
  - 5. repeat steps 3 and 4 until a duplicate is found
- Because this is a quantum walk, we can start with a superposition of all M-subsets



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## Analysis of the quantum walk

- In total, we need (M + r) queries, where

   M is the number of elements in the initial subset
   r is the number of steps of the quantum walk
- When  $M = N^{2/3}$  and  $r = N^{1/3}$ , a solution can be found with high probability. Thus the query comp. =  $O(N^{2/3})$



# Summary

- Introduction
  - -Shigeru Yamashita
  - -Topics for C. S. people (Yamashita's Perspective)
    - NP, Query Complexity
- Amplitude Amplification and Its Applications
- Quantum Walk and Its Applications

# \*You can just Google to find papers concerning these topics.



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