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

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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 $\sim \log(N)$.
- Shor's algorithm with polynomial complexity in log(N) offers an exponential speedup.

Shor's algorithm: Number theory

• For a given 1 < a < N, a coprime with N, we introduce the order r, as the smallest strictly positive integer such that

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

Additional useful facts on the order r

• Existence:

- Define $f(x) = a^x \mod(N)$
- Let us denote a doublon (s, t) f(t) = f(s) (It exists since the output space is finite)
- a is coprime with N, therefore there exists an integer a^{-1} such that $aa^{-1} = 1 \mod(N)$ (Bezout's theorem)
- This implies $a^{t-s} = 1 \mod(N)$. Therefore r exists.

In addition,

- We also have f takes different values in [1, r-1].
- If this were not true, the previous derivation would show that r is not the minimal number achieving $a^r = 1 \mod(N)$.

Shor's algorithm: Number theory

• Theorem: 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

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)

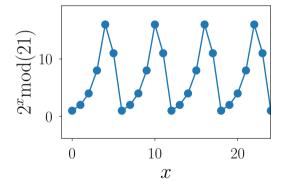
$$(b-1)u + Nv = 1 \implies (b^2 - 1)u + N(b+1)v = b+1$$
 (1)

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

The algorithm (1994)

- 1. Pick 1 < a < N random, and check if a is coprime with N.
- 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 $a^6 = 1 \mod(N)$.



- 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 $b = a^{r/2} = 8$
- We have that $b \neq -1 \mod(21)$.
- Thus, we find that gcd(21,7) = 7 divides N
- What about *N* = 14351?

```
from pylab import *
N = 14351
for i in range(10):
    a = randint(1,N)
    print('a=',a)
    g = gcd(a,N)
    print('gcd(a,N)=',g)
    if g==1:
        r = 1
        ### I simulate here the quantum subroutine with an exponentially costly for
        while (r \le 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('----')
```

Reduction of order finding to period finding

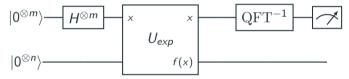
- Notice that $f(x) = a^x \mod(N)$ is periodic in r.
- Proof: We have that

$$f(x+r) = a^{x+r} \mod(N) = a^x (1 + Nt') \mod(N) = f(x)$$
 (2)

Therefore f is periodic in r

- Also, because f takes different values in [1, r-1], we have that $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ iff $x_1 = x_2 \mod (r)$.
- 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 $M=2^m>N^2$. We have that $2^n>N$ for the second register.

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

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

• Note: As usual, we make here the correspondence $|x\rangle = |x_1, \dots, x_m\rangle$ to encode an integer x in a qubit register. Same thing for f(x) in the second qubit register of size n.

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

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

• Before the measurement, the quantum state reads

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

The probability to measure the bitstring y is

$$P(y) = \langle \psi | (|y\rangle \langle y| \otimes \mathbf{1}) | \psi \rangle = \frac{1}{M^2} \sum_{x_1, x_2} e^{2i\pi y(x_1 - x_2)/M} \langle f(x_1) | f(x_2) \rangle$$
 (4)

• Now we can use $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ iff $x_1 = x_2 \mod(r)$...

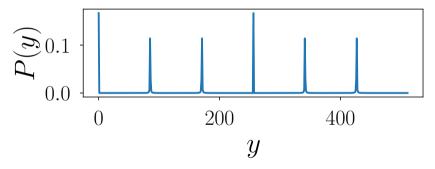
The probability to measure the bitstring y is

$$P(y) = \frac{1}{M^2} \sum_{t} \alpha_t e^{2i\pi y r t/M}$$
 (5)

with $\alpha_t = \#[(x_1, x_2)|x_1 - x_2 = rt].$

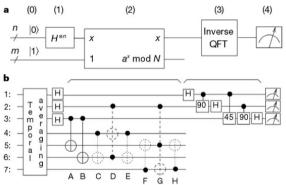
- P(y) is maximal when $ry/M \approx p$, p integer, i.e when $y/M \approx p/r$
- The peaks \tilde{y} in P(y) can be used to extract $r \approx p\tilde{y}/M$ with high success probability (for a sufficiently large value of M, using the continous fraction algorithm)
- Large M offers good 'spectral resolution'. That's why we choose $M \geq N^2$.

• Illustration with N = 21, M = 512, a = 2, r = 6 [Exercices 3]



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