

# Quantum Computation

## Why, What, Where (When)

Andrew Duncan

March 14, 2007

# Outline

- ① Background
- ② The Deutsch-Jozsa Algorithm
- ③ The Quantum Fourier Transform
- ④ Period Finding
- ⑤ Grover's algorithm

# Quantum Mechanics

- 1 Associated to an isolated quantum mechanical system is a complex inner product space  $V$ . The state of the system at any time is described by a unit vector in  $V$ .
- 2 The evolution of the state vector  $|v\rangle$  of an isolated quantum mechanical system is given by the Schrödinger equation

$$i\hbar \frac{d|v\rangle}{dt} = H|v\rangle,$$

where  $\hbar$  is a constant (*Planck's constant*) and  $H$  is a fixed self-adjoint linear operator called the *Hamiltonian* of the system.

The states  $|v_1\rangle$  and  $|v_2\rangle$  of the system at times  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ , respectively, are related by a unitary transformation  $\phi$ , which depends only on  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ , such that  $\phi(|v_1\rangle) = |v_2\rangle$ .

# Quantum Mechanics

- 1 Associated to an isolated quantum mechanical system is a complex inner product space  $V$ . The state of the system at any time is described by a unit vector in  $V$ .
- 2 The evolution of the state vector  $|v\rangle$  of an isolated quantum mechanical system is given by the Schrödinger equation

$$i\hbar \frac{d|v\rangle}{dt} = H|v\rangle,$$

where  $\hbar$  is a constant (*Planck's constant*) and  $H$  is a fixed self-adjoint linear operator called the *Hamiltonian* of the system.

The states  $|v_1\rangle$  and  $|v_2\rangle$  of the system at times  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ , respectively, are related by a unitary transformation  $\phi$ , which depends only on  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ , such that  $\phi(|v_1\rangle) = |v_2\rangle$ .

# Quantum Mechanics

- 1 Associated to an isolated quantum mechanical system is a complex inner product space  $V$ . The state of the system at any time is described by a unit vector in  $V$ .
- 2 The evolution of the state vector  $|v\rangle$  of an isolated quantum mechanical system is given by the Schrödinger equation

$$i\hbar \frac{d|v\rangle}{dt} = H|v\rangle,$$

where  $\hbar$  is a constant (*Planck's constant*) and  $H$  is a fixed self-adjoint linear operator called the *Hamiltonian* of the system.

The states  $|v_1\rangle$  and  $|v_2\rangle$  of the system at times  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ , respectively, are related by a unitary transformation  $\phi$ , which depends only on  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ , such that  $\phi(|v_1\rangle) = |v_2\rangle$ .

## Measurement

- ③ A measurement of a quantum system consists of a set  $\{M_m : m = 1, \dots, k\}$  of linear operators on  $V$ , such that

$$\sum_{m=1}^k M_m^\dagger M_m = I. \quad (1)$$

The measurement result is one of the indices  $m$ .

If  $V$  is in state  $|v\rangle$  then the probability that  $m$  observed is

$$p(m) = \langle v | M_m^\dagger M_m | v \rangle = \langle M_m(|v\rangle) | M_m | v \rangle.$$

If  $m$  is observed then the state of  $V$  is transformed from  $v$  to

$$\frac{M_m | v \rangle}{\sqrt{p(m)}}.$$

## Measurement

- ③ A measurement of a quantum system consists of a set  $\{M_m : m = 1, \dots, k\}$  of linear operators on  $V$ , such that

$$\sum_{m=1}^k M_m^\dagger M_m = I. \quad (1)$$

The measurement result is one of the indices  $m$ .

If  $V$  is in state  $|v\rangle$  then the probability that  $m$  observed is

$$p(m) = \langle v | M_m^\dagger M_m | v \rangle = \langle M_m(|v\rangle) | M_m | v \rangle.$$

If  $m$  is observed then the state of  $V$  is transformed from  $v$  to

$$\frac{M_m | v \rangle}{\sqrt{p(m)}}.$$

## Measurement

- ③ A measurement of a quantum system consists of a set  $\{M_m : m = 1, \dots, k\}$  of linear operators on  $V$ , such that

$$\sum_{m=1}^k M_m^\dagger M_m = I. \quad (1)$$

The measurement result is one of the indices  $m$ .

If  $V$  is in state  $|v\rangle$  then the probability that  $m$  observed is

$$p(m) = \langle v | M_m^\dagger M_m | v \rangle = \langle M_m(|v\rangle) | M_m | v \rangle.$$

If  $m$  is observed then the state of  $V$  is transformed from  $v$  to

$$\frac{M_m | v \rangle}{\sqrt{p(m)}}.$$

## Measurement

- ③ A measurement of a quantum system consists of a set  $\{M_m : m = 1, \dots, k\}$  of linear operators on  $V$ , such that

$$\sum_{m=1}^k M_m^\dagger M_m = I. \quad (1)$$

The measurement result is one of the indices  $m$ .

If  $V$  is in state  $|v\rangle$  then the probability that  $m$  observed is

$$p(m) = \langle v | M_m^\dagger M_m | v \rangle = \langle M_m(|v\rangle) | M_m | v \rangle.$$

If  $m$  is observed then the state of  $V$  is transformed from  $v$  to

$$\frac{M_m | v \rangle}{\sqrt{p(m)}}.$$

# Composites

- 4 Given quantum mechanical systems associated to vector spaces  $V$  and  $W$  there is a composite quantum mechanical system associated to  $V \otimes W$ .

# Quantum Computation

The state space is finite dimensional.

The basic system is the 2-dimensional space  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2$  with basis  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ , known as a single *qubit* system.

A state of a single qubit system is a vector  $\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$ , where  $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$ .

If neither  $\alpha$  nor  $\beta$  is zero the state is called a *superposition*.

For example,  $(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) / \sqrt{2}$  is a superposition, which is also *uniform*.

# Quantum Computation

The state space is finite dimensional.

The basic system is the 2-dimensional space  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2$  with basis  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ , known as a single *qubit* system.

A state of a single qubit system is a vector  $\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$ , where  $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$ .

If neither  $\alpha$  nor  $\beta$  is zero the state is called a *superposition*.

For example,  $(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$  is a superposition, which is also *uniform*.

# Quantum Computation

The state space is finite dimensional.

The basic system is the 2-dimensional space  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2$  with basis  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ , known as a single *qubit* system.

A state of a single qubit system is a vector  $\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$ , where  $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$ .

If neither  $\alpha$  nor  $\beta$  is zero the state is called a *superposition*.

For example,  $(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$  is a superposition, which is also *uniform*.

# Quantum Computation

The state space is finite dimensional.

The basic system is the 2-dimensional space  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2$  with basis  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ , known as a single *qubit* system.

A state of a single qubit system is a vector  $\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$ , where  $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$ .

If neither  $\alpha$  nor  $\beta$  is zero the state is called a *superposition*.

For example,  $(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$  is a superposition, which is also *uniform*.

# Quantum Computation

The state space is finite dimensional.

The basic system is the 2-dimensional space  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2$  with basis  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ , known as a single *qubit* system.

A state of a single qubit system is a vector  $\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$ , where  $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$ .

If neither  $\alpha$  nor  $\beta$  is zero the state is called a *superposition*.

For example,  $(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) / \sqrt{2}$  is a superposition, which is also *uniform*.

# Quantum Computation

The composite of 2 single qubit systems is  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2 \otimes \mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2$ ,  
a 4-dimensional space with basis vectors  $|00\rangle, |01\rangle, |10\rangle, |11\rangle$ .

We call this a *2-qubit system* or *2-qubit quantum register*.

Similarly an *n-qubit system* or *quantum register* is a copy of the  
 $2^n$ -dimensional space  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2^{\otimes n}$ ,

which, has basis  $\{|i\rangle : i = 0, \dots, 2^n - 1\}$ .

Given an *m-qubit system*  $V_m$  and an *n-qubit system*  $V_n$ , we may  
form the *mn-qubit system*  $V_m \otimes V_n$ , which is naturally equipped  
with the basis  $\{|ij\rangle : i = 0, \dots, 2^m - 1, j = 0, \dots, 2^n - 1\}$ .

# Quantum Computation

The composite of 2 single qubit systems is  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2 \otimes \mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2$ , a 4-dimensional space with basis vectors  $|00\rangle, |01\rangle, |10\rangle, |11\rangle$ .

We call this a *2-qubit system* or *2-qubit quantum register*.

Similarly an *n-qubit system* or *quantum register* is a copy of the  $2^n$ -dimensional space  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2^{\otimes n}$ ,

which, has basis  $\{|i\rangle : i = 0, \dots, 2^n - 1\}$ .

Given an *m-qubit system*  $V_m$  and an *n-qubit system*  $V_n$ , we may form the *mn-qubit system*  $V_m \otimes V_n$ , which is naturally equipped with the basis  $\{|ij\rangle : i = 0, \dots, 2^m - 1, j = 0, \dots, 2^n - 1\}$ .

# Quantum Computation

The composite of 2 single qubit systems is  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2 \otimes \mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2$ , a 4-dimensional space with basis vectors  $|00\rangle, |01\rangle, |10\rangle, |11\rangle$ . We call this a *2-qubit system* or *2-qubit quantum register*.

Similarly an *n-qubit system* or *quantum register* is a copy of the  $2^n$ -dimensional space  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2^{\otimes n}$ , which, has basis  $\{|i\rangle : i = 0, \dots, 2^n - 1\}$ .

Given an *m-qubit system*  $V_m$  and an *n-qubit system*  $V_n$ , we may form the *mn-qubit system*  $V_m \otimes V_n$ , which is naturally equipped with the basis  $\{|ij\rangle : i = 0, \dots, 2^m - 1, j = 0, \dots, 2^n - 1\}$ .

# Quantum Computation

The composite of 2 single qubit systems is  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2 \otimes \mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2$ , a 4-dimensional space with basis vectors  $|00\rangle, |01\rangle, |10\rangle, |11\rangle$ .

We call this a *2-qubit system* or *2-qubit quantum register*.

Similarly an *n-qubit system* or *quantum register* is a copy of the  $2^n$ -dimensional space  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2^{\otimes n}$ ,

which, has basis  $\{|i\rangle : i = 0, \dots, 2^n - 1\}$ .

Given an *m-qubit system*  $V_m$  and an *n-qubit system*  $V_n$ , we may form the *mn-qubit system*  $V_m \otimes V_n$ , which is naturally equipped with the basis  $\{|ij\rangle : i = 0, \dots, 2^m - 1, j = 0, \dots, 2^n - 1\}$ .

# Quantum Computation

The composite of 2 single qubit systems is  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2 \otimes \mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2$ , a 4-dimensional space with basis vectors  $|00\rangle, |01\rangle, |10\rangle, |11\rangle$ .

We call this a *2-qubit system* or *2-qubit quantum register*.

Similarly an *n-qubit system* or *quantum register* is a copy of the  $2^n$ -dimensional space  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2^{\otimes n}$ ,

which, has basis  $\{|i\rangle : i = 0, \dots, 2^n - 1\}$ .

Given an *m-qubit system*  $V_m$  and an *n-qubit system*  $V_n$ , we may form the *mn-qubit system*  $V_m \otimes V_n$ , which is naturally equipped with the basis  $\{|ij\rangle : i = 0, \dots, 2^m - 1, j = 0, \dots, 2^n - 1\}$ .

# Quantum Computation

The composite of 2 single qubit systems is  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2 \otimes \mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2$ , a 4-dimensional space with basis vectors  $|00\rangle, |01\rangle, |10\rangle, |11\rangle$ .

We call this a *2-qubit system* or *2-qubit quantum register*.

Similarly an *n-qubit system* or *quantum register* is a copy of the  $2^n$ -dimensional space  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_2^{\otimes n}$ ,

which, has basis  $\{|i\rangle : i = 0, \dots, 2^n - 1\}$ .

Given an *m-qubit system*  $V_m$  and an *n-qubit system*  $V_n$ , we may form the *mn-qubit system*  $V_m \otimes V_n$ , which is naturally equipped with the basis  $\{|ij\rangle : i = 0, \dots, 2^m - 1, j = 0, \dots, 2^n - 1\}$ .

An  $n$ -qubit system is the quantum analogue of the classical  $n$ -bit computer.

Whereas  $n$ -bits can contain, at any one time, one of  $2^n$  possible values, a quantum computer can be in a superposition of all of these values,

in principle in infinitely many different ways.

An  $n$ -qubit system is the quantum analogue of the classical  $n$ -bit computer.

Whereas  $n$ -bits can contain, at any one time, one of  $2^n$  possible values, a quantum computer can be in a superposition of all of these values,

in principle in infinitely many different ways.

An  $n$ -qubit system is the quantum analogue of the classical  $n$ -bit computer.

Whereas  $n$ -bits can contain, at any one time, one of  $2^n$  possible values, a quantum computer can be in a superposition of all of these values,

in principle in infinitely many different ways.

# Evolution in quantum computation

Evolution is assumed to take place at discrete time intervals and is governed by unitary operators.

e.g.  $\mathbb{C}Z_2$  has basis  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$   
and the quantum NOT gate can be written as

$$|0\rangle\langle 1| + |1\rangle\langle 0|.$$

$$\text{NOT}|0\rangle = |1\rangle$$

$$\text{NOT}|1\rangle = |0\rangle.$$

# Evolution in quantum computation

Evolution is assumed to take place at discrete time intervals and is governed by unitary operators.

e.g.  $\mathbb{C}Z_2$  has basis  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$

and the quantum NOT gate can be written as

$$|0\rangle\langle 1| + |1\rangle\langle 0|.$$

$$\text{NOT}|0\rangle = |1\rangle$$

$$\text{NOT}|1\rangle = |0\rangle.$$

## Evolution in quantum computation

Evolution is assumed to take place at discrete time intervals and is governed by unitary operators.

e.g.  $\mathbb{C}Z_2$  has basis  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$   
and the quantum NOT gate can be written as

$$|0\rangle\langle 1| + |1\rangle\langle 0|.$$

$$\text{NOT}|0\rangle = |1\rangle$$

$$\text{NOT}|1\rangle = |0\rangle.$$

## Evolution in quantum computation

Evolution is assumed to take place at discrete time intervals and is governed by unitary operators.

e.g.  $\mathbb{C}Z_2$  has basis  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$   
and the quantum NOT gate can be written as

$$|0\rangle\langle 1| + |1\rangle\langle 0|.$$

$$\text{NOT}|0\rangle = |1\rangle$$

$$\text{NOT}|1\rangle = |0\rangle.$$

## Measurements in quantum computation

Usually restrict attention to the special case of measurement where  $M_m$  is self-adjoint and  $M_m^2 = M_m$ , for all  $m$ , and  $M_m M_n = 0$ , when  $m \neq n$ .

Such measurements are called *projective* measurements.

In the case of projective measurement there are mutually orthogonal subspaces  $P_1, \dots, P_k$  of  $V$  such that  $V = \sum_m P_m$  and  $M_m = \sum_i |i\rangle\langle i|$ , for some orthonormal basis  $\{|i\rangle : i = 0, \dots, d_m - 1\}$  of  $P_m$ .

That is  $M_m$  is projection onto  $P_m$ .

Most measurements will be of the form

$\{M_m = |m\rangle\langle m| : m = 0, \dots, n - 1\}$ , where  $V$  is  $n$ -dimensional and the basis used to describe the state vector and evolution of  $V$  is  $\{|m\rangle : m = 0, \dots, n - 1\}$ .

These are called *measurements with respect to the computational basis*.

## Measurements in quantum computation

Usually restrict attention to the special case of measurement where  $M_m$  is self-adjoint and  $M_m^2 = M_m$ , for all  $m$ , and  $M_m M_n = 0$ , when  $m \neq n$ .

Such measurements are called *projective* measurements.

In the case of projective measurement there are mutually orthogonal subspaces  $P_1, \dots, P_k$  of  $V$  such that  $V = \sum_m P_m$  and  $M_m = \sum_i |i\rangle\langle i|$ , for some orthonormal basis  $\{|i\rangle : i = 0, \dots, d_m - 1\}$  of  $P_m$ .

That is  $M_m$  is projection onto  $P_m$ .

Most measurements will be of the form

$\{M_m = |m\rangle\langle m| : m = 0, \dots, n - 1\}$ , where  $V$  is  $n$ -dimensional and the basis used to describe the state vector and evolution of  $V$  is  $\{|m\rangle : m = 0, \dots, n - 1\}$ .

These are called *measurements with respect to the computational basis*.

## Measurements in quantum computation

Usually restrict attention to the special case of measurement where  $M_m$  is self-adjoint and  $M_m^2 = M_m$ , for all  $m$ , and  $M_m M_n = 0$ , when  $m \neq n$ .

Such measurements are called *projective* measurements.

In the case of projective measurement there are mutually orthogonal subspaces  $P_1, \dots, P_k$  of  $V$  such that  $V = \sum_m P_m$  and  $M_m = \sum_i |i\rangle\langle i|$ , for some orthonormal basis  $\{|i\rangle : i = 0, \dots, d_m - 1\}$  of  $P_m$ .

That is  $M_m$  is projection onto  $P_m$ .

Most measurements will be of the form

$\{M_m = |m\rangle\langle m| : m = 0, \dots, n - 1\}$ , where  $V$  is  $n$ -dimensional and the basis used to describe the state vector and evolution of  $V$  is  $\{|m\rangle : m = 0, \dots, n - 1\}$ .

These are called *measurements with respect to the computational basis*.

## Measurements in quantum computation

Usually restrict attention to the special case of measurement where  $M_m$  is self-adjoint and  $M_m^2 = M_m$ , for all  $m$ , and  $M_m M_n = 0$ , when  $m \neq n$ .

Such measurements are called *projective* measurements.

In the case of projective measurement there are mutually orthogonal subspaces  $P_1, \dots, P_k$  of  $V$  such that  $V = \sum_m P_m$  and  $M_m = \sum_i |i\rangle\langle i|$ , for some orthonormal basis  $\{|i\rangle : i = 0, \dots, d_m - 1\}$  of  $P_m$ .

That is  $M_m$  is projection onto  $P_m$ .

Most measurements will be of the form

$\{M_m = |m\rangle\langle m| : m = 0, \dots, n - 1\}$ , where  $V$  is  $n$ -dimensional and the basis used to describe the state vector and evolution of  $V$  is  $\{|m\rangle : m = 0, \dots, n - 1\}$ .

These are called *measurements with respect to the computational basis*.

## Measurements in quantum computation

Usually restrict attention to the special case of measurement where  $M_m$  is self-adjoint and  $M_m^2 = M_m$ , for all  $m$ , and  $M_m M_n = 0$ , when  $m \neq n$ .

Such measurements are called *projective* measurements.

In the case of projective measurement there are mutually orthogonal subspaces  $P_1, \dots, P_k$  of  $V$  such that  $V = \sum_m P_m$  and  $M_m = \sum_i |i\rangle\langle i|$ , for some orthonormal basis  $\{|i\rangle : i = 0, \dots, d_m - 1\}$  of  $P_m$ .

That is  $M_m$  is projection onto  $P_m$ .

Most measurements will be of the form

$\{M_m = |m\rangle\langle m| : m = 0, \dots, n - 1\}$ , where  $V$  is  $n$ -dimensional and the basis used to describe the state vector and evolution of  $V$  is  $\{|m\rangle : m = 0, \dots, n - 1\}$ .

These are called *measurements with respect to the computational basis*.

For example suppose we have a single qubit system in state  $Q = a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle$ , where  $|a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$ .

If we observe  $Q$  with respect to the computational basis we obtain 0 with probability  $\langle Q|0\rangle \langle 0|Q\rangle = |a|^2$  and 1 with probability  $\langle Q|1\rangle \langle 1|Q\rangle = |b|^2$ .

The quantum system enters the state

$$\frac{|0\rangle \langle 0|Q\rangle}{|a|} = \frac{a}{|a|} |0\rangle,$$

if 0 is measured and

$$\frac{|1\rangle \langle 1|Q\rangle}{|b|} = \frac{b}{|b|} |1\rangle,$$

if 1 is measured.

For example suppose we have a single qubit system in state  $Q = a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle$ , where  $|a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$ .

If we observe  $Q$  with respect to the computational basis we obtain 0 with probability  $\langle Q|0\rangle \langle 0|Q\rangle = |a|^2$  and 1 with probability  $\langle Q|1\rangle \langle 1|Q\rangle = |b|^2$ .

The quantum system enters the state

$$\frac{|0\rangle \langle 0|Q\rangle}{|a|} = \frac{a}{|a|} |0\rangle,$$

if 0 is measured and

$$\frac{|1\rangle \langle 1|Q\rangle}{|b|} = \frac{b}{|b|} |1\rangle,$$

if 1 is measured.

For example suppose we have a single qubit system in state  $Q = a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle$ , where  $|a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$ .

If we observe  $Q$  with respect to the computational basis we obtain 0 with probability  $\langle Q|0\rangle \langle 0|Q\rangle = |a|^2$  and 1 with probability  $\langle Q|1\rangle \langle 1|Q\rangle = |b|^2$ .

The quantum system enters the state

$$\frac{|0\rangle \langle 0|Q\rangle}{|a|} = \frac{a}{|a|} |0\rangle,$$

if 0 is measured and

$$\frac{|1\rangle \langle 1|Q\rangle}{|b|} = \frac{b}{|b|} |1\rangle,$$

if 1 is measured.

## Single Qubit Walsh-Hadamard

$$\begin{aligned}W(|0\rangle) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \text{ and} \\W(|1\rangle) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle - |1\rangle). \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned}W(|x\rangle) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + (-1)^x |1\rangle) \\&= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{k=0}^1 (-1)^{kx} |k\rangle.\end{aligned}$$

$W$  is an involution:  $W^2 = I_2$ .

$W$  is reflection in the line which makes an angle of  $\pi/8$  with the  $|0\rangle$ -axis.

## Single Qubit Walsh-Hadamard

$$\begin{aligned}W(|0\rangle) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \text{ and} \\W(|1\rangle) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle - |1\rangle).\end{aligned}\tag{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned}W(|x\rangle) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + (-1)^x |1\rangle) \\&= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{k=0}^1 (-1)^{kx} |k\rangle.\end{aligned}$$

$W$  is an involution:  $W^2 = I_2$ .

$W$  is reflection in the line which makes an angle of  $\pi/8$  with the  $|0\rangle$ -axis.

## Single Qubit Walsh-Hadamard

$$\begin{aligned}W(|0\rangle) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \text{ and} \\W(|1\rangle) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle - |1\rangle).\end{aligned}\tag{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned}W(|x\rangle) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + (-1)^x |1\rangle) \\&= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{k=0}^1 (-1)^{kx} |k\rangle.\end{aligned}$$

$W$  is an involution:  $W^2 = I_2$ .

$W$  is reflection in the line which makes an angle of  $\pi/8$  with the  $|0\rangle$ -axis.

## Single Qubit Walsh-Hadamard

$$\begin{aligned}W(|0\rangle) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \text{ and} \\W(|1\rangle) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle - |1\rangle).\end{aligned}\tag{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned}W(|x\rangle) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + (-1)^x |1\rangle) \\&= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{k=0}^1 (-1)^{kx} |k\rangle.\end{aligned}$$

$W$  is an involution:  $W^2 = I_2$ .

$W$  is reflection in the line which makes an angle of  $\pi/8$  with the  $|0\rangle$ -axis.

## $n$ -qubit Walsh-Hadamard

$W_n$  is defined to be  $W^{\otimes n}$ .

$W$  is an involution so  $W_n^2 = I_2^{\otimes n} = I_{2^n}$ ,

so  $W_n$  is also an involution.

Applied to  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}$ ,  $W_n$  generates a uniform linear combination of the integers from 0 to  $2^n - 1$ , i.e.

$$W_n(|0 \cdots 0\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} |x\rangle.$$

## $n$ -qubit Walsh-Hadamard

$W_n$  is defined to be  $W^{\otimes n}$ .

$W$  is an involution so  $W_n^2 = I_2^{\otimes n} = I_{2^n}$ ,

so  $W_n$  is also an involution.

Applied to  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}$ ,  $W_n$  generates a uniform linear combination of the integers from 0 to  $2^n - 1$ , i.e.

$$W_n(|0 \cdots 0\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} |x\rangle.$$

## $n$ -qubit Walsh-Hadamard

$W_n$  is defined to be  $W^{\otimes n}$ .

$W$  is an involution so  $W_n^2 = I_2^{\otimes n} = I_{2^n}$ ,

so  $W_n$  is also an involution.

Applied to  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}$ ,  $W_n$  generates a uniform linear combination of the integers from 0 to  $2^n - 1$ , i.e.

$$W_n(|0 \cdots 0\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} |x\rangle.$$

## $n$ -qubit Walsh-Hadamard

$W_n$  is defined to be  $W^{\otimes n}$ .

$W$  is an involution so  $W_n^2 = I_2^{\otimes n} = I_{2^n}$ ,

so  $W_n$  is also an involution.

Applied to  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}$ ,  $W_n$  generates a uniform linear combination of the integers from 0 to  $2^n - 1$ , i.e.

$$W_n(|0 \cdots 0\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} |x\rangle.$$

## $n$ -qubit Walsh-Hadamard

$W_n$  is defined to be  $W^{\otimes n}$ .

$W$  is an involution so  $W_n^2 = I_2^{\otimes n} = I_{2^n}$ ,

so  $W_n$  is also an involution.

Applied to  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}$ ,  $W_n$  generates a uniform linear combination of the integers from 0 to  $2^n - 1$ , i.e.

$$W_n(|0 \cdots 0\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} |x\rangle.$$

Define

$$x \cdot y = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} x_i y_i.$$

setting  $m = 2^n$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} W_n |x\rangle &= \bigotimes_{i=0}^{n-1} W |x_i\rangle \\ &= \bigotimes_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{k_i=0}^1 (-1)^{k_i x_i} |k_i\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{k_0=0}^1 \cdots \sum_{k_{n-1}=0}^1 (-1)^{x_0 k_0} \cdots (-1)^{x_{n-1} k_{n-1}} |k_0 \cdots k_{n-1}\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{k_0 \cdots k_{n-1}=0}^{m-1} (-1)^{x_0 k_0} \cdots (-1)^{x_{n-1} k_{n-1}} |k_0 \cdots k_{n-1}\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} (-1)^{x \cdot k} |k\rangle. \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

Define

$$x \cdot y = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} x_i y_i.$$

setting  $m = 2^n$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} W_n |x\rangle &= \bigotimes_{i=0}^{n-1} W |x_i\rangle \\ &= \bigotimes_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{k_i=0}^1 (-1)^{k_i x_i} |k_i\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{k_0=0}^1 \cdots \sum_{k_{n-1}=0}^1 (-1)^{x_0 k_0} \cdots (-1)^{x_{n-1} k_{n-1}} |k_0 \cdots k_{n-1}\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{k_0 \cdots k_{n-1}=0}^{m-1} (-1)^{x_0 k_0} \cdots (-1)^{x_{n-1} k_{n-1}} |k_0 \cdots k_{n-1}\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} (-1)^{x \cdot k} |k\rangle. \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

## Reversibilisation of a Function

Let  $f : \mathbb{Z}_2^m \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^k$  be a function, not necessarily invertible.

To simulate  $f$  we use a quantum system  $V$  which is the tensor product of an  $m$ -qubit quantum system with a  $k$ -qubit quantum system.

$V$  has basis consisting of the vectors  $|x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle$ , where  $x$  and  $y$  are binary representations of integers in  $\{0, \dots, 2^m - 1\} = \mathbb{Z}_2^m$  and  $\{0, \dots, 2^k - 1\} = \mathbb{Z}_2^k$  respectively.

Define the linear transformation

$$U_f : |x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle \mapsto |x\rangle \otimes |y \oplus f(x)\rangle,$$

where  $\oplus$  denotes addition in the group  $\mathbb{Z}_2^k$ .

## Reversibilisation of a Function

Let  $f : \mathbb{Z}_2^m \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^k$  be a function, not necessarily invertible.

To simulate  $f$  we use a quantum system  $V$  which is the tensor product of an  $m$ -qubit quantum system with a  $k$ -qubit quantum system.

$V$  has basis consisting of the vectors  $|x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle$ , where  $x$  and  $y$  are binary representations of integers in  $\{0, \dots, 2^m - 1\} = \mathbb{Z}_2^m$  and  $\{0, \dots, 2^k - 1\} = \mathbb{Z}_2^k$  respectively.

Define the linear transformation

$$U_f : |x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle \mapsto |x\rangle \otimes |y \oplus f(x)\rangle,$$

where  $\oplus$  denotes addition in the group  $\mathbb{Z}_2^k$ .

## Reversibilisation of a Function

Let  $f : \mathbb{Z}_2^m \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^k$  be a function, not necessarily invertible.

To simulate  $f$  we use a quantum system  $V$  which is the tensor product of an  $m$ -qubit quantum system with a  $k$ -qubit quantum system.

$V$  has basis consisting of the vectors  $|x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle$ , where  $x$  and  $y$  are binary representations of integers in  $\{0, \dots, 2^m - 1\} = \mathbb{Z}_2^m$  and  $\{0, \dots, 2^k - 1\} = \mathbb{Z}_2^k$  respectively.

Define the linear transformation

$$U_f : |x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle \mapsto |x\rangle \otimes |y \oplus f(x)\rangle,$$

where  $\oplus$  denotes addition in the group  $\mathbb{Z}_2^k$ .

## Reversibilisation of a Function

Let  $f : \mathbb{Z}_2^m \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^k$  be a function, not necessarily invertible.

To simulate  $f$  we use a quantum system  $V$  which is the tensor product of an  $m$ -qubit quantum system with a  $k$ -qubit quantum system.

$V$  has basis consisting of the vectors  $|x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle$ , where  $x$  and  $y$  are binary representations of integers in  $\{0, \dots, 2^m - 1\} = \mathbb{Z}_2^m$  and  $\{0, \dots, 2^k - 1\} = \mathbb{Z}_2^k$  respectively.

Define the linear transformation

$$U_f : |x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle \mapsto |x\rangle \otimes |y \oplus f(x)\rangle,$$

where  $\oplus$  denotes addition in the group  $\mathbb{Z}_2^k$ .

For fixed  $x$ ,  $y \oplus f(x)$  takes every value in  $\mathbb{Z}_2^k$  exactly once, as  $y$  varies over  $\{0, \dots, 2^k - 1\}$ .

Therefore  $U_f$  simply permutes all  $2^{m+k}$  basis elements of  $V$  and it follows that it is unitary.

Moreover  $U_f(|x\rangle \otimes |0\rangle) = |x\rangle \otimes |f(x)\rangle$  and in this sense  $U_f$  simulates  $f$ .

The map  $U_f$  is referred to as the *standard oracle* for the function  $f$ .

For fixed  $x$ ,  $y \oplus f(x)$  takes every value in  $\mathbb{Z}_2^k$  exactly once, as  $y$  varies over  $\{0, \dots, 2^k - 1\}$ .

Therefore  $U_f$  simply permutes all  $2^{m+k}$  basis elements of  $V$  and it follows that it is unitary.

Moreover  $U_f(|x\rangle \otimes |0\rangle) = |x\rangle \otimes |f(x)\rangle$  and in this sense  $U_f$  simulates  $f$ .

The map  $U_f$  is referred to as the *standard oracle* for the function  $f$ .

For fixed  $x$ ,  $y \oplus f(x)$  takes every value in  $\mathbb{Z}_2^k$  exactly once, as  $y$  varies over  $\{0, \dots, 2^k - 1\}$ .

Therefore  $U_f$  simply permutes all  $2^{m+k}$  basis elements of  $V$  and it follows that it is unitary.

Moreover  $U_f(|x\rangle \otimes |0\rangle) = |x\rangle \otimes |f(x)\rangle$  and in this sense  $U_f$  simulates  $f$ .

The map  $U_f$  is referred to as the *standard oracle* for the function  $f$ .

For fixed  $x$ ,  $y \oplus f(x)$  takes every value in  $\mathbb{Z}_2^k$  exactly once, as  $y$  varies over  $\{0, \dots, 2^k - 1\}$ .

Therefore  $U_f$  simply permutes all  $2^{m+k}$  basis elements of  $V$  and it follows that it is unitary.

Moreover  $U_f(|x\rangle \otimes |0\rangle) = |x\rangle \otimes |f(x)\rangle$  and in this sense  $U_f$  simulates  $f$ .

The map  $U_f$  is referred to as the *standard oracle* for the function  $f$ .

# Parallel Computation

If we apply  $U_f$  to

$$W_m(|0\rangle^{\otimes m}) \otimes |0\rangle^{\otimes k}$$

we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} U_f \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^m}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^m-1} |x\rangle \otimes |0\rangle \right) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^m}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^m-1} U_f(|x\rangle \otimes |0\rangle) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^m}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^m-1} |x\rangle \otimes |f(x)\rangle. \end{aligned}$$

## Parallel Computation

If we apply  $U_f$  to

$$W_m(|0\rangle^{\otimes m}) \otimes |0\rangle^{\otimes k}$$

we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} U_f \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^m}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^m-1} |x\rangle \otimes |0\rangle \right) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^m}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^m-1} U_f(|x\rangle \otimes |0\rangle) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^m}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^m-1} |x\rangle \otimes |f(x)\rangle. \end{aligned}$$

## Doing Nothing in Parallel

$$\begin{aligned} |0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle &\xrightarrow{W^{\otimes W}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{m+k}}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^m-1} \sum_{y=0}^{2^k-1} |x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle \\ &\xrightarrow{U_f} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{m+k}}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^m-1} \sum_{y=0}^{2^k-1} |x\rangle \otimes |y \oplus f(x)\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{m+k}}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^m-1} \sum_{y=0}^{2^k-1} |x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle, \end{aligned}$$

because  $y \oplus f(x)$  takes each possible value exactly once, as  $y$  ranges over  $\{0, \dots, 2^k - 1\}$ .

## Doing Nothing in Parallel

$$\begin{aligned} |0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle &\xrightarrow{W^{\otimes W}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{m+k}}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^m-1} \sum_{y=0}^{2^k-1} |x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle \\ &\xrightarrow{U_f} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{m+k}}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^m-1} \sum_{y=0}^{2^k-1} |x\rangle \otimes |y \oplus f(x)\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{m+k}}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^m-1} \sum_{y=0}^{2^k-1} |x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle, \end{aligned}$$

because  $y \oplus f(x)$  takes each possible value exactly once, as  $y$  ranges over  $\{0, \dots, 2^k - 1\}$ .

## Single qubit Simon-Deutsch Algorithm

$$(W \otimes W)(|0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle) = \left( \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \otimes \left( \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right).$$

Now, if  $x \in \{0, 1\}$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} U_f \left( |x\rangle \otimes \left( \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \right) &= |x\rangle \otimes \left( \frac{|0 \oplus f(x)\rangle - |1 \oplus f(x)\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \\ &= |x\rangle \otimes \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \begin{cases} |0\rangle - |1\rangle & \text{if } f(x) = 0 \\ |1\rangle - |0\rangle & \text{if } f(x) = 1 \end{cases} \right) \\ &= (-1)^{f(x)} |x\rangle \otimes \left( \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

## Single qubit Simon-Deutsch Algorithm

$$(W \otimes W)(|0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle) = \left( \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \otimes \left( \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right).$$

Now, if  $x \in \{0, 1\}$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} U_f \left( |x\rangle \otimes \left( \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \right) &= |x\rangle \otimes \left( \frac{|0 \oplus f(x)\rangle - |1 \oplus f(x)\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \\ &= |x\rangle \otimes \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \begin{cases} |0\rangle - |1\rangle & \text{if } f(x) = 0 \\ |1\rangle - |0\rangle & \text{if } f(x) = 1 \end{cases} \right) \\ &= (-1)^{f(x)} |x\rangle \otimes \left( \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, by linearity, after passing through the  $U_f$  gate the system is in state

$$\left( \frac{(-1)^{f(0)} |0\rangle + (-1)^{f(1)} |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \otimes \left( \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

which is equal to

$$\pm \left( \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \otimes \left( \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right), \text{ if } f \text{ is constant,}$$

and

$$\pm \left( \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \otimes \left( \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right), \text{ if } f \text{ is balanced.}$$

Therefore, by linearity, after passing through the  $U_f$  gate the system is in state

$$\left( \frac{(-1)^{f(0)} |0\rangle + (-1)^{f(1)} |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \otimes \left( \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

which is equal to

$$\pm \left( \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \otimes \left( \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right), \text{ if } f \text{ is constant,}$$

and

$$\pm \left( \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \otimes \left( \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right), \text{ if } f \text{ is balanced.}$$

After passing through the final Walsh–Hadamard gate, the first qubit is in state

$$\begin{aligned} \pm |0\rangle & \text{ if } f \text{ is constant} \\ \pm |1\rangle & \text{ if } f \text{ is balanced} \end{aligned}$$

So measuring this qubit, with respect to the computational basis, we observe 0 with probability 1, if  $f$  is constant, and 1 with probability 1, if  $f$  is balanced.

After passing through the final Walsh–Hadamard gate, the first qubit is in state

$$\begin{aligned} &\pm |0\rangle && \text{if } f \text{ is constant} \\ &\pm |1\rangle && \text{if } f \text{ is balanced} \end{aligned}$$

So measuring this qubit, with respect to the computational basis, we observe 0 with probability 1, if  $f$  is constant, and 1 with probability 1, if  $f$  is balanced.

## Characters of Abelian Groups

A *character* of a finite Abelian group  $G$  over a field  $k$  is a homomorphism from  $G$  to the multiplicative group  $k^*$  of non-zero elements of  $k$ .

The set of characters of  $G$  over  $\mathbb{C}$  is denoted  $\hat{G}$ .

The characters of the finite cyclic group  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  are the homomorphisms  $\chi_m^c = \chi^c$  defined by

$$\chi^c(a) = e^{2\pi iac/m}, \text{ where } a \in \mathbb{Z}_m,$$

for  $c = 0, \dots, m-1$ .

The map  $\chi : \mathbb{Z}_m \rightarrow \hat{\mathbb{Z}}_m$  defined by  $\chi(a) = \chi^a$  is an isomorphism from  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  to  $\hat{\mathbb{Z}}_m$ .

## Characters of Abelian Groups

A *character* of a finite Abelian group  $G$  over a field  $k$  is a homomorphism from  $G$  to the multiplicative group  $k^*$  of non-zero elements of  $k$ .

The set of characters of  $G$  over  $\mathbb{C}$  is denoted  $\hat{G}$ .

The characters of the finite cyclic group  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  are the homomorphisms  $\chi_m^c = \chi^c$  defined by

$$\chi^c(a) = e^{2\pi i ac/m}, \text{ where } a \in \mathbb{Z}_m,$$

for  $c = 0, \dots, m-1$ .

The map  $\chi : \mathbb{Z}_m \rightarrow \hat{\mathbb{Z}}_m$  defined by  $\chi(a) = \chi^a$  is an isomorphism from  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  to  $\hat{\mathbb{Z}}_m$ .

## Characters of Abelian Groups

A *character* of a finite Abelian group  $G$  over a field  $k$  is a homomorphism from  $G$  to the multiplicative group  $k^*$  of non-zero elements of  $k$ .

The set of characters of  $G$  over  $\mathbb{C}$  is denoted  $\hat{G}$ .

The characters of the finite cyclic group  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  are the homomorphisms  $\chi_m^c = \chi^c$  defined by

$$\chi^c(a) = e^{2\pi iac/m}, \text{ where } a \in \mathbb{Z}_m,$$

for  $c = 0, \dots, m - 1$ .

The map  $\chi : \mathbb{Z}_m \rightarrow \hat{\mathbb{Z}}_m$  defined by  $\chi(a) = \chi^a$  is an isomorphism from  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  to  $\hat{\mathbb{Z}}_m$ .

## Characters of Abelian Groups

A *character* of a finite Abelian group  $G$  over a field  $k$  is a homomorphism from  $G$  to the multiplicative group  $k^*$  of non-zero elements of  $k$ .

The set of characters of  $G$  over  $\mathbb{C}$  is denoted  $\hat{G}$ .

The characters of the finite cyclic group  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  are the homomorphisms  $\chi_m^c = \chi^c$  defined by

$$\chi^c(a) = e^{2\pi iac/m}, \text{ where } a \in \mathbb{Z}_m,$$

for  $c = 0, \dots, m - 1$ .

The map  $\chi : \mathbb{Z}_m \rightarrow \hat{\mathbb{Z}}_m$  defined by  $\chi(a) = \chi^a$  is an isomorphism from  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  to  $\hat{\mathbb{Z}}_m$ .

## A property of characters of $\mathbb{Z}_m$

### Lemma

The characters of  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  satisfy

(i)

$$\sum_{a=0}^{m-1} \chi^c(a) = \begin{cases} m & \text{if } c = 0 \pmod{m} \\ 0 & \text{if } c \neq 0 \pmod{m} \end{cases} . \quad (4)$$

(ii) *(Orthogonality of characters)*

$$\sum_{a=0}^{m-1} \chi^c(a) \overline{\chi^d(a)} = \begin{cases} m & \text{if } c = d \pmod{m} \\ 0 & \text{if } c \neq d \pmod{m} \end{cases} . \quad (5)$$

## A property of characters of $\mathbb{Z}_m$

### Lemma

The characters of  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  satisfy

(i)

$$\sum_{a=0}^{m-1} \chi^c(a) = \begin{cases} m & \text{if } c = 0 \pmod{m} \\ 0 & \text{if } c \neq 0 \pmod{m} \end{cases} . \quad (4)$$

(ii) (Orthogonality of characters)

$$\sum_{a=0}^{m-1} \chi^c(a) \overline{\chi^d(a)} = \begin{cases} m & \text{if } c = d \pmod{m} \\ 0 & \text{if } c \neq d \pmod{m} \end{cases} . \quad (5)$$

## The Complex Group Algebra

For a finite group  $G$  the  $|G|$ -dimensional complex vector space

$$\mathbb{C}G = \bigoplus_{g \in G} \mathbb{C} |g\rangle$$

is a ring called the *complex group algebra*,

with multiplication defined by

$$\left( \sum_{g \in G} a(g) |g\rangle \right) \left( \sum_{h \in G} b(h) |h\rangle \right) = \sum_{g \in G} c(g) |g\rangle,$$

$$a(g), b(g) \in \mathbb{C} \text{ and } c(g) = \sum_{x \in G} a(x) b(x^{-1}g).$$

The group algebra is the ring of maps from  $G$  to  $\mathbb{C}$ , the map  $a$  sending  $g$  to  $a(g)$  corresponding to  $\sum_{g \in G} a(g) |g\rangle$ .

An element of  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_n$  will be said to be *periodic* if it is periodic as a map from  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  to  $\mathbb{C}$ .

## The Complex Group Algebra

For a finite group  $G$  the  $|G|$ -dimensional complex vector space

$$\mathbb{C}G = \bigoplus_{g \in G} \mathbb{C} |g\rangle$$

is a ring called the *complex group algebra*,

with multiplication defined by

$$\left( \sum_{g \in G} a(g) |g\rangle \right) \left( \sum_{h \in G} b(h) |h\rangle \right) = \sum_{g \in G} c(g) |g\rangle,$$

$$a(g), b(g) \in \mathbb{C} \text{ and } c(g) = \sum_{x \in G} a(x) b(x^{-1}g).$$

The group algebra is the ring of maps from  $G$  to  $\mathbb{C}$ , the map  $a$  sending  $g$  to  $a(g)$  corresponding to  $\sum_{g \in G} a(g) |g\rangle$ .

An element of  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_n$  will be said to be *periodic* if it is periodic as a map from  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  to  $\mathbb{C}$ .

## The Complex Group Algebra

For a finite group  $G$  the  $|G|$ -dimensional complex vector space

$$\mathbb{C}G = \bigoplus_{g \in G} \mathbb{C} |g\rangle$$

is a ring called the *complex group algebra*,

with multiplication defined by

$$\left( \sum_{g \in G} a(g) |g\rangle \right) \left( \sum_{h \in G} b(h) |h\rangle \right) = \sum_{g \in G} c(g) |g\rangle,$$

$$a(g), b(g) \in \mathbb{C} \text{ and } c(g) = \sum_{x \in G} a(x) b(x^{-1}g).$$

The group algebra is the ring of maps from  $G$  to  $\mathbb{C}$ , the map  $a$  sending  $g$  to  $a(g)$  corresponding to  $\sum_{g \in G} a(g) |g\rangle$ .

An element of  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_n$  will be said to be *periodic* if it is periodic as a map from  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  to  $\mathbb{C}$ .

## The Complex Group Algebra

For a finite group  $G$  the  $|G|$ -dimensional complex vector space

$$\mathbb{C}G = \bigoplus_{g \in G} \mathbb{C} |g\rangle$$

is a ring called the *complex group algebra*,

with multiplication defined by

$$\left( \sum_{g \in G} a(g) |g\rangle \right) \left( \sum_{h \in G} b(h) |h\rangle \right) = \sum_{g \in G} c(g) |g\rangle,$$

$$a(g), b(g) \in \mathbb{C} \text{ and } c(g) = \sum_{x \in G} a(x) b(x^{-1}g).$$

The group algebra is the ring of maps from  $G$  to  $\mathbb{C}$ , the map  $a$  sending  $g$  to  $a(g)$  corresponding to  $\sum_{g \in G} a(g) |g\rangle$ .

An element of  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_n$  will be said to be *periodic* if it is periodic as a map from  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  to  $\mathbb{C}$ .

# The Quantum Fourier Transform

The *quantum Fourier transform* on  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is a  $\mathbb{C}$ -linear map  $Q = Q_n$  from  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_n$  to itself

defined on the basis vector  $|x\rangle$  by

$$Q|x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{c=0}^{n-1} \overline{\chi^c(x)} |c\rangle.$$

Extending by linearity:

$$Q\left(\sum_{x=0}^{n-1} \alpha(x) |x\rangle\right) = \sum_{c=0}^{n-1} \hat{\alpha}(c) |c\rangle,$$

where

$$\hat{\alpha}(c) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{x=0}^{n-1} \alpha(x) e^{-\frac{2\pi cxi}{n}}. \quad (6)$$

## The Quantum Fourier Transform

The *quantum Fourier transform* on  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is a  $\mathbb{C}$ -linear map  $Q = Q_n$  from  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_n$  to itself

defined on the basis vector  $|x\rangle$  by

$$Q|x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{c=0}^{n-1} \overline{\chi^c(x)} |c\rangle.$$

Extending by linearity:

$$Q \left( \sum_{x=0}^{n-1} \alpha(x) |x\rangle \right) = \sum_{c=0}^{n-1} \hat{\alpha}(c) |c\rangle,$$

where

$$\hat{\alpha}(c) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{x=0}^{n-1} \alpha(x) e^{-\frac{2\pi cxi}{n}}. \quad (6)$$

## The Quantum Fourier Transform

The *quantum Fourier transform* on  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is a  $\mathbb{C}$ -linear map  $Q = Q_n$  from  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_n$  to itself

defined on the basis vector  $|x\rangle$  by

$$Q|x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{c=0}^{n-1} \overline{\chi^c(x)} |c\rangle.$$

Extending by linearity:

$$Q\left(\sum_{x=0}^{n-1} \alpha(x) |x\rangle\right) = \sum_{c=0}^{n-1} \hat{\alpha}(c) |c\rangle,$$

where

$$\hat{\alpha}(c) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{x=0}^{n-1} \alpha(x) e^{-\frac{2\pi cxi}{n}}. \quad (6)$$

## The Quantum Fourier Transform

The *quantum Fourier transform* on  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is a  $\mathbb{C}$ -linear map  $Q = Q_n$  from  $\mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_n$  to itself

defined on the basis vector  $|x\rangle$  by

$$Q|x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{c=0}^{n-1} \overline{\chi^c(x)} |c\rangle.$$

Extending by linearity:

$$Q\left(\sum_{x=0}^{n-1} \alpha(x) |x\rangle\right) = \sum_{c=0}^{n-1} \hat{\alpha}(c) |c\rangle,$$

where

$$\hat{\alpha}(c) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{x=0}^{n-1} \alpha(x) e^{-\frac{2\pi cxi}{n}}. \quad (6)$$

## QFT and Periodicity

### Lemma

Let  $f \in \mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_n$  and suppose that  $f$  is periodic of period  $r$ , where  $r|n$ .

Then

$$\hat{f}(c) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sqrt{n}}{r} \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} f(s) \overline{\chi_n^c(s)}, & \text{if } c \equiv 0 \pmod{n/r} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}. \quad (7)$$

## QFT and Periodicity

### Lemma

Let  $f \in \mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_n$  and suppose that  $f$  is periodic of period  $r$ , where  $r|n$ .

Then

$$\hat{f}(c) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sqrt{n}}{r} \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} f(s) \overline{\chi_n^c(s)}, & \text{if } c = 0 \pmod{n/r} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}. \quad (7)$$

## Proof

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{f}(c) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f(k) \overline{\chi^c(k)} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{a=0}^{r-1} \sum_{s=0}^{\frac{n}{r}-1} f(a+sr) \overline{\chi^c(a+sr)} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{a=0}^{r-1} f(a) \overline{\chi^c(a)} \sum_{s=0}^{\frac{n}{r}-1} \overline{\chi^c(sr)}.\end{aligned}$$

The result follows on applying the lemma above modulo  $n/r$ .

## Proof

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{f}(c) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f(k) \overline{\chi^c(k)} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{a=0}^{r-1} \sum_{s=0}^{\frac{n}{r}-1} f(a+sr) \overline{\chi^c(a+sr)} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{a=0}^{r-1} f(a) \overline{\chi^c(a)} \sum_{s=0}^{\frac{n}{r}-1} \overline{\chi^c(sr)}.\end{aligned}$$

The result follows on applying the lemma above modulo  $n/r$ .

## Cutting Teeth

Assume  $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$  is periodic of period  $r$  and  $U_f$  is the standard oracle for  $f$ .

Assume  $r|N$  and that we use  $N$ -ary registers (instead of qubits).

Begin with two registers, of one  $N$ -ary quantum bit each, in initial state  $|0\rangle |0\rangle$ .

To the first register apply the Walsh–Hadamard transform to obtain the state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle |0\rangle.$$

Now apply  $U_f$ :

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle |f(x)\rangle.$$

## Cutting Teeth

Assume  $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$  is periodic of period  $r$  and  $U_f$  is the standard oracle for  $f$ .

Assume  $r|N$  and that we use  $N$ -ary registers (instead of qubits).

Begin with two registers, of one  $N$ -ary quantum bit each, in initial state  $|0\rangle |0\rangle$ .

To the first register apply the Walsh–Hadamard transform to obtain the state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle |0\rangle.$$

Now apply  $U_f$ :

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle |f(x)\rangle.$$

## Cutting Teeth

Assume  $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$  is periodic of period  $r$  and  $U_f$  is the standard oracle for  $f$ .

Assume  $r|N$  and that we use  $N$ -ary registers (instead of qubits).

Begin with two registers, of one  $N$ -ary quantum bit each, in initial state  $|0\rangle |0\rangle$ .

To the first register apply the Walsh–Hadamard transform to obtain the state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle |0\rangle.$$

Now apply  $U_f$ :

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle |f(x)\rangle.$$

## Cutting Teeth

Assume  $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$  is periodic of period  $r$  and  $U_f$  is the standard oracle for  $f$ .

Assume  $r|N$  and that we use  $N$ -ary registers (instead of qubits).

Begin with two registers, of one  $N$ -ary quantum bit each, in initial state  $|0\rangle |0\rangle$ .

To the first register apply the Walsh–Hadamard transform to obtain the state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle |0\rangle.$$

Now apply  $U_f$ :

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle |f(x)\rangle.$$

## Cutting Teeth

Assume  $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$  is periodic of period  $r$  and  $U_f$  is the standard oracle for  $f$ .

Assume  $r|N$  and that we use  $N$ -ary registers (instead of qubits).

Begin with two registers, of one  $N$ -ary quantum bit each, in initial state  $|0\rangle |0\rangle$ .

To the first register apply the Walsh–Hadamard transform to obtain the state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle |0\rangle.$$

Now apply  $U_f$ :

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle |f(x)\rangle.$$

Now observe the second register and obtain, uniformly at random, some value  $y_0$  in the image of  $f$ .

The system then projects to the state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{|f^{-1}(y_0)|}} \sum_{x \in f^{-1}(y_0)} |x\rangle |y_0\rangle.$$

Since  $f$  is periodic with period  $r$  there is precisely one value  $x_0$  with  $0 \leq x_0 < r$  such that  $f(x_0) = y_0$ .

Now observe the second register and obtain, uniformly at random, some value  $y_0$  in the image of  $f$ .

The system then projects to the state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{|f^{-1}(y_0)|}} \sum_{x \in f^{-1}(y_0)} |x\rangle |y_0\rangle.$$

Since  $f$  is periodic with period  $r$  there is precisely one value  $x_0$  with  $0 \leq x_0 < r$  such that  $f(x_0) = y_0$ .

Now observe the second register and obtain, uniformly at random, some value  $y_0$  in the image of  $f$ .

The system then projects to the state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{|f^{-1}(y_0)|}} \sum_{x \in f^{-1}(y_0)} |x\rangle |y_0\rangle.$$

Since  $f$  is periodic with period  $r$  there is precisely one value  $x_0$  with  $0 \leq x_0 < r$  such that  $f(x_0) = y_0$ .

If we set  $K = N/r$  then, in the first register, we have the state

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}} \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} |x_0 + kr\rangle \\ &= \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \psi(x) |x\rangle, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\psi(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}} = \sqrt{\frac{r}{N}}, & \text{if } r|x - x_0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Thus  $\psi \in \mathbb{CZ}_N$  is periodic with period  $r$ .

If we set  $K = N/r$  then, in the first register, we have the state

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}} \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} |x_0 + kr\rangle \\ &= \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \psi(x) |x\rangle, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\psi(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}} = \sqrt{\frac{r}{N}}, & \text{if } r|x - x_0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Thus  $\psi \in \mathbb{CZ}_N$  is periodic with period  $r$ .

If we set  $K = N/r$  then, in the first register, we have the state

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}} \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} |x_0 + kr\rangle \\ &= \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \psi(x) |x\rangle, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\psi(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}} = \sqrt{\frac{r}{N}}, & \text{if } r|x - x_0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Thus  $\psi \in \mathbb{CZ}_N$  is periodic with period  $r$ .

If we set  $K = N/r$  then, in the first register, we have the state

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}} \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} |x_0 + kr\rangle \\ &= \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \psi(x) |x\rangle, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\psi(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}} = \sqrt{\frac{r}{N}}, & \text{if } r|x - x_0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Thus  $\psi \in \mathbb{C}\mathbb{Z}_N$  is periodic with period  $r$ .

Apply  $\mathcal{Q}$  to the first register:

$$\mathcal{Q}|\psi\rangle = \sum_{c=0}^{N-1} \hat{\psi}(c) |c\rangle,$$

where

$$\hat{\psi}(c) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sqrt{N}}{r} \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} \psi(s) \overline{\chi^c(s)}, & \text{if } c = 0 \pmod{\frac{N}{r}} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
$$= \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \overline{\chi^c(x_0)}, & \text{if } c = 0 \pmod{\frac{N}{r}} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases},$$

since  $\psi(x_0) = 1/\sqrt{K}$  and  $\psi(s) = 0$  for all  $s \neq x_0$ .

Apply  $\mathcal{Q}$  to the first register:

$$\mathcal{Q}|\psi\rangle = \sum_{c=0}^{N-1} \hat{\psi}(c) |c\rangle,$$

where

$$\hat{\psi}(c) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sqrt{N}}{r} \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} \psi(s) \overline{\chi^c(s)}, & \text{if } c = 0 \pmod{\frac{N}{r}} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
$$= \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \overline{\chi^c(x_0)}, & \text{if } c = 0 \pmod{\frac{N}{r}} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases},$$

since  $\psi(x_0) = 1/\sqrt{K}$  and  $\psi(s) = 0$  for all  $s \neq x_0$ .

Observe this state to obtain a value  $c = c(s)$  which is a multiple of  $N/r$ .

In fact, for a uniformly random  $s \in \{0, \dots, r-1\}$  we have

$$c = s \frac{N}{r} \implies \frac{c}{N} = \frac{s}{r}$$

where the fraction  $c/N$  is known.

If we reduce  $c/N$  down to lowest terms then we may determine  $r$ , as the denominator of this irreducible fraction, provided that  $\gcd(s, r) = 1$ .

If  $s$  and  $r$  are not coprime then we will obtain a proper factor of  $r$  and not  $r$  itself ....

Observe this state to obtain a value  $c = c(s)$  which is a multiple of  $N/r$ .

In fact, for a uniformly random  $s \in \{0, \dots, r - 1\}$  we have

$$c = s \frac{N}{r} \implies \frac{c}{N} = \frac{s}{r}$$

where the fraction  $c/N$  is known.

If we reduce  $c/N$  down to lowest terms then we may determine  $r$ , as the denominator of this irreducible fraction, provided that  $\gcd(s, r) = 1$ .

If  $s$  and  $r$  are not coprime then we will obtain a proper factor of  $r$  and not  $r$  itself ....

Observe this state to obtain a value  $c = c(s)$  which is a multiple of  $N/r$ .

In fact, for a uniformly random  $s \in \{0, \dots, r-1\}$  we have

$$c = s \frac{N}{r} \implies \frac{c}{N} = \frac{s}{r}$$

where the fraction  $c/N$  is known.

If we reduce  $c/N$  down to lowest terms then we may determine  $r$ , as the denominator of this irreducible fraction, provided that  $\gcd(s, r) = 1$ .

If  $s$  and  $r$  are not coprime then we will obtain a proper factor of  $r$  and not  $r$  itself ....

Observe this state to obtain a value  $c = c(s)$  which is a multiple of  $N/r$ .

In fact, for a uniformly random  $s \in \{0, \dots, r-1\}$  we have

$$c = s \frac{N}{r} \implies \frac{c}{N} = \frac{s}{r}$$

where the fraction  $c/N$  is known.

If we reduce  $c/N$  down to lowest terms then we may determine  $r$ , as the denominator of this irreducible fraction, provided that  $\gcd(s, r) = 1$ .

If  $s$  and  $r$  are not coprime then we will obtain a proper factor of  $r$  and not  $r$  itself ....

...however

$$\liminf \left( \frac{\phi(n)}{n / \log_e \log_e n} \right) = e^{-\gamma}$$

where  $\gamma$  is *Euler's constant*.

This means that if we choose a random number from  $\{0, \dots, n-1\}$  then the probability  $p(n)$  that it is coprime to  $n$  satisfies

$$p(n) = \frac{\phi(n)}{n} \geq \frac{e^{-\gamma}}{\log_e \log_e n}. \quad (8)$$

So we obtain a number coprime to  $N$  with probability  $1 - \varepsilon$ , where  $\varepsilon > 0$  can be made arbitrarily small, by repeating the above observation  $O(\log_e \log_e N)$  times.

...however

$$\liminf \left( \frac{\phi(n)}{n / \log_e \log_e n} \right) = e^{-\gamma}$$

where  $\gamma$  is *Euler's constant*.

This means that if we choose a random number from  $\{0, \dots, n-1\}$  then the probability  $p(n)$  that it is coprime to  $n$  satisfies

$$p(n) = \frac{\phi(n)}{n} \geq \frac{e^{-\gamma}}{\log_e \log_e n}. \quad (8)$$

So we obtain a number coprime to  $N$  with probability  $1 - \varepsilon$ , where  $\varepsilon > 0$  can be made arbitrarily small, by repeating the above observation  $O(\log_e \log_e N)$  times.

....however

$$\liminf \left( \frac{\phi(n)}{n / \log_e \log_e n} \right) = e^{-\gamma}$$

where  $\gamma$  is *Euler's constant*.

This means that if we choose a random number from  $\{0, \dots, n-1\}$  then the probability  $p(n)$  that it is coprime to  $n$  satisfies

$$p(n) = \frac{\phi(n)}{n} \geq \frac{e^{-\gamma}}{\log_e \log_e n}. \quad (8)$$

So we obtain a number coprime to  $N$  with probability  $1 - \varepsilon$ , where  $\varepsilon > 0$  can be made arbitrarily small, by repeating the above observation  $O(\log_e \log_e N)$  times.

....however

$$\liminf \left( \frac{\phi(n)}{n / \log_e \log_e n} \right) = e^{-\gamma}$$

where  $\gamma$  is *Euler's constant*.

This means that if we choose a random number from  $\{0, \dots, n-1\}$  then the probability  $p(n)$  that it is coprime to  $n$  satisfies

$$p(n) = \frac{\phi(n)}{n} \geq \frac{e^{-\gamma}}{\log_e \log_e n}. \quad (8)$$

So we obtain a number coprime to  $N$  with probability  $1 - \varepsilon$ , where  $\varepsilon > 0$  can be made arbitrarily small, by repeating the above observation  $O(\log_e \log_e N)$  times.

## Example

Suppose the function  $f : \mathbb{Z}_{21} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{21}$  is given by  $f(k) = 4^k$  and has period  $r$ , which we wish to find.

After applying  $W_{21}$  and  $U_f$  we have the state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{21}} [ (|0\rangle + |3\rangle + |6\rangle + |9\rangle + |12\rangle + |15\rangle + |18\rangle) |1\rangle \\ + (|1\rangle + |4\rangle + |7\rangle + |10\rangle + |13\rangle + |16\rangle + |19\rangle) |4\rangle \\ + (|2\rangle + |5\rangle + |8\rangle + |11\rangle + |14\rangle + |17\rangle + |20\rangle) |16\rangle ].$$

## Example

Suppose the function  $f : \mathbb{Z}_{21} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{21}$  is given by  $f(k) = 4^k$  and has period  $r$ , which we wish to find.

After applying  $W_{21}$  and  $U_f$  we have the state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{21}} [ (|0\rangle + |3\rangle + |6\rangle + |9\rangle + |12\rangle + |15\rangle + |18\rangle) |1\rangle \\ + (|1\rangle + |4\rangle + |7\rangle + |10\rangle + |13\rangle + |16\rangle + |19\rangle) |4\rangle \\ + (|2\rangle + |5\rangle + |8\rangle + |11\rangle + |14\rangle + |17\rangle + |20\rangle) |16\rangle ].$$

Observing the second register we obtain, with probability  $1/3$ , one of 1, 4 or 16.

The first register then contains  $|\psi_0\rangle$ ,  $|\psi_1\rangle$  or  $|\psi_2\rangle$ , where  $|\psi_s\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^6 |s + 3k\rangle$ .

Applying  $Q_{21}$  to these states we have

$$Q|\psi_0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(|0\rangle + |7\rangle + |14\rangle) \text{ or}$$

$$Q|\psi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(|0\rangle + \omega|7\rangle + \omega^2|14\rangle) \text{ or}$$

$$Q|\psi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(|0\rangle + \omega^2|7\rangle + \omega|14\rangle),$$

where  $\omega = e^{-2\pi i/3}$ .

Observing the second register we obtain, with probability  $1/3$ , one of 1, 4 or 16.

The first register then contains  $|\psi_0\rangle$ ,  $|\psi_1\rangle$  or  $|\psi_2\rangle$ , where  $|\psi_s\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^6 |s + 3k\rangle$ .

Applying  $Q_{21}$  to these states we have

$$Q|\psi_0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(|0\rangle + |7\rangle + |14\rangle) \text{ or}$$

$$Q|\psi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(|0\rangle + \omega|7\rangle + \omega^2|14\rangle) \text{ or}$$

$$Q|\psi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(|0\rangle + \omega^2|7\rangle + \omega|14\rangle),$$

where  $\omega = e^{-2\pi i/3}$ .

Observing the second register we obtain, with probability  $1/3$ , one of 1, 4 or 16.

The first register then contains  $|\psi_0\rangle$ ,  $|\psi_1\rangle$  or  $|\psi_2\rangle$ , where  $|\psi_s\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^6 |s + 3k\rangle$ .

Applying  $Q_{21}$  to these states we have

$$Q|\psi_0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(|0\rangle + |7\rangle + |14\rangle) \text{ or}$$

$$Q|\psi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(|0\rangle + \omega|7\rangle + \omega^2|14\rangle) \text{ or}$$

$$Q|\psi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(|0\rangle + \omega^2|7\rangle + \omega|14\rangle),$$

where  $\omega = e^{-2\pi i/3}$ .

Whichever of these we have, observation now yields, with equal probabilities,  $c = 0$ ,  $c = 7$  or  $c = 14$ .

If we observe  $c = 0$  then the process must be run again.

If we observe  $c = 7$  then  $c/N = 7/21 = 1/3$  and the denominator of this fraction is  $r$ .

Similarly, if  $c = 14$  we read  $r$  off from  $c/N = 14/21 = 2/3$ .

Whichever of these we have, observation now yields, with equal probabilities,  $c = 0$ ,  $c = 7$  or  $c = 14$ .

If we observe  $c = 0$  then the process must be run again.

If we observe  $c = 7$  then  $c/N = 7/21 = 1/3$  and the denominator of this fraction is  $r$ .

Similarly, if  $c = 14$  we read  $r$  off from  $c/N = 14/21 = 2/3$ .

Whichever of these we have, observation now yields, with equal probabilities,  $c = 0$ ,  $c = 7$  or  $c = 14$ .

If we observe  $c = 0$  then the process must be run again.

If we observe  $c = 7$  then  $c/N = 7/21 = 1/3$  and the denominator of this fraction is  $r$ .

Similarly, if  $c = 14$  we read  $r$  off from  $c/N = 14/21 = 2/3$ .

Whichever of these we have, observation now yields, with equal probabilities,  $c = 0$ ,  $c = 7$  or  $c = 14$ .

If we observe  $c = 0$  then the process must be run again.

If we observe  $c = 7$  then  $c/N = 7/21 = 1/3$  and the denominator of this fraction is  $r$ .

Similarly, if  $c = 14$  we read  $r$  off from  $c/N = 14/21 = 2/3$ .

# The Search Problem

Given an  $N$  element set  $X$  and a map  $P : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  find  $x \in X$  such that  $P(x) = 1$ .

Assume there's an oracle to evaluate  $P(x)$  for a given  $x \in X$ .

Classically: requires  $N - M + 1$  evaluations to find a solution  $x$  with certainty,

and  $O(N/M)$  evaluations to find one with high probability.

Grover's quantum algorithm:  $O(\sqrt{N/M})$ .

## The Search Problem

Given an  $N$  element set  $X$  and a map  $P : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  find  $x \in X$  such that  $P(x) = 1$ .

Assume there's an oracle to evaluate  $P(x)$  for a given  $x \in X$ .

Classically: requires  $N - M + 1$  evaluations to find a solution  $x$  with certainty,

and  $O(N/M)$  evaluations to find one with high probability.

Grover's quantum algorithm:  $O(\sqrt{N/M})$ .

## The Search Problem

Given an  $N$  element set  $X$  and a map  $P : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  find  $x \in X$  such that  $P(x) = 1$ .

Assume there's an oracle to evaluate  $P(x)$  for a given  $x \in X$ .

Classically: requires  $N - M + 1$  evaluations to find a solution  $x$  with certainty,

and  $O(N/M)$  evaluations to find one with high probability.

Grover's quantum algorithm:  $O(\sqrt{N/M})$ .

## The Search Problem

Given an  $N$  element set  $X$  and a map  $P : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  find  $x \in X$  such that  $P(x) = 1$ .

Assume there's an oracle to evaluate  $P(x)$  for a given  $x \in X$ .

Classically: requires  $N - M + 1$  evaluations to find a solution  $x$  with certainty,

and  $O(N/M)$  evaluations to find one with high probability.

Grover's quantum algorithm:  $O(\sqrt{N/M})$ .

## The Search Problem

Given an  $N$  element set  $X$  and a map  $P : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  find  $x \in X$  such that  $P(x) = 1$ .

Assume there's an oracle to evaluate  $P(x)$  for a given  $x \in X$ .

Classically: requires  $N - M + 1$  evaluations to find a solution  $x$  with certainty,

and  $O(N/M)$  evaluations to find one with high probability.

Grover's quantum algorithm:  $O(\sqrt{N/M})$ .

## Overview

- Suppose that  $N$  has size  $2^n$ .
- Prepare the standard superposition of all possible outputs
- Find a state  $|x\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$  for some  $x$ . By direct measurement at this stage, there is only a probability of  $M/2^n$  of finding such a state.
- Increase the amplitude of vectors of the form  $|x\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$  and decrease the amplitude of those of the form  $|x\rangle \otimes |0\rangle$  (somehow) until the state approximates

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{i=1}^M |x_i\rangle \otimes |1\rangle, \quad (9)$$

where the solution set is  $\{x_1, \dots, x_M\}$ .

- Measuring this altered state then gives a solution with high probability.

## Overview

- Suppose that  $N$  has size  $2^n$ .
- Prepare the standard superposition of all possible outputs
- Find a state  $|x\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$  for some  $x$ . By direct measurement at this stage, there is only a probability of  $M/2^n$  of finding such a state.
- Increase the amplitude of vectors of the form  $|x\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$  and decrease the amplitude of those of the form  $|x\rangle \otimes |0\rangle$  (somehow) until the state approximates

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{i=1}^M |x_i\rangle \otimes |1\rangle, \quad (9)$$

where the solution set is  $\{x_1, \dots, x_M\}$ .

- Measuring this altered state then gives a solution with high probability.

## Overview

- Suppose that  $N$  has size  $2^n$ .
- Prepare the standard superposition of all possible outputs
- Find a state  $|x\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$  for some  $x$ . By direct measurement at this stage, there is only a probability of  $M/2^n$  of finding such a state.
- Increase the amplitude of vectors of the form  $|x\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$  and decrease the amplitude of those of the form  $|x\rangle \otimes |0\rangle$  (somehow) until the state approximates

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{i=1}^M |x_i\rangle \otimes |1\rangle, \quad (9)$$

where the solution set is  $\{x_1, \dots, x_M\}$ .

- Measuring this altered state then gives a solution with high probability.

## Overview

- Suppose that  $N$  has size  $2^n$ .
- Prepare the standard superposition of all possible outputs
- Find a state  $|x\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$  for some  $x$ . By direct measurement at this stage, there is only a probability of  $M/2^n$  of finding such a state.
- Increase the amplitude of vectors of the form  $|x\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$  and decrease the amplitude of those of the form  $|x\rangle \otimes |0\rangle$  (somehow) until the state approximates

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{i=1}^M |x_i\rangle \otimes |1\rangle, \quad (9)$$

where the solution set is  $\{x_1, \dots, x_M\}$ .

- Measuring this altered state then gives a solution with high probability.

## Overview

- Suppose that  $N$  has size  $2^n$ .
- Prepare the standard superposition of all possible outputs
- Find a state  $|x\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$  for some  $x$ . By direct measurement at this stage, there is only a probability of  $M/2^n$  of finding such a state.
- Increase the amplitude of vectors of the form  $|x\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$  and decrease the amplitude of those of the form  $|x\rangle \otimes |0\rangle$  (somehow) until the state approximates

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{i=1}^M |x_i\rangle \otimes |1\rangle, \quad (9)$$

where the solution set is  $\{x_1, \dots, x_M\}$ .

- Measuring this altered state then gives a solution with high probability.

## Overview

- Suppose that  $N$  has size  $2^n$ .
- Prepare the standard superposition of all possible outputs
- Find a state  $|x\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$  for some  $x$ . By direct measurement at this stage, there is only a probability of  $M/2^n$  of finding such a state.
- Increase the amplitude of vectors of the form  $|x\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$  and decrease the amplitude of those of the form  $|x\rangle \otimes |0\rangle$  (somehow) until the state approximates

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{i=1}^M |x_i\rangle \otimes |1\rangle, \quad (9)$$

where the solution set is  $\{x_1, \dots, x_M\}$ .

- Measuring this altered state then gives a solution with high probability.

## Overview

- Suppose that  $N$  has size  $2^n$ .
- Prepare the standard superposition of all possible outputs
- Find a state  $|x\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$  for some  $x$ . By direct measurement at this stage, there is only a probability of  $M/2^n$  of finding such a state.
- Increase the amplitude of vectors of the form  $|x\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$  and decrease the amplitude of those of the form  $|x\rangle \otimes |0\rangle$  (somehow) until the state approximates

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{i=1}^M |x_i\rangle \otimes |1\rangle, \quad (9)$$

where the solution set is  $\{x_1, \dots, x_M\}$ .

- Measuring this altered state then gives a solution with high probability.

For simplicity we assume that we know in advance that there are exactly  $M$  solutions, where  $M \geq 1$ .

The standard oracle for  $P$  is  $U_P: |x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle$  to  $|x\rangle \otimes |P(x) \oplus y\rangle$ .

The underlying quantum system consists of a first register of  $n$  qubits and second register, called the *oracle workspace*, of a single qubit.

Apply  $W^n \otimes W$  followed by  $U_P$  to the input state  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n} \otimes |1\rangle$ .

The first register then contains

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} (-1)^{P(x)} |x\rangle. \quad (10)$$

For simplicity we assume that we know in advance that there are exactly  $M$  solutions, where  $M \geq 1$ .

The standard oracle for  $P$  is  $U_P: |x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle$  to  $|x\rangle \otimes |P(x) \oplus y\rangle$ .

The underlying quantum system consists of a first register of  $n$  qubits and second register, called the *oracle workspace*, of a single qubit.

Apply  $W^n \otimes W$  followed by  $U_P$  to the input state  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n} \otimes |1\rangle$ .

The first register then contains

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} (-1)^{P(x)} |x\rangle. \quad (10)$$

For simplicity we assume that we know in advance that there are exactly  $M$  solutions, where  $M \geq 1$ .

The standard oracle for  $P$  is  $U_P: |x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle$  to  $|x\rangle \otimes |P(x) \oplus y\rangle$ .

The underlying quantum system consists of a first register of  $n$  qubits and second register, called the *oracle workspace*, of a single qubit.

Apply  $W^n \otimes W$  followed by  $U_P$  to the input state  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n} \otimes |1\rangle$ .

The first register then contains

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} (-1)^{P(x)} |x\rangle. \quad (10)$$

For simplicity we assume that we know in advance that there are exactly  $M$  solutions, where  $M \geq 1$ .

The standard oracle for  $P$  is  $U_P: |x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle$  to  $|x\rangle \otimes |P(x) \oplus y\rangle$ .

The underlying quantum system consists of a first register of  $n$  qubits and second register, called the *oracle workspace*, of a single qubit.

Apply  $W^n \otimes W$  followed by  $U_P$  to the input state  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n} \otimes |1\rangle$ .

The first register then contains

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} (-1)^{P(x)} |x\rangle. \quad (10)$$

For simplicity we assume that we know in advance that there are exactly  $M$  solutions, where  $M \geq 1$ .

The standard oracle for  $P$  is  $U_P: |x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle$  to  $|x\rangle \otimes |P(x) \oplus y\rangle$ .

The underlying quantum system consists of a first register of  $n$  qubits and second register, called the *oracle workspace*, of a single qubit.

Apply  $W^n \otimes W$  followed by  $U_P$  to the input state  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n} \otimes |1\rangle$ .

The first register then contains

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} (-1)^{P(x)} |x\rangle. \quad (10)$$

## Inversion about the Mean

Define the unitary transformation  $F = W_n T W_n$ , where  $T$  is the *conditional phase shift* operator given by

$$T |0\rangle = |0\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad T |x\rangle = -|x\rangle, \quad \text{for all } x \neq 0.$$

Apply  $F$  to the state (10) (that is apply  $F \otimes I$  to the quantum system).

Repeat the process, applying  $U_P$  followed by  $F$  until the amplitudes of the solutions approach  $1/\sqrt{M}$  and the amplitudes of all other basis vectors approach zero.

## Inversion about the Mean

Define the unitary transformation  $F = W_n T W_n$ , where  $T$  is the *conditional phase shift* operator given by

$$T |0\rangle = |0\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad T |x\rangle = -|x\rangle, \quad \text{for all } x \neq 0.$$

Apply  $F$  to the state (10) (that is apply  $F \otimes I$  to the quantum system).

Repeat the process, applying  $U_P$  followed by  $F$  until the amplitudes of the solutions approach  $1/\sqrt{M}$  and the amplitudes of all other basis vectors approach zero.

## Inversion about the Mean

Define the unitary transformation  $F = W_n T W_n$ , where  $T$  is the *conditional phase shift* operator given by

$$T |0\rangle = |0\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad T |x\rangle = -|x\rangle, \quad \text{for all } x \neq 0.$$

Apply  $F$  to the state (10) (that is apply  $F \otimes I$  to the quantum system).

Repeat the process, applying  $U_P$  followed by  $F$  until the amplitudes of the solutions approach  $1/\sqrt{M}$  and the amplitudes of all other basis vectors approach zero.

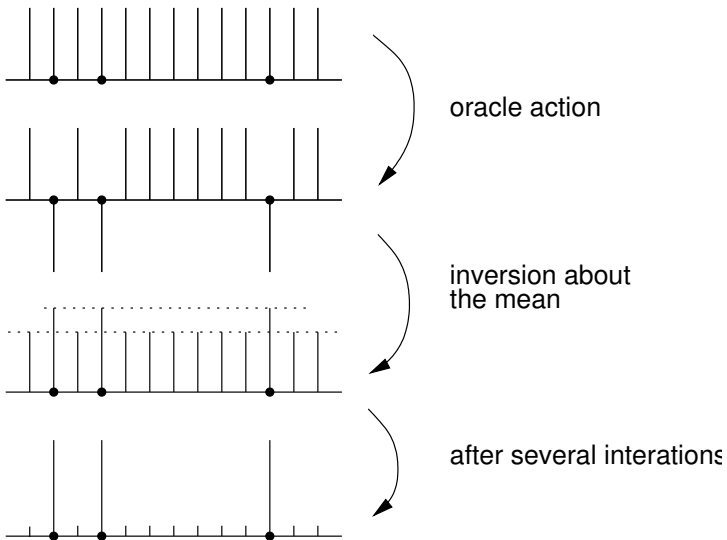


Figure: Operation of Grover's algorithm

Call the composite function  $\mathcal{G} = (F \otimes I) \circ U_P$  the *Grover operator*.

The question is how many iterations of  $\mathcal{G}$  to repeat before halting.

The number of iterations must be chosen carefully, as the amplitudes of the solutions do not approach a steady state but rather oscillate.

As we shall see, the required number of iterations is  $O(\sqrt{N/M})$ .

Call the composite function  $\mathcal{G} = (F \otimes I) \circ U_P$  the *Grover operator*.

The question is how many iterations of  $\mathcal{G}$  to repeat before halting.

The number of iterations must be chosen carefully, as the amplitudes of the solutions do not approach a steady state but rather oscillate.

As we shall see, the required number of iterations is  $O(\sqrt{N/M})$ .

Call the composite function  $\mathcal{G} = (F \otimes I) \circ U_P$  the *Grover operator*.

The question is how many iterations of  $\mathcal{G}$  to repeat before halting.

The number of iterations must be chosen carefully, as the amplitudes of the solutions do not approach a steady state but rather oscillate.

As we shall see, the required number of iterations is  $O(\sqrt{N/M})$ .

Call the composite function  $\mathcal{G} = (F \otimes I) \circ U_P$  the *Grover operator*.

The question is how many iterations of  $\mathcal{G}$  to repeat before halting.

The number of iterations must be chosen carefully, as the amplitudes of the solutions do not approach a steady state but rather oscillate.

As we shall see, the required number of iterations is  $O(\sqrt{N/M})$ .

Call the composite function  $\mathcal{G} = (F \otimes I) \circ U_P$  the *Grover operator*.

The question is how many iterations of  $\mathcal{G}$  to repeat before halting.

The number of iterations must be chosen carefully, as the amplitudes of the solutions do not approach a steady state but rather oscillate.

As we shall see, the required number of iterations is  $O(\sqrt{N/M})$ .

## Inversion about the Mean

$$T = 2|0\rangle\langle 0| - I.$$

Inversion about the mean is then given by

$$F = W^{\otimes n}(2|0\rangle\langle 0| - I)W^{\otimes n}. \quad (11)$$

If we let

$$|\psi\rangle = W^{\otimes n}|0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle$$

then we have

$$\langle\psi| = \langle 0|W^{\otimes n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \langle x|.$$

It follows that

$$F = 2|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| - I. \quad (12)$$

## Inversion about the Mean

$$T = 2|0\rangle\langle 0| - I.$$

Inversion about the mean is then given by

$$F = W^{\otimes n}(2|0\rangle\langle 0| - I)W^{\otimes n}. \quad (11)$$

If we let

$$|\psi\rangle = W^{\otimes n}|0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle$$

then we have

$$\langle\psi| = \langle 0|W^{\otimes n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \langle x|.$$

It follows that

$$F = 2|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| - I. \quad (12)$$

## Inversion about the Mean

$$T = 2|0\rangle\langle 0| - I.$$

Inversion about the mean is then given by

$$F = W^{\otimes n}(2|0\rangle\langle 0| - I)W^{\otimes n}. \quad (11)$$

If we let

$$|\psi\rangle = W^{\otimes n}|0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle$$

then we have

$$\langle\psi| = \langle 0|W^{\otimes n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \langle x|.$$

It follows that

$$F = 2|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| - I. \quad (12)$$

## Inversion about the Mean

$$T = 2|0\rangle\langle 0| - I.$$

Inversion about the mean is then given by

$$F = W^{\otimes n}(2|0\rangle\langle 0| - I)W^{\otimes n}. \quad (11)$$

If we let

$$|\psi\rangle = W^{\otimes n}|0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle$$

then we have

$$\langle\psi| = \langle 0|W^{\otimes n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \langle x|.$$

It follows that

$$F = 2|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| - I. \quad (12)$$

## Inversion about the Mean

$$T = 2|0\rangle\langle 0| - I.$$

Inversion about the mean is then given by

$$F = W^{\otimes n}(2|0\rangle\langle 0| - I)W^{\otimes n}. \quad (11)$$

If we let

$$|\psi\rangle = W^{\otimes n}|0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle$$

then we have

$$\langle\psi| = \langle 0|W^{\otimes n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \langle x|.$$

It follows that

$$F = 2|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| - I. \quad (12)$$

Consider the action of this operator on a general quantum state.

$$(2|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| - I) \sum_k \alpha_k |k\rangle = 2 \sum_k \alpha_k |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|k\rangle - \sum_k \alpha_k |k\rangle.$$

Now (after some calculation)

$$\sum_k \alpha_k |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|k\rangle = A \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle,$$

where

$$A = \frac{1}{N} \sum_k \alpha_k$$

is the mean of the  $\alpha_k$ 's.

So

$$F \left( \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \alpha_k |k\rangle \right) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} (2A - \alpha_k) |k\rangle.$$

i.e.  $F$  reflects the amplitudes  $\alpha_k$  about their mean value  $A$ .

Consider the action of this operator on a general quantum state.

$$(2|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| - I) \sum_k \alpha_k |k\rangle = 2 \sum_k \alpha_k |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|k\rangle - \sum_k \alpha_k |k\rangle.$$

Now (after some calculation)

$$\sum_k \alpha_k |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|k\rangle = A \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle,$$

where

$$A = \frac{1}{N} \sum_k \alpha_k$$

is the mean of the  $\alpha_k$ 's.

So

$$F \left( \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \alpha_k |k\rangle \right) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} (2A - \alpha_k) |k\rangle.$$

i.e.  $F$  reflects the amplitudes  $\alpha_k$  about their mean value  $A$ .

Consider the action of this operator on a general quantum state.

$$(2|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| - I) \sum_k \alpha_k |k\rangle = 2 \sum_k \alpha_k |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|k\rangle - \sum_k \alpha_k |k\rangle.$$

Now (after some calculation)

$$\sum_k \alpha_k |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|k\rangle = A \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle,$$

where

$$A = \frac{1}{N} \sum_k \alpha_k$$

is the mean of the  $\alpha_k$ 's.

So

$$F \left( \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \alpha_k |k\rangle \right) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} (2A - \alpha_k) |k\rangle.$$

i.e.  $F$  reflects the amplitudes  $\alpha_k$  about their mean value  $A$ .

Consider the action of this operator on a general quantum state.

$$(2|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| - I) \sum_k \alpha_k |k\rangle = 2 \sum_k \alpha_k |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|k\rangle - \sum_k \alpha_k |k\rangle.$$

Now (after some calculation)

$$\sum_k \alpha_k |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|k\rangle = A \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle,$$

where

$$A = \frac{1}{N} \sum_k \alpha_k$$

is the mean of the  $\alpha_k$ 's.

So

$$F \left( \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \alpha_k |k\rangle \right) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} (2A - \alpha_k) |k\rangle.$$

i.e.  $F$  reflects the amplitudes  $\alpha_k$  about their mean value  $A$ .

## The Grover operator as rotation

Let

$$|a\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N-M}} \sum_{P(x)=0} |x\rangle, \quad |b\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{P(x)=1} |x\rangle.$$

The initial state of the system is

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle,$$

which can be written as

$$|\psi\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{N-M}{N}} |a\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{M}{N}} |b\rangle. \quad (13)$$

Claim: the Grover operator keeps the quantum state in the plane  $S$  spanned by  $|a\rangle$  and  $|b\rangle$ .

## The Grover operator as rotation

Let

$$|a\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N-M}} \sum_{P(x)=0} |x\rangle, \quad |b\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{P(x)=1} |x\rangle.$$

The initial state of the system is

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle,$$

which can be written as

$$|\psi\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{N-M}{N}} |a\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{M}{N}} |b\rangle. \quad (13)$$

Claim: the Grover operator keeps the quantum state in the plane  $S$  spanned by  $|a\rangle$  and  $|b\rangle$ .

## The Grover operator as rotation

Let

$$|a\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N-M}} \sum_{P(x)=0} |x\rangle, \quad |b\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{P(x)=1} |x\rangle.$$

The initial state of the system is

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle,$$

which can be written as

$$|\psi\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{N-M}{N}} |a\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{M}{N}} |b\rangle. \quad (13)$$

Claim: the Grover operator keeps the quantum state in the plane  $S$  spanned by  $|a\rangle$  and  $|b\rangle$ .

## The Grover operator as rotation

Let

$$|a\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N-M}} \sum_{P(x)=0} |x\rangle, \quad |b\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{P(x)=1} |x\rangle.$$

The initial state of the system is

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle,$$

which can be written as

$$|\psi\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{N-M}{N}} |a\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{M}{N}} |b\rangle. \quad (13)$$

Claim: the Grover operator keeps the quantum state in the plane  $S$  spanned by  $|a\rangle$  and  $|b\rangle$ .

Define an operator  $O$  of the first register by

$$U_P(|x\rangle \otimes |w\rangle) = (O|x\rangle) \otimes |w\rangle.$$

This is possible since  $U_P$  leaves  $|w\rangle$  unchanged.

$O$  determines the action of the oracle on the first register, given that the second register is in state  $|w\rangle$ .

Now let  $G = F \circ O$ . Then the operation of  $\mathcal{G}$  on the first register is determined by  $G$ .

The aim is to show that  $S$  is invariant under  $G$ .

Define an operator  $O$  of the first register by

$$U_P(|x\rangle \otimes |w\rangle) = (O|x\rangle) \otimes |w\rangle.$$

This is possible since  $U_P$  leaves  $|w\rangle$  unchanged.

$O$  determines the action of the oracle on the first register, given that the second register is in state  $|w\rangle$ .

Now let  $G = F \circ O$ . Then the operation of  $\mathcal{G}$  on the first register is determined by  $G$ .

The aim is to show that  $S$  is invariant under  $G$ .

Define an operator  $O$  of the first register by

$$U_P(|x\rangle \otimes |w\rangle) = (O|x\rangle) \otimes |w\rangle.$$

This is possible since  $U_P$  leaves  $|w\rangle$  unchanged.

$O$  determines the action of the oracle on the first register, given that the second register is in state  $|w\rangle$ .

Now let  $G = F \circ O$ . Then the operation of  $\mathcal{G}$  on the first register is determined by  $G$ .

The aim is to show that  $S$  is invariant under  $G$ .

Define an operator  $O$  of the first register by

$$U_P(|x\rangle \otimes |w\rangle) = (O|x\rangle) \otimes |w\rangle.$$

This is possible since  $U_P$  leaves  $|w\rangle$  unchanged.

$O$  determines the action of the oracle on the first register, given that the second register is in state  $|w\rangle$ .

Now let  $G = F \circ O$ . Then the operation of  $\mathcal{G}$  on the first register is determined by  $G$ .

The aim is to show that  $S$  is invariant under  $G$ .

Define an operator  $O$  of the first register by

$$U_P(|x\rangle \otimes |w\rangle) = (O|x\rangle) \otimes |w\rangle.$$

This is possible since  $U_P$  leaves  $|w\rangle$  unchanged.

$O$  determines the action of the oracle on the first register, given that the second register is in state  $|w\rangle$ .

Now let  $G = F \circ O$ . Then the operation of  $\mathcal{G}$  on the first register is determined by  $G$ .

The aim is to show that  $S$  is invariant under  $G$ .

First consider the action of the oracle  $O$  on  $S$ .

We have  $O|a\rangle = |a\rangle$  and  $O|b\rangle = -|b\rangle$ .

Thus

$$O(\alpha|a\rangle + \beta|b\rangle) = \alpha|a\rangle - \beta|b\rangle \in \text{span}\{|a\rangle, |b\rangle\},$$

so  $S$  is invariant under the action of the oracle.

Geometrically,  $O|_S$  is a reflection in the line through the origin defined by  $|a\rangle$ .

First consider the action of the oracle  $O$  on  $S$ .

We have  $O|a\rangle = |a\rangle$  and  $O|b\rangle = -|b\rangle$ .

Thus

$$O(\alpha|a\rangle + \beta|b\rangle) = \alpha|a\rangle - \beta|b\rangle \in \text{span}\{|a\rangle, |b\rangle\},$$

so  $S$  is invariant under the action of the oracle.

Geometrically,  $O|_S$  is a reflection in the line through the origin defined by  $|a\rangle$ .

First consider the action of the oracle  $O$  on  $S$ .

We have  $O|a\rangle = |a\rangle$  and  $O|b\rangle = -|b\rangle$ .

Thus

$$O(\alpha|a\rangle + \beta|b\rangle) = \alpha|a\rangle - \beta|b\rangle \in \text{span}\{|a\rangle, |b\rangle\},$$

so  $S$  is invariant under the action of the oracle.

Geometrically,  $O|_S$  is a reflection in the line through the origin defined by  $|a\rangle$ .

First consider the action of the oracle  $O$  on  $S$ .

We have  $O|a\rangle = |a\rangle$  and  $O|b\rangle = -|b\rangle$ .

Thus

$$O(\alpha|a\rangle + \beta|b\rangle) = \alpha|a\rangle - \beta|b\rangle \in \text{span}\{|a\rangle, |b\rangle\},$$

so  $S$  is invariant under the action of the oracle.

Geometrically,  $O|_S$  is a reflection in the line through the origin defined by  $|a\rangle$ .

Next consider the action of inversion about the mean, that is the operator  $F$ , on  $S$ .

$$F(\alpha|a\rangle + \beta|b\rangle) = 2\alpha\langle\psi|a\rangle|\psi\rangle + 2\beta\langle\psi|b\rangle|\psi\rangle - \alpha|a\rangle - \beta|b\rangle.$$

Since  $|\psi\rangle \in S$  it follows that  $S$  is invariant under  $F$  and, with the above, this implies that  $S$  is invariant under  $G$ , as required.

$F|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$  and if  $|\phi\rangle$  is orthogonal to  $|\psi\rangle$  then  $F|\phi\rangle = -|\phi\rangle$ .

Thus  $F|_S$  is a reflection in the line through the origin defined by  $|\psi\rangle$ .

Next consider the action of inversion about the mean, that is the operator  $F$ , on  $S$ .

$$F(\alpha|a\rangle + \beta|b\rangle) = 2\alpha\langle\psi|a\rangle|\psi\rangle + 2\beta\langle\psi|b\rangle|\psi\rangle - \alpha|a\rangle - \beta|b\rangle.$$

Since  $|\psi\rangle \in S$  it follows that  $S$  is invariant under  $F$  and, with the above, this implies that  $S$  is invariant under  $G$ , as required.

$F|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$  and if  $|\phi\rangle$  is orthogonal to  $|\psi\rangle$  then  $F|\phi\rangle = -|\phi\rangle$ .

Thus  $F|_S$  is a reflection in the line through the origin defined by  $|\psi\rangle$ .

Next consider the action of inversion about the mean, that is the operator  $F$ , on  $S$ .

$$F(\alpha|a\rangle + \beta|b\rangle) = 2\alpha\langle\psi|a\rangle|\psi\rangle + 2\beta\langle\psi|b\rangle|\psi\rangle - \alpha|a\rangle - \beta|b\rangle.$$

Since  $|\psi\rangle \in S$  it follows that  $S$  is invariant under  $F$  and, with the above, this implies that  $S$  is invariant under  $G$ , as required.

$F|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$  and if  $|\phi\rangle$  is orthogonal to  $|\psi\rangle$  then  $F|\phi\rangle = -|\phi\rangle$ .

Thus  $F|_S$  is a reflection in the line through the origin defined by  $|\psi\rangle$ .

Next consider the action of inversion about the mean, that is the operator  $F$ , on  $S$ .

$$F(\alpha|a\rangle + \beta|b\rangle) = 2\alpha\langle\psi|a\rangle|\psi\rangle + 2\beta\langle\psi|b\rangle|\psi\rangle - \alpha|a\rangle - \beta|b\rangle.$$

Since  $|\psi\rangle \in S$  it follows that  $S$  is invariant under  $F$  and, with the above, this implies that  $S$  is invariant under  $G$ , as required.

$F|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$  and if  $|\phi\rangle$  is orthogonal to  $|\psi\rangle$  then  $F|\phi\rangle = -|\phi\rangle$ .

Thus  $F|_S$  is a reflection in the line through the origin defined by  $|\psi\rangle$ .

Next consider the action of inversion about the mean, that is the operator  $F$ , on  $S$ .

$$F(\alpha|a\rangle + \beta|b\rangle) = 2\alpha\langle\psi|a\rangle|\psi\rangle + 2\beta\langle\psi|b\rangle|\psi\rangle - \alpha|a\rangle - \beta|b\rangle.$$

Since  $|\psi\rangle \in S$  it follows that  $S$  is invariant under  $F$  and, with the above, this implies that  $S$  is invariant under  $G$ , as required.

$F|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$  and if  $|\phi\rangle$  is orthogonal to  $|\psi\rangle$  then  $F|\phi\rangle = -|\phi\rangle$ .

Thus  $F|_S$  is a reflection in the line through the origin defined by  $|\psi\rangle$ .

$G|_S$ , being the composition of two reflections in lines through the origin, is a rotation about the origin of the plane  $S$ .

Since  $1 \leq M \leq N$  we have  $0 \leq \sqrt{N - M/N} < 1$ , so that there exists  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $0 < \theta \leq \pi$  and  $\cos(\theta/2) = \sqrt{N - M/N}$ .

From (13)

$$|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) |a\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) |b\rangle.$$

Thus  $G|_S$  is an anticlockwise rotation about the origin, through an angle  $\theta$ ,

$G|_S$ , being the composition of two reflections in lines through the origin, is a rotation about the origin of the plane  $S$ .

Since  $1 \leq M \leq N$  we have  $0 \leq \sqrt{N - M/N} < 1$ , so that there exists  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $0 < \theta \leq \pi$  and  $\cos(\theta/2) = \sqrt{N - M/N}$ .

From (13)

$$|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) |a\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) |b\rangle.$$

Thus  $G|_S$  is an anticlockwise rotation about the origin, through an angle  $\theta$ ,

$G|_S$ , being the composition of two reflections in lines through the origin, is a rotation about the origin of the plane  $S$ .

Since  $1 \leq M \leq N$  we have  $0 \leq \sqrt{N - M/N} < 1$ , so that there exists  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $0 < \theta \leq \pi$  and  $\cos(\theta/2) = \sqrt{N - M/N}$ .

From (13)

$$|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) |a\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) |b\rangle.$$

Thus  $G|_S$  is an anticlockwise rotation about the origin, through an angle  $\theta$ ,

$G|_S$ , being the composition of two reflections in lines through the origin, is a rotation about the origin of the plane  $S$ .

Since  $1 \leq M \leq N$  we have  $0 \leq \sqrt{N - M/N} < 1$ , so that there exists  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $0 < \theta \leq \pi$  and  $\cos(\theta/2) = \sqrt{N - M/N}$ .

From (13)

$$|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) |a\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) |b\rangle.$$

Thus  $G|_S$  is an anticlockwise rotation about the origin, through an angle  $\theta$ ,

$G|_S$ , being the composition of two reflections in lines through the origin, is a rotation about the origin of the plane  $S$ .

Since  $1 \leq M \leq N$  we have  $0 \leq \sqrt{N - M/N} < 1$ , so that there exists  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $0 < \theta \leq \pi$  and  $\cos(\theta/2) = \sqrt{N - M/N}$ .

From (13)

$$|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) |a\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) |b\rangle.$$

Thus  $G|_S$  is an anticlockwise rotation about the origin, through an angle  $\theta$ ,

Hence

$$G|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{3\theta}{2}\right)|a\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{3\theta}{2}\right)|b\rangle$$

and in general,

$$G^k|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{(2k+1)\theta}{2}\right)|a\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{(2k+1)\theta}{2}\right)|b\rangle.$$

If we rotate  $|\psi\rangle$  through  $\cos^{-1}\left(\sqrt{M/N}\right)$  radians then we obtain a state close to the desired vector  $|b\rangle$ .

Measuring this state we will, with high probability, observe  $x$  such that  $P(x) = 1$ , that is a solution to the search problem.

Thus the number of times we should iterate the Grover operator is given by

$$R = \left\lceil \frac{\cos^{-1}\left(\sqrt{M/N}\right)}{\theta} \right\rceil.$$

Hence

$$G|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{3\theta}{2}\right)|a\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{3\theta}{2}\right)|b\rangle$$

and in general,

$$G^k|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{(2k+1)\theta}{2}\right)|a\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{(2k+1)\theta}{2}\right)|b\rangle.$$

If we rotate  $|\psi\rangle$  through  $\cos^{-1}\left(\sqrt{M/N}\right)$  radians then we obtain a state close to the desired vector  $|b\rangle$ .

Measuring this state we will, with high probability, observe  $x$  such that  $P(x) = 1$ , that is a solution to the search problem.

Thus the number of times we should iterate the Grover operator is given by

$$R = \left\lceil \frac{\cos^{-1}\left(\sqrt{M/N}\right)}{\theta} \right\rceil.$$

Hence

$$G|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{3\theta}{2}\right)|a\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{3\theta}{2}\right)|b\rangle$$

and in general,

$$G^k|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{(2k+1)\theta}{2}\right)|a\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{(2k+1)\theta}{2}\right)|b\rangle.$$

If we rotate  $|\psi\rangle$  through  $\cos^{-1}\left(\sqrt{M/N}\right)$  radians then we obtain a state close to the desired vector  $|b\rangle$ .

Measuring this state we will, with high probability, observe  $x$  such that  $P(x) = 1$ , that is a solution to the search problem.

Thus the number of times we should iterate the Grover operator is given by

$$R = \left\lceil \frac{\cos^{-1}\left(\sqrt{M/N}\right)}{\theta} \right\rceil.$$

Hence

$$G|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{3\theta}{2}\right)|a\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{3\theta}{2}\right)|b\rangle$$

and in general,

$$G^k|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{(2k+1)\theta}{2}\right)|a\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{(2k+1)\theta}{2}\right)|b\rangle.$$

If we rotate  $|\psi\rangle$  through  $\cos^{-1}\left(\sqrt{M/N}\right)$  radians then we obtain a state close to the desired vector  $|b\rangle$ .

Measuring this state we will, with high probability, observe  $x$  such that  $P(x) = 1$ , that is a solution to the search problem.

Thus the number of times we should iterate the Grover operator is given by

$$R = \left\lceil \frac{\cos^{-1}\left(\sqrt{M/N}\right)}{\theta} \right\rceil.$$

Hence

$$G|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{3\theta}{2}\right)|a\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{3\theta}{2}\right)|b\rangle$$

and in general,

$$G^k|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{(2k+1)\theta}{2}\right)|a\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{(2k+1)\theta}{2}\right)|b\rangle.$$

If we rotate  $|\psi\rangle$  through  $\cos^{-1}\left(\sqrt{M/N}\right)$  radians then we obtain a state close to the desired vector  $|b\rangle$ .

Measuring this state we will, with high probability, observe  $x$  such that  $P(x) = 1$ , that is a solution to the search problem.

Thus the number of times we should iterate the Grover operator is given by

$$R = \left\lceil \frac{\cos^{-1}\left(\sqrt{M/N}\right)}{\theta} \right\rceil.$$

If  $M \leq N/2$  then  $\theta/2 \geq \sin(\theta/2) = \sqrt{M/N}$ .

Thus we obtain, in this case,

$$\frac{\pi}{4} \sqrt{\frac{N}{M}}$$

as an upper bound for  $R$ .

Note that if we iterate approximately  $\pi\sqrt{N/M}/2$  times, then we have rotated back almost to  $-|a\rangle$ , and the probability of obtaining a solution is much worse again.

So determining the appropriate number of iterations is a delicate matter.

In the case where  $M = 1$  as in Grover's original paper, the number of iterations required is approximately  $\pi\sqrt{N}/4$ .

If  $M \leq N/2$  then  $\theta/2 \geq \sin(\theta/2) = \sqrt{M/N}$ .

Thus we obtain, in this case,

$$\frac{\pi}{4} \sqrt{\frac{N}{M}}$$

as an upper bound for  $R$ .

Note that if we iterate approximately  $\pi\sqrt{N/M}/2$  times, then we have rotated back almost to  $-|a\rangle$ , and the probability of obtaining a solution is much worse again.

So determining the appropriate number of iterations is a delicate matter.

In the case where  $M = 1$  as in Grover's original paper, the number of iterations required is approximately  $\pi\sqrt{N}/4$ .

If  $M \leq N/2$  then  $\theta/2 \geq \sin(\theta/2) = \sqrt{M/N}$ .

Thus we obtain, in this case,

$$\frac{\pi}{4} \sqrt{\frac{N}{M}}$$

as an upper bound for  $R$ .

Note that if we iterate approximately  $\pi\sqrt{N/M}/2$  times, then we have rotated back almost to  $-|a\rangle$ , and the probability of obtaining a solution is much worse again.

So determining the appropriate number of iterations is a delicate matter.

In the case where  $M = 1$  as in Grover's original paper, the number of iterations required is approximately  $\pi\sqrt{N}/4$ .

If  $M \leq N/2$  then  $\theta/2 \geq \sin(\theta/2) = \sqrt{M/N}$ .

Thus we obtain, in this case,

$$\frac{\pi}{4} \sqrt{\frac{N}{M}}$$

as an upper bound for  $R$ .

Note that if we iterate approximately  $\pi\sqrt{N/M}/2$  times, then we have rotated back almost to  $-|a\rangle$ , and the probability of obtaining a solution is much worse again.

So determining the appropriate number of iterations is a delicate matter.

In the case where  $M = 1$  as in Grover's original paper, the number of iterations required is approximately  $\pi\sqrt{N}/4$ .

If  $M \leq N/2$  then  $\theta/2 \geq \sin(\theta/2) = \sqrt{M/N}$ .

Thus we obtain, in this case,

$$\frac{\pi}{4} \sqrt{\frac{N}{M}}$$

as an upper bound for  $R$ .

Note that if we iterate approximately  $\pi\sqrt{N/M}/2$  times, then we have rotated back almost to  $-|a\rangle$ , and the probability of obtaining a solution is much worse again.

So determining the appropriate number of iterations is a delicate matter.

In the case where  $M = 1$  as in Grover's original paper, the number of iterations required is approximately  $\pi\sqrt{N}/4$ .

