Quantum Multi-object Search Algorithm with the Availability of Partial Information

Goong Chen and Zijian Diao

Department of Mathematics, Texas A&M University, College Station, TX 77843-3368, USA

Reprint requests to Prof. G. C. or Dr. Z. D.; E-mails: gchen@math.tamu.edu, zijian.diao@math.tamu.edu

Consider the unstructured search of an unknown number l of items in a large unsorted database of size N. The multi-object quantum search algorithm consists of two parts. The first part of the algorithm is to generalize Grover's single-object search algorithm to the multiobject case, and the second part is to solve a counting problem to determine l. In this paper we study the multi-object quantum search algorithm (in continuous time), but in a more structured way by taking into account the availability of partial information. The modeling of available partial information is done simply by the combination of several prescribed, possibly overlapping, information sets with varying weights to signify the reliability of each set. The associated statistics is estimated and the algorithm efficiency and complexity are analyzed.

Our analysis shows that the search described here may not be more efficient than the unstructured (generalized) multi-object Grover search if there is "misplaced confidence". However, if the information sets have a "basic confidence" property in the sense that each information set contains at least one search item, then a quadratic speedup holds on a much smaller data space, which further expedites the quantum search for the first item.

Key words: Quantum Multi-object Search; Partial Information.

1. Introduction

Grover's quantum search algorithm, since its first publication in 1996 [1], has become one of the most prominent algorithms in quantum computation. Its elegance has drawn the attention of numerous computer scientists, mathematicians and physicists, resulting in many research papers on this subject. Grover's original work [1, 2, 3] dealt with a single-object search in a large unsorted database. He shows that his quantum algorithm has a quadratic speedup. Farhi and Gutmann [4] present a continuous time, or "analog analogue" version of Grover's algorithm and obtain a similar complexity.

In practice, most of the search tasks consist of finding more than one item in a large database. Therefore the development of multi-object search algorithms is important. By utilizing the two most important ingredients in Grover's algorithm, namely,

(i) the notion of amplitude amplification; and
(ii) the dramatic reduction to invariant subspaces of low dimension for the unitary operators involved,

it is possible to generalize the algorithm to multi-object search. See the discrete-time case in Boyer, Brassard, Høyer, and Tapp [5], Chen and Sun [7], and the conti-nous-time case in Chen, Fulling, and Chen [6]. However, for multi-object problems the number of search items is normally not given a priori. One approach to deal with this situation was introduced in Brassard, Høyer and Tapp [7] by repeatedly measuring the outcomes of Grover's algorithm after randomly chosen numbers of iterations, where it can be shown that a quadratic speedup is still possible in terms of the expected number of searchers needed to find a search item. We may also adopt a two-step approach. We can first try to determine the number of search items, that is to solve a *quantum counting problem*. After that we then apply a multi-object search algorithm using that number. The quantum counting problem was partly treated in Brassard, Høyer, and Tapp [7], but a complete solution did not seem to appear until Mosca's Ph.D. Thesis [8] in 1999. The counting problem can be studied with the techniques of "eigenvalue kickback", phase/amplitude estimations and quantum Fourier transforms (QFT).

Excluding the computational complexity of the counting problem, the generalized, *unstructured* Grover multi-object search of l items in a database of N items has computational complexity $O(\sqrt{N/l})$ versus the classical $\Theta(N/(l + 1))$ ([8] p. 70). So again we see a quadratic speedup. This is significant. Nevertheless, prag-

matically one usually can (and should) do much better than this because in most realistic search tasks there is additionally given partial information about the search targets, provided that one knows how to utilize such information.

The mathematical modeling of the availability of partial information is challenging work. Obviously, there are varied situations of how such information can be given and how its can be encoded into the computer. Therefore, mathematical expressions intended to model those situations may be qualitatively different. This difficulty is further compounded by the fact that no quantum computers (QC) have been built and are currently in operation so far, as solutions to the modeling problem hinge very much on the addressing, retrieval and data structure designs of the future QC. At present, we do not yet know how to categorize all (or most) of the possible situations that may naturally arise, but we are continuing to probe in this direction to improve our understanding on this modeling aspect. Our work here, though rather simplistic in nature, hopefully could serve as a modest start to draw more research interest in the directions of *structured search* in the future.

Consider the following hypothetical situation:

"Professor John Smith, an outdoors buff, goes to the library. He request the librarian to assist him to find the total number and the titles of the books published between 1/15/1990 and 6/15/1990 on the subjects of hunting, fishing or hiking".   (1.1)

His search targets are precisely given as follows:

$T = \{$book title $x \mid x$ is published between 1/15/1990 and 6/15/1990, x is on hunting, fishing or hiking$\}$.   (1.2)

Even if the number of items in T is not known in advance, either explicitly or via solving the counting problem, a brute force multi-object (generalized) Grover search would proceed to find items in T among all books in the libary's holding, denoted as $\bar{A}$. This would require the crude $O(\sqrt{N/l})$ quantum complexity if T had cardinality l and the libary's book holding $\bar{A}$ had cardinality N. This would be inefficient. However, (most) libaries group books according to subject interests. Instead of searching T among $\bar{A}$, we should search T among $A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3$, where A_1, A_2, and A_3 denote, respectively, the set of book titles on hunting, fishing and hiking. This is intuitively clear to surely cut down

search time even without mathematical justifications first. See (I2) in **3**.

We call such sets A_1, A_2, and A_3 here (partial) information sets. These sets may not be disjoint from each other, such as example (1.1) here amply illustrates the fact that there are many books dealing with *both* hunting and fishing and, thus, they belong to $A_1 \cap A_2$. Inside a computer (whether quantum or electronic), each of such datasets like A_i, $i = 1, 2, 3$, here occupies a block of memory space, with additional ordered/sorted data structure. For example, the dataset A_1 containing all book titles on hunting may already be either sorted according to alphabetical orders of authors' names or the chronological orders of time of publication, or both. Such ordered data structures are likely to even further expedite search with possible *exponential speedup*; nevertheless, we will not consider or exploit any sorted data structure for the time being in this paper.

Generally, for a given collection of information sets A_i, $i = 1, 2, ..., n$, such that $T \subseteq A_1 \cup A_2 \cup ... \cup A_n$, there is in addition a given probability distribution that weighs some sets A_j more heavily than the others, depending on the reliability or preferences of the information source. For example, in (1.1), if Professor Smith has indicated that fishing is his primary sporting interest, then his information set A_2 ought to weigh heavier than A_1 or A_3 in his case.

It is widely believed by the QC research community that the future first generation QCs are likely to be *special purpose* computers that can execute specific tasks such as multi-object quantum search under study here. *Analog* quantum computers then become the preferred choice as special purpose QCs over the *digital* ones, whose architecture is primarily designed for *general purpose* computing. Now having offered the physical and practical motivations in our study of the modeling of search with the availability of partial information, we proceed to treat the multi-object search problem related to an analog QC design.

2. Multi-object Search with the Availabilty of Partial Information on an Analogue Quantum Computer

Let a large database consist of N unsorted objects $\{w_j \mid 1 \le j \le N\} \equiv \bar{A}_1$, where N is an extremely large integer. Let $T \equiv \{w_j \mid 1 \le j \le l\} \subset \bar{A}$ be the the target set of search objects, where l is an unknown integer. The information about T is given as follows:

1. There is an oracle (or Boolean) function satisfying

$$f(w_j) = \begin{cases} 1, & j = 1, 2, \ldots, l, \\ 0, & j = l+1, l+2, \ldots, N. \end{cases} \quad (2.1)$$

This function acts in the black box of the QC and can be known only through queries.

2. There are n explicitly given information (sub)sets A_j, $j = 1, 2, \ldots, n$, such that

$$A_j = \{w_{j,i} \mid i = 1, 2, \ldots, k_j\} \subset \bar{A}$$

and

$$\mathcal{T} \subseteq A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \ldots \cup A_n. \quad (2.2)$$

3. There is a given probability distribution that assigns different weights to various subsets A_j, depending on the reliability or (searcher's) preference of that information set. Let such weights be called *reliability coefficients* and denoted as

$$\left\{ \alpha_j > 0 \mid j = 1, 2, \ldots, n, \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j = 1 \right\}. \quad (2.3)$$

In the QC, each object $w_j \in \bar{A}$ is stored as a state $|w_j\rangle$ which collectively forms an orthonormal basis $B \equiv \{|w_j\rangle \mid j = 1, 2, \ldots, N\}$ of an N-dimensional Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$. Let us denote $\mathcal{L} = \text{span}\{|w_j\rangle \mid j = 1, 2, \ldots, l\}$ as the subspace containing all the states representing the search targets. Suppose we are given a Hamiltonian H and $\mathcal{H}$ and we are told that $\tilde{H}$ has an eigenvalue $E \neq 0$ on the entire subspace $\mathcal{L}$, and all the other eigenvalues are zero. The search task is to find an eigenstate $|w_j\rangle$ in $\mathcal{L}$ that has the eigenvalue E. The task for the first search item is regarded as complete when a measurement of the system shows that it is in a state $|w_j\rangle \in \mathcal{L}$.

The analogue quantum computer for implementing multi-object Grover's search is a quantum process modeled by the Schrödinger equation.

$$\begin{cases} i \dfrac{d}{dt} |\psi(t)\rangle = H |\psi(t)\rangle, & t > 0, \\ |\psi(0)\rangle = |s\rangle, \end{cases} \quad (2.4)$$

where H, the overall Hamiltonian, is given by

$$H = \tilde{H} + H_D, \quad (2.5)$$

and where

$$\tilde{H} = E \sum_{j=1}^{l} |w_j\rangle\langle w_j| \quad (2.6)$$

is the Hamiltonian satisfying the aforementioned property that it has an eigenvalue E on $\mathcal{L}$, with the rest of its

eigenvalues being zero. Note that

$$\tilde{H} = \frac{E}{4} \sum_{i=1}^{N} [|w_i\rangle - (-1)^{f(w_i)}|w_i\rangle]$$
$$\cdot [\langle w_i| - (-1)^{f(w_i)}\langle w_i|];$$

therefore the knowledge of f alone determines $\tilde{H}$; no knowledge of $\{|w_j\rangle 1 \leq j \leq l\}$ is required or utilized since it is assumed to be hidden in the oracle (black box).

In (2.5), H_D is the "driving Hamiltonian"; its choice is up to the algorithm designer.

Remark 2.1. Without the assumption (2.2) and (2.3), a "good" driving Hamiltonian to choose [4, 6] is

$$H_D = E |s\rangle\langle s| \quad (2.7)$$

related to the initial state $|s\rangle$, where $|s\rangle$ is further chosen to be

$$|s\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j=1}^{N} |w_j\rangle, \quad (2.8)$$

the uniform superposition of all eigenstates.

For the discrete-time case [5, 9], the generalized Grover "search engine" is chosen to be

$$U = -I_s I_L, \quad (2.9)$$

where

$$I_L = I - \frac{2}{E} \tilde{H}, \quad I_s = I - 2|s\rangle\langle s|, \quad (2.10)$$

I = the identity operator on the Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$.

Since now we have the extra properties (2.2) and (2.3) at hand, based on the insights we have gained from the analysis of Grover's algorithm, it is not difficult to see that searching by using the initial state (2.8) is not necessary, because the useful component, namely, the projection of $|s\rangle$ outside $\mathcal{L}$ is too small compared with the component of $|s\rangle$ outside $\mathcal{L}$:

$$\|P_{\mathcal{L}}(|s\rangle)\|^2 / \|P_{\mathcal{L}^\perp}(|s\rangle)\|^2 = l/(N-l),$$

where $P_{\mathcal{L}}$ is the orthogonal projection operator onto the subspace $\mathcal{L}$, $\mathcal{L}^\perp$ is the orthogonal complement of $\mathcal{L}$, and $\|\cdot\|$ is the norm of $\mathcal{H}$.

Because of (2.2) and (2.3), instead of (2.8) it is now natural for us to choose

$$|s\rangle = \frac{1}{\nu} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{k_j} \alpha_j |w_{j,i}\rangle, \quad (2.11)$$

where ν is a normalization constant. From (2.11) we rearrange terms and simplify, obtaining

$$|s\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{l} \beta_i |w_j\rangle + \sum_{i=l+1}^{l+R} \beta_i |w_i\rangle, \quad (2.12)$$

where the first sum on the RHS above is composed of all the terms in $\mathcal{L}$, and the second sum consists of the remaining R terms in $\mathcal{L}^\perp$.

Remark 2.2. With the choice of a different $|s\rangle$ as in (2.12), the state equation (2.4) now has a new intial condition which is different from the uniform superposition of all eigenstates given in (2.8). Biron, Biham, et al. [10, 11] call this the choice of "arbitrary initial amplitude distribution" in their paper. The papers [10, 11] have shown certain advantages of the choice of general amplitudes in the discrete time case even though their ideas are unrelated to our problem under treatment here. □

Theorem 2.1. *Consider the Schrödinger Equation*

$$\begin{cases} i\dfrac{d}{dt}|\psi(t)\rangle = H|\psi(t)\rangle = (\tilde{H}+H_D)|\psi(t)\rangle, \ t>0, \\ |\psi(0)\rangle = |s\rangle, \end{cases}$$
$$\text{(2.13)}$$

where $\tilde{H}$ and H_D are given, respectively, by (2.6) and (2.7), and $|s\rangle$ is given by (2.12). Then

1.) H and the evolution operator e^{-iHt} have an invariant two-dimensional subspace $\mathcal{V} \equiv span \{|\tilde{w}\rangle, |r\rangle\}$, with

$$y \equiv \left(\sum_{i=1}^{l}|\beta_i|^2\right)^{1/2} \leq 1, \quad |\tilde{w}\rangle \equiv \frac{1}{y}\sum_{i=1}^{l}\beta_i|w_j\rangle,$$
$$|r\rangle \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-y^2}}\sum_{i=l+1}^{l+R}\beta_i|w_j\rangle. \qquad \text{(2.14)}$$

On $\mathcal{V}$, H and e^{-iHt} admit 2×2 matrix representations

$$H = E\begin{bmatrix} 1+y^2 & y\sqrt{1-y^2} \\ y\sqrt{1-y^2} & 1-y^2 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \text{(2.15)}$$

$$e^{-iHt} = e^{-iEt}\begin{bmatrix} \cos(Eyt)-iy\sin(Eyt) \\ -\sqrt{1-y^2}\,i\sin(Eyt) \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{matrix} -\sqrt{1-y^2}\,i\sin(Eyt) \\ \cos(Eyt)-iy\sin(Eyt) \end{matrix}. \qquad \text{(2.16)}$$

2.) The state $\psi(t)$ is given by

$$\psi(t) = e^{-iHt}|s\rangle$$
$$= e^{-iEt}\{[y\cos(Eyt)-i\sin(Eyt)]|\tilde{w}\rangle \quad \text{(2.17)}$$
$$+\sqrt{1-y^2}\cos(Eyt)]|r\rangle\}, \ t>0.$$

Proof: From (2.12) and (2.14), we have

$$|s\rangle = y|\tilde{w}\rangle + \sqrt{1-y^2}|r\rangle, \qquad \text{(2.18)}$$

so

$$|s\rangle\langle s| = y^2|\tilde{w}\rangle\langle\tilde{w}| + y\sqrt{1-y^2}$$
$$\cdot(|\tilde{w}\rangle\langle r|+|r\rangle\langle\tilde{w}|) + (1-y^2)|r\rangle\langle r|.$$

Also, note that

$$\tilde{H} = E\sum_{j=1}^{l}|w_j\rangle\langle w_j| = EP_\mathcal{L}.$$

For any vector $v \in \mathcal{V}$ we may use the spinor notation

$$\mathcal{V} = a|\tilde{w}\rangle + b|r\rangle = [a \quad b]^T; \quad a, b \in \mathbb{C}.$$

Thus,

$$H\mathcal{V} = (\tilde{H}+E|s\rangle\langle s|)\,\mathcal{V}$$
$$= E\,(P_\mathcal{L} + [y^2|\tilde{w}\rangle\langle\tilde{w}| + y\sqrt{1-y^2}$$
$$\cdot(|\tilde{w}\rangle\langle r|+|r\rangle\langle\tilde{w}|)$$
$$+(1-y^2)|r\rangle\langle r|])\,(a|\tilde{w}\rangle+b|r\rangle)$$
$$= (a|\tilde{w}\rangle + a\,y^2|\tilde{w}\rangle\,a\,y\sqrt{1-y^2}\,|r\rangle)$$
$$+(b\,y\sqrt{1-y^2}\,|\tilde{w}\rangle + b(1-y^2|r\rangle)$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1+y^2 & y\sqrt{1-y^2} \\ y\sqrt{1-y^2} & 1-y^2 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \in \mathcal{V}. \quad \text{(2.19)}$$

Obviously, H is invertible on $\mathcal{V}$. Therefore $H(\mathcal{V}) = \mathcal{V}$, and H has the 2×2 matrix representation (2.15) on $\mathcal{V}$ according to (2.19). From (2.15), we calculate the exponential matrix e^{-iHt} to obtain (2.16).

The solution (2.17) for the state equation (2.13) follows from (2.17) and (2.18). □

Corollary 2.2: *Assume the same conditions as Theorem 2.1. Then at time $T = \dfrac{\pi}{2Ey}$, we have $|\psi(T)\rangle \in \mathcal{L}$. Consequently, after measurement it yields a first search item $w_j \in \mathcal{T}$ with probability β_i^2/y^2, for $j = 1, 2, \ldots, l$, and total probability 1.*

Proof: Obvious from (2.17). □

Corollary 2.2 gives the informed answer that the quantum search should make a measurement at time $T = \pi/(2Ey)$ in order to obtain the first desired object, but the trouble is that we don't know explicitly what the value of y is in order to determine T. Although there exist alternative search schemes similar to the one suggested in Brassard, Høyer, and Tapp [7], which can get around this trouble and find a search item without estimating the value of y, in the following part of this section we will still elaborate on the estimation of y, since its treatment is more *analytical* (rather than *statistical*) in nature, and also since it has a *hybrid* feature, which is of considerable interest as a stand-alone problem. In order

to solve this problem, let us first make the following observation:

Theorem 2.3. *Assume the same conditions as Theorem 2.1. Define the following two vectors in* $\mathcal{V}$:

$$X_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{1+y} \\ \sqrt{1-y} \end{bmatrix}, \quad X_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{1-y} \\ \sqrt{1+y} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2.20)$$

Then

(i) X_1 *and* X_2 *are the unique orthonormal eigenvectors of* H *on* $\mathcal{V}$, *i.e.* (2.15), *corresponding, respectively, to eigenvalues* $\lambda_1 = E(1+y)$ *and* $\lambda_2 = E(1-y)$;

(ii) *For each* $t \geq 0$, *the evolutionary operator* e^{-iHt} *satisfies*

$$\begin{aligned} e^{-iHt} X_1 &= e^{-iE(1+y)t} X_1, \\ e^{-iHt} X_2 &= e^{-iE(1-y)t} X_2. \end{aligned} \quad (2.21)$$

Proof: Straightforward calculations and verification. □

Now Thm. 2.3 affords the information, that X_1 and X_2 are eigenvectors of H of e^{-iHt}. We can apply the "eigenvalue kickback" and "phase estimation" techniques, first developed by Kitaev [12], to estimate the value of y. The quantum Fourier transforms (QFT) plays a central role in this approach; see a lucid introduction in Mosca [8].

Let us construct a unitary operator $Q \equiv e^{-iH(2\pi/E)}$. Then from (2.21) and (2.18), we have

$$QX_1 = e^{-i2\pi y} X_1, \quad QX_2 = e^{i2\pi y} X_2, \quad (2.22)$$

$$\begin{aligned} Q^m |s\rangle &= Q^m (y|\tilde{w}\rangle + \sqrt{1-y^2} |r\rangle) \\ &= Q^m \left(\sqrt{\frac{1+y}{2}} X_1 + \sqrt{\frac{1-y}{2}} X_2 \right) \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{1+y}{2}} e^{-i2m\pi y} X_1 \\ &\quad + \sqrt{\frac{1-y}{2}} e^{i2m\pi y} X_2, \\ &\quad \text{for} \quad m = 0, 1, 2, \ldots. \end{aligned} \quad (2.23)$$

Thus we see that y appears as a phase factor (2.22) and (2.23). Further, y also appears in the amplitudes on the RHS of (2.23).

We add an ancillar register $|m\rangle$, $m = 0, 1, 2, \ldots, M-1$, for a sufficiently large integer M and form

$$\begin{aligned} |\Psi_1\rangle &\equiv \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} |m\rangle \otimes Q^m |s\rangle \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{1-y}{2}} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} e^{i2m\pi y} |m\rangle \otimes X_2 \\ &\quad + \sqrt{\frac{1+y}{2}} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} e^{i2m\pi(1-y)} |m\rangle \otimes X_1. \quad (2.24) \end{aligned}$$

For any given $|x\rangle$, $x = 0, 1, \ldots, M-1$, define QFTs $\mathcal{F}_M$ and $\mathcal{F}_M^{-1}$ by

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}_M |x\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} e^{i2k\pi x/M} |k\rangle, \\ \mathcal{F}_M^{-1} |x\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} e^{-i2k\pi x/M} |k\rangle. \end{aligned}$$

For any $w \in \mathbb{R}$, define

$$|\tilde{w}\rangle = \mathcal{F}_M^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} e^{i2k\pi\omega} |k\rangle \right). \quad (2.25)$$

Applying $\mathcal{F}_M^{-1}$ to the first register in (2.24), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} |\Psi_2\rangle &\equiv \sqrt{\frac{1-y}{2}} |\tilde{y}\rangle \otimes X_2 \\ &\quad + \sqrt{\frac{1+y}{2}} |\widetilde{1-y}\rangle \otimes X_1. \quad (2.26) \end{aligned}$$

Now, measurement of the first register on the RHS of (2.26) will yield the state $|\tilde{y}\rangle$ or $|\widetilde{1-y}\rangle$ with probability $\frac{1-y}{2}$ and $\frac{1+y}{2}$, respectively. The state $|\tilde{y}\rangle$ or $|\widetilde{1-y}\rangle$ further collapses to one of the eigenstates $|j\rangle$, $j = 0, 1, 2, \ldots, M-1$, of the first register.

Theorem 2.4. *Assume the same conditions as Theorem 2.1. Let us measure the first register of* $|\Psi_2\rangle$ *on the RHS of (2.26), which collapses to one of the eigenstates* $|j\rangle$, $j = 0, 1, 2, \ldots, M-1$, *of the first register. Then*

(i) *with probability* $\frac{1-y}{2}$,

$$\mathcal{P}(|j - My \leq 1 \mid |\tilde{y}\rangle)) \geq \frac{8}{\pi^2}; \quad (2.27)$$

(ii) *with probability* $\frac{1+y}{2}$,

$$\mathcal{P}(|j - M(1-y)| \leq 1 \mid |\widetilde{1-y}\rangle) \geq \frac{8}{\pi^2}, \quad (2.28)$$

where $\mathcal{P}(A|B)$ *denotes the probability of an event* A *conditioned on the event* B.

Proof: First, note from the definition (2.25) that

$$\begin{aligned} |\tilde{y}\rangle &= \mathcal{F}_M^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} e^{i2k\pi y} |k\rangle \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} e^{i2k\pi y} \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} e^{i2k\pi j/M} |j\rangle \\ &\equiv \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} \alpha_k(y) |k\rangle, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\alpha_k(y) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} e^{i2\pi j \left(y - \frac{k}{M} \right)}.$$

The probability that we will obtain $|\tilde{y}\rangle$ is $(1-y)/2$. The measurement of $|\tilde{y}\rangle$ will then yield an eigenstate $|k\rangle$ with probability $|\alpha_k(y)|^2$. Our task now is to estimate $\alpha_k(y)$:

$$|\alpha_k(y)| = |\langle k|\tilde{y}\rangle| = |\langle k|\frac{1}{M}\sum_{p=0}^{M-1}\left(\sum_{j=0}^{M-1}e^{i2\pi j\left(y-\frac{p}{M}\right)}\right)p\rangle|$$

$$= \frac{1}{M}\left|\sum_{p=0}^{M-1}e^{i2\pi j\left(y-\frac{k}{M}\right)}\right| = \frac{1}{M}\left|\frac{1-e^{i2\pi M\left(y-\frac{k}{M}\right)}}{1-e^{i2\pi\left(y-\frac{k}{M}\right)}}\right|$$

$$= \frac{1}{M}\left|\frac{\sin\left(\pi(My-k)\right)}{\sin\left(\pi\left(y-\frac{k}{M}\right)\right)}\right|. \qquad (2.29)$$

We see in the above that $|\alpha_k(y)|^2$ is maximized if $y = k/M$, yielding $|\alpha_k(y)|^2 = 1$, i.e., $\mathcal{P}(|k\rangle$ happens if $||\tilde{y}\rangle) = 1$. Thus, the above provides a way of measuring y in terms of M and k.

In general, y is a real number. Therefore, we cannot expect the certainty $\mathcal{P}(|k\rangle$ happens $||\tilde{y}\rangle) = 1$ no matter how M is chosen. To treat the case $y \in \mathbb{R}$, we first define, for any $r \in \mathbb{R}$,

$\lfloor r \rfloor =$ the largest integer smaller than r,

$\lceil r \rceil =$ the smallest integer larger than r.

For fixed M, denote

$$\Delta = \frac{My - \lfloor My \rfloor}{M} = y - \frac{\lfloor My \rfloor}{M}.$$

Then

$$\frac{1}{M} - \Delta = \frac{\lceil My \rceil - My}{M} = \frac{\lceil My \rceil}{M} - y.$$

Therefore, from (2.29),

$$\mathcal{P}(|My - k| \leq 1 \,||\tilde{y}\rangle) = \mathcal{P}(\lfloor My \rfloor = k \,||\tilde{y}\rangle)$$
$$+ \lceil My \rceil = k \,||\tilde{y}\rangle)$$
$$= \frac{\sin^2(M\Delta\pi)}{M^2\sin^2(\Delta\pi)} + \frac{\sin^2\left(M\left(\frac{1}{M}-\Delta\right)\pi\right)}{M^2\sin^2\left(\left(\frac{1}{M}-\Delta\right)\pi\right)};$$

the RHS above attains minimum at $\Delta = \frac{1}{2M}$, giving

$$\mathcal{P}(|My - k| \leq 1 \,||\tilde{y}\rangle)$$
$$= \frac{1}{M^2}\left(\frac{1}{\sin^2\left(\frac{\pi}{2M}\right)} + \frac{1}{\sin^2\left(\frac{\pi}{2M}\right)}\right)$$
$$= \frac{2}{M^2\sin^2\left(\frac{\pi}{2M}\right)} \geq \frac{2}{M^2\left(\frac{\pi}{2M}\right)^2} = \frac{8}{\pi^2}.$$

Therefore (2.27) has been proven.

The second possibility is that, from (2.26), we obtain $|\widetilde{1-y}\rangle$ with probability $\frac{1+y}{2}$; $|\widetilde{1-y}\rangle$ further collapses to $|k'\rangle$ such that

$$\mathcal{P}(|k' - M(1-y)| \leq 1 \,||\widetilde{1-y}\rangle) =$$
$$= \frac{\sin^2(M\Delta\pi)}{M^2\sin^2(\Delta\pi)} + \frac{\sin^2\left(M\left(\frac{1}{M}-\Delta\right)\pi\right)}{M^2\sin^2\left(\frac{1}{M}-\Delta\right)\pi} \geq \frac{8}{\pi^2},$$

where $\Delta \equiv \frac{M(1-y) - \lfloor M(1-y)\rfloor}{M}$. $\qquad\square$

Remark 2.3.

(i) The quantum search procedures as culminated in (2.26) is *hybrid* in the sense that it operates concurrently on continuous (i.e., t) and discrete (i.e., m in QFT) variables (Lloyd [13]).

(ii) In QC implementation, (assume that) qubits are used and, thus $M = 2^n$ for some positive integer n. The circuit for estimating y from the ancilla register $|m\rangle$ (cf. $(2.23)-(2.26)$) may be found in Figure 1.

From (2.29), we see that in the estimation of y, what matters is $\left|\sin\left(\pi\left(y-\frac{k}{M}\right)\right)\right|$ and, consequently, the relevant distance between our estimate k/M and y itself is not simply $|y - \frac{k}{M}|$. A better measurement of distance is given as follows.

Definition 2.1 ([8], p. 45). The distance $d(y_1, y_2)$ between two real numbers y_1 and y_2 is the real number

$$d(y_1, y_2) = \min_{j \in \mathbb{Z}}|y_1 - y_2 + j|,$$

i.e., $d(y_1, y_2)$ makes the shortest arclength on the unit circle between $e^{i2\pi y_1}$ and $e^{i2\pi y_2}$ be $2\pi d(y_1, y_2)$.

Corollary 2.5. *Assume the same conditions as those in Theorems 2.1 and 2.2. Measurement of the first register of $|\Psi_2\rangle$ on the RHS of (2.26) will yield the state $|k\rangle$ such that*

(i) if My is an integer, then $\mathcal{P}(|k\rangle$ happens$) = 1$;
(ii) if My is not an integer, then

$$\mathcal{P}(|k\rangle \text{ happens } |\tilde{y}\rangle) = \frac{\sin^2\left(M\pi d\left(y, \frac{1}{M}\right)\right)}{M^2\sin^2\left(\pi d\left(y, \frac{1}{M}\right)\right)}$$
$$\leq \frac{1}{\left(2Md\left(y, \frac{1}{M}\right)\right)^2}, \qquad (2.30)$$
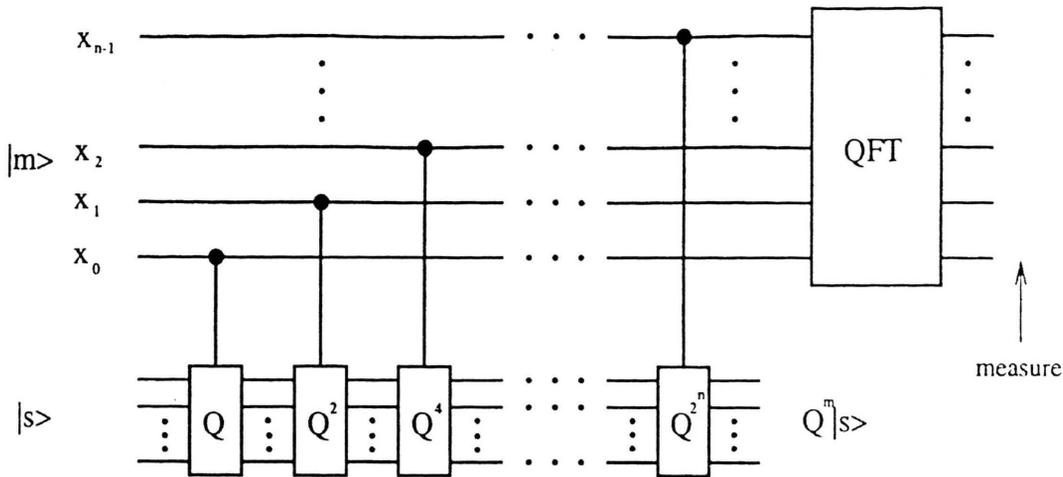
Fig. 1. Circuit for estimating y in (2.26), where $x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}$ represent the ascending order of qubits and $M = 2^n$.

$$\mathcal{P}(|k\rangle \text{ happens } |\widetilde{1-y}\rangle) = \frac{\sin^2\left(M\pi d\left(1-y, \frac{k}{M}\right)\right)}{M^2 \sin^2\left(\pi d\left(1-y, \frac{k}{M}\right)\right)}$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{\left(2 M d\left(1-y, \frac{k}{M}\right)\right)^2}; \quad (2.31)$$

(iii)

$$\mathcal{P}\left(d\left(y, \frac{k}{M}\right) \leq \frac{1}{M} \Big| |\tilde{y}\rangle\right) \geq \frac{8}{\pi^2},$$

$$\mathcal{P}\left(d\left(1-y, \frac{k}{M}\right) \leq \frac{1}{M} \Big| |\widetilde{1-y}\rangle\right) \geq \frac{8}{\pi^2};$$

(iv) for $m > 1$,

$$\mathcal{P}\left(d\left(y, \frac{k}{M}\right) \leq \frac{m}{M} \Big| |\tilde{y}\rangle\right) \geq 1 - \frac{1}{2(m-1)}; \quad (2.32)$$

$$\mathcal{P}\left(d\left(1-y, \frac{k}{M}\right) \leq \frac{1}{M} \Big| |\widetilde{1-y}\rangle\right) \geq 1 - \frac{1}{2(m-1)}. \quad (2.33)$$

Proof: Many estimates are already clear from the proofs given previously. The rest can be established using [18], pp. 45–46, as follows.

It is clear from (2.29) that

$$\mathcal{P}(|k\rangle \text{ happens} | |\tilde{y}\rangle) = \frac{\sin^2\left(M\pi d\left(y, \frac{k}{M}\right)\right)}{M^2 \sin^2\left(\pi d\left(y, \frac{k}{M}\right)\right)}. \quad (2.34)$$

Using the fact that $2x \leq \sin \pi x \leq \pi x$ for $x \in [0, 1/2]$, from (2.34) we obtain

$$\mathcal{P}(|k\rangle \text{ happens} | |\tilde{y}\rangle) \leq \frac{1}{M^2} \frac{1}{\left|2 d\left(y, \frac{k}{M}\right)\right|^2},$$

which proves (2.30). We can similarly prove (2.31). To show (2.32), we have

$$\mathcal{P}\left(d\left(y, \frac{k}{M}\right) \leq \frac{1}{M} \Big| |\tilde{y}\rangle\right) = \mathcal{P}(|My - k| \leq m | |\tilde{y}\rangle)$$

$$= 1 - \mathcal{P}(|My - k| > m | |\tilde{y}\rangle)$$

$$\geq 1 - \sum_{j=m}^{M} \mathcal{P}(|My - k| = j | |\tilde{y}\rangle)$$

$$\geq 1 - \sum_{j=m}^{\infty} \mathcal{P}(|My - k| = j | |\tilde{y}\rangle)$$

$$\geq 1 - 2 \sum_{j=m}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4 M^2\left(\frac{j}{M}\right)^2} \geq 1 - \frac{1}{2(m-1)}.$$

The estimate (2.33) also follows similarly.

3. Efficiency and Complexity

Let us address various relevant issues in this section.

(I1) Will the search algorithm with the availability of partial information given in Sect. 2 always be more efficient than the unstructured Grover multi-object search algorithm?

The answer is NO. A simple counterexample is sufficient to demonstrate this point. Let

$$\mathcal{T} \subseteq A_1 \cup A_2, \quad \mathcal{T} \subseteq A_1,$$
$$\mathcal{T} \cap A_2 = \emptyset, \quad A_1, A_2 \subseteq \bar{A}. \quad (3.1)$$

Assume that the cardinatlities of, respectively, T, $\bar{A}$, A_1, and A_2, are l, N, n_1 and n_2. Let the reliability coefficients be $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2\}$, where $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 > 0$, $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 1$. Then by (3.1), we easily see that

$$\left.\begin{array}{l} \beta_i = \alpha_1 / \nu, i = 1, 2, \ldots, l; \qquad (\text{cf. (2.11), (2.12)}) \\ \nu = [(n_1 - n_{12}) \alpha_1^2 + n_{12} (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)^2 + (n_2 - n_{12}) \alpha_2^2]^{1/2}, \\ n_{12} \equiv \text{the cardinality of } A_1 \cap A_2. \end{array}\right\}$$
(3.2)

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} y &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^{l} \beta_i^2\right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{l}{\nu^2} \alpha_1^2\right)^{1/2} \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{l}}{\nu} \alpha_1 = \frac{\sqrt{l}}{\nu} (1 - \alpha_2). \end{aligned}$$
(3.3)

and by Corrolary 2.2, the time T required to reach $\mathcal{L}$ is

$$T = \frac{\pi}{2 E y} = \frac{\pi \nu}{2 E \sqrt{l}} \frac{1}{1 - \alpha_2}.$$
(3.4)

If α_2 is very close to 1, then it is easy to see from (3.2)–(3.4) that

$$\lim_{\alpha_2 \to 1^-} T = \infty.$$

Therefore this algorithm is not efficient when α_2 is close to 1. (Conversely, if α_2 is close to 0^+, then we see that the algorithm will be efficient.)

It is obvious to see what causes the trouble. In (3.1), we see that the information set A_2 is irrelevant to the search target set T (i.e., $T \cap A_2$) but too heavy a weight α_2 is assigned to the set A_2. This is a situation with *misplaced confidence* on the set A_2. It is deffinitely to be avoided. The opposite situation of which is called by us one with *basic confidence*.

Definition 3.1. Consider (2.2). If $A_j \cap T \neq \emptyset$ for $j = 1$, 2, ..., n, then we say that we have basic conficence in the partial information sets $A_1, A_2 \ldots, A_n$.

(I2) Will the search algorithm in Sect. 2, with the additional assumption of basic confidence, be more efficient than the unstructured Grover multi-object search algorithm?

The answer is YES. The following theorem shown that we still maintain a quadriatic speedup of Grover.

Theorem 3.1. *Consider (2.2) and assume that we have basic confidence. Then we have*

$$y = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{l} \beta_i^2\right)^{1/2} \geq \frac{1}{n^{1/2} (l + R)^{1/2}},$$
(3.5)

where $l + R$ is the totality of distinct elements in $A_1 \ldots A_n$. Consequently, the time T required for $|\psi(T)\rangle$ to reach $\mathcal{L}$ is

$$T = \frac{\pi}{2 E y} \leq \frac{\pi n^{1/2}}{2 E} (l + R)^{1/2}.$$
(3.6)

Proof: Comparing (2.11) and (2.12), we have, for each $j = 1, \ldots, l$,

$$\beta_j = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\alpha_{j,i}}{\nu},$$

where

$$\alpha_{j,i} = \begin{cases} \alpha_i & \text{if } |w_j\rangle \in A_i, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases}$$

Therefore,

$$y^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{l} \beta_j^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{l} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\alpha_{j,i}}{\nu}\right)^2 \geq \frac{1}{\nu^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i^2, \quad (3.7)$$

by the assumption that we have basic confidence and the inequality $(a + b)^2 \geq a^2 + b^2$ if both a and b are positive. Also,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i^2 \geq \frac{1}{n}$$
(3.8)

under the constraint that $\Sigma_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i = 1$. This follows from the Lagrange multiplier method (or the Cauchy-Schwarz inequalaity).

From (2.11), the normalization constant ν takes minimal value where the sets $A_1, \ldots, A_n$ are in totality orthonormal, and takes maximal value when it happens that $A_1 = A_2 = \ldots = A_n = \{|w_j\rangle | j = 1, 2, \ldots, l + R\}$. Thus

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{k_j} \alpha_j^2 \leq \nu^2 \leq l + R.$$
(3.9)

By (3.8) and (3.9), we obtain

$$y^2 \geq \frac{1}{\nu^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i^2 \geq \frac{1}{(l + R) n}, \quad \text{i.e., (3.5),}$$

and hence (3.6).

Corollary 3.2. *Assume basic confidence. If $l + R = O(N^\delta)$ for some small $\delta > 0$, then the search task for the first item, will be completed in time duration $T = O(n^{1/2} N^{\delta/2})$, where n is the cardinality of the set $\{A_1, \ldots, A_n\}$.* $\square$

Normally, if the partial information sets are very descriptive in the sense that $l + R$ is small, say, $l + R = O(N^\delta)$ with $\delta \ll 1$, then the search algorithm in **2** will be more efficient than the unstructured Grover search.

Remark 3.1.

(i) The estimate (3.6) is obtained under the possibility that $A_1 = A_2 = \ldots = A_n = \{|w_j\rangle| \, j = 1, \ 2, \ldots, l + R\}$, which is a rare and trivial happenstance (that all information sets coincide). The other extreme is that there is no overlapping at all between the information sets, i.e., $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for any $i, j \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, $i \neq j$. Then under the assumption of basic confidence the conclusion in Cor. 3.2 still maintains its order of optimality. See (ii) and Corollary 3.3 below.

(ii) By observing (2.11) and (2.12), we see that for the example (1.1) and (1.2), any $w_{j0} \in \mathcal{T}$ such that $w_{j0} \in A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3$ will have a larger weight β_{j0} because w_{j0} is repeated in all A_1, A_2 and A_3. As a consequence, this w_{j0} is likely to be the outcome as the search of the first item. This means that a book title including *all* the interests in hunting, fishing and hinking is more likely to turn up than the other titles as the outcome of search. This can be undesirable, however. The only way to avoid this from happening it to eliminate the repetitions (or overlappings) between all A_1, A_2 and A_3 (and, in general, between all $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$). Indeed, under the assumption that $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for all $i, j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ and $i \neq j$, we have (from (2.11))

$$v^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{k_j} \alpha_j^2 = k_1 \alpha_1^2 + k_2 \alpha_2^2 + \ldots + k_n \alpha_n^2$$
$$\leq (k_1 + k_2 + \ldots + k_n)(\alpha_1^2 + \alpha_2^2 + \ldots + \alpha_n^2)$$
$$= (l + R) \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i^2. \tag{3.10}$$

Using (3.10) in (3.7), we obtain

$$y^2 \geq \frac{1}{l + R}$$

and hence

$$T \leq \frac{\pi}{2E}(l + R)^{1/2}.$$

Corollary 3.3 *Assume basic confidence and that $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for all $i, j \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, $i \neq j$. Then*

$$y \geq \frac{1}{(l + R)^{1/2}}, \quad T = \frac{\pi}{2Ey} \leq \frac{\pi}{2E}(l + R)^{1/2}.$$

Consequently, if $l + R = O(N^\delta)$, then the search task for the first item will be completed in time duration $T = O(N^\delta)$ independent of n.

(I3) Can we determine l, the cardinality of $\mathcal{T}$, using the algorithm in 2?

The answer is NO, unless we do extra work. In general, because the choice of reliability coefficients $\{\alpha_i\}_{i=1}^{n}$ is somewhat arbitrary, the cardinality l of $\mathcal{T}$ will not be manifested in y. Even if we choose uniform weights $\alpha_i = 1/n$, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$, for the information sets $A_1, \ldots, A_n$, we still are unable to estimate y (or $1 - y$) because elements in $\mathcal{T}$ may have repeated appearances in $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$. When all the A_i's are disjoint, then

$$y = \left(\frac{l}{l + R}\right)^{1/2}.$$

One can thus estimate l and R based on y and $1 - y$ from Corollary 2.5, as it is usually done in solving the *quantum counting problem*.

Because the information sets $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$ generally have some overlapping, *we need to eliminate such overlapping* first through some processing in order to do counting.

(I4) The choice of different information sets

The example stated in (1.1) so far has been by choosing the information sets A_1, A_2 and A_3 as denoted in the paragraph following (1.2). Instead, one can choose just a single information set

$$A_0 = \{\text{book title } x \,|\, x \text{ is published between} $$
$$1/15/1990 \text{ and } 6/15/1990\}.$$

Then the search of $\mathcal{T}$ will be carried out in A_0. As we expect the cardinality of A_0 will be much larger than the sum of the cardinalities of A_1, A_2 and A_3, this search will be less efficient.

The choice of information sets seems to rely on the human operator as well as on how the data are encoded.

(I5) The work involved

For each estimation of y, we need $O((\log M)^2)$ number of operations. With each (estimated) value of y, we require a time duration $T = \dfrac{2\pi}{Ey}$ in order to obtain the first search item.

4. Conclusion

The layout of the future QC memory space, in the sense of compartmental partitions, will have important

speedup effects, according to Corollary 3.2. Also, from the discussion in Sect. 3, I(4), the input data processing by the human operator in the determination of information sets will also expedite the search process. If more is known about such layout and input data pro-

cessing of the future QC, then more elaborate algorithms (than those provided here) can be studied and developed.

[1] L. K. Grover, A fast quantum mechanical algorithm for database search, Proc. 28th Annual Symposium on the Theory of Computing, ACM Press, New York, 1996, 212–218.
[2] L. K. Grover, Phys. Rev. Letters **78**, 325 (1997).
[3] L. K. Grover, Phys. Rev. Letters **80**, 4329 (1998).
[4] E. Farhi and S. Gutmann, Phys. Rev. **A 57**, 2403 (1998).
[5] M. Boyer, G. Brassard, P. Høyer, and A. Tapp, Fortsch. Phys. **46**, 493 (1998).
[6] G. Chen, S. A. Fulling, and J. Chen, Generalization of Grover's algorithm to multiobject search in quantum computing, Part I: Continuous time and discrete time, preprint, quant-ph/0007123, July 2000. To appear in *Mathematics of Quantum Computation,* CRC Press, Boca Raton, Florida, Feb. 2002.
[7] G. Chen and S. Sun, Generalization of Grover's algorithm to multiobject search in quantum computing, Part II: General unitary transformations, preprint, quant-ph/ 0007124, July 2000. To appear in *Mathematics of Quantum Computation,* CRC Press, Boca Raton, Florida, Feb. 2002.

[8] M. Mosca, Quantum computer algorithms, Ph.D. Dissertation, Oxford University, Trinity Term 1999.
[9] G. Chen, S. A. Fulling, and M. O. Scully, Grover's algorithm for multiobject search in quantum computation, in *Directions in Quantum Optics,* H. J. Carmichael, R. J. Glauber, and M. O. Scully, ed., Springer-Verlag, Berlin 2000, 165–176. (quant-ph/9909040).
[10] D. Biron, O. Biham, E. Biham, M. Grassl, and D. A. Lidar, General grover search algorithm for arbitrary initial amplitude distribution, in *Quantum Computing and Quantum Communications* (Lecture Notes Comp. Sci. **1509**), Springer-Verlag, New York, 1998, 140–147.
[11] E. Biham, O. Biham, D. Biron, M. Grassl, and D. A. Lidar, Phys. Rev. A **60**, 2742 (1999).
[12] A. Kitaev, Quantum measurements and the Abelian stabilizer problem, quant-ph/9511026.
[13] S. Lloyd, Hybrid quantum computing, quant-ph/0008057, Aug. 2000