## 1 Shor's Algorithm

## 1.1 Period Finding

We define a classical oracle as some black box that we can query with  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_M$  that returns f(x). Classically, we can do this in  $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{M})$  to find r. We similarly define a quantum oracle as a black box that takes some  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_M$  in an input register  $|x\rangle$  and outputs  $|f(x)\rangle$  in a way that is not necessarily reversible or unitary. We can commonly encapsulate this oracle into some unitary  $U_f$  such that:

$$|x\rangle|z\rangle \xrightarrow{U_f} |x\rangle|z + f(x)\rangle$$
 (1)

where the + is carried out in mod N such that our input register is in  $\mathbb{Z}_M$  as before. Note that our output register is in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$ . We note that our quantum query complexity becomes the number of times our quantum algorithm uses  $U_f$ .

#### **Problem 1.1 (Period Finding)**

*Input:* Given a function,  $f : \mathbb{Z}_M \to \mathbb{Z}_N$  with the promise that f is periodic with period r < M such that  $M \mod r \equiv 0$ :

- $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}_M$ , f(x+r) = f(x) where addition is carried out over mod M
- f is one-to-one in each period:  $\forall 0 \le x_1 < x_2 \le r, f(x_1) \ne f(x_2)$
- We can find and are given a quantum oracle as a unitary  $U_f: \mathcal{H}_M \otimes \mathcal{H}_N \to \mathcal{H}_M \otimes \mathcal{H}_N$  that encapsulates the action of f(x).

*Task*: Find *r* in time  $\mathcal{O}(\text{poly}(m))$  with an input size of  $m = \mathcal{O}(\log M)$ .

To solve our period finding problem, we must invoke the quantum Fourier transform, a fundamental technique in almost every quantum algorithm with a speed-up over classical ones. The quantum transform closely follows the classical version. When formulated using qubits, we choose it to follow the discrete classical Fourier transform except with a basis of qubits going from the computational basis to a dual basis as shown in the following theorem:

#### Theorem 1.2 (Quantum Fourier Transform (QFT))

The quantum Fourier transform is a unitary transformation between dual variables such that

it acts as a unitary and we assume that it has an efficient implementation with  $\mathcal{O}(m^2)$  gates.

$$|x\rangle \to \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{y=0}^{M-1} \omega^{xy} |y\rangle$$
 (2)

where  $\omega = e^{2\pi i/M}$ .

We can employ our quantum Fourier transform to devise an algorithm for period finding:

### **Algorithm 1.3 (Period Finding)**

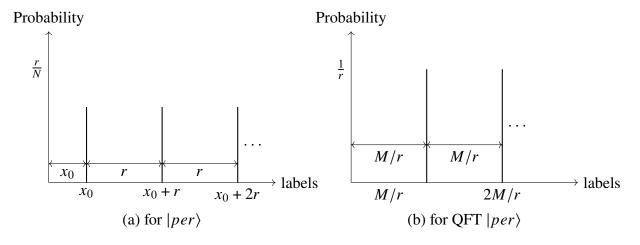
- 1. Make the superposition state  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} |i\rangle |0\rangle$
- 2. Query  $U_f$  to get  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} |i\rangle |f(i)\rangle$
- 3. Measure the output register and if the measurement outcome is  $y \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ , then by the Born rule, our state collapses such that the input register is a superposition of i such that f(i) = y, meaning that  $i \in x_0, x_0 + r, x_0 + 2r \dots, x_0 + (A-1)r$  where A = M/r each with equal probability and some random shift  $x_0$  so:

$$|per\rangle = \frac{1}{-}$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{A-1} |x_o + jr\rangle (3)$$

- 4. Apply the quantum Fourier transform to  $|per\rangle$
- 5. Measure the final outcome after applying QFT

We can visualize our state outcomes of step 3 and step 4 as the following combs, (a) and (b) respectively:



Walking through step 4 of the algorithm we are first given some  $|per\rangle = \frac{1}{A} \sum_{j=0}^{A-1} |x_o + jr\rangle$  from step 3, where A = M/r. Applying QFT with  $\omega = e^{2\pi i/A}$ , we get:

$$QFT |per\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{y=0}^{M-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{A}} \sum_{j=0}^{A-1} \omega^{(x_0 + jr)y} |y\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{MA}} \sum_{y=0}^{M-1} \omega^{x_0 y} \left( \sum_{j=0}^{A-1} \omega^{jry} \right) |y\rangle \tag{4}$$

#### **Note 1.4**

The sum of a geometric series with ratio  $\alpha$  starting at 1 is  $\frac{1-\alpha^N}{1-\alpha}$  if  $\alpha \neq 1$  and N if  $\alpha = 1$ .

If we let  $\alpha = \omega^{ry} = e^{2\pi i r y/A}$  the only nonzero terms will be if  $\omega^{ry} = 1$  since if  $\omega \neq 1$ ,  $\frac{1-\alpha^A}{1-\alpha} = 0$  and we can rewrite our result as:

$$QFT |per\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{A}{M}} \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} \omega^{x_0 k M/r} |kM/r\rangle$$
 (5)

where our dual variable y can be expressed as:  $y \to kM/r$  for integer  $k \le M$ .

Now, since the measurement outcomes and probability are independent of  $x_0$ , our results carry useful information about r! Going through our 5th step, we measure QFT $|per\rangle$  to get an outcome of  $c = \frac{k_0 M}{r}$  for some  $0 \le k_0 \le r - 1$ . Note that  $\frac{c}{M} = \frac{k_0}{r}$ , so if  $k_0$  was co-prime to r, we can cancel c/M down to its lowest terms and read off r.

#### **Theorem 1.5 (Co-primality)**

The number of integers less than r that are coprime to r scales as  $\mathcal{O}(\frac{r}{\log \log r})$  for large r.

Thus, the probability that step 5 gives us some  $k_0$  that is coprime to r is  $\mathcal{O}(\frac{r}{\log \log r})$ . To check the computed value of  $\tilde{r}$ , we can query  $U_f$  to see if  $f(0) = f(\tilde{r})$ , verifying the periodicity. Finally, we can continue to repeat the algorithm multiple times to boost our success probability  $(\mathcal{O}(\log \log M) = \mathcal{O}(\log m))$  is shown to be optimal in the next section).

## 1.2 Shor's Factoring Algorithm

Given a classic factoring problem, we can frame it as such:

#### **Problem 1.6 (Factoring)**

*Input*: A positive integer N representing the number we would like to factorize.

Task: Find a nontrivial factor of N in polynomial time  $\mathcal{O}(\text{poly}n)$  in  $n = \log(N)$ .

- 1. We note that the length of the input/memory space in bits required to store the input is given by  $n = \log(N)$ .
- 2. Classically, the best-known algorithm runs in  $\exp\left\{\mathcal{O}(n^{\frac{1}{3}}(\log n)^{\frac{2}{3}})\right\}$  time.
- 3. The quantum algorithm, using Shor's, runs in  $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ .

We can convert our factoring problem conveniently into a period-determination problem as follows!

If we are given some N, we can choose some a that is co-prime to N such that a < N. Following Euler's theorem, we define a function:

$$f: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}_N, f(x) = a^x \mod N$$
 (6)

From Euler's theorem, we know that f(x) is periodic since  $\exists x$  such that  $1 \equiv a^x \mod N$  and  $f(x_1 + x_2) = f(x_1)f(x_2)$  by nature of the exponential function. Thus, the period, r (the smallest such x), is of order N. As we have an efficient quantum algorithm (period finding) and can find r, we note that:

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

So, N can always be factored into the product  $(a^{r/2}-1)(a^{r/2}+1)$  and given some r, we can calculate each of these terms in  $\mathcal{O}(\operatorname{poly}(n))$  time.

*Note:* This is only true given that r is even and  $a^{r/2} - 1 \not\equiv -1 \mod N$  so we must determine how likely this is [1]. To do so, we invoke the following theorem whose proof is given in Nielsen and Chuang [1, 2]:

#### Theorem 1.7

Suppose  $N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  is odd and not a power of a prime. If a < N is chosen uniformly at random with gcd(a,N) = 1, then  $Prob\left(r \text{ is even and } a^{r/2} \equiv -1 \pmod{N}\right) \geq \frac{1}{2}$ .

Noting this, for any N not odd nor a prime power, we will obtain a valid factor with a probability of at least  $\frac{1}{2}$  and we can easily check it in  $\mathcal{O}(\text{poly}(n))$  time by simply dividing it into N. Thus, if we repeat the process, we will be able to successfully factorize N with high probability. Formalizing the bound, we can state the following theorem:

#### Theorem 1.8

*Prob* (at least 1 success in M trials)  $\geq 1 - \epsilon$  if  $M = \frac{-\log \epsilon}{p}$ , where p is the success probability for 1 trial.

#### **Proof (Theorem 1.4)**

The probability of at least 1 success in M trials is given by  $1 - (1 - p)^M$ . Note that if we require  $(1 - p)^M < \epsilon$ , then taking log of both sides, we get:

$$M \log(1 - p) < \log \epsilon$$

Since  $0 \le p \le 1$ , note that  $-p \le \log(1-p)$ , and thus we can rewrite our inequality as:

$$-Mp \leq \log \epsilon$$

which gives us our required bound of  $M = \frac{-\log \epsilon}{p}$ .  $\square$ 

Thus, using our knowledge, we can now formulate Shor's algorithm as a period-finding problem and by finding r, repeating multiple times  $(M = \frac{-\log \epsilon}{p})$  for  $1 - \epsilon$  success probability.

## 2 Hidden Subgroup Algorithm

## 2.1 Why does QFT help? (Shift Operators)

Given  $R = \{0, r, 2, r, \dots, (A-1)r\} \in \mathbb{Z}_M$ , consider:

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

Looking at our periodic state after applying  $U_f$ :

$$|per\rangle = |x_0 + R\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{A}} \sum_{k=0}^{A-1} |x_0 + kr\rangle$$
 (7)

The problem for us previously was that  $x_0$  was some random shift so thus we needed the QFT to exploit the periodic structure. For each  $x_i \in \mathbb{Z}_M$  we can define the shift operator mapping  $x_i \to x_i + k$  with an associated linear map shift operator  $T(x_0) : \mathcal{H}_M \to \mathcal{H}_M$ . Because  $(\mathbb{Z}_M, +)$  is abelian, the  $U(x_i)$  commute with each other and thus have a shift-invariant basis set:

#### **Definition 2.1 (Shift-invariant States)**

A simultaneous basis of eigenvectors,  $\{|\chi_k\rangle\}$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_M$ , such that for any  $k, x_i \in \mathbb{Z}_M$  and given some linear map shift operator  $T(x_i)$  such that  $T(x_i) |\chi_k\rangle = \omega(x_i, k) |\chi_k\rangle$ .

- We restrict  $|\omega(x_i, k)| = 1$
- This forms an orthonormal basis for  $\mathcal{H}_M$ .

•  $\omega(x_i,k)$  can be thought of the character of  $Z_M$ .

Now, we can write R in the shift-invariant basis:

$$|R\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} a_k |\chi_k\rangle \tag{8}$$

$$|per\rangle = T(x_0) |R\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} a_k \omega(x_0, k) |\chi_k\rangle$$
 (9)

where the  $a_k$ 's only depend on r. A measurement in the  $|\chi_k\rangle$  basis gives an outcome k with  $Prob(k) = |a_k\omega(x_0,k)|^2 = |a_k|^2$ .

Suppose that the unitary U maps from the shift-invariant basis to the computational basis (not to be confused with the linear map shift operator):

$$|\chi_k\rangle \xrightarrow{U} |k\rangle$$
 (10)

We can thus let:

$$|\chi_k\rangle = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{l=0}^{M-1} e^{-2\pi i k l/M} |l\rangle \tag{11}$$

$$\implies T(x_0) |\chi_k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{l=0}^{M-1} e^{-2\pi i k l/M |x_0+l\rangle} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{l=0}^{M-1} e^{-2\pi i k (\tilde{l}-x_0)/M |\tilde{l}\rangle}$$
(12)

$$=e^{2\pi i k x_0/M} \left| \chi_k \right\rangle \tag{13}$$

where  $e^{2\pi i k x_0/M}$  is simply our character  $\omega(x_0, k) = \omega^{k x_0}$ .

Looking at  $U^{-1}: |k\rangle \to |\chi_k\rangle$ , we note that  $[U^{-1}]_{jk} = \langle j|U^{-1}|k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}}e^{-2\pi jk/M}$ , so thus:

$$[U]_{jk} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} e^{2\pi i jk/M} \tag{14}$$

$$U|k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} e^{2\pi i j k/M} |j\rangle$$
 (15)

This is just our quantum Fourier transform! Thus, we can see how going from our shift-invariant basis to our computational basis and vice versa is done using QFT.

## 2.2 Hidden Subgroup Problem

#### Problem 2.2

*Input:* Some finite group G of size |G| and an oracle for a function  $f: G \to X$ .

*Promise:* There is a subgroup K < G such that:

- f is a constant on the (left) cosets of K in G.
- f is distinct on distinct cosets

*Task:* Determine the hidden subgroup K in time/queries  $\mathcal{O}(poly(\log |G|))$  with high probability  $1 - \epsilon$ .

#### **Definition 2.3 (Coset)**

The set of cosets is given by  $gK = \{gk | k \in K\}$  for all  $g \in G$ .

### 2.2.1 Period Finding as an HSP

 $f: \mathbb{Z}_M \to \mathbb{Z}_N$  with periodic r and 1-1 in each period.  $G = \mathbb{Z}_M$ ,  $K = < r > = \{0, r, 2r, ..., (A-1)r\}$ . Cosets of  $K: x_0 + K = \{x_0, x_0 + r, x_0 + 2r, ..., x_0 + (A-1)r\}$ ;  $0 \le x_0 \le r$ 

#### 2.2.2 Discrete Logarithm as an HSP

We are given prime p and the group  $G = \mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$  under multiplication mod p.  $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is called a generator (or a primitive root) mod p if powers of g generate  $\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{g^0, g, g^2, \dots, g^{p-2}\}$  and  $g^{p-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$ . The discrete log problem is to find  $y = \log_g x$ .

# References

- [1] Richard Jozsa. Quantum information and computation part ii lecture notes. Lecture Notes, University of Cambridge, 2024. Available at https://www.qi.damtp.cam.ac.uk/files/PartIIIQC/Part%202%20QIC%20lecturenotes.pdf.
- [2] Michael A. Nielsen and Isaac L. Chuang. *Quantum Computation and Quantum Information:* 10th Anniversary Edition. Cambridge University Press, 2010.