



EURO

Fundamental Quantum Computing Algorithms and Their Implementation in Qiskit

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NATIONAL SUPERCOMPUTING
CENTER

Aims of the training

- ❶ Familiarize you with the quantum computing
- ❷ Show the possible advantage of quantum computers on specific tasks

EURO

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1 Day 2

- Grover's algorithm
- Quantum Fourier Transform
- Quantum Phase Estimation
- Shor's algorithm
- Q&A and Closing the event

Timetable of day 2

9:00-10:30 Grover's algorithm

10:30-10:45 Break

10:45-12:00 Quantum Fourier Transform

12:00-13:00 Lunch Break

13:00-14:00 Quantum Phase Estimation

14:00-14:15 Break

14:15-15:45 Shor's algorithm

15:45 Q&A and Closing the event

Probably we will end sooner.

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Unstructured search

Let $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ denote the binary alphabet (throughout the lesson).
Suppose we're given a function

$$f : \Sigma^n \rightarrow \Sigma$$

that we can *compute efficiently*.

Our goal is to find a *solution*, which is a binary string $x \in \Sigma^n$ for which $f(x) = 1$.

Search

Input: $f : \Sigma^n \rightarrow \Sigma$

Output: a string $x \in \Sigma^n$ satisfying $f(x) = 1$, or “no solution” if no such strings exist.

This is *unstructured* search because f is arbitrary — there's *no promise* and we can't rely on it having a structure that makes finding solutions easy.

Algorithms for search

Search

Input: $f : \Sigma^n \rightarrow \Sigma$

Output: a string $x \in \Sigma^n$ satisfying $f(x) = 1$, or “no solution” if no such strings exist.

Hereafter let us write

$$N = 2^n$$

By iterating through all $x \in \Sigma^n$ and evaluating f on each one, we can solve **Search** with N queries.

This is the best we can do with a *deterministic* algorithm.

Probabilistic algorithms offer minor improvements, but still require a number of queries linear in N .

Grover's algorithm is a *quantum algorithm* for **Search** requiring $O(\sqrt{N})$ queries.

Phase query gates

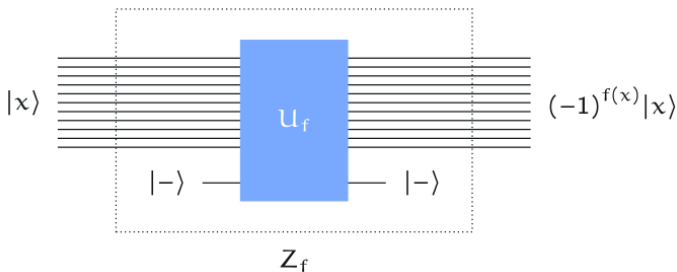
We assume that we have access to the function $f : \Sigma^n \rightarrow \Sigma$ through a query gate:

$$\mathbf{U}_f : |a\rangle|x\rangle \mapsto |a \oplus f(x)\rangle|x\rangle \quad (\text{for all } a \in \Sigma \text{ and } x \in \Sigma^n)$$

(We can build a circuit for \mathbf{U}_f given a Boolean circuit for f .)

The *phase query gate* for f operates like this:

$$\mathbf{Z}_f : |x\rangle \mapsto (-1)^{f(x)}|x\rangle \quad (\text{for all } x \in \Sigma^n)$$



Phase query gates

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$$\mathbf{Z}_f : |x\rangle \mapsto (-1)^{f(x)}|x\rangle \quad (\text{for all } x \in \Sigma^n)$$

We're also going to need a phase query gate for the n -bit OR function:

$$\text{OR}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x = 0^n \\ 1 & x \neq 0^n \end{cases} \quad (\text{for all } x \in \Sigma^n)$$

$$Z_{\text{OR}}|x\rangle = \begin{cases} |x\rangle & x = 0^n \\ -|x\rangle & x \neq 0^n \end{cases} \quad (\text{for all } x \in \Sigma^n)$$

Algorithm description

Grover's algorithm

- ➊ *Initialize*: set n qubits to the state $H^{\otimes n}|0^n\rangle$.
- ➋ *Iterate*: apply the *Grover operation* t times (for t to be specified later).
- ➌ *Measure*: a standard basis measurement yields a candidate solution.

The Grover operation is defined like this:

$$G = H^{\otimes n} Z_{\text{OR}} H^{\otimes n} Z_f$$

Z_f is the phase query gate for f and Z_{OR} is the phase query gate for the n -bit OR function.

Algorithm description

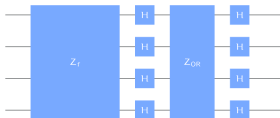
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A typical way that Grover's algorithm can be applied:

- 1 Choose the number of iterations t (next section).
- 2 Run Grover's algorithm with t iterations to get a candidate solution x .
- 3 Check the solution. If $f(x) = 1$ then output x , otherwise either run Grover's algorithm again (possibly with a different t) or report "no solutions."

Solutions and non-solutions

We'll refer to the n qubits being used for Grover's algorithm as a register \mathbf{Q} .

We're interested in what happens when \mathbf{Q} is initialized to the state $H^{\otimes n}|0^n\rangle$ and the Grover operation G is performed iteratively.

$$G = H^{\otimes n} Z_{\text{OR}} H^{\otimes n} Z_f$$

These are the sets of non-solutions and solutions:

$$\mathcal{A}_0 = \{x \in \Sigma^n : f(x) = 0\}$$

$$\mathcal{A}_1 = \{x \in \Sigma^n : f(x) = 1\}$$

We will be interested in *uniform superpositions* over these sets:

$$|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathcal{A}_0|}} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{A}_0} |x\rangle$$

$$|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathcal{A}_1|}} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{A}_1} |x\rangle$$

Analysis: basic idea

$$\mathcal{A}_0 = \{x \in \Sigma^n : f(x) = 0\} \quad \mathcal{A}_1 = \{x \in \Sigma^n : f(x) = 1\}$$
$$|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathcal{A}_0|}} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{A}_0} |x\rangle \quad |\mathcal{A}_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathcal{A}_1|}} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{A}_1} |x\rangle$$

The register **Q** is first initialized to this state:

$$|u\rangle = H^{\otimes n} |0^n\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x \in \Sigma^n} |x\rangle$$

This state is contained in the subspace spanned by $|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle$ and $|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$:

$$|u\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_0|}{N}} |\mathcal{A}_0\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}} |\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

The state of **Q** *remains in this subspace* after every application of the Grover operation G .

Action of the Grover operation

We can better understand the Grover operation by splitting it into two parts:

$$G = (H^{\otimes n} Z_{\text{OR}} H^{\otimes n}) (Z_f)$$

❶ Recall that Z_f is defined like this:

$$Z_f|x\rangle = (-1)^{f(x)}|x\rangle \quad (\text{for all } x \in \Sigma^n)$$

Its action on $|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle$ and $|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$ is simple:

$$\begin{aligned} Z_f|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle &= |\mathcal{A}_0\rangle \\ Z_f|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle &= -|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle \end{aligned}$$

Action of the Grover operation

We can better understand the Grover operation by splitting it into two parts:

$$G = (H^{\otimes n} Z_{\text{OR}} H^{\otimes n}) (Z_f)$$

② The operation Z_{OR} is defined like this:

$$Z_{\text{OR}}|x\rangle = \begin{cases} |x\rangle & x = 0^n \\ -|x\rangle & x \neq 0^n \end{cases} \quad (\text{for all } x \in \Sigma^n)$$

Here's an alternative way to express Z_{OR} :

$$Z_{\text{OR}} = 2|0^n\rangle\langle 0^n| - I$$

Using this expression, we can write $H^{\otimes n} Z_{\text{OR}} H^{\otimes n}$ like this:

$$H^{\otimes n} Z_{\text{OR}} H^{\otimes n} = H^{\otimes n} (2|0^n\rangle\langle 0^n| - I) H^{\otimes n} = 2|u\rangle\langle u| - I$$

Action of the Grover operation

$$Z_f|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle = |\mathcal{A}_0\rangle$$

$$Z_f|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle = -|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

$$|u\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_0|}{N}}|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}}|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

$$G|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle = (2|u\rangle\langle u| - I)Z_f|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle$$

$$= (2|u\rangle\langle u| - I)|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle$$

$$= 2\sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_0|}{N}}|u\rangle - |\mathcal{A}_0\rangle$$

$$= 2\sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_0|}{N}}\left(\sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_0|}{N}}|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}}|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle\right) - |\mathcal{A}_0\rangle$$

$$= \frac{|\mathcal{A}_0| - |\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle + \frac{2\sqrt{|\mathcal{A}_0||\mathcal{A}_1|}}{N}|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

Action of the Grover operation

$$Z_f|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle = |\mathcal{A}_0\rangle$$

$$Z_f|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle = -|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

$$|u\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_0|}{N}}|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}}|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

$$G|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle = \frac{|\mathcal{A}_0| - |\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle + \frac{2\sqrt{|\mathcal{A}_0||\mathcal{A}_1|}}{N}|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

$$G|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle = (2|u\rangle\langle u| - I)Z_f|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

$$= (1 - 2|u\rangle\langle u|)|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

$$= |\mathcal{A}_1\rangle - 2\sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}}|u\rangle$$

$$= |\mathcal{A}_1\rangle - 2\sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_0|}{N}}\left(\sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_0|}{N}}|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}}|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle\right)$$

Action of the Grover operation

$$Z_f|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle = |\mathcal{A}_0\rangle$$

$$Z_f|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle = -|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

$$|u\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_0|}{N}}|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}}|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

$$G|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle = \frac{|\mathcal{A}_0| - |\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle + \frac{2\sqrt{|\mathcal{A}_0||\mathcal{A}_1|}}{N}|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

$$G|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle = -\frac{2\sqrt{|\mathcal{A}_0||\mathcal{A}_1|}}{N}|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle + \frac{|\mathcal{A}_0| - |\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}|\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

The action of G on $\text{span}\{|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle, |\mathcal{A}_1\rangle\}$ can be described by a 2×2 matrix:

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{|\mathcal{A}_0| - |\mathcal{A}_1|}{N} & -\frac{2\sqrt{|\mathcal{A}_0||\mathcal{A}_1|}}{N} \\ \frac{2\sqrt{|\mathcal{A}_0||\mathcal{A}_1|}}{N} & \frac{|\mathcal{A}_0| - |\mathcal{A}_1|}{N} \end{pmatrix}$$

Rotation by an angle

The action of G on $\text{span}\{|\mathcal{A}_0\rangle, |\mathcal{A}_1\rangle\}$ can be described by a 2×2 matrix:

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{|\mathcal{A}_0| - |\mathcal{A}_1|}{N} & -\frac{2\sqrt{|\mathcal{A}_0||\mathcal{A}_1|}}{N} \\ \frac{2\sqrt{|\mathcal{A}_0||\mathcal{A}_1|}}{N} & \frac{|\mathcal{A}_0| - |\mathcal{A}_1|}{N} \end{pmatrix} = \left(\begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_0|}{N}} & -\sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}} \\ \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}} & \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_0|}{N}} \end{pmatrix} \right)^2$$

This is a *rotation* matrix.

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_0|}{N}} & -\sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}} \\ \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}} & \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_0|}{N}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \quad \theta = \sin^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}} \right)$$
$$M = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(2\theta) & -\sin(2\theta) \\ \sin(2\theta) & \cos(2\theta) \end{pmatrix}$$

Rotation by an angle

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(2\theta) & -\sin(2\theta) \\ \sin(2\theta) & \cos(2\theta) \end{pmatrix} \quad \theta = \sin^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}} \right)$$

After the initialization step, this is the state of the register \mathbf{Q} :

$$|u\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_0|}{N}} |\mathcal{A}_0\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{|\mathcal{A}_1|}{N}} |\mathcal{A}_1\rangle = \cos(\theta) |\mathcal{A}_0\rangle + \sin(\theta) |\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

Each time the Grover operation G is performed, the state of \mathbf{Q} is rotated by an angle 2θ :

$$|u\rangle = \cos(\theta) |\mathcal{A}_0\rangle + \sin(\theta) |\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

$$G|u\rangle = \cos(3\theta) |\mathcal{A}_0\rangle + \sin(3\theta) |\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

$$G^2|u\rangle = \cos(5\theta) |\mathcal{A}_0\rangle + \sin(5\theta) |\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

$$\vdots$$

$$G^t|u\rangle = \cos((2t+1)\theta) |\mathcal{A}_0\rangle + \sin((2t+1)\theta) |\mathcal{A}_1\rangle$$

Geometric picture

Main idea

The operation $G = H^{\otimes n} Z_{OR} H^{\otimes n} Z_f$ is a composition of *two reflections*:

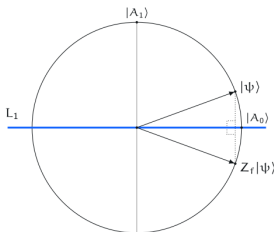
$$Z_f \quad \text{and} \quad H^{\otimes n} Z_{OR} H^{\otimes n}$$

Composing two reflections yields a *rotation*.

1. Recall that Z_f has this action on the 2-dimensional space spanned by $|A_0\rangle$ and $|A_1\rangle$:

$$\begin{aligned} Z_f |A_0\rangle &= |A_0\rangle \\ Z_f |A_1\rangle &= -|A_1\rangle \end{aligned}$$

This is a *reflection* about the line L_1 parallel to $|A_0\rangle$.



Geometric picture

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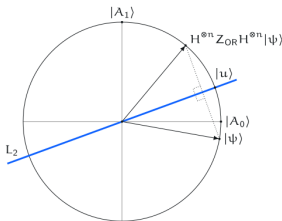
$$Z_f \quad \text{and} \quad H^{\otimes n} Z_{OR} H^{\otimes n}$$

Composing two reflections yields a *rotation*.

2. The operation $H^{\otimes n} Z_{OR} H^{\otimes n}$ can be expressed like this:

$$H^{\otimes n} Z_{OR} H^{\otimes n} = 2|u\rangle\langle u| - \mathbb{I}$$

Again this is a *reflection*, this time about the line L_2 parallel to $|u\rangle$.



Geometric picture

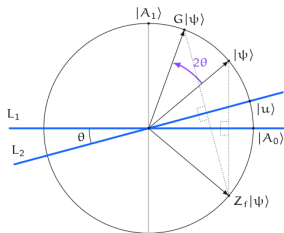
Main idea

The operation $G = H^{\otimes n} Z_{OR} H^{\otimes n} Z_f$ is a composition of *two reflections*:

$$Z_f \quad \text{and} \quad H^{\otimes n} Z_{OR} H^{\otimes n}$$

Composing two reflections yields a *rotation*.

When we compose two reflections, we obtain a *rotation* by twice the angle between the lines of reflection.



Setting the target

Consider any quantum state of this form:

$$\alpha|A_0\rangle + \beta|A_1\rangle$$

Measuring yields a solution $x \in A_1$ with probability $|\beta|^2$.

$$\alpha|A_0\rangle + \beta|A_1\rangle = \frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{|A_0|}} \sum_{x \in A_0} |x\rangle + \frac{\beta}{\sqrt{|A_1|}} \sum_{x \in A_1} |x\rangle$$

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{|\alpha|^2}{|A_0|}, & x \in A_0 \\ \frac{|\beta|^2}{|A_1|}, & x \in A_1 \end{cases}$$

$$\Pr(\text{outcome is in } A_1) = \sum_{x \in A_1} p(x) = |\beta|^2$$

Setting the target

Consider any quantum state of this form:

$$\alpha|A_0\rangle + \beta|A_1\rangle$$

Measuring yields a solution $x \in A_1$ with probability $|\beta|^2$.

The state of Q after t iterations in Grover's algorithm:

$$\cos((2t+1)\theta)|A_0\rangle + \sin((2t+1)\theta)|A_1\rangle \quad \theta = \sin^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{|A_1|}{N}} \right)$$

Measuring after t iterations gives an outcome $x \in A_1$ with probability:

$$\sin^2((2t+1)\theta)$$

We wish to maximize this probability—so we may view that $|A_1\rangle$ is our *target state*.

Setting the target

The state of Q after t iterations in Grover's algorithm:

$$\cos((2t+1)\theta)|A_0\rangle + \sin((2t+1)\theta)|A_1\rangle \quad \theta = \sin^{-1}\left(\sqrt{\frac{|A_1|}{N}}\right)$$

Measuring after t iterations gives an outcome $x \in A_1$ with probability:

$$\sin^2((2t+1)\theta)$$

To make this probability close to 1 and minimize t , we will aim for:

$$(2t+1)\theta \approx \frac{\pi}{2} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad t \approx \frac{\pi}{4\theta} - \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{closest integer} \quad \Rightarrow \quad t = \left\lfloor \frac{\pi}{4\theta} \right\rfloor$$

Important considerations:

- t must be an integer
- θ depends on the number of solutions $s = |A_1|$

Unique search

$$(2t + 1)\theta \approx \frac{\pi}{2} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad t = \left\lfloor \frac{\pi}{4\theta} \right\rfloor$$

Unique search

Input: $f : \Sigma^n \rightarrow \Sigma$

Promise: There is exactly one string $z \in \Sigma^n$ for which $f(z) = 1$,
with $f(x) = 0$ for all strings $x \neq z$

Output: The string z

For **Unique search** we have $s = |A_1| = 1$ and therefore:

$$\theta = \sin^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{N}} \right) \approx \sqrt{\frac{1}{N}}$$

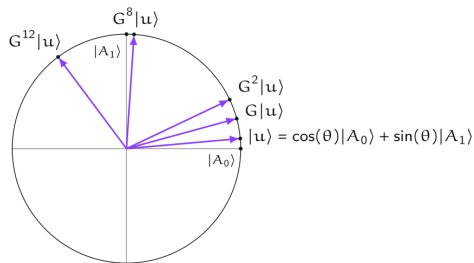
Substituting $\theta \approx 1/\sqrt{N}$ into our expression for t gives:

$$t \approx \left\lfloor \frac{\pi}{4\sqrt{N}} \right\rfloor \quad \Leftarrow \quad \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{N}) \text{ queries}$$

Unique search

Example: $N = 128$

$$\theta = \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \right) = 0.0885\dots$$
$$t = \left\lfloor \frac{\pi}{4\theta} \right\rfloor = 8$$



Unique search

$$\theta = \sin^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{N}} \right) \quad t = \left\lfloor \frac{\pi}{4\theta} \right\rfloor$$

Measuring after t iterations gives the (unique) outcome $x \in A_1$ with probability:

$$p(N, 1) = \sin^2((2t + 1)\theta)$$

Success probabilities for Unique search

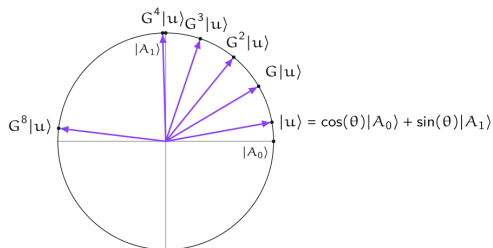
| N | $p(N, 1)$ | N | $p(N, 1)$ |
|-----|-----------|------|-----------|
| 2 | 0.5 | 128 | 0.9956199 |
| 4 | 1.0 | 256 | 0.9999470 |
| 8 | 0.9453125 | 512 | 0.9994480 |
| 16 | 0.9613190 | 1024 | 0.9994612 |
| 32 | 0.9991823 | 2048 | 0.9999968 |
| 64 | 0.9965857 | 4096 | 0.9999453 |

It can be proved analytically that $p(N, 1) > 1 - \frac{1}{N}$.

Multiple solutions

Example: $N = 128$, $s = 4$

$$\theta = \sin^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{s}{N}} \right) = 0.1777 \dots$$
$$t = \left\lfloor \frac{\pi}{4\theta} \right\rfloor = 4$$



Multiple solutions

$$\theta = \sin^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{s}{N}} \right) \quad t = \left\lfloor \frac{\pi}{4\theta} \right\rfloor$$

For every $s \in \{1, \dots, N\}$, the probability $p(N, s)$ to find a solution satisfies:

$$p(N, s) \geq \max \left\{ 1 - \frac{s}{N}, \frac{s}{N} \right\}$$

Number of queries

$$\theta = \sin^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{s}{N}} \right) \quad t = \left\lfloor \frac{\pi}{4\theta} \right\rfloor$$

Each iteration of Grover's algorithm requires 1 query (or evaluation of f). How does the number of queries t depend on N and s ?

$$\begin{aligned} \sin^{-1}(x) &\geq x \quad (\text{for every } x \in [0, 1]) \\ \theta = \sin^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{s}{N}} \right) &\geq \sqrt{\frac{s}{N}} \\ t \leq \frac{\pi}{4\theta} &\leq \frac{\pi}{4} \sqrt{\frac{N}{s}} \\ t &= \mathcal{O} \left(\sqrt{\frac{N}{s}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Unknown number of solutions

What do we do if we don't know the number of solutions in advance?

A simple approach

Choose the number of iterations $t \in \{1, \dots, \lfloor \pi\sqrt{N}/4 \rfloor\}$ *uniformly at random*.

- The probability to find a solution (if one exists) will be at least 40%. (Repeat several times to boost success probability.)
- The number of queries (or evaluations of f) is $O(\sqrt{N})$.

A more sophisticated approach

1. Set $T = 1$.
 2. Run Grover's algorithm with $t \in \{1, \dots, T\}$ chosen uniformly at random.
 3. If a solution is found, output it and stop. Otherwise, increase T and return to step 2 (or report “no solution”).
- The rate of increase of T must be carefully balanced: slower rates require more queries, higher rates decrease success probability. $T \leftarrow \lceil \frac{5}{4}T \rceil$ works.
 - If the number of solutions is $s \geq 1$, then the number of queries (or evaluations of f) required is $O(\sqrt{N/s})$. If there are no solutions, $O(\sqrt{N})$ queries are required.



1 Day 2

- Grover's algorithm
- **Quantum Fourier Transform**
- Quantum Phase Estimation
- Shor's algorithm
- Q&A and Closing the event

Spectral theorem for unitary matrices

The *spectral theorem* is an important fact in linear algebra. Here is a statement of a special case of this theorem, for *unitary matrices*.

Spectral theorem for unitary matrices

Suppose U is an $N \times N$ unitary matrix.

There exists an orthonormal basis $\{|\psi_1\rangle, \dots, |\psi_N\rangle\}$ of vectors along with complex numbers

$$\lambda_1 = e^{2\pi i\theta_1}, \dots, \lambda_N = e^{2\pi i\theta_N}$$

such that

$$U = \sum_{k=1}^N \lambda_k |\psi_k\rangle \langle \psi_k|$$

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such that

$$U = \sum_{k=1}^N \lambda_k |\psi_k\rangle \langle \psi_k|$$

Each vector $|\psi_k\rangle$ is an *eigenvector* of U having *eigenvalue* λ_k :

$$U|\psi_k\rangle = \lambda_k |\psi_k\rangle = e^{2\pi i\theta_k} |\psi_k\rangle$$

Phase estimation problem

In the phase estimation problem, we're given two things:

- 1 A description of a *unitary quantum circuit* on n qubits.
- 2 An n -qubit *quantum state* $|\psi\rangle$.

We're *promised* that $|\psi\rangle$ is an eigenvector of the unitary operation U described by the circuit, and our goal is to approximate the corresponding eigenvalue.

Phase estimation problem

Input: A unitary quantum circuit for an n -qubit operation U and an n -qubit quantum state $|\psi\rangle$
Promise: $|\psi\rangle$ is an eigenvector of U
Output: An approximation to the number $\theta \in [0, 1]$ satisfying

$$U|\psi\rangle = e^{2\pi i\theta}|\psi\rangle$$

Phase estimation problem

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- 1 A description of a *unitary quantum circuit* on n qubits.
- 2 An n -qubit *quantum state* $|\psi\rangle$.

We're *promised* that $|\psi\rangle$ is an eigenvector of the unitary operation U described by the circuit, and our goal is to approximate the corresponding eigenvalue.

Phase estimation problem

| | |
|-----------------|--|
| Input: | A unitary quantum circuit for an n -qubit operation U and an n -qubit quantum state $ \psi\rangle$ |
| Promise: | $ \psi\rangle$ is an eigenvector of U |
| Output: | An approximation to the number $\theta \in [0, 1]$ satisfying |

$$U|\psi\rangle = e^{2\pi i\theta}|\psi\rangle$$

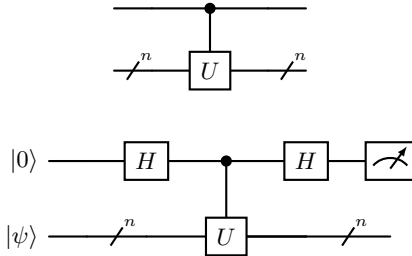
We can approximate θ by a fraction:

$$\theta \approx \frac{y}{2^m}$$

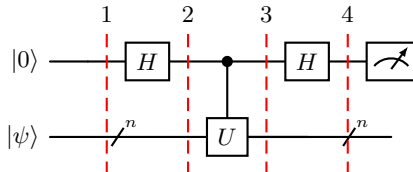
for $y \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^m - 1\}$. This approximation is taken *modulo 1*.

Warm-up: using the phase kickback

Given a circuit for U , we can create a circuit for a controlled- U operation:



Warm-up: using the phase kickback II



$$|\pi_1\rangle = |\psi\rangle|0\rangle$$

$$|\pi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|\psi\rangle|0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|\psi\rangle|1\rangle$$

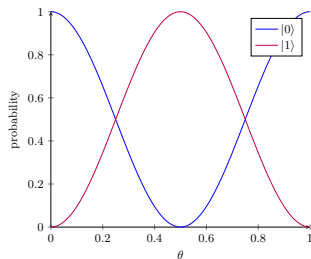
$$|\pi_3\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|\psi\rangle|0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(U|\psi\rangle)|1\rangle = |\psi\rangle \otimes \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|0\rangle + \frac{e^{2\pi i\theta}}{\sqrt{2}}|1\rangle \right)$$

$$|\pi_4\rangle = |\psi\rangle \otimes \left(\frac{1+e^{2\pi i\theta}}{2}|0\rangle + \frac{1-e^{2\pi i\theta}}{2}|1\rangle \right)$$

Warm-up: using the phase kickback III

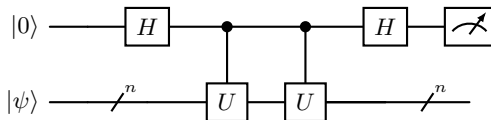
$$|\pi_4\rangle = |\psi\rangle \otimes \left(\frac{1 + e^{2\pi i\theta}}{2} |0\rangle + \frac{1 - e^{2\pi i\theta}}{2} |1\rangle \right)$$
$$p_0 = \left| \frac{1 + e^{2\pi i\theta}}{2} \right|^2 = \cos^2(\pi\theta) \quad p_1 = \left| \frac{1 - e^{2\pi i\theta}}{2} \right|^2 = \sin^2(\pi\theta)$$

Measuring the top qubit yields the outcomes 0 and 1 with these probabilities:

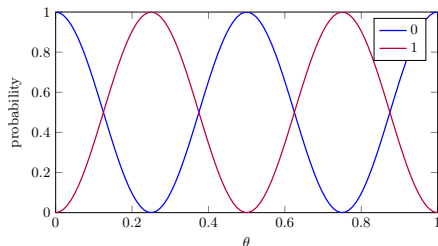


Iterating the unitary operation

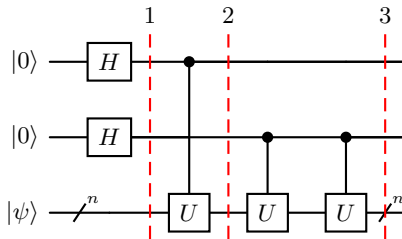
How can we learn more about θ ? One possibility is to apply the controlled- U operation twice (or multiple times):



Performing the controlled- U operation twice has the effect of squaring the eigenvalue:



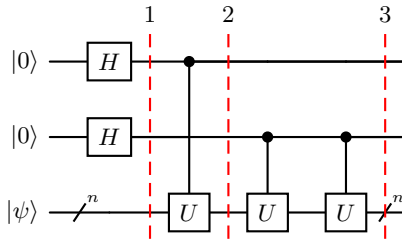
Two control qubits



$$|\pi_1\rangle = |\psi\rangle \otimes \frac{1}{2} \sum_{a_0=0}^1 \sum_{a_1=0}^1 |a_1 a_0\rangle$$

$$|\pi_2\rangle = |\psi\rangle \otimes \frac{1}{2} \sum_{a_0=0}^1 \sum_{a_1=0}^1 e^{2\pi i a_0 \theta} |a_1 a_0\rangle$$

Two control qubits



$$|\pi_3\rangle = |\psi\rangle \otimes \frac{1}{2} \sum_{a_0=0}^1 \sum_{a_1=0}^1 e^{2\pi i(2a_1+a_0)\theta} |a_1 a_0\rangle \quad (1)$$

$$= |\psi\rangle \otimes \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x=0}^3 e^{2\pi i x \theta} |x\rangle \quad (2)$$

Two control qubits

What can we learn about θ from this state? Suppose we're promised that $\theta = \frac{y}{4}$ for $y \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$. Can we figure out which one it is?

Define a two-qubit state for each possibility:

$$|\Phi_y\rangle = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x=0}^3 e^{2\pi i \frac{xy}{4}} |x\rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} |\Phi_0\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle + \frac{1}{2} |1\rangle + \frac{1}{2} |2\rangle + \frac{1}{2} |3\rangle & |\Phi_1\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle + \frac{i}{2} |1\rangle - \frac{1}{2} |2\rangle - \frac{i}{2} |3\rangle \\ |\Phi_2\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle - \frac{1}{2} |1\rangle + \frac{1}{2} |2\rangle - \frac{1}{2} |3\rangle & |\Phi_3\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle - \frac{i}{2} |1\rangle - \frac{1}{2} |2\rangle + \frac{i}{2} |3\rangle \end{aligned}$$

These vectors are *orthonormal*—so they can be discriminated perfectly by a projective measurement.

Two control qubits

Unitary Matrix Representation

$$V = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & i & -1 & -i \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -i & -1 & i \end{pmatrix} \quad (3)$$

Action of the Unitary Matrix

$$V |y\rangle = |\Phi_y\rangle \quad (\text{for every } y \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}) \quad (4)$$

Inverse Operation

We can identify y by performing the inverse of V and then a standard basis measurement:

$$V^\dagger |\Phi_y\rangle = |y\rangle \quad (\text{for every } y \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}) \quad (5)$$

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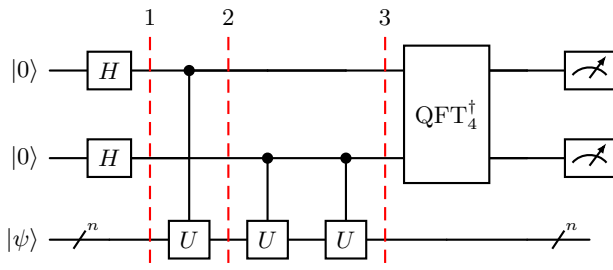
1 Day 2

- Grover's algorithm
- Quantum Fourier Transform
- **Quantum Phase Estimation**
- Shor's algorithm
- Q&A and Closing the event

Two-qubit phase estimation

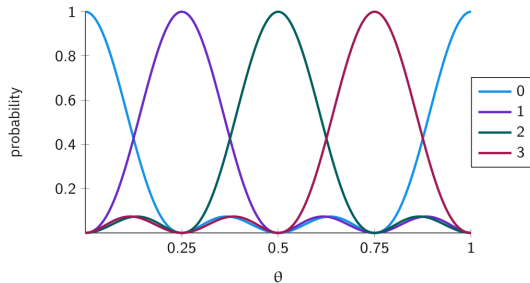
This matrix is associated with the *discrete Fourier transform* (for 4 dimensions). When we think about this matrix as a unitary operation, we call it the *quantum Fourier transform*.

The complete circuit for learning $y \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ when $\theta = y/4$:



Two-qubit phase estimation

The outcome probabilities when we run the circuit, as a function of θ :



Quantum Fourier Transform

The quantum Fourier transform is defined for each positive integer N :

$$\text{QFT}_N = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i \frac{xy}{N}} |x\rangle \langle y|$$

$$\text{QFT}_N |y\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i \frac{xy}{N}} |x\rangle$$

$$\text{QFT}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = H$$

$$\text{QFT}_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & \frac{-1+i\sqrt{3}}{2} & \frac{-1-i\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ 1 & \frac{-1-i\sqrt{3}}{2} & \frac{-1+i\sqrt{3}}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

Quantum Fourier Transform

The quantum Fourier transform is defined for each positive integer N as follows.

$$\text{QFT}_N = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i \frac{xy}{N}} |x\rangle\langle y|$$
$$\text{QFT}_N |y\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i \frac{xy}{N}} |x\rangle$$

$$\text{QFT}_4 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & i & -1 & -i \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -i & -1 & i \end{pmatrix}$$

Quantum Fourier Transform

$$\text{QFT}_8 = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & \frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}} & i & \frac{-1+i}{\sqrt{2}} & -1 & \frac{-1-i}{\sqrt{2}} & -i & \frac{1-i}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 1 & i & -1 & -i & 1 & i & -1 & -i \\ 1 & \frac{-1+i}{\sqrt{2}} & -i & \frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}} & -1 & \frac{1-i}{\sqrt{2}} & i & \frac{-1-i}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & \frac{-1-i}{\sqrt{2}} & -i & \frac{1-i}{\sqrt{2}} & -1 & \frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}} & i & \frac{-1+i}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 1 & -i & -1 & i & 1 & -i & -1 & i \\ 1 & \frac{1-i}{\sqrt{2}} & -i & \frac{-1-i}{\sqrt{2}} & -1 & \frac{-1+i}{\sqrt{2}} & i & \frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

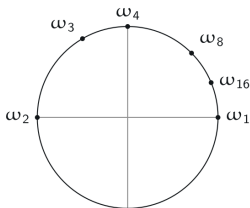
Quantum Fourier Transform

The quantum Fourier transform is defined for each positive integer N as follows.

$$\text{QFT}_N = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i \frac{xy}{N}} |x\rangle\langle y| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} \omega_N^{xy} |x\rangle\langle y|$$

Useful shorthand notation:

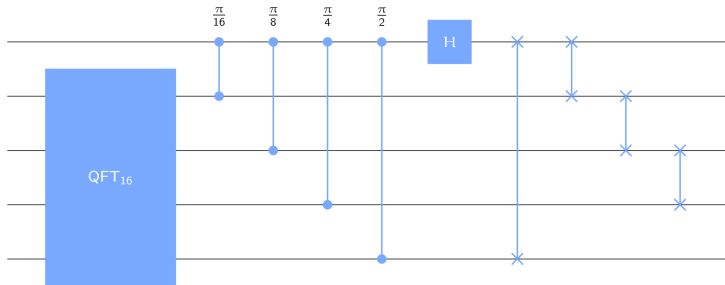
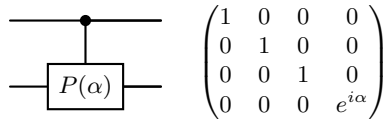
$$\omega_N = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{N}} = \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right)$$



Circuits for the QFT

We can implement QFT_N efficiently with a quantum circuit when N is a power of 2.

The implementation makes use of controlled-phase gates:



Circuits for the QFT

Cost analysis

Let s_m denote the number of gates we need for m qubits.

- For $m = 1$, a single Hadamard gate is required.
- For $m \geq 2$, these are the gates required:
 - s_{m-1} gates for the QFT on $m - 1$ qubits
 - $m - 1$ controlled phase gates
 - $m - 1$ swap gates
 - 1 Hadamard gate

$$s_m = \begin{cases} 1 & m = 1 \\ s_{m-1} + 2m - 1 & m \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

This is a **recurrence relation** with a closed-form solution:

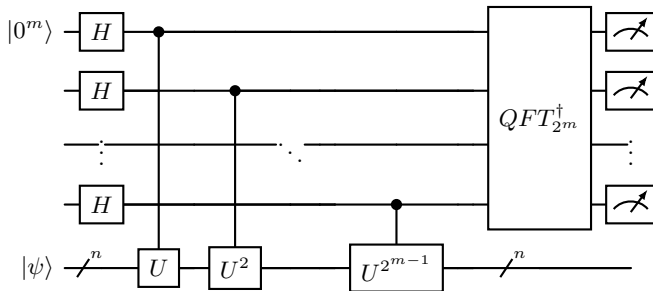
$$s_m = \sum_{k=1}^m (2k - 1) = m^2$$

Additional remarks:

- The number of swap gates can be reduced.
- Approximations to QFT_m can be done at lower cost (and lower depth).

Phase estimation procedure

The general phase-estimation procedure, for any choice of m :

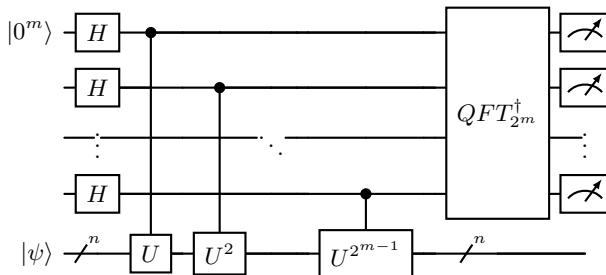


Warning

If we perform each U^k -operation by repeating a controlled- U operation k times, increasing the number of control qubits m comes at a **high cost**.

Phase estimation procedure

The general phase-estimation procedure, for any choice of m :



$$|\pi\rangle = |\psi\rangle \otimes \frac{1}{2^m} \sum_{y=0}^{2^m-1} \sum_{x=0}^{2^m-1} e^{2\pi i x(\theta - y/2^m)} |y\rangle \quad (6)$$

$$p_y = \left| \frac{1}{2^m} \sum_{x=0}^{2^m-1} e^{2\pi i x(\theta - y/2^m)} \right|^2 \quad (7)$$

Phase estimation procedure

$$p_y = \left| \frac{1}{2^m} \sum_{x=0}^{2^m-1} e^{2\pi i x(\theta - y/2^m)} \right|^2 \quad (8)$$

Best approximations

Suppose $\frac{y}{2^m}$ is the *best approximation* to θ :

$$\left| \theta - \frac{y}{2^m} \right|_1 \leq 2^{-(m+1)}$$

Then the probability to measure y will be relatively high:

$$p_y \geq \frac{4}{\pi^2} \approx 0.405$$

Worse approximations

Suppose there's a *better approximation* to θ between $\frac{y}{2^m}$ and θ :

$$\left| \theta - \frac{y}{2^m} \right|_1 \geq 2^{-m}$$

Then the probability to measure y will be relatively low:

$$p_y \leq \frac{1}{4}$$

Phase Estimation Accuracy

To obtain an approximation $\frac{y}{2^m}$ that is *very likely* to satisfy

$$\left| \theta - \frac{y}{2^m} \right|_1 < 2^{-m}$$

we can run the phase estimation procedure using m control qubits *several times* and take y to be the *mode* of the outcomes.

(The eigenvector $|\psi\rangle$ is unchanged by the procedure and can be reused as many times as needed.)



1 Day 2

- Grover's algorithm
- Quantum Fourier Transform
- Quantum Phase Estimation
- Shor's algorithm
- Q&A and Closing the event

The order-finding problem

For each positive integer N , we define

$$\mathbb{Z}_N = \{0, 1, \dots, N - 1\}$$

For instance, $\mathbb{Z}_1 = \{0\}$, $\mathbb{Z}_2 = \{0, 1\}$, $\mathbb{Z}_3 = \{0, 1, 2\}$, and so on.

We can view arithmetic operations on \mathbb{Z}_N as being defined modulo N .

Example

Let $N = 7$. We have $3 \cdot 5 = 15$, which leaves a remainder of 1 when divided by 7.

This is often expressed like this:

$$3 \cdot 5 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

We can also simply write $3 \cdot 5 = 1$ when it's clear we're working in \mathbb{Z}_7 .

The elements $a \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ that satisfy $\gcd(a, N) = 1$ are special.

$$\mathbb{Z}_N^* = \{a \in \mathbb{Z}_N : \gcd(a, N) = 1\}$$

$$\mathbb{Z}_{21}^* = \{1, 2, 4, 5, 8, 10, 11, 13, 16, 17, 19, 20\}$$

The order-finding problem

Fact

For every $a \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ there must exist a positive integer k such that $a^k = 1$. The smallest such k is called the *order* of a in \mathbb{Z}_N^* .

Example

For $N = 21$, these are the smallest powers for which this works:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} 1^1 = 1 & 5^6 = 1 & 11^6 = 1 & 17^6 = 1 \\ 2^6 = 1 & 8^2 = 1 & 13^2 = 1 & 19^6 = 1 \\ 4^3 = 1 & 10^6 = 1 & 16^3 = 1 & 20^2 = 1 \end{array}$$

Order-finding problem

Input: Positive integers a and N with $\gcd(a, N) = 1$.

Output: The smallest positive integer r such that $a^r \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$.

No efficient classical algorithm for this problem is known — an efficient algorithm for order-finding implies an efficient algorithm for integer factorization.

Order-finding by phase-estimation

To connect the order-finding problem to phase estimation, consider a system whose classical state set is \mathbb{Z}_N .

For a given element $a \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$, define an operation as follows:

$$\mathcal{M}_a|x\rangle = |ax\rangle \quad (\text{for each } x \in \mathbb{Z}_N)$$

This is a *unitary operation*—but only because $\gcd(a, N) = 1$!

Example

Let $N = 15$ and $a = 2$. The operation \mathcal{M}_a has this action:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \mathcal{M}_2|0\rangle = |0\rangle & \mathcal{M}_2|5\rangle = |10\rangle & \mathcal{M}_2|10\rangle = |5\rangle \\ \mathcal{M}_2|1\rangle = |2\rangle & \mathcal{M}_2|6\rangle = |12\rangle & \mathcal{M}_2|11\rangle = |7\rangle \\ \mathcal{M}_2|2\rangle = |4\rangle & \mathcal{M}_2|7\rangle = |14\rangle & \mathcal{M}_2|12\rangle = |9\rangle \\ \mathcal{M}_2|3\rangle = |6\rangle & \mathcal{M}_2|8\rangle = |1\rangle & \mathcal{M}_2|13\rangle = |11\rangle \\ \mathcal{M}_2|4\rangle = |8\rangle & \mathcal{M}_2|9\rangle = |3\rangle & \mathcal{M}_2|14\rangle = |13\rangle \end{array}$$

Order-finding by phase-estimation

To connect the order-finding problem to phase estimation, consider a system whose classical state set is \mathbb{Z}_N .

For a given element $a \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$, define an operation as follows:

$$\mathcal{M}_a|x\rangle = |ax\rangle \quad (\text{for each } x \in \mathbb{Z}_N)$$

This is a *unitary operation*—but only because $\gcd(a, N) = 1$!

Main idea

The *eigenvalues* of \mathcal{M}_a are closely connected with the *order* of a .

By approximating certain eigenvalues with enough precision using phase estimation, we'll be able to compute the order.

Eigenvectors and eigenvalues

This is an eigenvector of \mathcal{M}_a :

$$|\psi_0\rangle = \frac{|1\rangle + |a\rangle + \dots + |a^{r-1}\rangle}{\sqrt{r}}$$

The associated eigenvalue is 1:

$$\mathcal{M}_a|\psi_0\rangle = \frac{|a\rangle + |a^2\rangle + \dots + |a^r\rangle}{\sqrt{r}} = \frac{|a\rangle + \dots + |a^{r-1}\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{r}} = |\psi_0\rangle$$

To identify more eigenvectors, first recall that

$$\omega_r = e^{2\pi i/r}$$

This is another eigenvector of \mathcal{M}_a :

$$|\psi_1\rangle = \frac{|1\rangle + \omega_r^{-1}|a\rangle + \dots + \omega_r^{-(r-1)}|a^{r-1}\rangle}{\sqrt{r}}$$

Eigenvectors and eigenvalues

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{M}_a|\psi_1\rangle &= \frac{|a\rangle + \omega_r^{-1}|a^2\rangle + \dots + \omega_r^{-(r-1)}|a^r\rangle}{\sqrt{r}} \\ &= \frac{\omega_r|1\rangle + |a\rangle + \omega_r^{-1}|a^2\rangle + \dots + \omega_r^{-(r-2)}|a^{r-1}\rangle}{\sqrt{r}} \\ &= \omega_r \left(\frac{|1\rangle + \omega_r^{-1}|a\rangle + \omega_r^{-2}|a^2\rangle + \dots + \omega_r^{-(r-1)}|a^{r-1}\rangle}{\sqrt{r}} \right) \\ &= \omega_r|\psi_1\rangle\end{aligned}$$

Additional eigenvectors can be identified by similar reasoning...

For each $j \in \{0, \dots, r-1\}$, this is an eigenvector of \mathcal{M}_a :

$$\begin{aligned}|\psi_j\rangle &= \frac{|1\rangle + \omega_r^{-j}|a\rangle + \dots + \omega_r^{-j(r-1)}|a^{r-1}\rangle}{\sqrt{r}} \\ \mathcal{M}_a|\psi_j\rangle &= \omega_r^j|\psi_j\rangle\end{aligned}$$

A convenient eigenvector

$$|\psi_1\rangle = \frac{|1\rangle + \omega_r^{-1}|a\rangle + \dots + \omega_r^{-(r-1)}|a^{r-1}\rangle}{\sqrt{r}}$$

$$\mathcal{M}_a|\psi_1\rangle = \omega_r|\psi_1\rangle = e^{2\pi i \frac{1}{r}}|\psi_1\rangle$$

Suppose we're given $|\psi_1\rangle$ as a quantum state. We can attempt to learn r as follows:

- 1 Perform phase estimation on the state $|\psi_1\rangle$ and a quantum circuit implementing \mathcal{M}_a . The outcome is an approximation $y/2^m \approx 1/r$.
- 2 Output $2^m/y$ rounded to the nearest integer:

$$\text{round}\left(\frac{2^m}{y}\right) = \left\lfloor \frac{2^m}{y} + \frac{1}{2} \right\rfloor$$

How much precision do we need to correctly determine r ?

$$\left| \frac{y}{2^m} - \frac{1}{r} \right| \leq \frac{1}{2N^2} \Rightarrow \text{round}\left(\frac{2^m}{y}\right) = r$$

Choosing $m = 2\log(N) + 1$ in phase estimation makes such an approximation likely.

A random eigenvector

$$|\psi_j\rangle = \frac{|1\rangle + \omega_r^{-j}|a\rangle + \dots + \omega_r^{-j(r-1)}|a^{r-1}\rangle}{\sqrt{r}}$$

$$\mathcal{M}_a|\psi_j\rangle = \omega_r^j|\psi_j\rangle = e^{2\pi i \frac{j}{r}}|\psi_j\rangle$$

Suppose we're given $|\psi_j\rangle$ as a quantum state for a *random choice* of $j \in \{0, \dots, r-1\}$. We can attempt to learn j/r as follows:

- 1 Perform phase estimation on the state $|\psi_j\rangle$ and a quantum circuit implementing \mathcal{M}_a . The outcome is an approximation $y/2^m \approx j/r$.
- 2 Among the fractions u/v in lowest terms satisfying $u, v \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}$ and $v \neq 0$, output the one closest to $y/2^m$. This can be done efficiently using the *continued fraction algorithm*.

How much precision do we need to correctly determine $u/v = j/r$?

$$\left| \frac{y}{2^m} - \frac{j}{r} \right| \leq \frac{1}{2N^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{u}{v} = \frac{j}{r}$$

Choosing $m = 2 \log(N) + 1$ for phase estimation makes such an approximation likely.

We might get unlucky: j could have common factors with r .

A random eigenvector

$$|\psi_j\rangle = \frac{|1\rangle + \omega_r^{-j}|a\rangle + \dots + \omega_r^{-j(r-1)}|a^{r-1}\rangle}{\sqrt{r}}$$

$$\mathcal{M}_a|\psi_j\rangle = \omega_r^j|\psi_j\rangle = e^{2\pi i \frac{j}{r}}|\psi_j\rangle$$

Suppose we're given $|\psi_j\rangle$ as a quantum state for a *random choice* of $j \in \{0, \dots, r-1\}$. We can attempt to learn j/r as follows:

- 1 Perform phase estimation on the state $|\psi_j\rangle$ and a quantum circuit implementing \mathcal{M}_a . The outcome is an approximation $y/2^m \approx j/r$.
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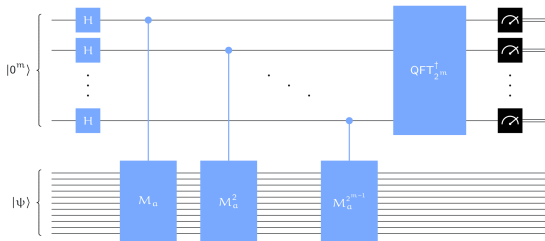
How much precision do we need to correctly determine $u/v = j/r$?

$$\left| \frac{y}{2^m} - \frac{j}{r} \right| \leq \frac{1}{2N^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{u}{v} = \frac{j}{r}$$

If we can draw *independent samples*, for $j \in \{0, \dots, r-1\}$ is chosen uniformly, we can recover r with high probability by computing the *least common multiple* of the values of v we observed.

Implementation

To find the order of $a \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$, we apply phase estimation to the operation \mathcal{M}_a . Let's measure the cost as a function of $n = \lg(N)$.



Cost for each controlled unitary

We can implement \mathcal{M}_a at cost $O(n^2)$.

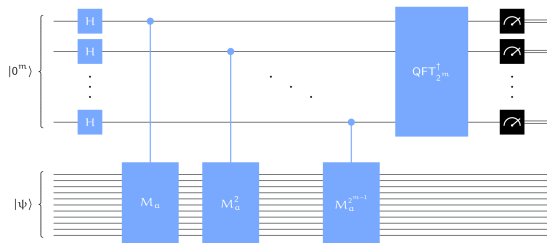
We need to implement \mathcal{M}_a^k for each $k = 1, 2, 4, 8, \dots, 2^{m-1}$. Each \mathcal{M}_a^k can be implemented as follows:

- Compute $b = a^k \bmod N$.
- Use a circuit for \mathcal{M}_b .

The cost to implement $\mathcal{M}_b = \mathcal{M}_a^k$ is $O(n^2)$.

Implementation

To find the order of $a \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$, we apply phase estimation to the operation \mathcal{M}_a . Let's measure the cost as a function of $n = \lg(N)$.

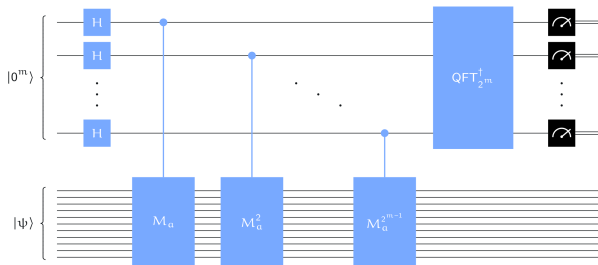


Cost for phase estimation

- m Hadamard gates: cost $O(n)$
- m controlled unitary operations: cost $O(n^3)$
- Quantum Fourier transform: cost $O(n^2)$

Total cost: $O(n^3)$

Implementation



Remaining issue: getting one of the eigenvectors $|\psi_0\rangle, \dots, |\psi_{r-1}\rangle$.

Solution: replace the eigenvector $|\psi\rangle$ with the state $|1\rangle$.

This works because of the following equation:

$$|1\rangle = \frac{|\psi_0\rangle + \dots + |\psi_{r-1}\rangle}{\sqrt{r}}$$

The outcome is the same as if we chose $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, r-1\}$ uniformly and used $|\psi\rangle \equiv |\psi_j\rangle$.

Factoring through order-finding

The following method succeeds in finding a factor of N with probability at least $1/2$, provided N is odd and not a prime power.

Factor-finding method

- 1 Choose $a \in \{2, \dots, N-1\}$ at random.
- 2 Compute $d = \gcd(a, N)$. If $d \geq 2$, then output d and stop.
- 3 *Compute the order* r of a modulo N .
- 4 If r is even, then compute $d = \gcd(a^{r/2} - 1, N)$. If $d \geq 2$, output d and stop.
- 5 If this step is reached, the method has failed.

Main idea

- 1 By the definition of the order, we know that

$$a^r \equiv 1 \pmod{N} \iff N \text{ divides } a^r - 1$$

- 2 If r is even, then

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

Each prime dividing N must therefore divide either $(a^{r/2} + 1)$ or $(a^{r/2} - 1)$.

For a random a , at least one of the prime factors of N is likely to divide $(a^{r/2} - 1)$.

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Thank you for your attention

Thanks to the IBM Quantum for great learning materials.