## **Quantum Computation** The phase kick-back effect: Bernstein-Varziani and Deutsch-Joza algorithms

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## The phase kick-back pattern

Recall that every quantum operation gives rise to a controlled quantum operation:



Let v be an eigenvector of U (i.e.  $Uv = e^{i\theta}v$ ) and calculate

$$cU((\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle) \otimes v)$$
  
=  $cU(\alpha|0\rangle \otimes v + \beta|1\rangle \otimes v)$   
=  $\alpha|0\rangle \otimes v + \beta|1\rangle \otimes Uv$   
=  $\alpha|0\rangle \otimes v + \beta|1\rangle \otimes e^{i\theta}v$ 

 $= (\alpha |0\rangle + e^{i\theta}\beta |1\rangle) \otimes v$ 

## The phase kick-back pattern

What just happened?

- Global phase  $e^{i\theta}$  (introduced to v) was 'kicked-back' as a relative phase in the control qubit
- Some information of U is now encoded in the control qubit

In general kicking-back such phases causes interference patterns that give away information about  ${\boldsymbol{\mathcal{U}}}$ 

Deutsch-Josza's problem

## A parenthesis on global/local phase



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## Global phase factor

## Definition Let $v, u \in \mathbb{C}^{2^n}$ be vectors. If $u = e^{i\theta}v$ we say that it is equal to v up to global phase factor $e^{i\theta}$

#### Theorem

 $e^{i\theta}v$  and v are indistinguishable in the world of quantum mechanics

#### Proof sketch

Show that equality up to global phase is preserved by operators and normalisation + show that probability outcomes associated with v and  $e^{i\theta}v$  are the same

## Relative phase factor

#### Definition

We say that vectors  $\sum_{x \in 2^n} \alpha_x |x\rangle$  and  $\sum_{x \in 2^n} \beta_x |x\rangle$  differ by a relative phase factor if for all  $x \in 2^n$ 

$$\alpha_x = e^{i heta_x}eta_x$$
 (for some angle  $heta_x$ )

#### Example

Vectors  $|0\rangle + |1\rangle$  and  $|0\rangle - |1\rangle$  differ by a relative phase factor.

Vectors that differ by a relative phase factor are distinguishable

Deutsch-Josza's problem

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## End of parenthesis

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## Basic example: U = cX



$$\begin{array}{lll} cX|0\rangle|\phi\rangle &=& |0\rangle I|\phi\rangle\\ cX|1\rangle|\phi\rangle &=& |1\rangle X|\phi\rangle \end{array}$$

Thus, e.g.

$$cX\left(\frac{|0\rangle+|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}\right)\,\left(\frac{|0\rangle-|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}\right)\,=\,\left(\frac{|0\rangle-|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}\right)\,\left(\frac{|0\rangle-|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$$

The phase jumps, or is kicked back, from the second to the first qubit.

## Basic example: U = cX

Actually, this happens because  $\frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$  is an eigenvector of

- X (with  $\lambda = -1$ ) and of I (with  $\lambda = 1$ )
- and, thus,  $X \frac{|0\rangle |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = -1 \frac{|0\rangle |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$  and  $I \frac{|0\rangle |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = 1 \frac{|0\rangle |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$

Thus,

$$cX |1\rangle \left(\frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}\right) = |1\rangle \left(X \left(\frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}\right)\right)$$
$$= |1\rangle \left((-1) \left(\frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}\right)\right)$$
$$= -|1\rangle \left(\frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$$

while 
$$cX |0\rangle \left(\frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}\right) = |0\rangle \left(\frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$$

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## The phase kick-back pattern

#### Phase kick-back in cX can be presented as

 $cX|b\rangle|-\rangle = (-1)^{b}|b\rangle|-\rangle$ 

with  $|b\rangle$  an element of the computational basis.

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## Revisiting Deutsch's problem



Oracle  $U_f$  can be seen as a generalised controlled not-operation

## Revisiting Deutsch's problem

#### Thus,



Analogously to the cX case, phase kick-back can be represented as

 $U_f|x\rangle|-\rangle = (-1)^{f(x)}|x\rangle|-\rangle$ 

## The Bernstein-Vazirani algorithm

Let  $2^n = \{0, 1\}^n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots 2^n - 1\}$  be the set of non-negative integers represented as bit strings up to *n* bits)., Then, consider the following problem:

#### The problem

Let *s* be an unknown non-negative integer less than  $2^n$ , encoded as a bit string, and consider a function  $f : \{0, 1\}^n \to \{0, 1\}$  which hides secret *s* as follows:  $f(x) = x \cdot s$ , for some fixed bit-string *s*, where

$$x \cdot s = x_1 s_1 \oplus x_2 s_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus x_n s_n$$

i.e. the bitwise product of x and s, modulo 2.

Note that juxtaposition abbreviates conjunction, i.e.  $x_1s_1 = x_1 \wedge s_1$ 

## Setting the stage

#### Lemma

(1) For 
$$a, b \in \{0, 1\}$$
 the equation  $(-1)^{a}(-1)^{b} = (-1)^{a \oplus b}$  holds

#### Proof sketch

Build a truth table for each case and compare the corresponding contents

#### Lemma

(2) For any three binary strings  $x, a, b \in \{0, 1\}^n$  the equation  $(x \cdot a) \oplus (x \cdot b) = x \cdot (a \oplus b)$  holds

#### Proof sketch

Follows from the fact that for any three bits  $a, b, c \in \{0, 1\}$  the equation  $(a \land b) \oplus (a \land c) = a \land (b \oplus c)$  holds

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## Setting the stage

## Lemma (3) For any element $|b\rangle$ in the computational basis of $\mathbb{C}^2$ ,

$$|H|b\rangle = rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{z\in 2}(-1)^{b\wedge z}|z\rangle$$

#### Proof sketch

Build a truth table and compare the corresponding contents

#### Theorem

(1) For any element  $|b\rangle$  in the computational basis of  $\mathbb{C}^{2^n}$ ,

$$|H^{\otimes n}|b\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}}\sum_{z\in 2^n}(-1)^{b\cdot z}|z\rangle$$

#### Proof sketch

Follows by induction on the size of n

## The Bernstein-Vazirani algorithm

How many times one has to call f to determine s?

• Classically, we run f n-times by computing

$$f(1\ldots 0) = (\mathbf{s}_1 \wedge 1) \oplus \cdots \oplus (\mathbf{s}_n \wedge 0) = \mathbf{s}_1$$

 $f(0\ldots 1) = (s_1 \land 0) \oplus \cdots \oplus (s_n \land 1) = s_n$ 

• With a quantum algorithm, we may discover *s* by running *f* only once

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## The circuit



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## The computation

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Why?

$$\cdots = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{z \in 2^n} \sum_{z' \in 2^n} (-1)^{z \cdot (s \oplus z')} |z'\rangle |-\rangle = \cdots$$

For each z',  $\frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{z=0}^{2^n-1} (-1)^{z \cdot (s \oplus z')}$  is 1 iff  $(s \oplus z') = 0$ , which happens only if s = z' In all other cases  $\frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{z=0}^{2^n-1} (-1)^{z \cdot (s \oplus z')}$  is 0.

The reason is easy to guess:

• for 
$$s \oplus z' = 0$$
,  $\frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{z=0}^{2^n-1} (-1)^{z \cdot (s \oplus z')} = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{z=0}^{2^n-1} 1 = 1$ .

for s ⊕ z' ≠ 0, as z spans all numbers from 0 to 2<sup>n</sup> − 1, half of the 2<sup>n</sup> factors in the sum will be −1 and the other half 1, thus summing up to 0.

Thus, the only non zero amplitude is the one associated to s.

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## Why?

Alternatively, consider the probability of measuring s at the end of the computation:

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{1}{2^{n}} \sum_{z \in 2^{n}} (-1)^{z \cdot (s \oplus s)} \right|^{2} \\ &= \left| \frac{1}{2^{n}} \sum_{z \in 2^{n}} (-1)^{z \cdot 0} \right|^{2} \\ &= \left| \frac{1}{2^{n}} \sum_{z \in 2^{n}} 1 \right|^{2} \\ &= \left| \frac{2^{n}}{2^{n}} \right|^{2} \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

This means that somehow all values yielding wrong answers were completely cancelled.

## Deutsch-Josza

# The Problem Take a function $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ , which is known to be either constant or balanced.

Find out which case holds.

Classically, we evaluate half of the inputs  $(\frac{2^n}{2} = 2^{n-1})$ , evaluate one more and run the decision procedure,

- output always the same  $\implies$  constant
- otherwise  $\implies$  balanced

which requires running  $f 2^{n-1} + 1$  times. A quantum algorithm replies by running f only once.

Deutsch-Josza's problem

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## The circuit



Bernstein-Vazirani's problem

Deutsch-Josza's problem

## The computation



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## Developing $\Box$ by case distinction

#### f is constant

$$\begin{split} &\frac{1}{2^{n}} \sum_{z \in 2^{n}} (-1)^{f(z)} \left( \sum_{z' \in 2^{n}} (-1)^{z \cdot z'} |z'\rangle \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{n}} (\pm 1) \sum_{z \in 2^{n}} \left( \sum_{z' \in 2^{n}} (-1)^{z \cdot z'} |z'\rangle \right) \end{split}$$

Therefore, the amplitude at state  $|0\rangle$  is

$$\begin{array}{c|c} f \text{ is constant at } 1 & \rightsquigarrow & \frac{-(2^n)|\mathbf{0}\rangle}{2^n} & = & -|\mathbf{0}\rangle \\ \hline f \text{ is constant at } 0 & \rightsquigarrow & \frac{(2^n)|\mathbf{0}\rangle}{2^n} & = & |\mathbf{0}\rangle \end{array}$$

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## Developing $\Box$ by case distinction

Actually the probability of measuring  $|0\rangle$  at the end given by

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{1}{2^{n}} (\pm 1) \sum_{z \in 2^{n}} (-1)^{z \cdot 0} \right|^{2} \\ &= \left| \frac{1}{2^{n}} (\pm 1) \sum_{z \in 2^{n}} 1 \right|^{2} \\ &= \left| \frac{2^{n}}{2^{n}} \right|^{2} \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

So if f is constant we measure  $|0\rangle$  with probability 1.

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## Developing $\Box$ by case distinction

#### f is balanced

$$\begin{split} &\frac{1}{2^{n}} \sum_{z \in 2^{n}} (-1)^{f(z)} \left( \sum_{z' \in 2^{n}} (-1)^{z \cdot z'} |z' \rangle \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{n}} \left( \sum_{z \in 2^{n}, f(z)=0} (-1)^{f(z)} \left( \sum_{z' \in 2^{n}} (-1)^{z \cdot z'} |z' \rangle \right) \right) \\ &+ \sum_{z \in 2^{n}, f(z)=1} (-1)^{f(z)} \left( \sum_{z' \in 2^{n}} (-1)^{z \cdot z'} |z' \rangle \right) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{n}} \left( \sum_{z \in 2^{n}, f(z)=0} \left( \sum_{z' \in 2^{n}} (-1)^{z \cdot z'} |z' \rangle \right) \right) \\ &+ \sum_{z \in 2^{n}, f(z)=1} (-1) \left( \sum_{z' \in 2^{n}} (-1)^{z \cdot z'} |z' \rangle \right) \right) \end{split}$$

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## Developing $\Box$ by case distinction

Probability of measuring  $|0\rangle$  at the end given by

$$\begin{split} & \left| \frac{1}{2^n} \Big( \sum_{z \in 2^n, f(z)=0} (-1)^{z \cdot 0} + \sum_{z \in 2^n, f(z)=1} (-1) (-1)^{z \cdot 0} \Big) \right|^2 \\ &= \left| \frac{1}{2^n} \Big( \sum_{z \in 2^n, f(z)=0} 1 + \sum_{z \in 2^n, f(z)=1} (-1) \Big) \right|^2 \\ &= \left| \frac{1}{2^n} \Big( \sum_{z \in 2^n, f(z)=0} 1 - \sum_{z \in 2^n, f(z)=1} 1 \Big) \right|^2 \\ &= 0 \end{split}$$

So if f is balanced we measure  $|0\rangle$  with probability 0

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## Concluding

#### Deutsch problem

Classically, need to run f twice. With a quantum algorithm once is enough.

#### Berstein-Varziani problem

Classically, need to run f n times. With a quantum algorithm once is enough.

Deutsch-Joza problem

Classically, need to evaluate half of the inputs  $(\frac{2^n}{2} = 2^{n-1})$ , evaluate one more and run the decision procedure,

- output always the same  $\Longrightarrow$  constant
- otherwise  $\implies$  balanced

With a quantum algorithm once is enough.