Christian B. Mendl, Martina Nibbi, Pedro Hack, Irene López Gutiérrez

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Tutorial 3 (Number theory fundamentals¹)

We denote the greatest common divisor of two integers a and b by $\gcd(a,b)$. By the representation theorem for the greatest common divisor, $\gcd(a,b)$ is the least positive integer which can be written in the form ax + by, where x and y are integers. Two integers a and b are said to be co-prime if their greatest common divisor is a.

Euclid's algorithm can efficiently compute gcd(a, b). It is based on the following

Theorem. Let a and b be integers, and let r be the remainder when a is divided by b. Then provided $r \neq 0$,

$$gcd(a, b) = gcd(b, r).$$

As demonstration, we find gcd(6825, 1430) using Euclid's algorithm:

$$6825 = 4 \cdot 1430 + 1105$$
$$1430 = 1 \cdot 1105 + 325$$
$$1105 = 3 \cdot 325 + 130$$
$$325 = 2 \cdot 130 + 65$$
$$130 = 2 \cdot 65$$

From this we see that gcd(6825, 1430) = 65.

Euclid's algorithm has runtime cost $\mathcal{O}(L^3)$, where L is the number of bits required to represent a and b. One can adapt it to compute the integers x and y in the representation

$$ax + by = \gcd(a, b),$$

too, by successive substitution. For the example above:

$$65 = 325 - 2 \cdot 130$$

$$= 325 - 2 \cdot (1105 - 3 \cdot 325) = -2 \cdot 1105 + 7 \cdot 325$$

$$= -2 \cdot 1105 + 7 \cdot (1430 - 1 \cdot 1105) = 7 \cdot 1430 - 9 \cdot 1105$$

$$= 7 \cdot 1430 - 9 \cdot (6825 - 4 \cdot 1430) = -9 \cdot 6825 + 37 \cdot 1430.$$

(a) When does a number a have a multiplicative inverse in modular arithmetic, that is, given a and n, when does there exist an integer b such that $ab=1 \mod n$? For example, $2\cdot 3=1 \mod 5$, so the number 2 has multiplicative inverse 3 in arithmetic modulo 5. Answer this question by deriving the following

Proposition. Let n be an integer greater than 1. Then another integer a has a multiplicative inverse modulo n if and only if gcd(a, n) = 1, that is, a and n are co-prime.

(b) Prove the following

Theorem (Fermat's little theorem). Suppose p is a prime, and a is any integer. Then $a^p = a \mod p$. If a is not divisible by p then $a^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$.

This theorem has a generalization based on the Euler φ function: $\varphi(n)$ is defined to be the number of positive integers less than n which are co-prime to n. As an example, note that all positive integers less than a prime p are co-prime to p, and thus $\varphi(p)=p-1$. One can derive the useful relation $\varphi(ab)=\varphi(a)\varphi(b)$ if a and b are co-prime via the Chinese remainder theorem.

(c) Deduce that, for p prime,

$$\varphi(p^{\alpha}) = p^{\alpha - 1}(p - 1).$$

Thus, we can obtain $\varphi(n)$ based on the prime factorization of n, $n=p_1^{\alpha_1}\cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$:

$$\varphi(n) = \prod_{j=1}^{k} p_j^{\alpha_j - 1} (p_j - 1).$$

Finally, we state the following remarkable generalization of Fermat's little theorem, due to Euler:

Theorem. Suppose a is co-prime to n. Then $a^{\varphi(n)} = 1 \mod n$.

¹M. A. Nielsen, I. L. Chuang: Quantum Computation and Quantum Information. Cambridge University Press (2010), Appendix 4

Exercise 3.1 (Order-finding)

Let x and N be positive integers with no common factors and x < N. Recall that the *order* of x modulo N is the least positive integer r such that $x^r = 1 \mod N$. We denote the number of bits required to represent N by L. The quantum algorithm for order-finding is the phase estimation algorithm applied to the unitary operator

$$U |y\rangle = \begin{cases} |x \cdot y \mod N\rangle & 0 \le y < N \\ |y\rangle & N \le y < 2^L \end{cases}$$

for $y \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^L - 1\}$. (Only the case y < N is relevant here.)

(a) We discuss in the lecture that the states

$$|u_s\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} e^{-2\pi i s k/r} |x^k \mod N\rangle \quad \text{for } s = 0, 1, \dots, r-1$$

are eigenstates of U with corresponding eigenvalues $\mathrm{e}^{2\pi is/r}$, and that

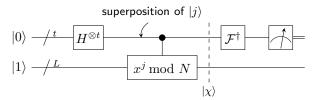
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} |u_s\rangle = |1\rangle. \tag{1}$$

Verify the following generalization of Eq. (1):

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} e^{2\pi i s k/r} |u_s\rangle = |x^k \mod N\rangle \quad \text{for all } k = 0, 1, \dots, r-1.$$

Hint: Use that $\frac{1}{r}\sum_{s=0}^{r-1} \mathrm{e}^{2\pi i s k/r} = \delta_{0,k \mod r}$ for all integer k.

Based on Eq. (1), the quantum algorithm for order-finding uses $|1\rangle$ as input in the second register. You should convince yourself that $U^j |1\rangle = |x^j \mod N\rangle$. This leads to the following schematic circuit:



Thus the quantum state $|\chi\rangle$ before the inverse Fourier transform is

$$|\chi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^t}} \sum_{j=0}^{2^t - 1} |j\rangle |x^j \mod N\rangle.$$

(b) In the following, we set N=15 and x=7. What is the order r of x modulo N? Write down the state $|\chi\rangle$ explicitly for t=5.

The *principle of implicit measurement* states that, without loss of generality, any unterminated quantum wires (qubits which are not measured) at the end of a quantum circuit may be assumed to be measured.

- (c) Apply this principle by projecting $|\chi\rangle$ from (b) onto one of the (randomly selected) basis states appearing in the second register, say $|4\rangle$: that is, retain only basis states of the form $|j\rangle\,|4\rangle$ in $|\chi\rangle$, and normalize the resulting state $|\chi'\rangle$ to 1.
- (d) Finally, compute the inverse Fourier transform $\mathcal{F}^{\dagger}|\chi'\rangle$, and plot the probability distribution of the result. Hint: You can use the following Python code for this purpose, where you still have to insert $|\chi'\rangle$ represented as vector. Because of different conventions, we use NumPy's forward Fourier transform here.

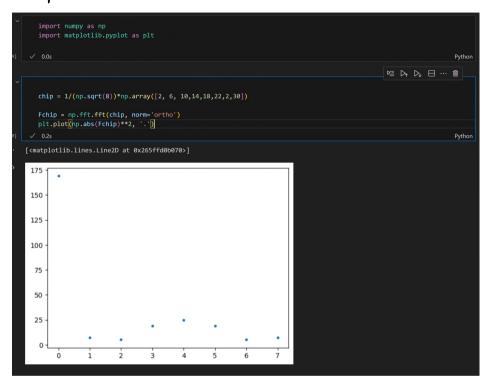
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
chip = np.array([...])
Fchip = np.fft.fft(chip, norm='ortho')
plt.plot(np.abs(Fchip)**2, '.')

The nonzero entries of $\mathcal{F}^{\dagger} | \chi' \rangle$ should appear at indices ℓ with $\frac{\ell}{2^t} = \frac{s}{r}$ for some $s \in \{0, 1, \dots, r-1\}$, in accordance with phase estimation.

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} \sum_{j=0}^{2n} \frac{1}{2^{2}} \sum_{i,j=1}^{2n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{i=0}^{2n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{j=0}^{2n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{j=0}^{2n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{i=0}^{2n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{i=0}^{2n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{j=0}^{2n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{i=0}^{2n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{i=0}^{2n}$$

(3) = 1/8 [127+(67+100)+147+1187+1227+1267+1207]

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Exercise 3.2 (Quantum Fourier transform for prime dimensions)

Construct a quantum circuit which performs the quantum Fourier transform

$$|j\rangle \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} e^{2\pi i j k/p} |k\rangle,$$

where p is a prime number.

Hints: You can assume that $|j\rangle$ is encoded via n qubits, with n the smallest integer such that $p \leq 2^n$, and that j < p. To simplify the problem, you can further assume that the output of the circuit is to be stored in a separate quantum register with n qubits, which is already initialized to the equal superposition state $|\Phi_p\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}\sum_{k=0}^{p-1}|k\rangle$. Thus the overall transformation reads

$$|j\rangle \otimes |\Phi_p\rangle \mapsto |j\rangle \otimes \mathsf{QFT}\, |j\rangle = |j\rangle \otimes \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \mathrm{e}^{2\pi i j \, k/p}\, |k\rangle\right).$$

(Note that the two registers become entangled in general.) Finally, you may use (controlled) rotation gates of the form

$$R_{m,p} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{2\pi i \, 2^m/p} \end{pmatrix}.$$

