### **Quantum Algorithms**

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#### Introduction

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The Quantum Algorithm Zoo (math.nist.gov/quantum/zoo/) cites 279 328 papers on quantum algorithms, so this is necessarily a partial view...

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#### Theorem [Shor '97]

There is a quantum algorithm which finds the prime factors of an *n*-digit integer in time  $O(n^3)$ .

# Shor's algorithm: complexity comparison

Very roughly (ignoring constant factors!):

Number of digits	Timesteps (quantum)	Timesteps (classical)
100	106	$\sim 4  imes 10^5$
1,000	10 <sup>9</sup>	$\sim 5  imes 10^{15}$
10,000	10 <sup>12</sup>	$\sim 1  imes 10^{41}$

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Based on these figures, a 10,000-digit number could be factorised by:

- A quantum computer with a clock speed of 1MHz in 11 days.
- The fastest computer on the Top500 supercomputer list (~  $9.3 \times 10^{16}$  operations per second) in ~  $3.4 \times 10^{16}$  years.

(see e.g. [Van Meter et al '05] for a more detailed comparison)

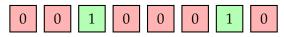
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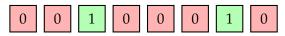
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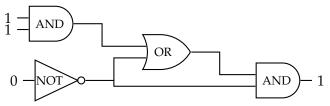


• On a classical computer, this task could require  $2^n$  queries to f in the worst case. But on a quantum computer, Grover's algorithm [Grover '97] can solve the problem with  $O(\sqrt{2^n})$  queries to f (and bounded failure probability).

Grover's algorithm gives a speedup over naïve algorithms for any decision problem in the complexity class NP, i.e. where we can verify the solution efficiently.

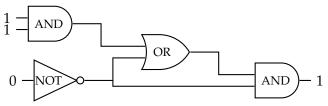
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• Grover's algorithm improves the runtime from  $O(2^n)$  to  $O(2^{n/2})$ : applications to design automation, circuit equivalence, model checking, ...

An important generalisation of Grover's algorithm is known as amplitude amplification.

Amplitude amplification [Brassard et al '00]

Assume we are given access to a "checking" function f, and a probabilistic algorithm A such that

 $\Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ outputs } w \text{ such that } f(w) = 1] = \epsilon.$ 

Then we can find *w* such that f(w) = 1 with  $O(1/\sqrt{\epsilon})$  uses of *f*.

Gives a quadratic speed-up over classical algorithms which are based on heuristics.

These primitives can be used to obtain many speedups over classical algorithms, e.g.:

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- ...

They can also speed up Monte Carlo methods [AM '15]:

• The mean of a random variable with variance  $\sigma^2$  can be approximated up to  $\epsilon$  in time roughly  $O(\sigma/\epsilon)$ , as opposed to the classical  $O(\sigma^2/\epsilon^2)$ .

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• Here, we use "simulation" to mean approximating the dynamical properties of a quantum system.

#### Problem

Given a Hamiltonian *H* describing a physical system, and an initial state  $|\psi_0\rangle$  of that system, produce the state

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• No efficient classical algorithm is known for this task (in full generality), but efficient quantum algorithms exist for many physically reasonable cases.

Applications of quantum simulation include quantum chemistry, superconductivity, metamaterials, high-energy physics, ... [Georgescu et al '13]

Some recent examples:

- The Hubbard model used in the study of superconductivity [Wecker et al '15]
- Quantum chemistry [Hastings et al '14] [Wecker et al '14]
- Quantum field theories [Jordan et al '11]

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Many static properties of quantum systems are also interesting (e.g. ground-state energy).

• There is good evidence that these are hard to compute in the worst case, but may be easy for physical systems of interest.

# "Solving" linear equations

A basic task in mathematics and engineering:

#### **Solving linear equations**

Given access to a *d*-sparse  $N \times N$  matrix *A*, and  $b \in \mathbb{R}^N$ , output *x* such that Ax = b.

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Given the ability to produce the quantum state  $|b\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{N} b_i |i\rangle$ , and access to *A* as above, produce the state  $|x\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i |i\rangle$ .

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Theorem: If *A* has condition number  $\kappa$  (=  $||A^{-1}|| ||A||$ ),  $|x\rangle$  can be approximately produced in time poly(log *N*, *d*,  $\kappa$ ) [Harrow et al '08] [Ambainis '10] [Berry et al '15].

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- Space-efficient matrix inversion [Ta-Shma '13]

A quantum walk on a graph is a quantum generalisation of a classical random walk.

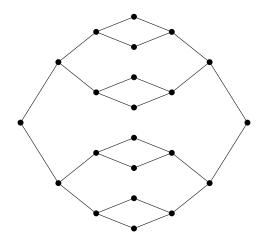
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- Two variants: continuous-time and discrete-time.
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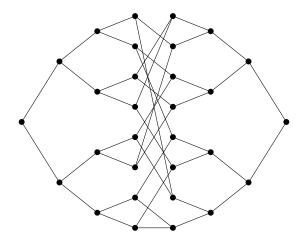
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- A discrete-time quantum walk is the quantum analogue of the simple discrete-time random walk.
- A continuous-time quantum walk for time *t* on a graph with adjacency matrix *A* is the application of the unitary operator  $e^{-iAt}$ .
- Continuous-time quantum walks can be efficiently implemented as quantum circuits using Hamiltonian simulation.

Consider the graph formed by gluing two binary trees with *N* vertices together, e.g.:



Now add a random cycle in the middle:



# Quantum walk on the glued trees graph

#### Theorem [Childs et al '02]

• A continuous-time quantum walk which starts at the entrance (on the LHS) and runs for time  $O(\log N)$  finds the exit (on the RHS) with probability at least  $1/\operatorname{poly}(\log N)$ .

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- Any classical algorithm given black-box access to the graph requires  $O(N^{1/6})$  queries to find the exit.

This is an exponential separation, but no application of this result is known...

Quantum walks can be used to solve many different search problems, such as:

• Finding a triangle in a graph:  $O(n^{1.25})$  queries, vs. classical  $O(n^2)$  [Le Gall '14] [Jeffery et al '12] [Magniez et al '03]



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Matrix product verification: O(n<sup>5/3</sup>) queries, vs. classical O(n<sup>2</sup>) [Buhrman and Špalek '04]

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 \\ -2 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 5 & -2 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{?}{=} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 4 & -3 \\ 1 & 5 & 4 \\ 1 & -9 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

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• Whether *n* integers are all distinct: *O*(*n*<sup>2/3</sup>) queries, vs. classical *O*(*n*) [Ambainis '03]

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Backtracking algorithms solve CSPs by "trial and error": exploring a tree of partial solutions.

#### Theorem [AM '16] (informal)

If there is a classical backtracking algorithm which solves a CSP by exploring a tree of partial solutions of size *T*, there is a quantum algorithm that solves the CSP in time  $O(\sqrt{T} \operatorname{poly}(n))$ .

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Applications (so far):

- Quantum speedup of the Travelling Salesman Problem on bounded-degree graphs [Moylett, Linden and AM '16]
- Finding shortest vectors in lattices for cryptographic applications [Alkim et al. '15, del Pino et al. '16]

#### Summary and further reading

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Some further reading:

- "Quantum algorithms for algebraic problems" [Childs and van Dam '08]
- "Quantum walk based search algorithms" [Santha '08]
- "Quantum algorithms" [Mosca '08]
- "New developments in quantum algorithms" [Ambainis '10]

Quantum algorithms: an overview, AM, npj Quantum Information 2, 2016 www.nature.com/articles/npjqi201523

# Quadratic speedup

Is a quadratic speedup significant?

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A concrete example: Circuit SAT with different clock speeds.

	Classical		Quantum		
Input bits	1MHz	1GHz	1KHz	10KHz	1MHz
30	18s	1s	32s	3s	0.03s
40	13d	18m	17m	104s	1s
50	36y	13d	9h	55m	33s
60	37M	36y	12d	1d	18m

Speeds listed are approximate, effective speeds (i.e. number of circuit evaluations per second) after overhead for fault-tolerance.

# Yet more algorithms

There are a number of other quantum algorithms which I don't have time to go into:

- Hidden subgroup problems (e.g. [Bacon et al '05])
- Number-theoretic problems (e.g. [Fontein and Wocjan '11], ...)
- Formula evaluation (e.g. [Reichardt and Špalek '07])
- Tensor contraction (e.g. [Arad and Landau '08])
- Hidden shift problems (e.g. [Gavinsky et al '11])
- Adiabatic optimisation (e.g. [Farhi et al '00])

• ...

... as well as the entire field of quantum communication complexity.