Quantum algorithms

Lecture 3: Quantum algorithms (2)

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Outline

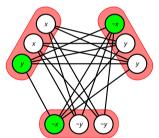
Exponential speedup: Shor's algorithm

Reduction to order finding

Order finding quantum subroutine

Grover's algorithm: final remark

- The quadratic speedup $\sqrt{2^n}$ of Grover's algorithm is optimal for any quantum algorithm for unstructured search (see eg Nielsen and Chuang).
- This is sad!!!: With an exponential speedup, some NP-complete problems could have been solved in polynomial time poly(n)
- Consider a NP-complete problem in a Boolean problem f.
- 2. Implement the corresponding Grover oracle.
- 3. Run Grover's algorithm



wikipedia

• Thus any NP problem could have been solved in polynomial time. . . .

Outline

Exponential speedup: Shor's algorithm

Reduction to order finding

Order finding quantum subroutine

- Problem: Given N, find non-trivial factors N = pq.
- Complexity: Best known algorithm is sub-exponential in the number of digits log(N).
- Shor's algorithm with polynomial complexity in log(N) offers an exponential speedup.

Shor's algorithm: Number theory

ullet For a given 1 < a < N, we introduce the order r, as the smallest integer such that

$$a^r = 1 \mod(N)$$

• Theorem: If r is even, let us define $b=a^{r/2}$. If, in addition, $b\neq -1 \bmod(N)$, then

$$p=\gcd(b-1,N)$$
 and $q=\gcd(b+1,N)$ are non-trivial factors of N

Shor's algorithm: Number theory

- Proof: For, e.g, p = gcd(b-1, N):
 - If p = N, N divides b 1, therefore $a^{r/2} = 1 \mod(N)$, which contradicts the fact that r is the order of a.
 - If p = 1, there are integers (u, v) such that (Bézout's theorem)

$$(b-1)u + Nv = 1 \implies (b^2-1)u + N(b+1)v = b+1$$
 (1)

• This implies N divides b+1, which implies $b=-1 \mod(N)$, another contradiction.

The algorithm (1994)

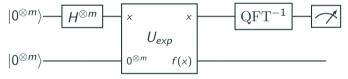
- 1. Pick 1 < a < N random
- 2. Find order r via quantum subroutine
- 3. If r is even, let us define $b = a^{r/2}$. If, in addition, $b \neq -1 \mod(N)$, then $p = \gcd(b-1, N)$ and $q = \gcd(b+1, N)$ are non-trivial factors of N.
- 4. Otherwise, go back to step 1.
 - Note: The gcd operation can be performed efficiently on a classical computer.
- Existence and 'likelihood' conditions of such even r with $b \neq -1 \mod(N)$: Beyond the scope of this course \to c.f., J. Preskill's lectures

- Example N = 21 (see TD2)
- We pick a = 2, we find r = 6, as $a^6 = 1 \mod(N)$.
- We have that r is even, we define $b=a^{r/2}=8 \neq -1 \mod (21)$. We find that
- gcd(21,7) = 7 divides N
- What about *N* = 14351?

```
from pylab import *
N = 21
for i in range(10):
    a = randint(1,N)
    r = 1
    ### I simulate here the quantum subroutine with an exponentially costly for loop
    while (r \leq N):
        if (a**r)\%N==1: #Check if r is the order of (a,N)
             if r\%2 == 0:
                 print('r_', r)
                 b = a **(r//2)
                 print('b_',b)
                 if (b+1)\%N>0: print (\gcd(b-1,N), '\_divides\_',N)
                 else: print('fail')
             else: print('fail')
             print ( '----')
             break
        else: r+=1
```

- The order r is the period of the function $f(x) = a^x \mod(N)$, because $f(x+r) = a^x a^r \mod(N) = a^x \mod(N) = f(x)$.
- We can find this period up to excellent approximation using the Quantum Fourier Transformation (QFT) operation.

- Classical input: the function $f(x) = a^x \mod(N)$.
- Classical ouput: the period r.



• To provide enough 'spectral resolution', i.e., represent sufficiently large numbers x, we choose m, such that $M=2^m>N^2$.

• The first steps, modular exponentiation, create the following state with order $O(m^3)$ gates, 'We load the entire function in the Hilbert space via quantum parallelism'

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{x} |x\rangle \otimes |f(x)\rangle$$

• The second step is the inverse quantum Fourier Transform, realizable with $O(m^2)$ gates see TD2), with unitary circuit

$$QFT^{-1}|x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{y} e^{-2i\pi xy/M} |y\rangle$$

• Provided high success probability in measuring the order r, Shor's algorithm factorizes numbers in polynomial time.

Before the measurement, the quantum state reads

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{x,y} e^{-2i\pi xy/M} |y, f(x)\rangle$$
 (2)

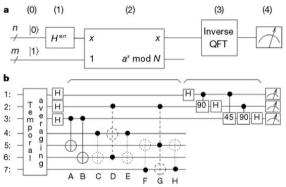
The probability to measure the bitstring y is

$$P(y) = \sum_{x} |\langle y, x | \psi \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{M^2} \sum_{x_1, x_2} e^{-2i\pi y(x_1 - x_2)/M} \langle f(x_1) | f(x_2) \rangle$$
 (3)

- We obtain large contributions when $x_1 x_2 = \alpha r$, α integer. This implies P(y) is maximal when $ry/M \approx p$, p integer, i.e when $y/M \approx p/r$
- The peaks \tilde{y} in P(y) can be used to extract $r \approx p\tilde{y}/M$ with high success probability (for a sufficiently large value of M, using the continous fraction algorithm) [see Exercices 3, for factorizing N=21]

Experimental realization for N=15

• Vandersypen et al, Nature 2001



- Important technological achievement
- What limits the current applications to small numbers?
 - → Lecture 4: Quantum error correction