## Quantum algorithms (CO 781/CS 867/QIC 823, Winter 2011)

 Andrew Childs, University of Waterloo
## LECTURE 14: Discrete-time quantum walk

In the last lecture we introduced the notion of continuous-time quantum walk. We now turn our attention to discrete-time quantum walk, which provides a convenient framework for quantum search algorithms.

## Discrete-time quantum walk

It is trickier to define a quantum analog of a discrete-time random walk than of a continuous-time random walk. In the simplest discrete-time random walk on $G$, at each time step we simply move from any given vertex to each of its neighbors with equal probability. Thus the walk is governed by the $|V| \times|V|$ matrix $M$ with entries

$$
M_{j k}= \begin{cases}1 / \operatorname{deg}(k) & (j, k) \in E  \tag{1}\\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

for $j, k \in V$ : an initial probability distribution $p$ over the vertices evolves to $p^{\prime}=M p$ after one step of the walk.

To define a quantum analog of this process, we would like to specify a unitary operator $U$ with the property that an input state $|j\rangle$ corresponding to the vertex $j \in V$ evolves to a superposition of the neighbors of $j$. We would like this to happen in essentially the same way at every vertex, so we are tempted to propose the definition

$$
\begin{equation*}
|j\rangle \stackrel{?}{\mapsto}\left|\partial_{j}\right\rangle:=\frac{1}{\sqrt{\operatorname{deg}(j)}} \sum_{k:(j, k) \in E}|k\rangle . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

However, a moment's reflection shows that this typically does not define a unitary transformation, since the orthogonal states $|j\rangle$ and $|k\rangle$ corresponding to adjacent vertices $j, k$ with a common neighbor $\ell$ evolve to non-orthogonal states. We could potentially avoid this problem using a rule that sometimes introduces phases, but that would violate the spirit of defining a process that behaves in the same way at every vertex. In fact, even if we give that up, there are some graphs that simply do not allow local unitary dynamics.

We can get around this difficulty if we allow ourselves to enlarge the Hilbert space, an idea proposed by Watrous as part of a logarithmic-space quantum algorithm for deciding whether two vertices are connected in a graph. Let the Hilbert space consist of state of the form $|j, k\rangle$ where $(j, k) \in E$. We can think of the walk as taking place on the (directed) edges of the graph; the state $|j, k\rangle$ represents a walker at vertex $j$ that will move toward vertex $k$. Each step of the walk consists of two operations. First, we apply a unitary transformation that operates on the second register conditional on the first register. This transformation is sometimes referred to as a "coin flip," as it modifies the next destination of the walker. A common choice is the Grover diffusion operator over the neighbors of $j$, namely

$$
\begin{equation*}
C:=\sum_{j \in V}|j\rangle\langle j| \otimes\left(2\left|\partial_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle\partial_{j}\right|-I\right) . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next, the walker is moved to the vertex indicated in the second register. Of course, since the process must be unitary, the only way to do this is to swap the two registers using the operator

$$
\begin{equation*}
S:=\sum_{(j, k) \in E}|j, k\rangle\langle k, j| . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Overall, one step of the discrete-time quantum walk is described by the unitary operator $S C$.
In principle, this construction can be used to define a discrete-time quantum walk on any graph. However, in practice it is often more convenient to use an alternative framework introduced by Szegedy, as described in the next section.

## How to quantize a Markov chain

A discrete-time classical random walk on an $N$-vertex graph can be represented by an $N \times N$ matrix $P$. The entry $P_{j k}$ represents the probability of making a transition to $k$ from $j$, so that an initial probability distribution $p \in \mathbb{R}^{N}$ becomes $P p$ after one step of the walk. To preserve normalization, we must have $\sum_{j=1}^{N} P_{j k}=1$; we say that such a matrix is stochastic.

For any $N \times N$ stochastic matrix $P$ (not necessarily symmetric), we can define a corresponding discrete-time quantum walk, a unitary operation on the Hilbert space $\mathbb{C}^{N} \otimes \mathbb{C}^{N}$. To define this walk, we introduce the states

$$
\begin{align*}
\left|\psi_{j}\right\rangle & :=|j\rangle \otimes \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sqrt{P_{k j}}|k\rangle  \tag{5}\\
& =\sum_{k=1}^{N} \sqrt{P_{k j}}|j, k\rangle \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

for $j=1, \ldots, N$. Each such state is normalized since $P$ is stochastic. Now let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Pi:=\sum_{j=1}^{N}\left|\psi_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle\psi_{j}\right| \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

denote the projection onto $\operatorname{span}\left\{\left|\psi_{j}\right\rangle: j=1, \ldots, N\right\}$, and let

$$
\begin{equation*}
S:=\sum_{j, k=1}^{N}|j, k\rangle\langle k, j| \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

be the operator that swaps the two registers. Then a single step of the quantum walk is defined as the unitary operator $U:=S(2 \Pi-1)$.

Notice that if $P_{j k}=A_{j k} / \operatorname{deg}(k)$ (i.e., if the walk simply chooses an outgoing edge of an underlying digraph uniformly at random), then this is exactly the coined quantum walk with the Grover diffusion operator as the coin flip.

If we take two steps of the walk, then the corresponding unitary operator is

$$
\begin{align*}
{[S(2 \Pi-1)][S(2 \Pi-1)] } & =[S(2 \Pi-1) S][2 \Pi-1]  \tag{9}\\
& =(2 S \Pi S-1)(2 \Pi-1), \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

which can be interpreted as the reflection about $\operatorname{span}\left\{\left|\psi_{j}\right\rangle\right\}$ followed by the reflection about $\operatorname{span}\left\{S\left|\psi_{j}\right\rangle\right\}$ (the states where we condition on the second register to do a coin operation on the first). To understand the behavior of the walk, we will now compute the spectrum of $U$; but note that it is also possible to compute the spectrum of a product of reflections more generally.

## Spectrum of the quantum walk

To understand the behavior of a discrete-time quantum walk, it will be helpful to compute its spectral decomposition. Let us show the following:
Theorem. Fix an $N \times N$ stochastic matrix $P$, and let $\{|\lambda\rangle\}$ denote a complete set of orthonormal eigenvectors of the $N \times N$ matrix $D$ with entries $D_{j k}=\sqrt{P_{j k} P_{k j}}$ with eigenvalues $\{\lambda\}$. Then the eigenvalues of the discrete-time quantum walk $U=S(2 \Pi-1)$ corresponding to $P$ are $\pm 1$ and $\lambda \pm i \sqrt{1-\lambda^{2}}=e^{ \pm i \arccos \lambda}$.

Proof. Define an isometry

$$
\begin{align*}
T & :=\sum_{j=1}^{N}\left|\psi_{j}\right\rangle\langle j|  \tag{11}\\
& =\sum_{j, k=1}^{N} \sqrt{P_{k j}}|j, k\rangle\langle j| \tag{12}
\end{align*}
$$

mapping states in $\mathbb{C}^{n}$ to states in $\mathbb{C}^{n} \otimes \mathbb{C}^{n}$, and let $|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle:=T|\lambda\rangle$. Notice that

$$
\begin{align*}
T T^{\dagger} & =\sum_{j, k=1}^{N}\left|\psi_{j}\right\rangle\langle j \mid k\rangle\left\langle\psi_{k}\right|  \tag{13}\\
& =\sum_{j=1}^{N}\left|\psi_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle\psi_{j}\right|  \tag{14}\\
& =\Pi \tag{15}
\end{align*}
$$

whereas

$$
\begin{align*}
T^{\dagger} T & =\sum_{j, k=1}^{N}|j\rangle\left\langle\psi_{j} \mid \psi_{k}\right\rangle\langle k|  \tag{16}\\
& =\sum_{j, k, \ell, m=1}^{N} \sqrt{P_{\ell j} P_{m k}}|j\rangle\langle j, \ell \mid k, m\rangle\langle k|  \tag{17}\\
& =\sum_{j, \ell=1}^{N} P_{\ell j}|j\rangle\langle j|  \tag{18}\\
& =I \tag{19}
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{align*}
T^{\dagger} S T & =\sum_{j, k=1}^{N}|j\rangle\left\langle\psi_{j}\right| S\left|\psi_{k}\right\rangle\langle k|  \tag{20}\\
& =\sum_{j, k, \ell, m=1}^{N} \sqrt{P_{\ell j} P_{m k}}|j\rangle\langle j, \ell| S|k, m\rangle\langle k|  \tag{21}\\
& =\sum_{j=1}^{N} \sqrt{P_{j k} P_{k j}}|j\rangle\langle k|  \tag{22}\\
& =D . \tag{23}
\end{align*}
$$

Applying the walk operator $U$ to $|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle$ gives

$$
\begin{align*}
U|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle & =S(2 \Pi-1)|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle  \tag{24}\\
& =S\left(2 T T^{\dagger}-1\right) T|\lambda\rangle  \tag{25}\\
& =2 S T|\lambda\rangle-S T|\lambda\rangle  \tag{26}\\
& =S|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle \tag{27}
\end{align*}
$$

and applying $U$ to $S|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle$ gives

$$
\begin{align*}
U S|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle & =S(2 \Pi-1) S|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle  \tag{28}\\
& =S\left(2 T T^{\dagger}-1\right) S T|\lambda\rangle  \tag{29}\\
& =(2 S T D-T)|\lambda\rangle  \tag{30}\\
& =2 \lambda S|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle-|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle \tag{31}
\end{align*}
$$

We see that the subspace $\operatorname{span}\{|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle, S|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle\}$ is invariant under $U$, so we can find eigenvectors of $U$ within this subspace.

Now let $|\mu\rangle:=|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle-\mu S|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle$, and let us choose $\mu \in \mathbb{C}$ so that $|\mu\rangle$ is an eigenvector of $U$. We have

$$
\begin{align*}
U|\mu\rangle & =S|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle-\mu(2 \lambda S|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle-|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle)  \tag{32}\\
& =\mu|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle+(1-2 \lambda \mu) S|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle \tag{33}
\end{align*}
$$

Thus $\mu$ will be an eigenvalue of $U$ corresponding to the eigenvector $|\mu\rangle$ provided $(1-2 \lambda \mu)=\mu(-\mu)$, i.e. $\mu^{2}-2 \lambda \mu+1=0$, so

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu=\lambda \pm i \sqrt{1-\lambda^{2}} \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

Finally, note that for any vector in the orthogonal complement of $\operatorname{span}\{|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle\}=\operatorname{span}\left\{\left|\psi_{j}\right\rangle\right\}$ (these spaces are the same since $\left.\sum_{\lambda}|\tilde{\lambda}\rangle\langle\tilde{\lambda}|=\sum_{\lambda} T|\lambda\rangle\langle\lambda| T^{\dagger}=T T^{\dagger}=\Pi\right), U$ simply acts as $-S$, which has eigenvalues $\pm 1$.

## Hitting times

We can use random walks to formulate a generic search algorithm, and quantizing this algorithm gives a generic square root speedup. Consider a graph $G=(V, E)$, with some subset $M \subset V$ of the vertices designated as marked. We will compare classical and quantum walk algorithms for deciding whether any vertex in $G$ is marked.

Classically, a straightforward approach to this problem is to take a random walk defined by some stochastic matrix $P$, stopping if we encounter a marked vertex. In other words, we modify the original walk $P$ to give a walk $P^{\prime}$ defined as

$$
P_{j k}^{\prime}= \begin{cases}1 & k \in M \text { and } j=k  \tag{35}\\ 0 & k \in M \text { and } j \neq k \\ P_{j k} & k \notin M .\end{cases}
$$

Let us assume from now on that the original walk $P$ is symmetric, though the modified walk $P^{\prime}$ clearly is not provided $M$ is non-empty. If we order the vertices so that the marked ones come last, the matrix $P^{\prime}$ has the block form

$$
P^{\prime}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
P_{M} & 0  \tag{36}\\
Q & I
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $P_{M}$ is obtained by deleting the rows and columns of $P$ corresponding to vertices in $M$.
Suppose we take $t$ steps of the walk. A simple calculation shows

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(P^{\prime}\right)^{t} & =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
P_{M}^{t} & 0 \\
Q\left(I+P_{M}+\cdots+P_{M}^{t-1}\right) & I
\end{array}\right)  \tag{37}\\
& =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
P_{M}^{t} & 0 \\
Q \frac{P_{M}^{-}-I}{P_{M}-I} & I
\end{array}\right) . \tag{38}
\end{align*}
$$

Now if we start from the uniform distribution over unmarked items (if we start from a marked item we are done, so we might as well condition on this not happening), then the probability of not reaching a marked item after $t$ steps is $\frac{1}{N-|M|} \sum_{j, k \notin M}\left[P_{M}^{t}\right]_{j k} \leq\left\|P_{M}^{t}\right\|=\left\|P_{M}\right\|^{t}$, where the inequality follows because the left hand side is the expectation of $P_{M}^{t}$ in the normalized state $|V \backslash M\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{N-|M|}} \sum_{j \notin M}|j\rangle$. Now if $\left\|P_{M}\right\|=1-\Delta$, then the probability of reaching a marked item after $t$ steps is at least $1-\left\|P_{M}\right\|^{t}=1-(1-\Delta)^{t}$, which is $\Omega(1)$ provided $t=O(1 / \Delta)=O\left(\frac{1}{1-\left\|P_{M}\right\|}\right)$.

It turns out that we can bound $\left\|P_{M}\right\|$ away from 1 knowing only the fraction of marked vertices and the spectrum of the original walk. Thus we can upper bound the hitting time, the time required to reach some marked vertex with constant probability.

Lemma. If the second largest eigenvalue of $P$ (in absolute value) is at most $1-\delta$ and $|M| \leq \epsilon N$, then $\left\|P_{M}\right\| \geq 1-\delta \epsilon$.

Proof. Let $|v\rangle \in \mathbb{R}^{N-|M|}$ be the principal eigenvector of $P_{M}$, and let $|w\rangle \in \mathbb{R}^{N}$ be the vector obtained by padding $|v\rangle$ with 0 's for all the marked vertices.

We will decompose $|w\rangle$ in the eigenbasis of $P$. Since $P$ is symmetric, it is actually doubly stochastic, and the uniform vector $|V\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j}|j\rangle$ corresponds to the eigenvalue 1. All other eigenvectors $|\lambda\rangle$ have eigenvalues at most $1-\delta$ by assumption. Now

$$
\begin{align*}
\left\|P_{M}\right\| & =\langle v| P_{M}|v\rangle  \tag{39}\\
& =\langle w| P|w\rangle  \tag{40}\\
& =|\langle V \mid w\rangle|^{2}+\sum_{\lambda \neq 1} \lambda|\langle\lambda \mid w\rangle|^{2}  \tag{41}\\
& \leq|\langle V \mid w\rangle|^{2}+(1-\delta) \sum_{\lambda \neq 1}|\langle\lambda \mid w\rangle|^{2}  \tag{42}\\
& =1-\delta \sum_{\lambda \neq 1}|\langle\lambda \mid w\rangle|^{2}  \tag{43}\\
& =1-\delta\left(1-|\langle V \mid w\rangle|^{2}\right) . \tag{44}
\end{align*}
$$

But by the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality,

$$
\begin{align*}
|\langle V \mid w\rangle|^{2} & \left.=\left|\langle V| \Pi_{V \backslash M}\right| w\right\rangle\left.\right|^{2}  \tag{45}\\
& \leq \| \Pi_{V \backslash M}|V\rangle\left\|^{2} \cdot\right\||w\rangle \|^{2}  \tag{46}\\
& =\frac{N-|M|}{N}  \tag{47}\\
& =1-\epsilon \tag{48}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\Pi_{V \backslash M}=\sum_{j \notin M}|j\rangle\langle j|$. Thus $\left\|P_{M}\right\| \leq 1-\delta \epsilon$ as claimed.

Thus we see that the classical hitting time is $O(1 / \delta \epsilon)$.
Now we turn to the quantum case. Our strategy will be to perform phase estimation with sufficiently high precision on the operator $U$, the quantum walk corresponding to $P^{\prime}$, with the state

$$
\begin{equation*}
|\psi\rangle:=\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j \notin M}\left|\psi_{j}\right\rangle . \tag{49}
\end{equation*}
$$

This state can easily be prepared by starting from the state

$$
\begin{equation*}
T|V\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j}\left|\psi_{j}\right\rangle \tag{50}
\end{equation*}
$$

and measuring whether the first register corresponds to a marked vertex; if it does then we are done, and if not then we have prepared $|\psi\rangle$.

The matrix $D$ for the walk $P^{\prime}$ is

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
P_{M} & 0  \tag{51}\\
0 & I
\end{array}\right)
$$

so according to the spectral theorem, the eigenvalues of the resulting walk operator $U$ are $\pm 1$ and $e^{ \pm i \arccos \lambda}$, where $\lambda$ runs over the eigenvalues of $P_{M}$. If the marked set $M$ is empty, then $P^{\prime}=P$, and $|\psi\rangle$ is an eigenvector of $U$ with eigenvalue 1 , so phase estimation on $U$ is guaranteed to return a phase of 0 . But if $M$ is non-empty, then the state $|\psi\rangle$ lives entirely within the subspace with eigenvalues $e^{ \pm i \arccos \lambda}$. Thus if we perform phase estimation on $U$ with precision $O\left(\min _{\lambda} \arccos \lambda\right)$, we will see a phase different from 0 . Since $\arccos \lambda \geq \sqrt{2(1-\lambda)}$, we see that precision $O\left(\sqrt{1-\left\|P_{M}\right\|}\right)$ suffices. So the quantum algorithm can decide whether there is a marked vertex in time $O\left(1 / \sqrt{1-\left\|P_{M}\right\|}\right)=$ $O(1 / \sqrt{\delta \epsilon})$.

