# Foundational Quantum Algorithms

Part 2

Phase estimation and Shor's algorithm

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# Eigenvectors and eigenvalues

Suppose M is an  $N \times N$  matrix,  $|\psi\rangle$  is a non-zero N-dimensional vector, and  $\lambda$  is a complex number such that

$$M|\psi\rangle = \lambda|\psi\rangle$$

Then the  $|\psi\rangle$  is an eigenvector of M and  $\lambda$  is its associated eigenvalue.

Relevant facts about *unitary matrices*:

- Every unitary matrix has an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors. (This is true more generally for normal matrices — which are matrices that commute with their own conjugate transpose.)
- Every eigenvalue of a unitary matrix lies on the complex unit circle  $\{\alpha \in \mathbb{C} : |\alpha| = 1\}$ .

That is, for every  $N \times N$  unitary matrix U, there exists an orthonormal basis  $\{|\psi_0\rangle, \dots, |\psi_{N-1}\rangle\}$  along with real numbers  $\theta_0, \dots, \theta_{N-1} \in [0, 1)$  such that

$$U|\psi_k\rangle = e^{2\pi i\theta_k}|\psi_k\rangle$$
 (for each  $k = 0, ..., N-1$ )

### Phase estimation problem

In the phase estimation problem, we're given two things:

- 1. A description of a unitary quantum circuit on n qubits.
- 2. An n-qubit quantum state  $|\psi\rangle$ .

We're  $\frac{promised}{promised}$  that  $|\psi\rangle$  is an eigenvector of the unitary operation U described by the circuit, and our goal is to approximate the corresponding eigenvalue.

#### Phase estimation problem

Input: A unitary quantum circuit for an n-qubit operation U and an n qubit

quantum state  $|\psi\rangle$ 

Promise:  $|\psi\rangle$  is an eigenvector of U

Output: An approximation to the number  $\theta \in [0, 1)$  satisfying

$$U|\psi\rangle = e^{2\pi i\theta}|\psi\rangle$$

### Phase estimation problem

#### Phase estimation problem

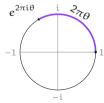
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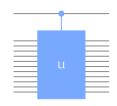
We can approximate  $\theta$  by a fraction

$$\theta \approx \frac{y}{2^m}$$

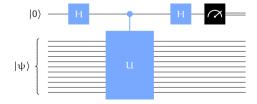
for 
$$y \in \{0, 1, ..., 2^m - 1\}$$
.

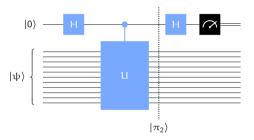
This approximation is taken "modulo 1."

Given a circuit for U, we can create a circuit for a controlled-U operation:

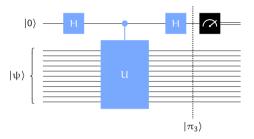


Let's consider this circuit:





$$\begin{split} |\pi_0\rangle &= |\psi\rangle|0\rangle \\ |\pi_1\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|\psi\rangle|0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|\psi\rangle|1\rangle \\ |\pi_2\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|\psi\rangle|0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\big(U|\psi\rangle\big)|1\rangle = |\psi\rangle \otimes \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|0\rangle + \frac{e^{2\pi i\theta}}{\sqrt{2}}|1\rangle\right) \end{split}$$

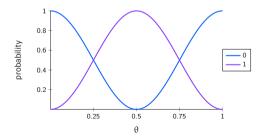


$$\begin{split} |\pi_2\rangle &= |\psi\rangle \otimes \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|0\rangle + \frac{e^{2\pi i\theta}}{\sqrt{2}}|1\rangle\right) \\ |\pi_3\rangle &= |\psi\rangle \otimes \left(\frac{1 + e^{2\pi i\theta}}{2}|0\rangle + \frac{1 - e^{2\pi i\theta}}{2}|1\rangle\right) \end{split}$$

$$|\psi\rangle\otimes\left(\frac{1+e^{2\pi\mathrm{i}\theta}}{2}|0\rangle+\frac{1-e^{2\pi\mathrm{i}\theta}}{2}|1\rangle\right)$$

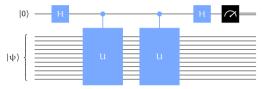
Measuring the top (i.e., rightmost) qubit yields the outcomes 0 and 1 with these probabilities:

$$p_0 = \left| \frac{1 + e^{2\pi i \theta}}{2} \right|^2 = \cos^2(\pi \theta)$$
  $p_1 = \left| \frac{1 - e^{2\pi i \theta}}{2} \right|^2 = \sin^2(\pi \theta)$ 

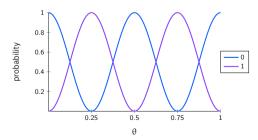


# Iterating the unitary operation

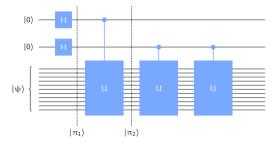
How can we learn more about θ? One possibility is to apply the controlled-U operation twice:



Performing the controlled-U operation twice has the effect of squaring the eigenvalue:

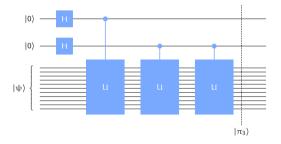


Let's use two control qubits to perform the controlled-U operations — and then we'll see how best to proceed.



$$\begin{split} |\pi_1\rangle &= |\psi\rangle \otimes \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\alpha_0=0}^1 \sum_{\alpha_1=0}^1 |\alpha_1\alpha_0\rangle \\ |\pi_2\rangle &= |\psi\rangle \otimes \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\alpha_0=0}^1 \sum_{\alpha_1=0}^1 e^{2\pi i \alpha_0 \theta} |\alpha_1\alpha_0\rangle \end{split}$$

Let's use two control qubits to perform the controlled-U operations — and then we'll see how best to proceed.



$$\begin{split} |\pi_3\rangle &= |\psi\rangle \otimes \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\alpha_0=0}^1 \sum_{\alpha_1=0}^1 e^{2\pi i (2\alpha_1 + \alpha_0)\theta} |\alpha_1\alpha_0\rangle \\ &= |\psi\rangle \otimes \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x=0}^3 e^{2\pi i x\theta} |x\rangle \end{split}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{x=0}^{3} e^{2\pi i x \theta} |x\rangle$$

What can we learn about  $\theta$  from this state? Suppose we're promised that  $\theta = \frac{u}{4}$  for  $y \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ . Can we figure out which one it is?

Define a two-qubit state for each possibility:

$$\begin{split} |\varphi_{y}\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x=0}^{3} e^{2\pi i \frac{xy}{4}} |x\rangle \\ |\varphi_{0}\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle + \frac{1}{2} |1\rangle + \frac{1}{2} |2\rangle + \frac{1}{2} |3\rangle \\ |\varphi_{1}\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle + \frac{i}{2} |1\rangle - \frac{1}{2} |2\rangle - \frac{i}{2} |3\rangle \\ |\varphi_{2}\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle - \frac{1}{2} |1\rangle + \frac{1}{2} |2\rangle - \frac{1}{2} |3\rangle \\ |\varphi_{3}\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle - \frac{i}{2} |1\rangle - \frac{1}{2} |2\rangle + \frac{i}{2} |3\rangle \end{split}$$

These vectors are orthonormal — so they can be discriminated perfectly by a projective measurement.

$$\begin{split} |\varphi_{y}\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x=0}^{3} e^{2\pi i \frac{x \cdot y}{4}} |x\rangle \\ |\varphi_{0}\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle + \frac{1}{2} |1\rangle + \frac{1}{2} |2\rangle + \frac{1}{2} |3\rangle \\ |\varphi_{1}\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle + \frac{i}{2} |1\rangle - \frac{1}{2} |2\rangle - \frac{i}{2} |3\rangle \\ |\varphi_{2}\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle - \frac{1}{2} |1\rangle + \frac{1}{2} |2\rangle - \frac{1}{2} |3\rangle \\ |\varphi_{3}\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle - \frac{i}{2} |1\rangle - \frac{1}{2} |2\rangle + \frac{i}{2} |3\rangle \end{split}$$

These vectors are orthonormal — so they can be discriminated perfectly by a projective measurement.

$$\{|\phi_0\rangle\langle\phi_0|, |\phi_1\rangle\langle\phi_1|, |\phi_2\rangle\langle\phi_2|, |\phi_3\rangle\langle\phi_3|\}$$

The unitary matrix V whose columns are  $|\phi_0\rangle$ ,  $|\phi_1\rangle$ ,  $|\phi_2\rangle$ ,  $|\phi_3\rangle$  has this action:

$$V|y\rangle = |\varphi_y\rangle$$
 (for every  $y \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ )

$$\begin{split} |\varphi_{9}\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x=0}^{3} e^{2\pi i \frac{x \cdot y}{4}} |x\rangle \\ |\varphi_{0}\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle + \frac{1}{2} |1\rangle + \frac{1}{2} |2\rangle + \frac{1}{2} |3\rangle \\ |\varphi_{1}\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle + \frac{i}{2} |1\rangle - \frac{1}{2} |2\rangle - \frac{i}{2} |3\rangle \\ |\varphi_{2}\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle - \frac{1}{2} |1\rangle + \frac{1}{2} |2\rangle - \frac{1}{2} |3\rangle \\ |\varphi_{3}\rangle &= \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle - \frac{i}{2} |1\rangle - \frac{1}{2} |2\rangle + \frac{i}{2} |3\rangle \end{split}$$

The unitary matrix V whose columns are  $|\phi_0\rangle$ ,  $|\phi_1\rangle$ ,  $|\phi_2\rangle$ ,  $|\phi_3\rangle$  has this action:

$$V|y\rangle = |\varphi_y\rangle \quad \text{(for every } y \in \{0,1,2,3\})$$

We can identify y by performing the inverse of V then a standard basis measurement.

$$V^{\dagger}|\phi_{y}\rangle = |y\rangle$$
 (for every  $y \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ )

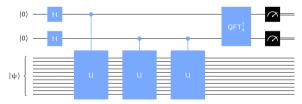
### Two-qubit phase estimation

$$\mathsf{QFT_4} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & \mathfrak{i} & -1 & -\mathfrak{i} \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -\mathfrak{i} & -1 & \mathfrak{i} \end{pmatrix}$$

This matrix is associated with the *discrete Fourier transform* (for 4 dimensions).

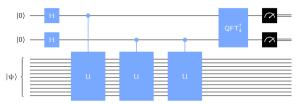
When we think about this matrix as a unitary operation, we call it the quantum Fourier transform.

The complete circuit for learning  $y \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$  when  $\theta = y/4$ :

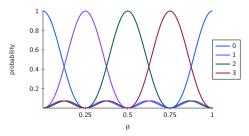


# Two-qubit phase estimation

The complete circuit for learning  $y \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$  when  $\theta = y/4$ :



The outcome probabilities when we run the circuit, as a function of  $\theta$ :



The quantum Fourier transform is defined for each positive integer N as follows.

$$\mathsf{QFT}_{\mathsf{N}} \; = \; \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mathsf{N}}} \, \sum_{\mathsf{x}=0}^{\mathsf{N}-1} \, \sum_{\mathsf{y}=0}^{\mathsf{N}-1} \, e^{2\pi \mathrm{i} \frac{\mathsf{x}\,\mathsf{y}}{\mathsf{N}}} \, |\mathsf{x}\rangle\langle\mathsf{y}\,|$$

$$\mathsf{QFT}_{\mathsf{N}}|\mathsf{y}\rangle \,=\, \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mathsf{N}}}\, \sum_{\mathsf{x}=\mathsf{0}}^{\mathsf{N}-\mathsf{1}} e^{2\pi \mathrm{i}\,\frac{\mathsf{x}\,\mathsf{y}}{\mathsf{N}}} |\mathsf{x}\rangle$$

$$QFT_1 = (1)$$

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$$\mathsf{QFT}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \mathsf{H}$$

The quantum Fourier transform is defined for each positive integer N as follows.

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$$\mathsf{QFT}_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & \frac{-1+\mathrm{i}\sqrt{3}}{2} & \frac{-1-\mathrm{i}\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ 1 & \frac{-1-\mathrm{i}\sqrt{3}}{2} & \frac{-1+\mathrm{i}\sqrt{3}}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

The quantum Fourier transform is defined for each positive integer N as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{QFT}_{N} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i \frac{xy}{N}} |x\rangle \langle y| \\ \\ \mathsf{QFT}_{N} |y\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i \frac{xy}{N}} |x\rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathsf{QFT}_4 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & \mathfrak{i} & -1 & -\mathfrak{i} \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -\mathfrak{i} & -1 & \mathfrak{i} \end{pmatrix}$$

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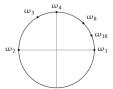
$$\mathsf{QFT}_8 = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & \frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}} & i & \frac{-1+i}{\sqrt{2}} & -1 & \frac{-1-i}{\sqrt{2}} & -i & \frac{1-i}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 1 & i & -1 & -i & 1 & i & -1 & -i \\ 1 & \frac{-1+i}{\sqrt{2}} & -i & \frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}} & -1 & \frac{1-i}{\sqrt{2}} & i & \frac{-1-i}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & \frac{-1-i}{\sqrt{2}} & i & \frac{1-i}{\sqrt{2}} & -1 & \frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}} & -i & \frac{-1+i}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 1 & -i & -1 & i & 1 & -i & -1 & i \\ 1 & \frac{1-i}{\sqrt{2}} & -i & \frac{-1-i}{\sqrt{2}} & -1 & \frac{-1+i}{\sqrt{2}} & i & \frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

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Useful notation:

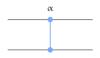
$$\omega_N = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{N}} = \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right) + i\sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right)$$



### Circuits for the QFT

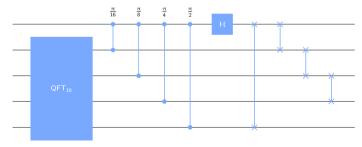
We can implement  $QFT_N$  efficiently with a quantum circuit when N is a power of 2.

The implementation makes use of *controlled-phase* gates:

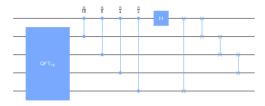


$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e^{i\alpha} \end{pmatrix}$$

The implementation is recursive in nature. As an example, here is the circuit for QFT<sub>32</sub>:



# Circuits for the QFT



#### Cost analysis

Let s<sub>m</sub> denote the number of gates we need for m qubits.

- For m = 1, a single Hadamard gate is required.
- For  $m \ge 2$ , these are the gates required:

 $s_{\,m-1}$  gates for the QFT on  $\,m-1$  qubits

m-1 controlled phase gates

m - 1 swap gates

1 Hadamard gate

$$s_m = \begin{cases} 1 & m = \\ s_{m-1} + 2m - 1 & m \ge \end{cases}$$

# Circuits for the QFT

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1 Hadamard gate

$$s_{m} = \begin{cases} 1 & m = 1 \\ s_{m-1} + 2m - 1 & m \ge 2 \end{cases}$$

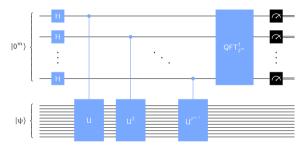
This is a *recurrence relation* with a closed-form solution:

$$s_m = \sum_{k=1}^m (2k-1) = m^2$$

#### Additional remarks:

- · The number of swap gates can be reduced.
- Approximations to QFT<sub>2</sub><sup>m</sup> can be done at lower cost (and lower depth).

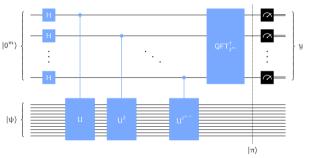
The general phase-estimation procedure, for any choice of m:



### Warning

If we perform each  $U^k$ -operation by repeating a controlled-U operation k times, increasing the number of control qubits m comes at a <u>high cost.</u>

The general phase-estimation procedure, for any choice of m:



$$|\pi\rangle = |\psi\rangle \otimes \frac{1}{2^{m}} \sum_{y=0}^{2^{m}-1} \sum_{x=0}^{2^{m}-1} e^{2\pi i x (\theta - y/2^{m})} |y\rangle$$

$$p_{y} = \left| \frac{1}{2^{m}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^{m}-1} e^{2\pi i x (\theta - y/2^{m})} \right|^{2}$$

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#### Best approximations

Suppose  $y/2^m$  is a *best approximation* to  $\theta$ :

$$\left|\theta - \frac{y}{2^m}\right|_1 \le 2^{-(m+1)}$$

The probability to measure y will be high:

$$p_{y} \ge \frac{4}{\pi^2} \approx 0.405$$

#### Worse approximations

Suppose there's a better approximation to  $\theta$  between  $y/2^m$  and  $\theta$ :

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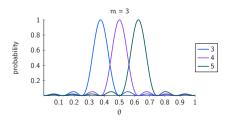
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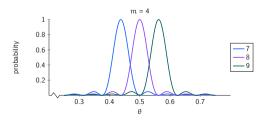
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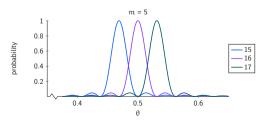
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#### Best approximations

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The probability to measure y will be high:

$$p_{y} \ge \frac{4}{\pi^2} \approx 0.405$$

#### Worse approximations

Suppose there's a better approximation to  $\theta$  between  $u/2^m$  and  $\theta$ :

$$\left|\theta - \frac{y}{2^m}\right|_1 \ge 2^{-m}$$

The probability to measure y will be lower:

$$p_y \leq \frac{1}{4}$$

To obtain an approximation  $y/2^m$  that is very likely to satisfy

$$\left|\theta-\frac{y}{2^m}\right|_1<2^{-m}$$

we can run the phase estimation procedure using m control qubits several times and take y to be the mode of the outcomes. (The eigenvector | \psi ) is unchanged by the procedure and can be reused as many times as needed.)

# Order-finding and factoring

### Order-finding problem

Input: Positive integers  $\alpha$  and N with  $gcd(\alpha, N) = 1$ .

Output: The smallest positive integer r such that  $\alpha^r \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ 

No efficient classical algorithm for this problem is known — an efficient algorithm for order-finding implies an efficient algorithm for integer factorization.

#### Factor-finding method

- 1. Choose  $\alpha \in \{2, ..., N-1\}$  at random.
- 2. Compute  $d = \gcd(a, N)$ . If  $d \ge 2$  then output d and stop.
- 3. Compute the order r of a modulo N.
- 4. If r is even, then compute  $d = \gcd(\alpha^{r/2} 1, N)$ . If  $d \ge 2$ , output d and stop.
- 5. If this step is reached, the method has failed.

This method succeeds in finding a factor of N with probability at least 1/2, provided N is odd and not a prime power.

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#### Main idea

By the definition of the order we know that  $a^r \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ , so N divides  $a^r - 1$ . If r is even, then

$$a^{r} - 1 = (a^{r/2} + 1)(a^{r/2} - 1)$$

Each prime dividing N must therefore divide either  $(a^{r/2} + 1)$  or  $(a^{r/2} - 1)$ . For a random a, at least one of the prime factors of N is likely to divide  $(a^{r/2} - 1)$ .

Assume N is a positive integer, and let  $\mathfrak n$  be the number of bits required to express N-1 in binary notation.

For every positive integer  $\alpha$  satisfying  $gcd(\alpha, N) = 1$ , define an n-qubit unitary operation as follows for  $x = 0, ..., 2^n - 1$  written in binary:

$$M_{\alpha}|x\rangle = \begin{cases} |\alpha x \mod N\rangle & 0 \le x < N \\ |x\rangle & N \le x < 2^{n} \end{cases}$$

This is a <u>unitary operation</u> — but only because gcd(a, N) = 1! We can build quantum circuits for these operations using  $O(n^2)$  gates.

#### Main idea

We'll perform phase estimation  $M_a$ .

The eigenvalues of  $M_{\alpha}$  are closely connected with the order of  $\alpha$  modulo N. By approximating the eigenvalues with enough precision, we can determine the order.

$$M_{\alpha}|x\rangle = \begin{cases} |\alpha x \mod N\rangle & 0 \le x < N \\ |x\rangle & N \le x < 2^{n} \end{cases}$$

What are (some of) the eigenvectors and eigenvalues of  $M_a$ ?

#### Notation:

- Let r denote the order of a modulo N. (We're trying to find r.)
- Every expression in a ket is taken modulo N.

Also recall that  $\omega_r = e^{2\pi i/r}$ .

$$|\psi_0\rangle = \frac{|1\rangle + |\alpha\rangle + \dots + |\alpha^{r-1}\rangle}{\sqrt{r}} \qquad M_\alpha |\psi_0\rangle = |\psi_0\rangle \qquad \theta = 0$$

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$$\left|\psi_{1}\right\rangle = \frac{\left|1\right\rangle + \omega_{r}^{-1}\left|\alpha\right\rangle + \cdots + \omega_{r}^{-(r-1)}\left|\alpha^{r-1}\right\rangle}{\sqrt{r}} \qquad \qquad M_{\alpha}\left|\psi_{1}\right\rangle = \omega_{r}\left|\psi_{1}\right\rangle \qquad \qquad \theta = \frac{1}{r}$$

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$$|\psi_{j}\rangle = \frac{|1\rangle + \omega_{r}^{-j}|\alpha\rangle + \dots + \omega_{r}^{-j(r-1)}|\alpha^{r-1}\rangle}{\sqrt{r}} \qquad \qquad M_{\alpha}|\psi_{j}\rangle = \omega_{r}^{j}|\psi_{j}\rangle \qquad \qquad \theta = \frac{j}{r}$$

$$\begin{split} M_{\alpha}|x\rangle &= \begin{cases} |\alpha x \bmod N\rangle & 0 \leq x < N \\ |x\rangle & N \leq x < 2^n \end{cases} \\ |\psi_j\rangle &= \frac{|1\rangle + \omega_r^{-j}|\alpha\rangle + \dots + \omega_r^{-j(r-1)}|\alpha^{r-1}\rangle}{\sqrt{r}} & M_{\alpha}|\psi_j\rangle = \omega_r^j|\psi_j\rangle & \theta = \frac{j}{r} \end{split}$$

We won't actually create any of these eigenvectors to use in phase estimation. Instead, we'll use the state  $|1\rangle$  (meaning the n-bit binary representation of 1).

Here's the key equation that makes this work:

$$|1\rangle = \frac{|\psi_0\rangle + \dots + |\psi_{r-1}\rangle}{\sqrt{r}}$$

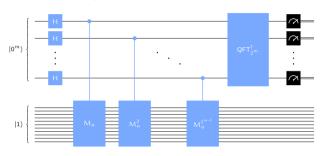
The result is equivalent to randomly selecting one of the eigenvectors  $|\psi_0\rangle, \ldots, |\psi_{N-1}\rangle$ . We obtain an approximation to j/r for a random  $j \in \{0, \ldots, N-1\}$ .

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By using sufficiently high precision (m=2n bits of precision suffice) and repeating a small number of times, the order r can be recovered with high probability.

### **Implementation**



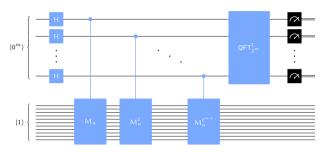
### Cost for controlled unitary operations

Each  $M_a^k$  for each  $k = 1, 2, 4, 8, ..., 2^{m-1}$  can be implemented as follows:

Compute  $b = a^k \mod N$  using the power algorithm (also called repeated squaring). Use a circuit for  $M_B$  in place of  $M_B^k$ .

The cost to implement each  $M_b = M_a^k$  is  $O(n^2)$ .

### **Implementation**



#### Total cost for phase estimation

- m Hadamard gates: cost O(n)
- m controlled unitary operations: cost  $O(n^3)$
- Quantum Fourier transform: cost O(n²)

Total cost:  $O(n^3)$ 

# Thank you for your attention!