Quantum Pattern Matching

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We propose a quantum algorithm for closest pattern matching which allows us to search for as many distinct patterns as we wish in a given string (database), requiring a query function per symbol of the pattern alphabet. This represents a significant practical advantage when compared to Grover’s search algorithm as well as to other quantum pattern matching methods [1], which rely on building specific queries for particular patterns. Our method makes arbitrary searches on long static databases much more realistic and implementable. Our algorithm, inspired by Grover’s, returns the position of the closest substring to a given pattern of size $M$ with non-negligible probability in $O(\sqrt{N})$ queries, where $N$ is the size of the string. Furthermore, we give the full recipe to implement our algorithm (together with its total circuit complexity), thus offering an oracle-based quantum algorithm ready to be implemented.

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Search in databases is nowadays a common and fundamental application in computer science, one that we use daily to find a word in a text, or a site in Google. Currently we are also living the quantum information revolution, where the idea to encode information in quantum systems offers us a radically new type of information which allows for much more secure communications and much faster computations than what we were able to achieve so far using (now-called) classical information [2, 3]. In particular, quantum cryptography has in recent years quickly progressed from a “beautiful idea” [4] to a plug-and-play application that one can purchase. There have also been a few quantum algorithms proposed (the most significant probably being Shor’s efficient factorization algorithm [2, 5] of 1994, solving a problem that classically is believed to be intractable) even though the construction of a scalable quantum computer is still a challenge, presently being tackled with a plethora of different technologies [6]. Yet, should quantum computation become a reality, there is still no implementable efficient quantum algorithm to search a given database [12], despite Grover’s celebrated quantum search algorithm proposed in 1996 [8]. Grover’s work, which now constitutes a paradigm for quantum search algorithms, offers a quadratic speed-up in query complexity (i.e. calls of a query function) when compared to the classical case. However, in the real execution of these search algorithms, we must distinguish the compile time and the run time. The compile time is essentially the construction of the query function on which the algorithm relies to identify the element being searched. But this construction is, in general, not a negligible task. In particular, for database search, we must go through all the database elements to build the so-called oracle, so that we can then implement the search. Note that this makes the quantum search irrelevant in practical terms, since you need to know the solution to run it. Moreover, given a query function built to find a particular element, it can only be used again to find that very same element. The search for a different item in the same database would require building a new specific query function. All this represents a serious obstacle to the application of current search algorithms [13].

To address this problem, we propose a quantum algorithm for pattern matching which allows us to search for as many distinct patterns as we wish in a given unsorted string (database), and moreover returns the position of the closest substring to a given pattern with non-negligible probability in $O(\sqrt{N})$ queries, where $N$ is the size of the string. This means that the time to find the closest match (a much harder problem than to find the exact match, as we shall see) does not depend on the size of the pattern itself, a result with no classical equivalent. Another crucial point is that our quantum algorithm is actually useful and implementable to perform searches in (unsorted) databases. For this, we introduce a query function per symbol of the pattern alphabet, which will require a significant (though clearly efficient) pre-processing, but will allow us to perform an arbitrary amount of different searches in a static database. A compile once, run many approach yielding a new search algorithm that not only settles the previously existing implementation problems, but even offers the solution of a more general problem, and with a very interesting speed-up. After exposing in detail our algorithm and presenting the respective analysis in the most significant limit (when the pattern is much smaller than the text and not frequent), we give the explicit recipe for the construction of the query functions and our non-trivial initial state, including their circuit complexity analysis. But let us
start by briefly reviewing what is known classically about the pattern matching problem.

In the classical setting, the best known algorithm for the closest substring problem takes $O(MN)$ queries where $M$ is the size of the pattern. This result follows from adapting the best known algorithm for approximate pattern matching [3], which takes $O(\varepsilon N + M)$ where $\varepsilon$ is the number of allowed errors, and take $\varepsilon = (M - 1)$, that is, the closest match could be a substring that coincides just one letter with the pattern. One should not compare the closest match to (exact) pattern match, where the closest substring problem consists in determining if a certain word (pattern) is a substring of a text. For exact pattern matching it is proven that the best algorithm can achieve $O(M+N)$ queries. However, in practical cases where data can mutate over time, like DNA, or is store in a faulty systems, the closest match problem is a much more relevant, since sometimes, only approximates of the pattern exist, but nevertheless need to be found.

Our algorithm is based on the modified Grover search algorithm proposed in [10] for the case of multiple solutions. It uses the techniques originally introduced by Grover [8]: a query operator that marks the state encoding the database element being searched by changing its phase; followed by an amplitude amplification of the marked state. The state can be detected with non negligible probability by iterating this process $\sqrt{N}$ times where $N$ is the size of the database.

Let us now describe our closest pattern matching algorithm. Given a string $w$ of size $N$ over an alphabet $\Sigma$, we want to know if a certain pattern $p$ of size $M$ occurs in $w$, or at least obtain the closest match to $p$ in $w$. In particular we want to find the position $i \in \{1, \ldots, N\}$ where a certain symbol of $p$ occurs in $w$. To this end, we encode position $i$ in a unit vector $|i\rangle$ of a Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$ of dimension $N$ (where the set $B = \{|1\rangle, \ldots, |N\rangle\}$ constitutes an orthonormal basis of $\mathcal{H}$). Since we are considering patterns of size $M$ the total search space will be $\mathcal{H}^{\otimes M}$.

The initial state of the total system reflects the fact that we want the second symbol of $p$ to occur just after the first, and the third to occur just after the second, and so on. For this reason we consider the following initial entangled state, which consists of a uniform superposition of all possible states fulfilling this property:

$$\begin{equation}
|\psi_0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N-M+1}} \sum_{k=1}^{N-M+1} |k, k+1, \ldots, k+M-1\rangle,
\end{equation}$$

thus restricting $\mathcal{H}^{\otimes M}$ to a subspace of dimension $N - M + 1$. $|\psi_0\rangle$ can easily be adapted to patterns with gaps.

To perform the search, we now need to define a query operator $Q_\sigma$ for each symbol $\sigma$ of the alphabet $\Sigma$. We will thus have $|\Sigma|$ different query operators. Each $Q_\sigma$ acts over $\mathcal{H} \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$ (where $\mathcal{H}_2$ is the Hilbert space of dimension 2) as follows:

$$Q_\sigma(|i\rangle \otimes |b\rangle) = |i\rangle \otimes |f_\sigma(i) \oplus b\rangle,$$

where $|i\rangle$ encodes position $i$ and $|b\rangle$ is a auxiliary qubit and $f_\sigma$ is a function such that:

$$f_\sigma(i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if the } i\text{-th letter of } w \text{ is } \sigma \ , \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{3}$$

As in Grover’s algorithm, we want to use the query to mark states where there is a match for the individual symbol, in particular by shifting the phase of the respective state, as given by the following unitary transformation:

$$U_\sigma |k\rangle = (-1)^{f_\sigma(k)} |k\rangle,$$

where $|k\rangle \in B$.

However, in our quantum pattern matching algorithm a query operator will be applied for a random symbol of the pattern to the corresponding position. Hence, on average, a position with a partial match, say of $M'$ out of $M$ matches of individual symbols, will have the query operator applied $\frac{M'}{M}$ times. Note that the more matches we obtain, the more phase shift will be shifted, and consequently the more the amplitude will be amplified. Observe that for a given string there might be full and partial matches, leading to larger and smaller amplitude amplifications respectively (see Fig. 1 for an example).

Note that, if $N \gg M$, which is usually the case, sampling randomly over $M$ elements $\sqrt{N}$ times will lead to searching, with very highly probably, over all elements of the pattern, that is, as $N$ grows, this probability tends to 1 exponentially fast.

The amplitude amplification is obtained by applying the usual Grover diffusion $D = D_N \otimes I^{\otimes M-1}$ to the total state, where:

$$D_N = (2(|\varphi\rangle\langle \varphi|) - I),$$

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The algorithm is then constituted by iterating the phase shift induced by the query followed by amplitude amplification. The final step is to measure the state of a symbol of the pattern over the predefined basis $B$, yielding the position of the closest match of the pattern in the string. We show that it is enough to iterate $\sqrt{N}$ in order to observe with non-negligible probability a match of the pattern.

In summary, the algorithm will be as follows:

**Input:** $w \in \Sigma^*$ and $p \in \Sigma^*$

**Output:** $m \in \mathbb{N}$

**Quantum variables:** $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}(\{1, \ldots, N\})^\otimes M$

**Classical variables:** $r, i, j \in \mathbb{N}$

1. choose $r \in [0, \sqrt{N - M + 1}]$ uniformly,
2. set $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{N-M+1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N-M+1}}|k, k+1, \ldots, k+M-1\rangle$;
3. for $i = 1$ to $r$
   
   (a) choose $j \in [1, M]$ uniformly
   
   (b) set $|\psi\rangle = I^{\otimes j-1} \otimes Q_p^w \otimes I^{\otimes M-j} |\psi\rangle$;
   
   (c) set $|\psi\rangle = (D \otimes I^{\otimes M-1}) |\psi\rangle$
4. set $m$ to the result of the measurement of the first component of $|\psi\rangle$ over the base $\{|1\rangle, \ldots, |N\rangle\}$.

The analysis of the algorithm follows closely that proposed in [11]. The proof for the case where only exact matches exist, and the symbols in the pattern occur only in these matches, can be adapted straightforwardly, and will state that the probability of finding a solution using the algorithm above is at least $\frac{1}{2}$. When symbols occur elsewhere we are in the context where the closest match, which we analyze next.

Assume that the alphabet is rich enough, and the symbols of the pattern do not occur very often, if this is not the case one can combine letters in pairs or triples. Moreover, if $N$ is very large and $N >> M$, then the average amplitude is around $\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}$. Note that, in this case, each step of Grover amplification amplifies an amplitude $\alpha$ by $\frac{2}{\sqrt{N}}$, since first it inverts the amplitude to $-\alpha$ and then applies the diffusion $D$ or inversion around average operator that gives $\frac{2}{\sqrt{N}} + \alpha$. Now, if the pattern occurs in a position $p$ then the random choice of $j$ at step 3 (a), will always lead to an amplitude amplification of $p$. If there is a partial match, say $M'$ symbols out of $M$, then, in average, the amplification will be done $\frac{M'}{M}$ times.

We are now able to state the amplitude amplification for a match of $M'$ out of $M$ is in average $\frac{M'}{M}$ times less than the amplification for a perfect match, since $\frac{2}{\sqrt{N}} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{N}}$ is added to the amplitude only $\frac{M'}{M}$ times.

Assuming an oracle for computing $Q_p^w$ for all $p_j$, in the pattern, the query complexity of our pattern matching quantum algorithm is $O(\sqrt{N})$, with no dependence on $M$, apart from the cost of setting up of the initial state $|\Psi\rangle$. But to transform this interesting theoretical result into a useful application, we now proceed to describe in detail how to build the query functions and how to generate our non-trivial initial state, thus giving the full recipe to implement our algorithm together with its total circuit complexity.

The quantum circuit for the query operator is obtained from implementing a permutation operator. As already noticed in [11], for any Boolean function $f : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ we are able to construct a bijection $\tilde{f}$ on $n + 1$ bits such that:

$$\tilde{f}(0, x_1, \ldots, x_n) = (f(x_1, \ldots, x_n), x_1, \ldots, x_n)$$

$$\tilde{f}(1, x_1, \ldots, x_n) = (1 - f(x_1, \ldots, x_n), x_1, \ldots, x_n).$$

In the corresponding quantum case we have a Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$ of $n + 1$ qubits and $\tilde{f}$ induces a unitary transformation $U$ where:

$$U|x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n\rangle = |\tilde{f}(x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n)\rangle.$$  

Note that $U$ is the quantum implementation of the original Boolean function $f$ we wish to calculate. The value of the function is stored in the first qubit and the rest are ignored. Moreover, note that $U$ is simply a permutation over the computational basis of $\mathcal{H}$, and therefore can be obtained by composing $2^{n+1} - 1$ transpositions (i.e. permutations of only two elements keeping the remaining unchanged), that is, $U = U_1 U_2 \ldots U_k$ with $k < 2^{n+1}$ where $U_i$ acts only in two elements of the basis.

Finally using Gray codes, we are able to implement each $U_i$ using at most $O(n^2)$ C-NOT and Pauli-X gates. In detail, recall that given two distinct binary words $\ell$ and $\ell'$ of the same size $s$, a Gray code from $\ell$ to $\ell'$ is a sequence of binary words $r_0, \ldots, r_k$ such that $r_0 = \ell$, $r_k = \ell'$ and $r_{j-1}$ differs only in one bit from $r_j$ for any $j \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$. Note that $k$ is less than or equal to $s$, the size of the binary words. Given a Gray code we are able to build the circuit to shift $\ell$ to $\ell'$, by applying in sequence a controlled swap operation to the bit distinguishing $r_{j-1}$ from $r_j$ for all $j \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$. Albeit the obtained permutation maps $|\ell\rangle$ to $|\ell'\rangle$, it is not true in general that $|\ell'\rangle$ is mapped to $|\ell\rangle$. Indeed, $|\ell'\rangle$ is mapped to $|r_{k-1}\rangle$, and $|r_{j}\rangle$ is mapped to $|r_{j-1}\rangle$ for any $j \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$. In order to obtain a transposition, we need to map $|r_{k-1}\rangle$ to $|\ell\rangle = |r_0\rangle$ and $|r_{j}\rangle$ to $|r_{j+1}\rangle$ for all $j \in 0, \ldots, k - 2$. This can be achieved again by considering the Gray code from $r_{k-1}$ to $r_0 = \ell$, which is precisely $r_{k-1}, r_{k-2}, \ldots, r_0$. Again, by applying in sequence controlled swap operation to the bit distinguishing $r_j$ from $r_{j-1}$ for all $j \in \{k - 1, \ldots, 1\}$ we attain the desired transposition. Observe that for the particular case of implementing the transposition $U_i$ on $\mathcal{H}$, the size $s$ of the words is $n + 1$. 

$I$ is the identity operator of dimension $N$ and $|\varphi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ is given by the uniform superposition $|\varphi\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} |i\rangle$. 

In summary, the algorithm will be as follows:

**Input:** $w \in \Sigma^*$ and $p \in \Sigma^*$

**Output:** $m \in \mathbb{N}$

**Quantum variables:** $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}(\{1, \ldots, N\})^\otimes M$

**Classical variables:** $r, i, j \in \mathbb{N}$

1. choose $r \in [0, \sqrt{N - M + 1}]$ uniformly,
2. set $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{N-M+1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N-M+1}}|k, k+1, \ldots, k+M-1\rangle$;
3. for $i = 1$ to $r$
   
   (a) choose $j \in [1, M]$ uniformly
   
   (b) set $|\psi\rangle = I^{\otimes j-1} \otimes Q_p^w \otimes I^{\otimes M-j} |\psi\rangle$;
   
   (c) set $|\psi\rangle = (D \otimes I^{\otimes M-1}) |\psi\rangle$
4. set $m$ to the result of the measurement of the first component of $|\psi\rangle$ over the base $\{|1\rangle, \ldots, |N\rangle\}$. 

In summary, given a transposition \( U_i \) that transposes \(|\ell\rangle\) with \(|\ell'\rangle\) and let \( r_0, \ldots, r_k \) be the Gray code from \( \ell \) to \( \ell' \), the algorithm implementing \( U_i \) can be obtained as follows:

*Input:* \(|\psi_0\rangle \in \tilde{H} \)

*Output:* \( U_i|\psi_0\rangle \)

Classical variable: \( i \in \mathbb{N} \)

Quantum variable: \(|\psi\rangle \in \tilde{H} \)

1. swap \(|\psi\rangle\) with \(|\psi_0\rangle\)
2. for \( i = 1 \) to \( k \)
   (a) set \(|\psi\rangle = \text{C-NOT}(r_{i-1}, r_i)|\psi\rangle\);
3. for \( i = k - 1 \) to 1
   (a) set \(|\psi\rangle = \text{C-NOT}(r_{i-1}, r_i)|\psi\rangle\);

where the non-trivial gate \( \text{C-NOT}(r_{i-1}, r_i) \) is the transposition such that:

\[
\begin{aligned}
\text{C-NOT}(r_i, r_{i-1})|r_i\rangle &= |r_{i-1}\rangle \\
\text{C-NOT}(r_i, r_{i-1})|r_{i-1}\rangle &= |r_i\rangle \\
\text{C-NOT}(r_i, r_{i-1})|w\rangle &= |w\rangle \quad \text{for all } w \neq |r_{i-1}\rangle, |r_i\rangle.
\end{aligned}
\]

In Fig. 2 one can find a canonical construction of such controlled gates requiring \( O(n) \).

We conclude that any Boolean function of \( n \) bits can be implemented using \( O(n^2 2^n) \) C-NOT gates and \( O(2^n) \) Pauli-X gates. This means that a query quantum circuit for inspecting a list of \( N \) elements can be built using \( O(N \log^2 N) = \tilde{O}(N) \) gates.

The overall circuit complexity of our quantum pattern matching algorithm — excluding the initial setup — is \( O(N^{3/2} \log^2 (N) \log(M)) \), versus \( O(M N^2) \) for a classical circuit (note that one needs \( O(N) \) classical Boolean gates to produce a circuit that reads an arbitrary database of size \( N \)).

It remains to explain the cost of setting up the initial state \(|\psi_0\rangle\), given by equation (1), assuming that initially all qubits are set to \( |0\rangle \). Since we need \( M \) variables ranging from 1 to \( N \), we will require \( M \log(N) \) qubits to encode the quantum state of the program. We assume that \( N - M = 2^s \) for some positive integer \( s \) (if this is not the case, we can augment the size of the string \( N \) until this desideratum is fulfilled and assume that no letter occurs in the augmented part of the string).

We start by creating a uniform superposition of the \( s \) qubits encoding the position of the first symbol of the pattern \( p \). This is obtained by simply applying a Hadamard gate to each of these qubits, as shown in Fig. 2 for \( s = 3 \), and thus it can be achieved in \( O(s) \). The next step is to entangle these qubits with the ones encoding the position of the second symbol of \( p \), and so on. We detail the process to do this for the second symbol of \( p \), and the final state is obtained by iterating this process \( M - 2 \) times.

First we create the state \( \sum_{i=0}^{2^s-1} |i, i\rangle \), which can be achieved by applying controlled Pauli-X gates, as depicted in the box of Fig. 2 for \( s = 3 \). Finally, to obtain the particular sequence encoding the order of the symbols of \( p \), we apply a sequence of \( O(\log^2 (N-M)) \) multi-controlled Pauli-X gates, as show in Fig. 2. These multi-controlled Pauli-X gates can be implemented using \( O(\log(N-M)) \) C-NOT and Pauli-X gates, and thus the overall circuit complexity to construct this particular entanglement is \( O(\log^3 (N-M)) \).

![Fig. 2: Core of the circuit to generate the initial state |φ₀⟩ given by equation (1). The first/second set of \( s \) lines (in this example, \( s = 3 \)) represent the qubits encoding the position of the first/second symbol of the pattern. For the third symbol, we apply this same circuit excluding the Hadamard operations to a new set of \( s \) qubits, controlled by the qubits of the second symbol, and so on. This procedure must then be iterated another \( M - 3 \) times, yielding an overall complexity of \( O(M \log^3 (N-M)) \).](image-url)
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[12] Given the current models of quantum computer.
[13] Yet, Grover’s algorithm can be extremely useful and represent an effective speed-up for other search problems, as for instance in checking if the elements of a list are solutions of a given NP-complete problem, where the query function plays the role of the verifier and can be easily implemented.