

# Quantum Algorithms, Spring 2022: Lecture 10 Scribe

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## 1 Recap

### 1.1 Properties of QFT:

1. **Invariance under shift:** Suppose,

$$\sum_j \alpha_j |j\rangle \xrightarrow{QFT} \sum_k \beta_k |k\rangle$$

then,

$$\sum_j \alpha_j |j+s\rangle \xrightarrow{QFT} \sum_k \omega^{sk} \beta_k |k\rangle$$

2. **QFT maps a periodic superposition to a period superposition:**

Let,

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{A}} \sum_{k=0}^{A-1} |kr\rangle$$

such that

$$A = \frac{N}{r}, \quad r|N$$

then,

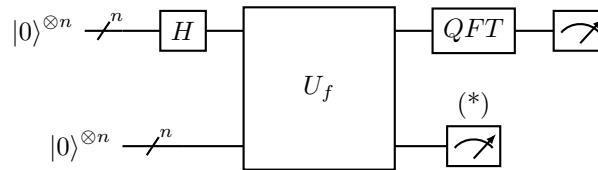
$$QFT |\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} \left| \frac{jN}{r} \right\rangle$$

### 1.2 Quantum period finding:

1. **Problem statement:**

Given a blackbox  $U_f$  for some boolean function  $f : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m$  such that  $f$  is a periodic function with  $r \ll \sqrt{N}$  where  $N = 2^n$  i.e,  $f(x) = f(y) \Leftrightarrow y = x \pmod{r}$ . How many queries to  $U_f$  are required to find  $r$ ?

2. **Circuit:**



3. **Equations:**

Hadamard gate applied to first register:

$$|0\rangle^{\otimes n} |0\rangle^{\otimes n} \xrightarrow{H^{\otimes n} \otimes I} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle |0\rangle$$

$U_f$  applied to both registers

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle |0\rangle \xrightarrow{U_f} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle |f(x)\rangle$$

Measuring 2nd register and observe  $f(x_0)$ :

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{A}} \sum_{k=0}^{A-1} |x_0 + kr\rangle$$

Using the shift in variance property discussed in *Section 1.1* (property 1)

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{A}} \sum_{k=0}^{A-1} |x_0 + kr\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{A}} \sum_{k=0}^{A-1} |kr\rangle$$

Applying QFT on the remaining qubits

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{A}} \sum_{k=0}^{A-1} |kr\rangle \xrightarrow{QFT} \frac{1}{\sqrt{AN}} \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} \sum_{k=0}^{A-1} (\omega^{rl})^k |l\rangle$$

4. **Amplitude of  $|l\rangle$ :**

$$\alpha_l = \frac{1}{\sqrt{AN}} \sum_{k=0}^{A-1} (\omega^{rl})^k$$

$$\alpha_l = \begin{cases} \sqrt{\frac{A}{N}} & \text{if } \omega^{rl} = 1 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{NA}} \frac{(1-\omega^{rLA})}{(1-\omega^{rl})} & \text{if } \omega^{rl} \neq 1 \end{cases}$$

5. **We have 2 cases:**

(a) Case 1:

$$r|N \implies A = \frac{N}{r}$$

(b) Case 2:

$$r \nmid N \implies A = \left\lceil \frac{N}{r} \right\rceil \text{ or } \left\lfloor \frac{N}{r} \right\rfloor, \quad A-1 \leq \frac{N}{r} \leq A+1$$

6. **We had already discussed Case 1 in the previous class and analysed it as follows:**

$$r|N \implies A = \frac{N}{r}$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{r}{N}} \sum_{k=0}^{\frac{N}{r}-1} |kr\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} \left| \frac{jN}{r} \right\rangle$$

(a) Measuring the first register gives  $s_1 \frac{N}{r}$

(b) Repeating  $k = \theta(1)$  times we have  $\{s_1 \frac{N}{r}, s_2 \frac{N}{r}, s_3 \frac{N}{r}, \dots, s_k \frac{N}{r}\}$

(c) With very high probability,  $S_i$ 's are relatively co prime

(d)  $\gcd\{s_1 \frac{N}{r}, s_2 \frac{N}{r}, s_3 \frac{N}{r}, \dots, s_k \frac{N}{r}\} = \frac{N}{r}$  which gives us  $r$  as  $N$  is known.

(e) The additional cost here is  $O(\log N)$  from Euclid's GCD algorithm

(f) If the  $S_i$ 's are not relatively co prime, we wont be able to detect the mistake in the next step. To overcome this we can take  $k$  to be large enough such that the probability is extremely high or repeat the algo and verify  $r$  in the subsequent iteration.

(g) These are not deterministic algorithm's

## 2 Things to know for this class:

### 2.1 Properties of $\sin(x)$ :

1. For  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\theta < \frac{|\sin(x)|}{|x|} < 1 \implies \sin^2(x) < x^2$ , this can be derived using the Mean Value Theorem
2. For  $0 \leq |x| \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ ,  $|\sin(x)| \geq \frac{2|x|}{\pi}$   
This is because  $\frac{|\sin(x)|}{|x|}$  is a decreasing function for the interval  $0 \leq |x| \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ . Let  $g(|x|) = \frac{|\sin(x)|}{|x|}$  then  $g(|x|) \geq g(\frac{\pi}{2})$  (for decreasing functions only)
3.  $\sin^2(\pi q \pm \theta) = \sin^2(\theta)$  as  $\sin(\pi q \pm \theta) = \pm \sin(\theta)$  when  $q \in \mathbb{N}_0$

### 2.2 Continued fractions

The idea of the continued fractions method is to describe real numbers in terms of integers alone. A finite simple continued fraction is defined by a finite collection  $a_0, \dots, a_N$  of positive integers as

$$[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_N] = a_0 + \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{a_2 + \frac{1}{\dots + \frac{1}{a_N}}}}$$

We define the  $n$ th convergent ( $0 \leq n \leq N$ ) to this continued fraction to be  $[a_0, \dots, a_n]$ .

Suppose we are trying to decompose  $31/13$  as a continued fraction.

The first step of the continued fractions algorithm is to **split**  $31/13$  into its integer and fractional part,

$$\frac{31}{13} = 2 + \frac{5}{13}$$

Next we **invert** the fractional part, obtaining

$$\frac{31}{13} = 2 + \frac{1}{\frac{13}{5}}$$

And we keep on going forward with the **split and invert** procedure, we would end up with

$$\frac{31}{13} = 2 + \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{\frac{5}{2}}}}$$

1. It's clear that the continued fractions algorithm terminates after a finite number of 'split and invert' steps for any rational number, since the numerators which appear are strictly decreasing.
2. The continued fractions algorithm provides an unambiguous method for obtaining a continued fraction expansion of a given rational number.
3. The only possible ambiguity comes at the final stage, because it is possible to split an integer in two ways, either  $a_N = a_N$ , or as  $a_N = (a_N - 1) + 1/1$ , giving two alternate continued fraction expansions.
4. This ambiguity is actually useful, since it allows us to assume without loss of generality that the continued fraction expansion of a given rational number has either an odd or even number of convergent, as desired.
5. How quickly does this termination occur? It follows that if  $x = \frac{p}{q}$  is a rational number,  $p$  &  $q$  are  $L$  bit integers, then the continued fraction expansion for  $x$  can be computed using  $O(L^3)$  operations –  $O(L)$  'split and invert' steps, each using  $O(L^2)$  gates for elementary arithmetic.

### 2.3 Useful claim 1:

**Claim 2.1.** 2 distinct rational numbers with denominators  $\leq r$  are atleast  $\frac{1}{r^2}$  apart

*Proof.* Let  $Z = \frac{X}{Y}$  and  $Z' = \frac{X'}{Y'}$  with  $(Y, Y') \leq r$  then

$$|Z - Z'| = \left| \frac{XY' - X'Y}{YY'} \right|$$

The numerator will be  $\geq 1$  while the denominator will be  $\leq r^2$  so we can say

$$|Z - Z'| \geq \frac{1}{r^2}$$

□

### 2.4 Useful claim 2

**Claim 2.2.** Let  $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , and  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$  that satisfy the following:

$$\left| x - \frac{p}{q} \right| \leq \frac{1}{2q^2}$$

Also let  $c = (c_0, c_1, \dots, c_m)$  be the continued fraction expansion of  $x$  then there exists some  $Q \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, M\}$  such that the  $Q^{th}$  convergent  $C_Q = (c_0, c_1, \dots, c_Q)$  is exactly  $\frac{p}{q}$ . Further more choosing  $M = O(\log N)$  suffices, where  $p$  &  $q$  are  $\log N$  bit integers.

*Proof.* The proof of this claim is available in the Quantum Computation and Quantum Information textbook by Michael A. Nielsen & Isaac L. Chuang, Appendix: Number Theory. □

## 3 Main crux of lecture 10:

### 3.1 Quantum period finding, Case 2:

We know,

$$r \nmid N \implies A = \left\lceil \frac{N}{r} \right\rceil \text{ or } \left\lfloor \frac{N}{r} \right\rfloor, \quad A - 1 \leq \frac{N}{r} \leq A + 1$$

Let

$$\alpha_l = \frac{1}{\sqrt{NA}} \frac{(1 - \omega^{r l A})}{(1 - \omega^{r l})}, \quad \omega = e^{\frac{i 2 \pi}{N}}$$

In this case, we will argue that  $l$  is still very close to some  $\frac{jN}{r}$

$$|\alpha_l|^2 = \frac{1}{NA} \frac{|1 - e^{\frac{2i r l A \pi}{N}}|^2}{|1 - e^{\frac{2i r l \pi}{N}}|^2}$$

We know that

$$|1 - e^{i\theta}| = \left| \frac{2ie^{\frac{i\theta}{2}}(e^{\frac{-i\theta}{2}} - e^{\frac{i\theta}{2}})}{2i} \right|$$

$$|1 - e^{i\theta}| = 2 \left| -ie^{\frac{i\theta}{2}} \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) \right|$$

Which implies,

$$|1 - e^{i\theta}|^2 = 4 \sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

Coming back to  $\alpha_l$

$$|\alpha_l|^2 = \frac{1}{NA} \frac{\sin^2\left(\frac{r l A \pi}{N}\right)}{\sin^2\left(\frac{r l \pi}{N}\right)}$$

So the probability of observing some  $l$  is given by  $|\alpha_l|^2$  which is  $\frac{1}{NA} \frac{\sin^2(\frac{r l A \pi}{N})}{\sin^2(\frac{r l \pi}{N})}$ .

What is the probability of  $l$  being close to some multiple of  $\frac{N}{r}$ ?

Consider,  $l = \frac{mN}{r} + \delta_m$  where  $m \in \{0, 1, \dots, r-1\}$ ,  $\delta_m$  is a very small value. We know that  $|\delta_m| < 0.5$  (we want this kind of accuracy, rather). The intuition behind this is that the nearest integer from  $\frac{mN}{r}$  would be less than 0.5 distance away.

We now plug in the value of  $l$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{r l A \pi}{N} &= \frac{\pi r A}{N} \left( \frac{mN}{r} + \delta_m \right) \\ \frac{r l A \pi}{N} &= \pi m A + \frac{\pi r A \delta_m}{N} \end{aligned}$$

Similarly

$$\frac{r l \pi}{N} = \pi m + \frac{\pi r \delta_m}{N}$$

Using the property 3 from *Section 2.1* and plugging the above information into  $|\alpha_l|^2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |\alpha_l|^2 &= \frac{1}{NA} \frac{\sin^2(\frac{r l A \pi}{N})}{\sin^2(\frac{r l \pi}{N})} \\ |\alpha_l|^2 &= \frac{1}{NA} \frac{\sin^2(\frac{\pi r A \delta_m}{N})}{\sin^2(\frac{r \pi \delta_m}{N})} \end{aligned}$$

So to get a lower bound on  $|\alpha_l|^2$  we use property 2 to the numerator and property 1 to the denominator *present in Section 2.1*. We get

$$\begin{aligned} |\alpha_l|^2 &\geq \frac{4A}{\pi^2 N} \\ |\alpha_l|^2 &\geq \text{const.} \frac{A}{N} \end{aligned}$$

To be able to apply the property for the numerator we need to show  $0 \leq |\frac{r l A \pi}{N}| \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ , we know that

$$\begin{aligned} A - 1 &\leq \frac{N}{r} \leq A + 1 \\ \frac{N}{r} - 1 &\leq A \leq \frac{N}{r} + 1 \\ 1 - \frac{r}{N} &\leq \frac{Ar}{N} \leq 1 + \frac{r}{N} \end{aligned}$$

By assumption  $r \ll \sqrt{N}$ ,  $\frac{rA}{N} \simeq 1$ ,  $\frac{r}{N} \simeq o(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}})$

So,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\pi r \delta_m A}{N} &\simeq \pi \delta_m \\ 0 &\leq \frac{\pi r \delta_m A}{N} \leq \frac{\pi}{2} \pm O\left(\frac{r}{N}\right) \end{aligned}$$

We can ignore the right most term and apply this property to the numerator:

$$\begin{aligned} |\alpha_l|^2 &\geq \frac{4A}{\pi^2 N} \\ |\alpha_l|^2 &\geq \frac{4}{\pi^2 r} \end{aligned}$$

With a probability  $\geq \frac{4}{\pi^2 r}$  we observe some  $l$  such that  $l = \frac{mN}{r} + \delta_m$

$$|l - \frac{mN}{r}| = \delta_m$$

$$\implies |l - \frac{mN}{r}| < 0.5 \text{ (as } \delta_m < 0.5) \text{ for } m \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, r-1\}$$

Therefore, the probability of observing any such ' $m$ '

$$\begin{aligned} &\geq \frac{4}{\pi^2 r} * r \\ &\geq \frac{4}{\pi^2} \\ &\geq 0.4 \end{aligned}$$

**For case 1:**  $r|N$ , we observed  $\frac{mN}{r}$  exactly. If we observe some ' $bad$ ' value of  $l$  we still follow the same procedure and get some ' $r$ ' and if its erroneous, we repeat it again.

Over here, we get some ' $l$ ' close to  $\frac{mN}{r}$  but we dont know which  $\frac{mN}{r}$  it is. We need to extract this closeness multiple to  $\frac{N}{r}$ . Lets say we do that erroneously. We do the procedure a few times and it fails one of the time, and we dont get the correct value of ' $r$ ' but we are guaranteed that it will succeed with probability  $\geq 0.4$

**So far:**

1. We have observed some ' $l$ ' such that with a probability  $\geq \frac{4}{\pi^2}$ ,  $|l - \frac{mN}{r}| < 0.5$
2. From the above equation  $|\frac{l}{N} - \frac{m}{r}| < \frac{1}{2N} < \frac{1}{r^2}$  as  $(r << \sqrt{N})$
3.  $\frac{l}{N}$  &  $\frac{m}{r}$  are 2 rational numbers
4. we know  $l$  &  $N$ , we dont know  $m$  or  $r$

We need information about  $\frac{m}{r}$ . From the claim in *section 2.3* we can say that  $\frac{m}{r}$  is the only fraction with denominator  $\leq r$  that is within  $\frac{1}{2r^2}$  of  $\frac{l}{N}$ . The reason being if any other fraction existed then that distance would be at least  $\frac{1}{r^2}$  away from  $\frac{m}{r}$ .

Now there exists a classical procedure that allows us to exactly obtain  $\frac{m}{r}$ , starting from  $\frac{l}{N}$  provided  $|\frac{l}{N} - \frac{m}{r}| < \frac{1}{2r^2}$ . This procedure is known as continued fraction expansion. This has been explained to some extent in *Section 2.2*.

Using the claim in *Section 2.4* Starting from  $\frac{l}{N}$ , we can exactly obtain  $\frac{m}{r}$  in  $O(\log N)$  steps. After the continued fraction algorithm, we end up with  $\frac{m}{r}$ .

Repeat QFT algorithm and the continued fraction algorithm  $k$  times such that we get:

$$\{\frac{m_1}{r}, \frac{m_2}{r}, \dots, \frac{m_k}{r}\}$$

then,

$$\gcd\{\frac{m_1}{r}, \frac{m_2}{r}, \dots, \frac{m_k}{r}\} \text{ to get } r$$

where  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k$  are relatively coprime with very high probability. The GCD calculation will take  $O(\log N)$  steps.

### 3.2 Analysis of QFT period finding, case 2:

1. Query complexity:  $K = \theta(1)$  to  $U_f$
2. Additional costs:
  - (a)  $O(\log N)$  overhead for GCD and continued fractions calculations
  - (b)  $\log N$  number of Hadamard gates needed
  - (c) QFT circuit:  $O(\log^2 N)$  elementary gates.