


PHYC90045 Introduction to Quantum Computing

**This Week**

**Lecture 9**  
Fourier Transformations, Regular Fourier Transform, Fourier Transform as a matrix, Quantum Fourier Transform, QFT examples, Inverse QFT

**Lecture 10**  
Shor's Quantum Factoring algorithm, Shor's algorithm for factoring and discrete logarithm, HSP Problem

**Lab 5**  
QFT and Shor's algorithm




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**Quantum Factoring Algorithm**

Physics 90045  
Lecture 10




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**Quantum factoring algorithm**

- Shor's Factoring algorithm
  - Shor's algorithm for factoring and discrete logarithm
  - HSP Problem
  - RSA cryptography

Reiffel, Chapter 8  
Kaye, Chapter 7  
Nielsen and Chuang, Chapter 5




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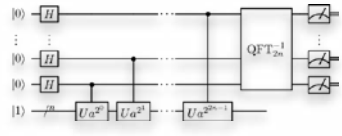
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### Shor's algorithm

- Efficient quantum algorithms for **factoring** semiprime numbers
- Best known classical algorithm is number field sieve (exponential in bit-length).
- Underpins the RSA cryptosystem
- Hidden Subgroup Problems (eg. Discrete logarithm) similar.



Peter Shor



Shor, Proc 35<sup>th</sup> Ann Symp of Comp Sci, 26, (1995)

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### Factoring and Period Finding

We want to factor  $N=15$ . Take a number  $a=2$  (say) relatively-prime to  $N$  (ie. no prime factors in common) and find the *order*  $r$  of  $a$ . That is the least  $r$ , such that  $a^r \equiv 1 \pmod{15}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} 2^0 &\equiv 1 \pmod{15} \\ 2^1 &\equiv 2 \pmod{15} \\ 2^2 &\equiv 4 \pmod{15} \\ 2^3 &\equiv 8 \pmod{15} \\ 2^4 &\equiv 1 \pmod{15} \end{aligned}$$

After which the pattern repeats.

Formally, we say: the **order** of  $2 \pmod{15}$  is 4. Or, if we defined a function:

$$f(k) = a^k \pmod{N}$$

We would say that the **period** of  $f$  is  $r$ , since  $f(x+r) = f(x)$ .

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### Example of finding factors from a period

In our case, we have  $a=2$ ,  $N=15$  and  $r=4$ . Happily  $r=4$  is even. We can rearrange:

$$\begin{aligned} a^r &\equiv 1 \pmod{N} \\ a^r - 1 &\equiv 0 \pmod{N} \\ (a^{r/2} + 1)(a^{r/2} - 1) &\equiv 0 \pmod{N} \end{aligned}$$

In our case,

$$\begin{aligned} a^{r/2} - 1 &= 2^{4/2} - 1 = 3 \\ a^{r/2} + 1 &= 2^{4/2} + 1 = 5 \end{aligned}$$

and

$3 \times 5 = 15$

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### Divisors of N

In our case 3 and 5 divide  $N=15$  exactly, but we're not guaranteed that always, only that:

$$(a^{r/2} + 1)(a^{r/2} - 1) = 0 \pmod{N}$$

ie. that

$$(a^{r/2} + 1)(a^{r/2} - 1) = kN$$

As long as neither factor is a multiple of  $N$ , then both will have non-trivial factors with  $N$ . To find these factors, we find the greatest common divisors (for which the Euclidean algorithm is efficient):

$$\gcd(a^{r/2} + 1, N)$$

$$\gcd(a^{r/2} - 1, N)$$

These give a **non-trivial factor of  $N$** .

If  $r$  is even or if the factors found are trivial, we repeat the algorithm with a different choice of  $a$ .

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### TLDR: Factoring and Period finding

If we can find the period of

$$f(k) = a^k \pmod{N}$$

efficiently, we can factor efficiently.

Shor's algorithm finds this period efficiently, and we can then use classical techniques to factor semi-prime numbers into their prime factors.

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### Shor's algorithm

Two registers\*:

(1) Equal superposition

(2) Calculate function:  
 $f(x) = a^x \pmod{N}$

(3) QFT

(4) Measure result

\*  $L$  = number of bits in  $N$

Shor, Proc 35<sup>th</sup> Ann Symp of Comp Sci, 26, (1995)

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### Shor's algorithm explained

After the Hadamard gates, the top register is in the equal superposition:

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle |1\rangle$$


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### Modular Exponentiation

Multiplication by  $a^1, a^2, a^4, \dots \text{mod } N$

For example if the top register contained  $x = 101$ , and  $a=2$ , and  $N=15$  then we would:

- Start with 1
- Multiply by  $a^1=2^1=2$  giving  $2 \text{ mod } 15$
- Not multiply by  $a^2=2^2=4$
- Multiply by  $a^4=2^4=16$  giving  $32 \text{ or } 2 \text{ mod } 15$

Top register in superposition, so bottom register is correlated (entangled) with the top register

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### Example of Modular Exponentiaion

After modular exponentiation:

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_x |x\rangle |a^x \text{ mod } N\rangle$$

e.g. For  $a=2$ ,  $N=15$ :

$$|\psi\rangle = (|0\rangle + |4\rangle + |8\rangle + |12\rangle) \otimes |1\rangle + (|1\rangle + |5\rangle + |9\rangle + |13\rangle) \otimes |2\rangle + (|2\rangle + |6\rangle + |10\rangle + |14\rangle) \otimes |4\rangle + (|3\rangle + |7\rangle + |11\rangle + |15\rangle) \otimes |8\rangle$$

Note: States are unnormalized! (for simplicity)

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### Shor's algorithm explained

If, at this point the bottom register is measured to be 2 (at random), we may collapse to the state:

$$|\psi\rangle = (|1\rangle + |5\rangle + |9\rangle + |13\rangle) \otimes |2\rangle$$


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### The Fourier Transform

Imagine we measure the bottom register, and plot the amplitudes in the top register:

$$|\psi\rangle = (|1\rangle + |5\rangle + |9\rangle + |13\rangle) \otimes |2\rangle$$

This function is periodic, with a period of  $r$ .

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### Taking the QFT

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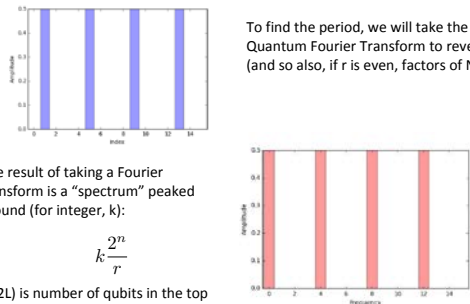
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### Inverse QFT for $N=15$ , $a=2$



To find the period, we will take the Quantum Fourier Transform to reveal  $r$  (and so also, if  $r$  is even, factors of  $N$ ).

The result of taking a Fourier transform is a "spectrum" peaked around (for integer,  $k$ ):

$$k \frac{2^n}{r}$$

$n$  ( $2n$ ) is number of qubits in the top register  $r$  is the period being determined

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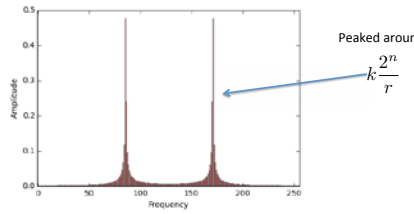
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### When $r$ doesn't divide evenly

What happens when  $r$  doesn't divide evenly into the top register? Then we still get a very peaked distribution around the same values:



Here is an example for  $r=3$  and  $2^n=256$ .

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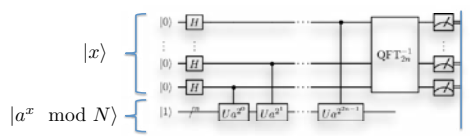
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### Measurement



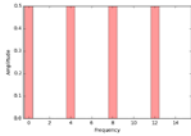
Measurement will randomly give one of these values, close to:

$$m = k \frac{2^n}{r}$$

or

$$\frac{k}{r} = \frac{m}{2^n}$$

We need a rational approximation of  $m/2^n$  to find  $r$ .




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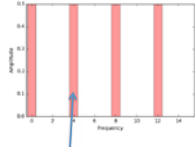
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### Example for $a=2$ , $N=15$

In our example:



We might randomly measure  $m=4$

$$\frac{k}{r} = \frac{m}{2^n} \quad \text{and in this case:} \quad \frac{m}{2^n} = \frac{4}{16} = \frac{1}{4}$$

Since this is equal to  $k/r$ ,  
We have correctly found  
 $r=4$

Note: This step might only reveal a factor of  $r$ , and so might have to be repeated...

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### Continued Fractions

The result of taking a Fourier transform is a spectrum peaked around (for integer,  $k$ ):

$$k \frac{2^n}{r}$$

Unless  $r$  divides  $2^n$  exactly, we will only get an approximation to  $k2^n/r$  when measured.

Most of the time  $2^n$  and  $r$  will be relatively prime. The problem then is find good approximations to the measured value  $m/2^n = k/r$ . The “correct” approximation yields the period,  $r$ , as the denominator.

A good method for making *rational approximations* is to use the **continued fractions** method.

$$a_0 + \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{a_2 + \frac{1}{\dots \frac{1}{a_n}}}}$$


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### Continued Fraction of Pi

As an example, let's try to make a rational approximation to  $\pi$ . Our first approximation is

$$\pi \approx 3 \quad (a_0 = 3)$$

The remaining decimal part is  $0.14159265... = 1/7.0625...$ . This gives a second approximation:

$$\pi \approx 3 + \frac{1}{7} \quad (a_1 = 7)$$

The remaining decimal part  $0.0625 = 1/15.9966...$ . This gives a third approximation:

$$\pi \approx 3 + \frac{1}{7 + \frac{1}{15}} \quad (a_2 = 15)$$

And so on. This method can be used to find good rational approximations to  $\sqrt{2}$  and find  $r$ .

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### Example: Factoring the number

$$a^{r/2} - 1 = 2^{4/2} - 1 = 3$$

$$a^{r/2} + 1 = 2^{4/2} + 1 = 5$$

Not really necessary here, but in general you'd have to evaluate:

$$\gcd(3, 15) = 3$$

$$\gcd(5, 15) = 5$$

And so we've found two non-trivial factors of 15:

$3 \times 5 = 15$

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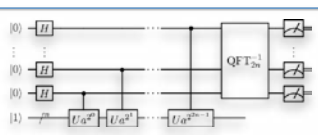
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### Shor's algorithm Summary



1. Randomly pick integer  $0 < a < N$  (and check  $a$  is not a factor of  $N$ )
2. Apply the circuit above, using modular exponentiation to calculate  $a^x$ , QFT  $x$ .
3. Measure to obtain an approximation to  $v = k \cdot 2^n / r$
4. Use continued fractions of  $v/2^n$  to obtain even  $r$
5. Use Euclidean algorithm to find common factors of  $N$  with  $(a^{r/2}+1)$  and  $(a^{r/2}-1)$
6. Repeat if necessary

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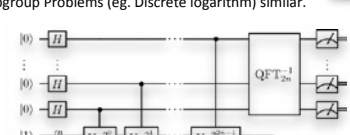
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### Shor's algorithm

- Efficient quantum algorithms for **factoring** semiprime numbers
- Best known classical algorithm is number field sieve (exponential in bit-length).
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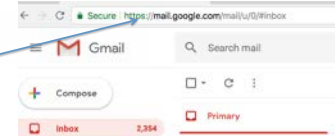
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## Private Key Cryptography

Much of internet security relies on 'public key cryptography'.



RSA cryptography relies on the difficulty of factoring large semi-primes.

The best known **classical algorithm** is the number field sieve:

$$O(e^{1.9(\log N)^{1/3}(\log \log N)^{2/3}})$$

Shor's factoring **quantum algorithm** solves the same problem in poly-log time:

$$O((\log N)^2(\log \log N)(\log \log \log N))$$


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## RSA Factoring Challenge

RSA-100	100	638	May 8, 2010	S. A. Danilov and I. A. Ponomarev, Moscow State University
RSA-100	100	629	November 9, 2010	A. Trudgian and J. A. Pomeroy
RSA-140	140	640	November 2, 2005	Jens Franke et al., University of Bonn
RSA-200	200	660	May 9, 2005	Jens Franke et al., University of Bonn
RSA-210	210	698	September 10, 2010	Ryan Propper
RSA-768	768	754	July 2, 2012	Shi Bai, Emmanuel Thomé and Peter Zimmermann
RSA-220	220	729	May 13, 2016	S. Bai, P. Gaubaty, A. Krupar, E. Thomé and P. Zimmermann
RSA-230	230	762	August 15, 2018	Samuel S. Gross, Nixia, Inc.
RSA-250	250	768	December 12, 2009	Thorsten Wenzel et al.
RSA-240	240	795		

RSA Factoring Challenge, Wikipedia

Factoring a 768 bit number took ~1,500 years CPU time (largest RSA factoring challenge solved).

Factoring a 2048 bit number is estimated will take ~1 day on a large scale quantum computer (running at typical speeds, and low error).

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## Discrete Logarithm

A closely related class of problems which are important for cryptography are solving discrete logarithm problems:

Given, **a**, **b** and **N**, st.

$$a = b^t \bmod N$$

find **t**.

RSA is based on factoring. Diffie-Hellman key exchange, El Gamal and elliptic curve cryptography rely on discrete logarithm being a hard problem.

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### Circuit for Discrete Logarithm

Measurement of the second register reveals:  $k/r$   
 Measurement of the first register reveals:  $kt \bmod r/r$  Note: same  $k!$

At least in principle we can know  $r$  by Shor's factoring algorithm, so only  $t$  is unknown, and can easily find:

$$k^{-1}kt = t \bmod r$$


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### Hidden Subgroup Problems

The generalisation of Shor's algorithm to arbitrary groups is known as the Hidden Subgroup Problem:

Let  $G$  be a group. Suppose a subgroup  $H < G$  is implicitly defined by  $f$  on  $G$  st  $f$  is a constant (and distinct) on every coset of  $H$ . Find the generators of  $H$ .

Simon's algorithm and Shor's algorithm are examples of Hidden Subgroup Problems (HSPs).

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### Addition with QFT

Now we need to build the basic arithmetical operations to implement Shor's algorithm.

Addition using the QFT (more in Lab-5):

$$a = a_1 2^{n-1} + a_2 2^{n-2} + \dots + a_{n-1} 2 + a_n$$

$$b = b_1 2^{n-1} + b_2 2^{n-2} + \dots + b_{n-1} 2 + b_n$$

$$s = a + b = s_1 2^{n-1} + s_2 2^{n-2} + \dots + s_{n-1} 2 + s_n$$

QFT

QFT\*

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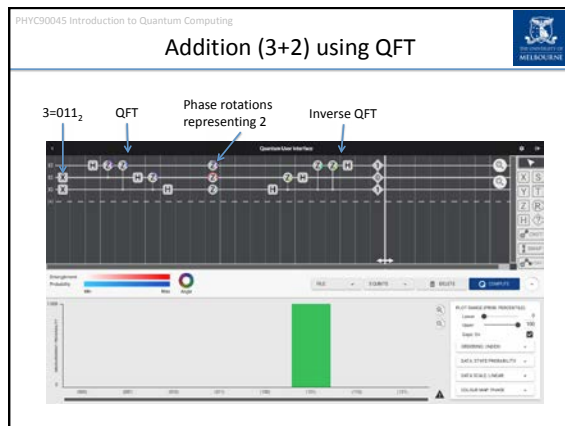
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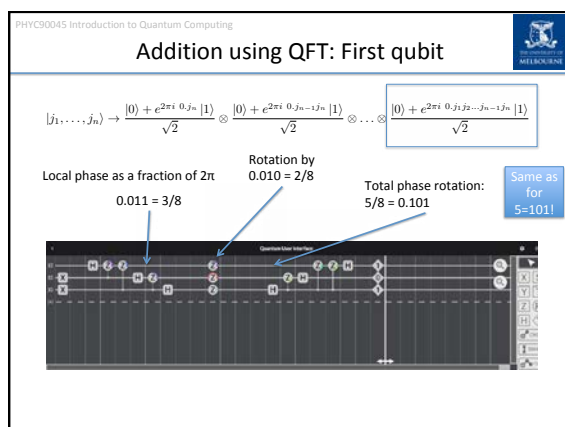
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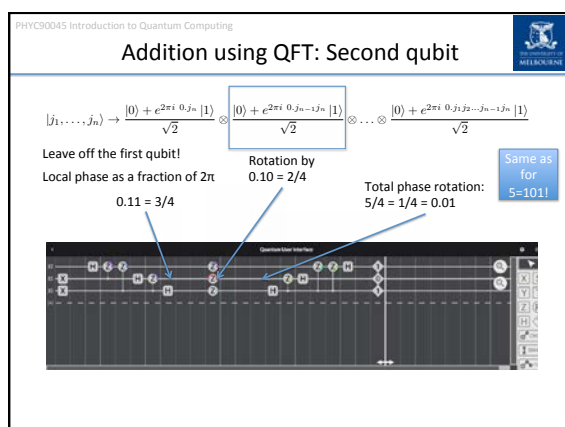
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### Addition using QFT: Third qubit

$|j_1, \dots, j_n\rangle \rightarrow \frac{|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i \cdot 0 \cdot j_n} |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \otimes \frac{|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i \cdot 0 \cdot j_{n-1} - 1 \cdot j_n} |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \otimes \dots \otimes \frac{|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i \cdot 0 \cdot j_1 j_2 \dots j_{n-1} - 1 \cdot j_n} |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$

Leave off the first two qubits!  
Local phase as a fraction of  $2\pi$

$0.1 = \frac{1}{10}$   
 $\frac{2\pi}{10} = \frac{\pi}{5}$

Rotation by  
 $0.0 = 0$   
 $\frac{2\pi}{10} = \frac{\pi}{5}$

Total phase rotation:  
 $0 + \frac{1}{10} = \frac{1}{10} = 0.1$   
 $\frac{2\pi}{10} = \frac{\pi}{5}$

Same as for 5=101!

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### Addition using QFT: Third qubit

$|j_1, \dots, j_n\rangle \rightarrow \frac{|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i \cdot 0 \cdot j_n} |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \otimes \frac{|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i \cdot 0 \cdot j_{n-1} - 1 \cdot j_n} |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \otimes \dots \otimes \frac{|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i \cdot 0 \cdot j_1 j_2 \dots j_{n-1} - 1 \cdot j_n} |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$

Leave off the first two qubits!

Total phase rotation:  
 $0 + \frac{1}{10} = \frac{1}{10} = 0.1$   
 $\frac{2\pi}{10} = \frac{\pi}{5}$

$\pi$  rotation means H makes this state "1"

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### Addition using QFT: Second qubit

$|j_1, \dots, j_n\rangle \rightarrow \frac{|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i \cdot 0 \cdot j_n} |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \otimes \frac{|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i \cdot 0 \cdot j_{n-1} - 1 \cdot j_n} |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \otimes \dots \otimes \frac{|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i \cdot 0 \cdot j_1 j_2 \dots j_{n-1} - 1 \cdot j_n} |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$

Leave off the first qubit!  
Local phase as a fraction of  $2\pi$

Total phase rotation:  
 $\frac{5}{4} = \frac{1}{4} = 0.25$   
 $\frac{2\pi}{4} = \frac{\pi}{2}$

Controlled operation cancels the  $2\pi/4$  rotation

No remaining phase, leaves qubit in 0 state

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### Addition using QFT: First qubit

$$|j_1, \dots, j_n\rangle \rightarrow \frac{|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i \cdot 0 \cdot j_n} |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \otimes \frac{|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i \cdot 0 \cdot j_{n-1}} |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \otimes \dots \otimes \frac{|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i \cdot 0 \cdot j_1} |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Local phase as a fraction of  $2\pi$

Total phase rotation:  
 $\frac{5}{8} = 0.101_2$

Gives the answer,  $3+2=5$

Controlled operation cancels the  $2\pi/8$  rotation

Remaining  $\pi$  phase, leaves qubit in 1 state

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### Multiplier

$$a \cdot b = (a_n 2^n + a_{n-1} 2^{n-1} + \dots + a_2 4 + a_1 \cdot 2 + a_0 \cdot 1)b$$

$$= a_n 2^n b + a_{n-1} 2^{n-1} b + \dots + a_2 4b + a_1 2b + a_0 b$$

← Add  $2^n b$  iff  $a_n=1$ . Key idea: Use  $a_n$  as a control qubit for addition

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### Multiplication (2x3) using QFT

2 = 010<sub>2</sub>

Add 3 iff the ones bit is a 1

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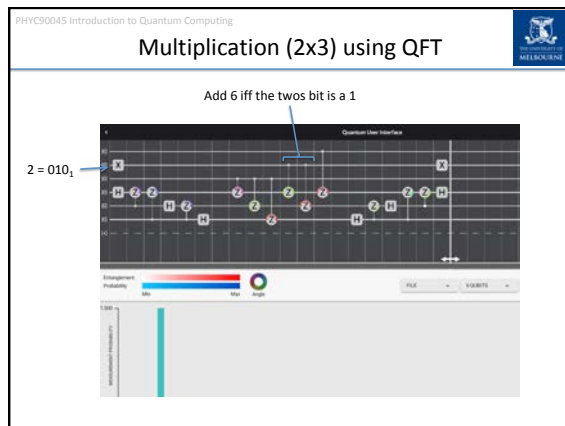
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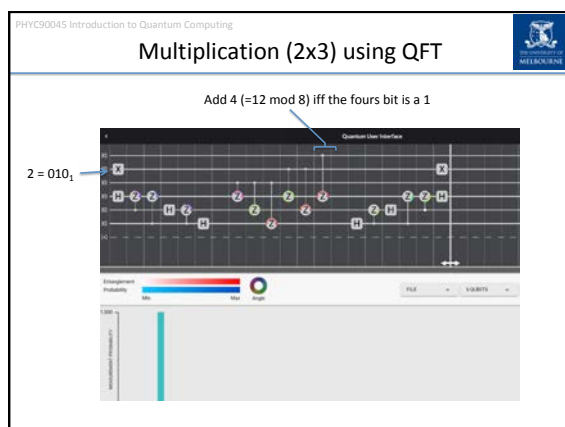
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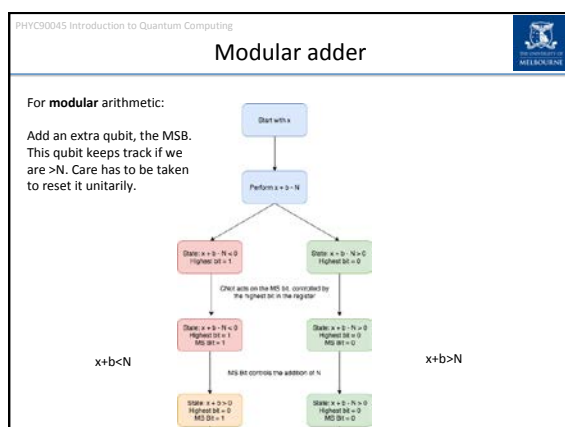
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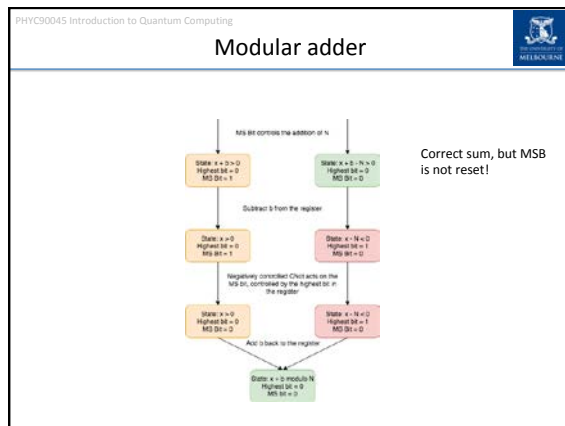
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### This Week

**Lecture 9**  
Fourier Transformations, Regular Fourier Transform, Fourier Transform as a matrix, Quantum Fourier Transform, QFT examples, Inverse QFT

**Lecture 10**  
Shor's Quantum Factoring algorithm, Shor's algorithm for factoring and discrete logarithm, HSP Problem, QFT Arithmetic

**Lab 5**  
QFT and Shor's algorithm

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