

HIN90045 Introduction to Quantum Computing

This Week



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Quantum factoring algorithm

The logo of The University of Melbourne, featuring a shield with a coat of arms, the university's name in a serif font, and the year 1853.

- 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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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

The diagram illustrates a quantum circuit for Shor's algorithm. It consists of several horizontal wires representing qubits. The top wire starts with state $|0\rangle$, followed by a Hadamard gate (H). Subsequent wires represent the register for the hidden subgroup problem, starting with $|0\rangle$ and followed by three Hadamard gates (H). The bottom wire starts with state $|1\rangle$, followed by a sequence of unitary operations $Ua^{2^0}, Ua^{2^1}, \dots, Ua^{2^{n-1}}$. A dotted line indicates additional wires between the third and fourth wires in the register. All wires converge at a point where they are processed by a Quantum Fourier Transform block ($\text{QFT}_{2^n}^{-1}$). Finally, all wires end with measurement devices (represented by squares with diagonal lines).

Shor, Proc 35th 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 $a^r \equiv 1 \pmod{15}$:

$$2^0 \equiv 1 \pmod{15}$$

$$2^1 \equiv 2 \pmod{15}$$

$$2^2 \equiv 4 \pmod{15}$$

$$2^3 \equiv 8 \pmod{15}$$

$$2^4 \equiv 1 \pmod{15}$$

After which the pattern repeats.

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

$$f(k) = 2^k \pmod{N}$$

We would say that the **period** of f is 4, since $f(x+4) = f(x)$.

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Example of finding factors from a period

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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:

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

i.e. 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 $f(k) = a^k \mod N$ 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:
 $f(x) = a^x \mod N$
(3) QFT
(4) Measure result

* L = number of bits in N

Shor, Proc 35th 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

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 $2 \bmod 15$
- Not multiply by $a^2=2^2=4$
- Multiply by $a^4=2^4=16$ giving $32 \bmod 15$

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

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Example of Modular Exponentiation

After modular exponentiation:

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_x |x\rangle |a^x \bmod N\rangle$$

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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Quantum Computing

Shor's algorithm explained

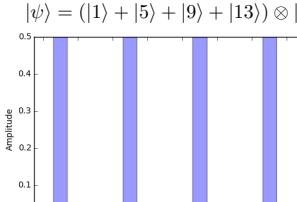
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The Fourier Transform



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

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


Index	Amplitude
1	0.5
5	0.5
9	0.5
13	0.5
0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12	0.0

This function is periodic, with a period of r.

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

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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:

Peaked around:
 $k \frac{2^n}{r}$

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

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Measurement

$|x\rangle$

$|a^x \bmod N\rangle$

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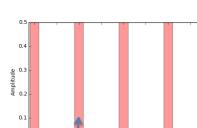
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Example for $a=2$, $N=15$

In our example:



frequency	Amplitude
0	0.5
1	0.5
2	0.5
3	0.5
4	0.5
5	0.5
6	0.5
7	0.5
8	0.5
9	0.5
10	0.5
11	0.5
12	0.5
13	0.5
14	0.5
15	0.5

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.

$$a_0 + \cfrac{1}{a_1 + \cfrac{1}{a_2 + \cfrac{1}{\ddots \cfrac{1}{a_n}}}}$$

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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 $0.14159265\dots = 1/7.0625\dots$ This gives a second approximation:

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

The remaining decimal part $0.0625 = 1/15.9966\dots$ 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 $\sqrt{2^n}$ 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:

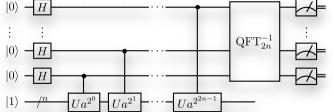
$3 \times 5 = 15$

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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 and approximation to $v = k 2^n / r$
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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Shor's algorithm



Efficient quantum algorithms for **factoring** semiprime numbers

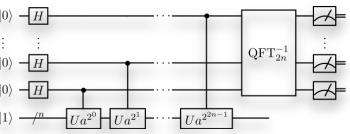
Best known classical algorithm is number field sieve (exponential in bit-length).

Underpins the RSA cryptosystem

Hidden Subgroup Problems (eg. Discrete logarithm) similar.



Peter Shor



Shor, Proc 35th Ann Symp of Comp Sci, 26, (1995)

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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-n	n	b	Year	Solver
RSA-180	180	595	May 8, 2010	S. A. Danikov and I. A. Popovyan, Moscow State University
RSA-190	190	629	November 8, 2010	A. Timofeev and I. A. Popovyan
RSA-640	193	640	November 2, 2005	Jens Franke et al., University of Bonn
RSA-200	200	693	May 5, 2006	Jens Franke et al., University of Bonn
RSA-210	210	696	September 26, 2013	Ryan Propper
RSA-704	212	704	July 2, 2012	Shi Bai, Emmanuel Thomé and Paul Zimmermann
RSA-220	220	729	May 13, 2016	S. Bai, P. Gaudry, A. Kruppa, E. Thomé and P. Zimmermann
RSA-230	230	762	August 15, 2018	Samuel S. Gross, Noise, Inc.
RSA-232	232	768		
RSA-768	232	768	December 12, 2009	Thorsten Kleinjung et al.
RSA-240	240	785		

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.

$$a = b^t \text{ mod } N$$

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 found:

$$k^4 t = t \bmod r$$

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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 s.t 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):

$$\begin{aligned} a &= a_1 2^{n-1} + a_2 2^{n-2} + \dots + a_{n-2} 2 + a_n \\ b &= b_1 2^{n-1} + b_2 2^{n-2} + \dots + b_{n-2} 2 + b_n \\ s &= a + b = s_1 2^{n-1} + s_2 2^{n-2} + \dots + s_{n-2} 2 + s_n \end{aligned}$$

Diagram illustrating the addition process:

a_1	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(0\rangle + e^{2\pi i (a_1 \alpha_1 \alpha_2)} 1\rangle)$	$R_Z(b_1 \frac{\pi}{2^n})$	$R_Z(b_2 \frac{\pi}{2^n})$	$R_Z(b_n \frac{\pi}{2^n})$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(0\rangle + e^{2\pi i (a_1 \alpha_1 \alpha_2 e^{2\pi i (b_1 \beta_1 \beta_2)})} 1\rangle)$	s_1
a_2	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(0\rangle + e^{2\pi i (a_2 \alpha_2 \alpha_3)} 1\rangle)$	$R_Z(b_2 \frac{\pi}{2^n})$	$R_Z(b_3 \frac{\pi}{2^n})$		$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(0\rangle + e^{2\pi i (a_2 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 e^{2\pi i (b_2 \beta_2 \beta_3)})} 1\rangle)$	s_2
a_3	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(0\rangle + e^{2\pi i (a_3 \alpha_3)} 1\rangle)$	$R_Z(b_3 \frac{\pi}{2^n})$			$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(0\rangle + e^{2\pi i (a_3 \alpha_3 e^{2\pi i (b_3 \beta_3)})} 1\rangle)$	s_3

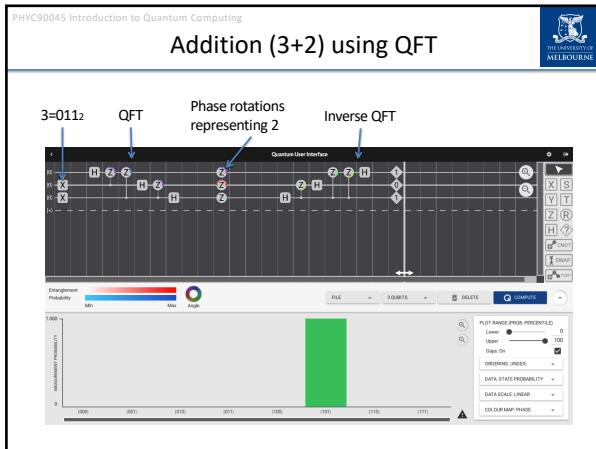
QFT

QFT*

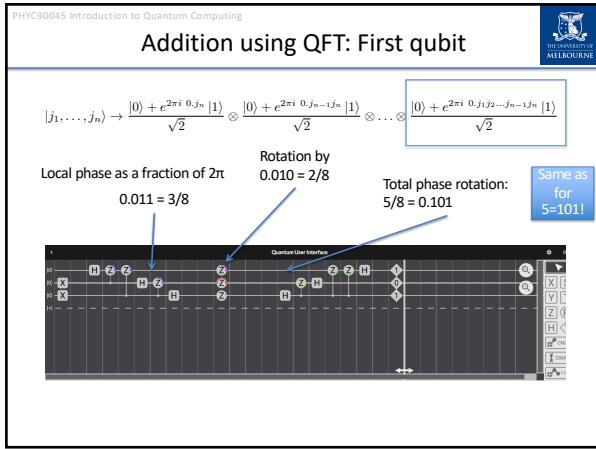
e.g.

$$R_Z(b_1 \frac{\pi}{2}) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + C|1\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + Ce^{i\pi b_1}|1\rangle) - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + Ce^{2\pi i b_1/2}|1\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + Ce^{2\pi i b_1}|1\rangle)$$

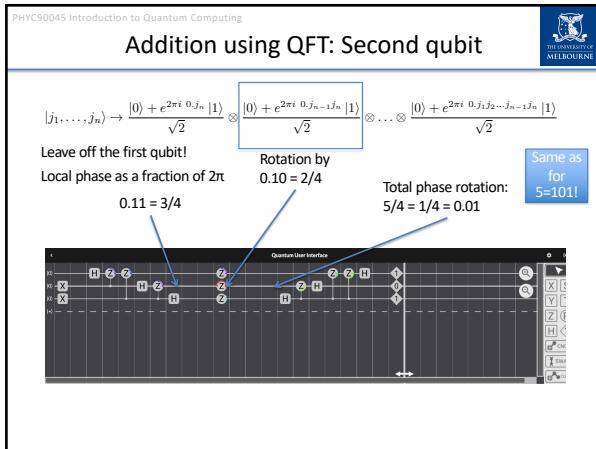
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Addition using QFT: Third qubit

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

Leave off the first two qubits!
Local phase as a fraction of 2π
 $0.1 = \frac{\pi}{2}$
 $2\pi/2=\pi$

Rotation by 0.0 = 0
 $2\pi/2=\pi$

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

Same as for S=101!

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Addition using QFT: Third qubit

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

Leave off the first two qubits!

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

π rotation means H makes this state "1"

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Addition using QFT: Second qubit

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

Leave off the first qubit!
Local phase as a fraction of 2π

Total phase rotation:
 $5/4 = 1/4 = 0.01$

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

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

Local phase as a fraction of 2π

Total phase rotation:
 $5/8 = 0.101$

Gives the answer,
 $3+2=5$

Quantum User Interface

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

Remaining π phase, leaves qubit in 1 state

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Multiplier

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

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

Add 3 iff the ones bit is a 1

Quantum User Interface

2 = 0101

Entanglement Probability: Min, Max, Angle

FILE: 6 QUBITS

MEASUREMENT PROBABILITY: 1.000

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Quantum User Interface

Add 6 iff the two's bit is a 1

$2 = 010_2$

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The screenshot shows a quantum circuit interface with the following details:

- Quantum User Interface**: The title at the top.
- Quantum Circuit**: A sequence of qubits (labeled 0 to 7) and gates. The circuit starts with an initial state of $|2\rangle = |010\rangle$. It includes various gates such as X, H, Z, and CNOT-like gates between qubits. A blue arrow points from the text "Add 4 (=12 mod 8) iff the fours bit is a 1" to the fourth qubit, which has a red Z gate.
- Entanglement Probability**: A slider with three positions: Min, Max, and Angle.
- FILE**: A dropdown menu.
- 6 QUBITS**: A label indicating the number of qubits.
- Measurement Probability**: A graph showing the probability distribution across 16 possible states (00000000 to 11111111). The bar for state 00000000 is at its maximum (red).

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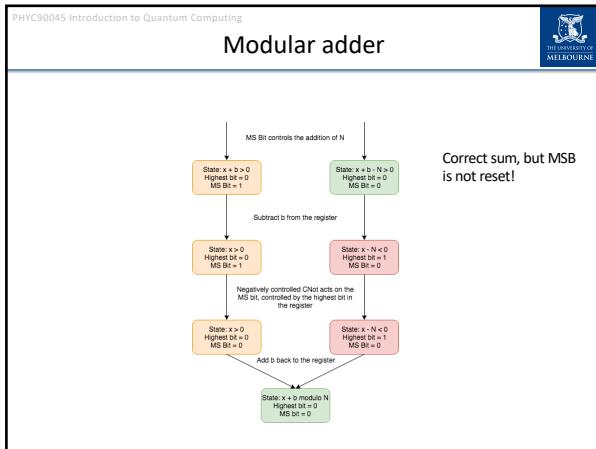
For **modular** arithmetic:

Add an extra qubit, the MSB. This qubit keeps track if we are $> N$. Care has to be taken to reset it unitarily.

```

graph TD
    Start[Start with x] --> Sub[Perform x + b - N]
    Sub --> Left[State: x + b - N <= 0  
Highest bit = 1]
    Sub --> Right[State: x + b - N > 0  
Highest bit = 0]
    Left --> CNOT[CNOT acts on the MS bit, controlled by the highest bit in the register]
    Right --> CNOT
    CNOT --> MS[MS Bit controls the addition of N]
    MS --> Less[x+b<N]
    MS --> Greater[x+b>N]
    
```

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This Week

Lecture 11
Fourier Transformations, Regular Fourier Transform, Fourier Transform as a matrix, Quantum Fourier Transform, QFT examples, Inverse QFT

Lecture 12
Shor's Quantum Factoring algorithm, Shor's algorithm for factoring and discrete logarithm, HSP Problem

Lab 6
QFT and Shor's algorithm

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