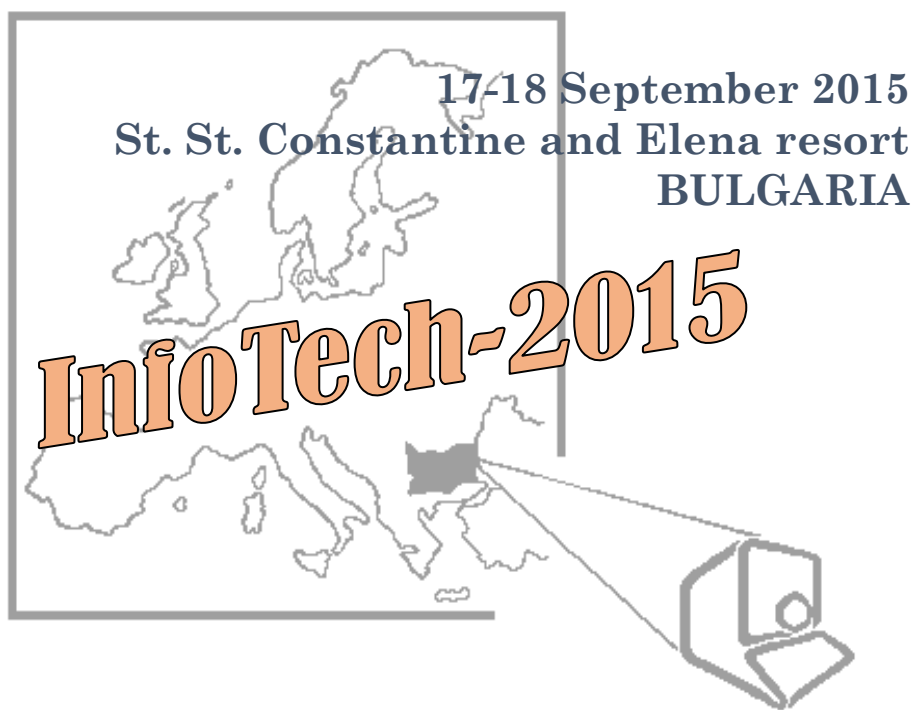


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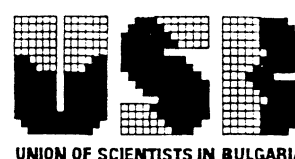
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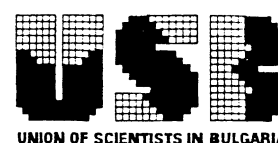
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Thursday, 17th September 2015

-
- | | |
|---------------|--|
| 10:30 – 12:00 | On-Site Registration and Conference Materials (<i>Conf. Office</i>) |
| 13:30 – 14:00 | Official Opening Session (<i>Hall 5</i>)
Conference Opening
Invited Keynote |
| 14:00 – 15:00 | Report Session (<i>Hall 5</i>)
Section “A” |
| 15:00 – 15:40 | Coffee Discussion in the IHS Foyer |
| 15:40 – 18:00 | Report Session (<i>Hall 5</i>)
Sections “B” & “C” & “D” |
| 20:00 – 23:00 | Official Conference Dinner (Cocktail) |

Friday, 18th September 2015

-
- | | |
|---------------|--|
| 09:00 – 11:20 | Report Session (<i>Hall 5</i>)
Sections “A” & “E” |
| 11:20 – 12:00 | Poster Session & Coffee Discussion (<i>Foyer</i>)
All Sections |
| 12:00 | Conference InfoTech-2015 Closing (<i>Foyer</i>) |

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*Proceedings of the International Conference on
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QUANTUM CIRCUITS FOR QUANTUM WALKS ON THE HYPERCUBE¹

Adina BĂRÎLĂ

*„Ștefan cel Mare” University of Suceava
e-mail: adina@eed.usv.ro
Romania*

Abstract: The field of quantum computing investigates the computational power of computers based on quantum mechanical principles. In the last years new quantum algorithms have appeared: algorithms based on quantum walks model and on adiabatic model. The paper presents some fundamental concepts of quantum walks and proposes a quantum circuit for quantum walks on the hypercube. Also, a QCL implementation of quantum walk algorithm is presented. QCL (Quantum Computation Language) is the most advanced implemented quantum computer simulator and was conceived by Bernhard Ömer.

Key words: quantum computing, quantum gate, quantum walk.

1. INTRODUCTION

Quantum computing is a field of science which investigates the computational power of computers based on quantum mechanical principles. It was introduced in the early 1980's and recent research has proved the potential of quantum computing systems to solve problems that are considered unsolvable due to the necessary computing effort.

The first quantum algorithm which solves a computational problem in a more efficient way than classical computation was invented by David Deutsch. He presented an example which showed that a single quantum computation may suffice to decide whether a given one-bit function is constant or balanced. Other notable algorithms were developed by Simon and Vazirani.

¹ **ACKNOWLEDGMENT** This paper was supported by the project "Sustainable performance in doctoral and post-doctoral research PERFORM - Contract no. POSDRU/159/1.5/S/138963", project co-funded from European Social Fund through Sectorial Operational Program Human Resources 2007-2013

But, two important discoveries have led to shaping this area of quantum computing [1]: the Shor's and the Grover's algorithms. In 1994, Peter Shor described a polynomial time quantum algorithm for factoring large integers [2] and in 1996 Lov Grover invented the quantum database search algorithm which achieved quadratic speedup for the classic problem of database search [3]. Since then, each of the two algorithms has been analyzed and generalized. Shor's algorithm has been generalized to solve the problem of finding hidden subgroup and Grover's algorithm has been generalized to solve problems like approximate counting and collision-finding.

In the last years new quantum algorithms have appeared: algorithms based on quantum walks model and on adiabatic model. Quantum walks are quantum generalizations of classical random walks. Adiabatic computation is a physics-based paradigm for quantum algorithms [1].

Section 2 presents some basic concepts in quantum computing. Section 3 considers some fundamental concepts of quantum walks. Section 4 proposes a quantum circuit for the quantum walk on the hypercube and a QCL implementation of quantum walk algorithm. Section 5 draws the conclusion.

2. BASIC CONCEPTS IN QUANTUM COMPUTING

2.1. Qubits

The quantum analogous of the classical bit is called quantum bit or qubit [4]. A qubit is a quantum system whose general state is a linear combination (or a *superposition*) of two basis states, conventionally written $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$. The quantum bit is describe by a unit vector $|\psi\rangle$ in a Hilbert space $H = C^2$ which computational basis is $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$. So

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle \quad (1)$$

where

$$|0\rangle = (1 \ 0)^T \quad |1\rangle = (0 \ 1)^T \quad (2)$$

and the amplitudes α and β are complex numbers such that:

$$|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1 \quad (3)$$

In other words, a qubit can exist in a state $|0\rangle$, or $|1\rangle$ or simultaneously in $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ (when both α and β are nonzero).

When measuring a qubit it obtains 0 with probability α^2 (and the qubit's state becomes $|0\rangle$) or 1 with probability β^2 (and the qubit's state becomes $|1\rangle$). Measurement collapses a quantum state into one of the possible basis states, so measurement is a destructive operation.

A system consisting of n qubits has 2^n basis states and its general state is a superposition of all basis states:

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} c_k |k\rangle \quad (4)$$

where:

$$|k\rangle = |k_{n-1} \dots k_1 k_0\rangle \quad (5)$$

with $|k_j\rangle$ represents the state of qubit j and $|k_{n-1} \dots k_1 k_0\rangle$ (or $|k_{n-1}\rangle \dots |k_1\rangle |k_0\rangle$ or $|k_{n-1}, \dots, k_1, k_0\rangle$) represents the tensor product $|k_{n-1}\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes |k_1\rangle \otimes |k_0\rangle$. The amplitudes c_k are complex numbers such that:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} |c_k|^2 = 1 \quad (6)$$

Like the single-qubit system, a n -qubit register can store simultaneously all the basis states. A state of a n -qubit register is an element in the space $H^{\otimes n} = H \otimes H \otimes \dots \otimes H$ (tensor product).

2.2. Quantum gates

A quantum gate is a unitary transformation that acts on a small number of qubits. Every operation applied to a quantum state must be reversible so a quantum gate has the same number of inputs and outputs. A one-qubit elementary gate is described by a 2×2 matrix:

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \quad (7)$$

which transforms $|0\rangle$ into $a|0\rangle + c|1\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ into $b|0\rangle + d|1\rangle$.

The Hadamard (H) and the Pauli (X, Y, Z) gates are examples of quantum gates that act on a single qubit:

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (8)$$

The most important two-qubit gate is the CNOT (controlled-not gate). It has two input qubits, the control and the target qubit. The target qubit is flipped if and only if the control qubit is set to 1. The matrix form of this gate is given in eqn. 9 and the circuit representation is shown in fig.1.

$$CNOT = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

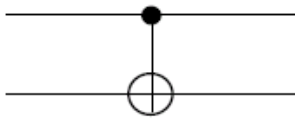


Fig. 1 The CNOT gate

$$CCNOT = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (9)$$

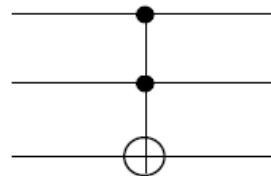


Fig. 2 The CCNOT gate

An important three-qubit gate is the Toffoli gate, also known as CCNOT (controlled-controlled-not) gate. It has two control qubits and a target qubit. The target

qubit is flipped only if and only if the control qubits are set to 1. The matrix form of CCNOT gate is given in eqn. 9 and the circuit representation is shown in fig.2.

3. QUANTUM WALKS

Quantum walk can be regarded as quantum equivalent of the classical random walk. Like in the classical case, there are two quantum walk models: discrete time quantum walk and continuous time quantum walk. In this paper the discrete time quantum walks will be considered.

3.1. Discrete time quantum walk on the line

A discrete time quantum walk on the line is defined in analogy with the classical random walk on the line.[5] In the classical case, a walker is placed at the origin of a line numbered from $-N$ to N . The walker tosses an unbiased coin and moves either left or right by one position depending on outcome. If the random walk is performed a large enough number of times, one gets a binomial distribution of the walker final position centered about the origin.

In the quantum case, the position of the walker is a vector in a Hilbert space H_P with the following computational basis

$$\{ |n\rangle : n \in \mathbb{Z} \} \quad (10)$$

The evolution of the walk depends on a quantum “coin”. If one obtains “head” after tossing, the walker “moves” from the position described by the vector $|n\rangle$ to the position described by $|n+1\rangle$. If one obtains “tail” the walker “moves” from $|n\rangle$ to the position described by $|n-1\rangle$. The coin is a vector in a Hilbert space H_C with computational basis $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$. The Hilbert space of the quantum system is $H = H_P \otimes H_C$. Since quantum operations must be reversible, „toss” must be performed by a unitary operator called *coin operator*. [6]

The most used coin [7] for unidimensional quantum walks is the Hadamard operator:

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (11)$$

This operator/which acts on basis states as follow:

$$H|0,n\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0,n\rangle + |1,n\rangle) \quad (12)$$

$$H|1,n\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0,n\rangle - |1,n\rangle) \quad (13)$$

The shift from $|n\rangle$ to $|n+1\rangle$ or $|n-1\rangle$ is described by a unitary operator, called *shift operator* S [6]. This acts as follows:

$$S|0\rangle|n\rangle = |0\rangle|n+1\rangle \quad (14)$$

$$S|1\rangle|n\rangle = |1\rangle|n-1\rangle \quad (15)$$

The quantum walk consists in applying the unitary operator [8]

$$U = S (C \otimes I) \quad (16)$$

a number of times without intermediate measurements, where C is the coin operator and I is the identity operator on the Hilbert space H_P .

So, the algorithm which implements the quantum walk can be implemented as follows

- 1.initialize the system
- 2.for every iteration
 - toss the coin
 - shift the position
- 3.perform measurement

After t steps, the final state before measurement is given by

$$|\Psi_t\rangle = U^t |\Psi_0\rangle \quad (17)$$

where $|\Psi_0\rangle$ represents the initial state.

For example, if the initial position of the walker is $|x=0\rangle$ and the coin state is $|0\rangle$, then the initial quantum state is

$$|\psi_0\rangle = |0\rangle |0\rangle \quad (18)$$

If Hadamard operator is the coin operator, after “tossing” and shifting the quantum state becomes

$$|0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle \xrightarrow{H \otimes I} \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \otimes |0\rangle \xrightarrow{S} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle + |1\rangle \otimes |-1\rangle) \quad (19)$$

The result is a superposition of the walker both in position 1 and -1. In the classical random walk, the walker can only go in one direction at a time. In contrast, in quantum walk he can go in both directions until the measuring operation is performed. So, the quantum state at the moment $t=1$ is

$$|\psi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|1\rangle |-1\rangle + |0\rangle |1\rangle) \quad (20)$$

The next step can be computed by $|\psi_2\rangle = U|\psi_1\rangle$.

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi(2)\rangle &= U|\psi(1)\rangle = S(H \otimes I) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|1\rangle |-1\rangle + |0\rangle |1\rangle) = S \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} |-1\rangle + \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} |1\rangle \right) = \\ &= \frac{1}{2} S(|0\rangle |-1\rangle - |1\rangle |-1\rangle + |0\rangle |1\rangle + |1\rangle |1\rangle) = \frac{1}{2} (|0\rangle |0\rangle - |1\rangle |-2\rangle + |0\rangle |2\rangle + |1\rangle |0\rangle) = \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (-|1\rangle |-2\rangle + (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)|0\rangle + |0\rangle |2\rangle) \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

Quantum walk has different behaviour compared to its classical counterpart: spreading at a rate proportional to t , quadratically faster than the classical random walk.[9] Unlike the classical case, probability distribution is not always symmetric. The distribution of the walk is dependent on the initial state. When the initial position of the walker is $|0\rangle$ and the initial coin state is $|0\rangle$, the distribution is ‘skewed’ to the right (the thick line in Fig.3) because of Hadamard coin. If the initial state is $|1\rangle|0\rangle$ the distribution is ‘skewed’ to the left (the thin line in Fig.3) .

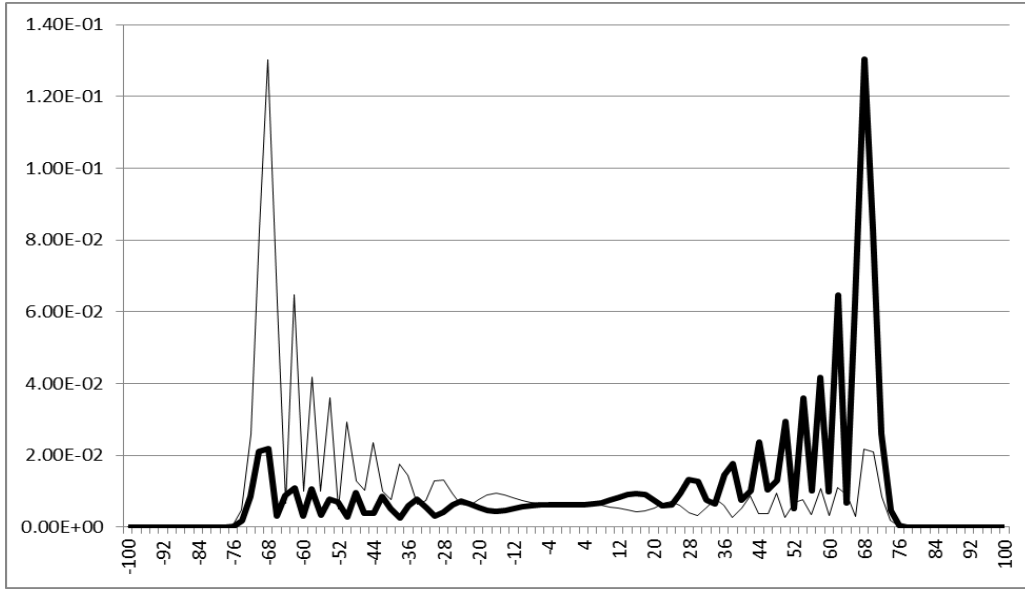


Fig. 3 Probability distribution after 100 steps of a quantum walk on the line with the Hadamard coin and initial state $|0\rangle|0\rangle$ (the thick line) and $|1\rangle|0\rangle$ (the thin line), respectively.

An initial state that leads to a symmetrical distribution is [6]

$$|\psi(0)\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle - i|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} |n=0\rangle \quad (22)$$

3.2. Discrete time quantum walk on a regular graph

The difference between the quantum walk on a regular graph and the quantum walk on the line is the Hilbert space of the quantum system.

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a regular undirected graph, where $V = \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ is the set of vertices and E is the set of edges. The Hilbert space of the quantum system is

$$H = H_C \otimes H_v \quad (23)$$

where H_v is the vertices space which has the following computational basis

$$H_v = \{ |v\rangle : v \in Z_N \} \quad (24)$$

where N is the number of vertices, and H_C is the coin space and has the computational basis

$$H_C = \{ |k\rangle : k \in Z_d \} \quad (25)$$

where d is the degree of every vertex.

G is a regular graph, so for every vertex there exists a set of d edges $\{e_v^j \in E \mid j = 1, 2, \dots, d\}$ so that e_v^j is the j -th edge which connects the vertices v and v_j . The walker can move in any of d directions. The shift operator S maps the state $|k, v\rangle$ into $|k, v_j\rangle$.

Often used coin operators are the Hadamard, the Grover and the DFT (Discrete Fourier Transform) operators. The Grover and DFT operators are given by

$$G^{(d)} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{d} & \dots & \frac{2}{d} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{2}{d} & \dots & \frac{2}{d} \end{pmatrix} - I_d \quad DFT^{(d)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega & \omega^2 & \dots & \omega^{d-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \omega^{d-1} & \omega^{2(d-1)} & \dots & \omega^{(d-1)(d-1)} \end{pmatrix} \quad (26)$$

where d is the vertex degree, I_d is the identity operator and where $w = \exp(2\pi i/d)$.

3.3. Discrete time quantum walk on the hypercube

The hypercube of dimension n is a regular graph with $N = 2^n$ vertices. The every vertex degree is n . Vertices are labeled by n -bit strings and two vertices are adjacent if and only if their labels differ only by one bit. The edges are also labeled. If two vertices differ by the j -th bit, the label of the edge connecting these vertices is j . [6] The Hilbert space associated with a quantum walk on the hypercube is $H = H^n \otimes H^{2^n}$.

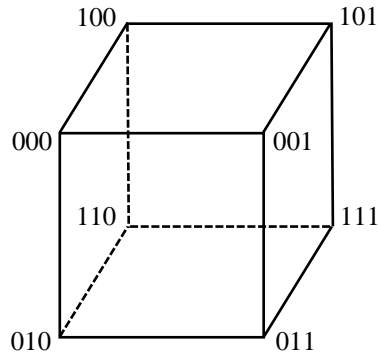


Fig. 4 Hypercube of dimension 3

4. QUANTUM CIRCUITS FOR QUANTUM WALKS ON THE HYPERCUBE

On a hypercube, the shift operator maps the state $|k, v\rangle$ into $|k, v_j\rangle$, where the n -bit strings v and v_j differ by the j -th bit. So, the shift operator S can be represented as follows:

$$S|1\rangle|p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\rangle = |1\rangle|p_1 \oplus 1, p_2, \dots, p_n\rangle \quad (27)$$

$$S|2\rangle|p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\rangle = |2\rangle|p_1, p_2 \oplus 1, \dots, p_n\rangle \quad (28)$$

...

$$S|n\rangle|p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\rangle = |n\rangle|p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n \oplus 1\rangle \quad (29)$$

where \oplus denotes addition modulo two.

If n is a power of two, the action of this operator can be reproduced by (Controlled)^m-NOT quantum gates as shown in figure 5.

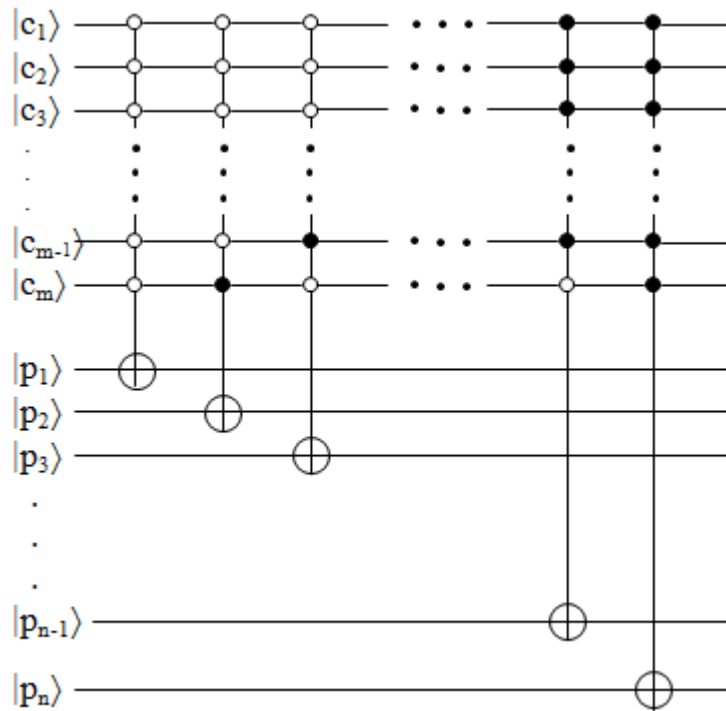


Fig. 5 Quantum circuit for the shift operator

where $|c_1\rangle|c_2\rangle\dots|c_m\rangle$ is the coin state and $|p_1\rangle|p_2\rangle\dots|p_n\rangle$ is the position state (vertex state). For example, the shift operator for the quantum walk on the hypercube of dimension 4 is shown in figure 6.

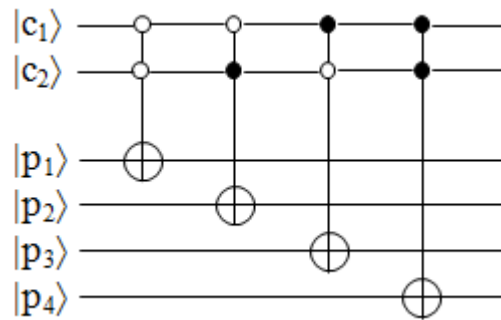
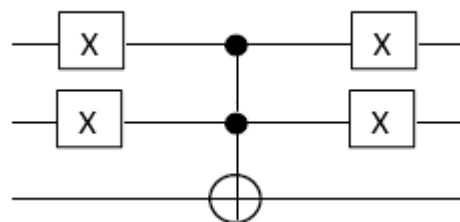


Fig. 6 The quantum circuit for the shift operator in the case $n=4$

The first gate flips the target qubit if and only if the control qubits are set to 0. It can be represented using CCNOT and X gates as follow



Also, the second and the third gates can be represented using CCNOT and X gates.

The QCL implementation of the quantum walk algorithm on the hypercube of dimension 4 with Hadamard coin and initial state $|00\rangle|0000\rangle$ is presented below:

<pre> procedure walk4(int steps) { qureg c[2]; //coin register //vertices register qureg v[4]; int i; int m1; int m2; for i=1 to steps { //Hadamard coin H(c); //the first gate Not(c); CCNot(c[0],c[1],v[3]); Not(c); //the second gate </pre>	<pre> Not(c[1]); CCNot(c[0],c[1],v[2]); Not(c[1]); //the third gate Not(c[0]); CCNot(c[0],c[1],v[1]); Not(c[0]); //the last CCNOT gate CCNot(c[0],c[1],v[0]); } measure c,m1; measure v,m2; print "m1 = ",m1, " m2= ", m2; } </pre>
---	---

In the case of $n>4$, the quantum circuit for the shift operator uses $(\text{Controlled})^m$ -NOT gates. Such gates can be implemented using $2(m-1)$ CCNOT gates and $(m-1)$ ancilla qubits as follows

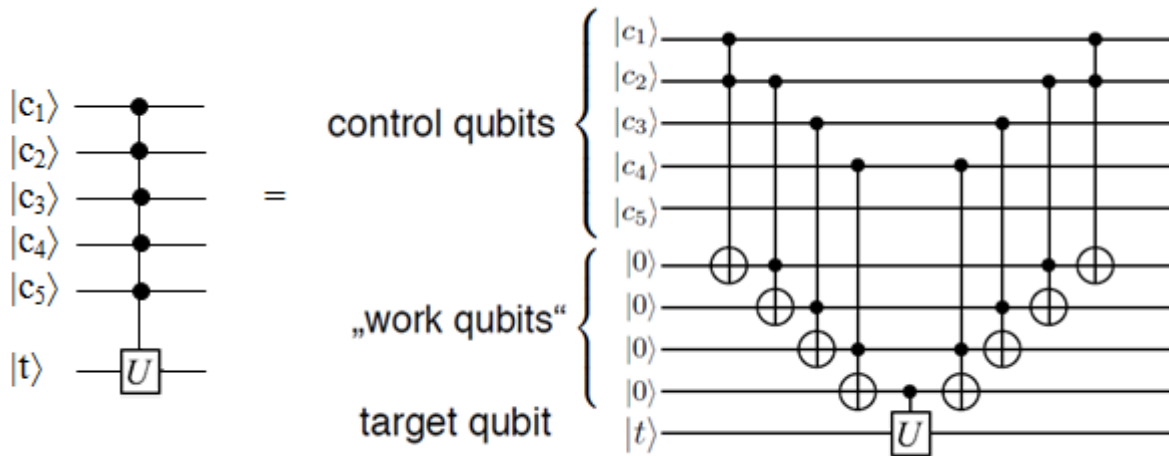


Fig. 7 $(\text{Controlled})^m$ -U gate [10]

A QCL implementation of the $(\text{Controlled})^m$ -NOT gate is proposed below:

```

operator CmNOT(int m, qureg x, qureg y) {
  qureg a[m-1]; //ancilla qubits
  int i;
  CCNot(x[m-1], x[m-2], a[m-2]);
  for i=3 to m-1 {
    CCNot(x[m-i], a[m-i+1], a[m-i]);}
  for i=3 to m-1 step -1 {
    CCNot(x[m-i], a[m-i+1], a[m-i]);}
  CCNot(x[m-1], x[m-2], a[m-2]);
}

```

5. CONCLUSION

Quantum computing promises to find algorithms which can run faster than their classical counterparts. In the last years new model of quantum algorithms have appeared: the quantum walk based algorithms. The research have shown that quantum walks present different behaviour than classical random walks. This paper presented a brief overview of quantum walks and a quantum circuit for the shift operator of a quantum walk on the hypercube. Also, a proposal for QCL implementation of the quantum walk algorithm on the hypercube was presented. In absence of quantum devices, quantum computing simulators helps programmers to understand the constraints imposed by these devices. In this paper, the QCL quantum language [11] was used in order to simulate the quantum walk algorithm.

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