

LECTURE 6

PHASE ESTIMATION, SHOR'S ALGORITHM AND HIDDEN SUBGROUP PROBLEM

INF587 Quantum computer science and applications

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Presentation of Shor's algorithm and hidden Abelian subgroup problem!

It will rely (partly) on:

- ▶ phase estimation and consequences: **QFT** over finite Abelian groups and order finding

1. Phase estimation
2. Application 1: Quantum Fourier Transform on $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ and any finite Abelian group
3. Application 2: order finding
4. Shor's algorithm
5. Hidden Subgroup Problem (HSP)

PHASE ESTIMATION

Phase estimation

- **Input:** a unitary U with **eigenstate** $|u\rangle$:

$$U |u\rangle = e^{2i\pi\varphi} |u\rangle$$

- **Output:** $\varphi \in [0, 1)$, *i.e.*, the knowledge of the associate eigenvalue of $|u\rangle$.

→ Essential for computing $\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}}$ and Shor's algorithm!

Proposition

We can determine (by using $\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/2^t\mathbb{Z}}$) the first n bits of φ with probability $1 - \varepsilon$ using *at least*

$$O(t^2) \text{ gates where } t = n + \left\lceil \log \left(2 + \frac{1}{2\varepsilon} \right) \right\rceil.$$

→ n bits of φ with probability $1 - e^{-cn}$ but with $t = O(n)$

Notation

Given $j_1, j_2, \dots, j_m \in \{0, 1\}$:

$$0.j_1j_2 \dots j_m \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{j_1}{2} + \frac{j_2}{4} + \dots + \frac{j_m}{2^m} = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \frac{j_i}{2^i}$$

Example:

$$0.101 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8} = 0.625, \quad 0.111 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} = 0.875 \quad \text{and} \quad 0.011 = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} = 0.325$$

$$2^m 0.j_1j_2 \dots j_m = 2^{m-1}j_1 + 2^{m-2}j_2 + \dots + j_m = j_1 \dots j_m \in \llbracket 0, 2^m - 1 \rrbracket$$

(binary representation of m bits)

$$2^\ell 0.j_1j_2 \dots j_m = \underbrace{2^{\ell-1}j_1 + \dots + j_\ell}_{\in \mathbb{N}} + 0.j_{\ell+1} \dots j_m$$

$$\longrightarrow e^{2i\pi 2^\ell 0.j_1j_2 \dots j_m} = e^{2i\pi 0.j_{\ell+1} \dots j_m}$$

The quantum algorithm to determine the phase starts from $|u\rangle$ being the eigenstate)

$$|0^t\rangle |u\rangle$$

→ t function of: accuracy and the probability we wish to be successful

Phase estimation, **two stages** algorithm:

1. Build the following quantum state:

$$\frac{1}{2^{t/2}} \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 2^{t-1}\varphi} |1\rangle \right) \otimes \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 2^{t-2}\varphi} |1\rangle \right) \otimes \dots \otimes \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 2^0\varphi} |1\rangle \right) \otimes |u\rangle$$

2. Apply the $\text{QFT}_{2^{t/2}}^{-1}$ to reach:

$$\approx \left| [2^t\varphi] \right\rangle \otimes |u\rangle = |\varphi_1 \dots \varphi_t\rangle \otimes |u\rangle$$

Does the first step remind you of something?

The controlled U^{2^j} -unitary

$$\begin{aligned} |1\rangle |u\rangle &\mapsto |1\rangle U^{2^j} |u\rangle = e^{2i\pi\varphi 2^j} |1\rangle |u\rangle \\ |0\rangle |u\rangle &\mapsto |0\rangle |u\rangle \end{aligned}$$

Be careful: $U^{2^j} = \underbrace{U \dots U}_{2^j \text{ iterates}}$, in particular $U^{2^j} |u\rangle \neq (U |u\rangle)^{2^j}$.

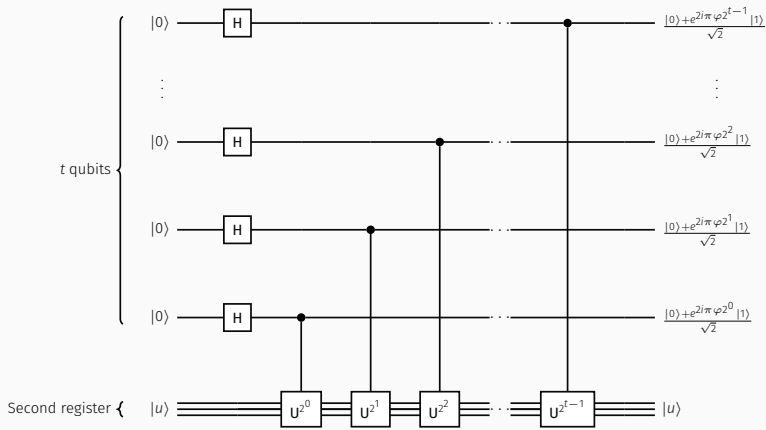
The algorithm:

1. Start with $|0^t\rangle |u\rangle$
2. Apply $H^{\otimes t} \otimes I$
3. For $i = 1$ to n :
apply the controlled U^{2^i} -gate to the i -th register.

Resulting quantum state

$$\frac{1}{2^{t/2}} \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 2^{t-1}\varphi} |1\rangle \right) \otimes \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 2^{t-2}\varphi} |1\rangle \right) \otimes \dots \otimes \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 2^0\varphi} |1\rangle \right) \otimes |u\rangle$$

THE QUANTUM CIRCUIT



But what is the cost for computing U^{2^j} ? Is it 2^j ?

Given an arbitrary U , computing U^{2^j} costs $2^j \times \text{Cost}(U)$...

→ Does it imply that phase estimation has an exponential cost?

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→ Does it imply that phase estimation has an exponential cost?

No... or Yes... It depends!

As in the classical case: computing f^{2^j} is expensive ($2^j \times \text{Cost}(f)$) except for some functions...

Phase estimation: be careful

Computing U^{2^j} costs $2^j \times \text{Cost}(U)$ unless one succeeds to use the particular shape of U ...

→ Let us take a look at the classical case!

CLASSICAL EXPONENTIATION: FAST OR TERRIBLY SLOW, CHOOSE!

What is the cost to compute x^{2^j} ? Is it 2^j ?

CLASSICAL EXPONENTIATION: FAST OR TERRIBLY SLOW, CHOOSE!

What is the cost to compute x^{2^j} ? Is it 2^j ?

Of course not... **fast exponentiation**

- Stupid algorithm: $y = x$ and then 2^j times: $y \leftarrow yx$; output y
- Clever algorithm: if j even, $y \leftarrow 2^{j/2}$; outputs y^2 ; otherwise $y \leftarrow 2^{(j-1)/2}$ then outputs $2y^2$.

→ To compute $2^{j/2}$ or $2^{(j-1)/2}$: **recursive call**

Cost?

- Stupid algorithm: 2^j multiplications!
- Clever algorithm: $\log 2^j = j$ recursive calls and 1 or 2 multiplications for each call

→ It costs $j \times \underbrace{j^2}_{\text{square cost}}$

→ The “clever” algorithm is exponentially faster...

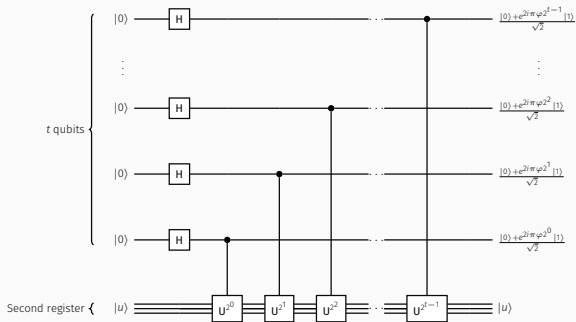
Be careful: we have used the particular shape of $x \mapsto x^{2^j}$

Usually $f^{2^j}(x) \neq f^{2^{j/2}}(x)^2$ but $f^{2^j}(x) = f^{2^{j/2}}\left(f^{2^{j/2}}(x)\right)$

REBOOT: ANALYSIS OF THE FIRST STEP IN PHASE ESTIMATION

$$U|u\rangle = e^{2i\pi\varphi}|u\rangle \implies U^{2^j}|u\rangle = e^{2i\pi 2^j\varphi}|u\rangle$$

$$C-U^{2^j}|0\rangle|u\rangle = |0\rangle|u\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad C-U^{2^j}|1\rangle|u\rangle = e^{2i\pi 2^j\varphi}|1\rangle|u\rangle$$



- First Step:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^t}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)^{\otimes t} \otimes |u\rangle$$

- Second Step:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^t}} \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 2^{t-1}\varphi} |1\rangle \right) \otimes \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 2^{t-2}\varphi} |1\rangle \right) \otimes \dots \otimes \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 2^0\varphi} |1\rangle \right) \otimes |u\rangle$$

Suppose that

$$\varphi = 0.\varphi_1 \dots \varphi_t$$

(see Lecture 5)

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{2^{t/2}} \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 2^{t-1} \varphi} |1\rangle \right) \otimes \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 2^{t-2} \varphi} |1\rangle \right) \otimes \dots \otimes \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 2^0 \varphi} |1\rangle \right) \otimes |u\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{t/2}} \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 0.\varphi_t} |1\rangle \right) \otimes \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 0.\varphi_{t-1}\varphi_t} |1\rangle \right) \otimes \dots \otimes \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 0.\varphi_1\varphi_2 \dots \varphi_t} |1\rangle \right) \otimes |u\rangle \\ &= \text{QFT}_{z/2^t z} |\varphi_1 \dots \varphi_t\rangle \end{aligned}$$

Applying $\text{QFT}_{z/2^t z}^{-1}$ leads to:

$$|\varphi_1 \dots \varphi_t\rangle \longrightarrow \text{we have recovered } \varphi!$$

→ But what does happen if $\varphi = 0.\varphi_1 \dots \varphi_t \varphi_{t+1} \varphi_{t+2} \dots \varphi_\ell \dots$?

Important convention

When working in $\mathbb{Z}/2^t\mathbb{Z}$ the considered Hilbert space is $\underbrace{\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \dots \otimes \mathbb{C}^2}_{t \text{ times}}$ and for all $x \in \mathbb{Z}/2^t\mathbb{Z}$,

$$|x\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |x_1 \dots x_t\rangle$$

where $x_1 \dots x_t$ being the binary decomposition of x , i.e., $x = \sum_{\ell} x_{\ell} 2^{t-\ell}$.

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{2^{t/2}} \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 2^{t-1}\varphi} |1\rangle \right) \otimes \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 2^{t-2}\varphi} |1\rangle \right) \otimes \dots \otimes \left(|0\rangle + e^{2i\pi 2^0\varphi} |1\rangle \right) \otimes |u\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{t/2}} \sum_{\ell=0}^{2^t-1} e^{2i\pi \ell \varphi} |\ell\rangle \otimes |u\rangle \end{aligned}$$

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Applying $\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/2^t\mathbb{Z}}^{-1}$ leads to

$$\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/2^t\mathbb{Z}}^{-1} \otimes I \left(\frac{1}{2^{t/2}} \sum_{\ell=0}^{2^t-1} e^{2i\pi\ell\varphi} |\ell\rangle \otimes |u\rangle \right) = \frac{1}{2^t} \sum_{k,\ell} e^{2i\pi\ell(\varphi - \frac{k}{2^t})} |k\rangle \otimes |u\rangle$$

Best approximation of φ for the first t bits:

Let $b \in \llbracket 0, 2^t - 1 \rrbracket$ be such that $b/2^t = 0.b_1 \dots b_t$ and

$$\varphi - \frac{b}{2^t} \leq 2^{-t} \quad : \quad b/2^t \text{ best } t \text{ bits approximation of } \varphi$$

Up to now we have the following quantum state:

$$\frac{1}{2^t} \sum_{k, \ell=0}^{2^t-1} e^{2i\pi\ell(\varphi - \frac{k}{2^t})} |k\rangle |u\rangle$$

Let α_j be the amplitude of $(b + j \bmod 2^t)$ in the first register:

$$|\alpha_j|^2 = \frac{1}{2^{2t}} \left| \sum_{\ell=0}^{2^t-1} \left(e^{2i\pi\left(\varphi - \frac{b+j}{2^t}\right)\ell} \right)^k \right|^2$$

Measure (see Exercise session)

Let m be the outcome after measuring the first register. We have

$$\mathbb{P}(|m - b| > e) \leq \frac{1}{2(e-1)}$$

Best approximation of φ for the first t bits:

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→ Determining φ with n bits of accuracy thanks to the **output of the measure m** ($t > n$):

$$\left| \frac{b}{2^t} - \frac{m}{2^t} \right| < 2^{-n}$$

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→ Therefore: choosing $e = 2^{t-n} - 1$ in the above probability...

But to reach a **probability of success $\geq 1 - \epsilon$** :

$$\frac{1}{2(e-1)} = \frac{1}{2(2^{t-n} - 2)} \leq \epsilon \iff t = n + \left\lceil \log \left(2 + \frac{1}{2\epsilon} \right) \right\rceil$$

Phase estimation

- **Input:** a unitary U with **eigenstate** $|u\rangle$:

$$U |u\rangle = e^{2i\pi\varphi} |u\rangle$$

- **Output:** $\varphi \in [0, 1)$, *i.e.*, the knowledge of the associate eigenvalue of $|u\rangle$.

Proposition

$$|0^t\rangle |u\rangle \mapsto |\tilde{\varphi}\rangle |u\rangle$$

where $\tilde{\varphi} \in \{0, 1\}^t$ gives the first n bits of φ with probability $1 - \varepsilon$ using *at least*

$$O(t^2) \text{ gates where } t = n + \left\lceil \log \left(2 + \frac{1}{2\varepsilon} \right) \right\rceil.$$

- ▶ **Be careful:** we need to compute $\left(U^{2^j} \right)_{0 \leq j \leq t}$ which has a cost $O(2^t)$ **unless one uses the particular shape of U ...**
- ▶ **Accuracy with a probability exponentially close to 1 at the cost of a “constant” overhead:** n bits of φ with probability $1 - e^{-Cn}$ but with $t = O(n)$
- ▶ **Be careful:** to run phase estimation we also need to be able to compute the eigenvector u ...

APPLICATION 1: QFT OVER $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$

Recall that characters of

- ▶ \mathbb{F}_2^n : $\chi_x(y) = (-1)^{x \cdot y}$,
- ▶ $\mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z}$: $\chi_x(y) = e^{-\frac{2i\pi xy}{2^n}}$,
- ▶ $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$: $\chi_x(y) = e^{-\frac{2i\pi xy}{N}}$

Lecture 5: computing **efficiently**

$$\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{F}_2^n} = H^{\otimes n} : |x\rangle \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}^n} (-1)^{x \cdot y} |y\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z}} : |x\rangle \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z}} e^{\frac{2i\pi xy}{2^n}} |y\rangle$$

Aim: computing efficiently $\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}}$ (when N not a power of 2)

$$\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} : |x\rangle \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} e^{\frac{2i\pi xy}{N}} |y\rangle$$

Computing $\text{QFT}_{Z/NZ}$: use **phase estimation!**

$$U_1 (|k\rangle |0\rangle) \mapsto |k\rangle \text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad U_2 (\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle |0\rangle) \mapsto \text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle |k\rangle$$

→ These two unitaries are enough to compute $\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle$!

We can perform $\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}}$ as:

$$|k\rangle |0\rangle \xrightarrow{U_1} |k\rangle \text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{SWAP}} \text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle |k\rangle \xrightarrow{U_2} \text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle |0\rangle$$

$$U_1 (|k\rangle |0\rangle) \mapsto |k\rangle \text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad U_2 (\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle |0\rangle) \mapsto \text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle |k\rangle$$

Be careful: $|k\rangle$ here is such that $k \in \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ and N may not be a power of two... In particular $|k\rangle$ cannot be written as $|0010 \dots 1\rangle$

$(|k\rangle)_{k \in \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}}$ is an orthonormal basis of an Hilbert space of dimension N

→ This quantum space is called the space of **qudits**!

Two possibilities to perform computation with qudits: (i) encode qudits in qubits or (ii) implement your quantum device directly with Hilbert spaces of dimension > 2

→ It is the same issue with classical computer! How to implement trits, namely $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$?

COMPUTING THE FIRST UNITARY U_1

To build the unitary $|k\rangle |0\rangle \mapsto |k\rangle \text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle$ (admitting we can perform efficiently the different unitaries **over qudits**)

1. Start from $|k\rangle |0\rangle |0\rangle$

2. Apply the “uniform superposition” over the second register

$$|k\rangle \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |j\rangle |0\rangle$$

3. Apply the multiplication operator $(|x\rangle |y\rangle |0\rangle \mapsto |x\rangle |y\rangle |xy \bmod N\rangle)$

$$|k\rangle \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |j\rangle |kj \bmod N\rangle$$

4. Apply the “phase flip in $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ ” $(|x\rangle \mapsto e^{2i\pi \frac{x}{N}} |x\rangle)$ on the third register

$$|k\rangle \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} e^{2i\pi \frac{kj}{N}} |j\rangle |kj \bmod N\rangle$$

5. Apply the inverse of the multiplication operation:

$$|k\rangle \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} e^{2i\pi \frac{kj}{N}} |j\rangle |0\rangle = |k\rangle \text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle |0\rangle$$

$$U : |k\rangle \mapsto |k + 1 \bmod N\rangle$$

→ $U^{2^j} : |k\rangle \mapsto |k + 2^j \bmod N\rangle$ can be built in time $O(\log N)$

($x \mapsto x + 2^j \bmod N$ can be classically computed in time $O(\log N)$)

We have the following computation:

$$\begin{aligned} U(\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} e^{\frac{2i\pi ky}{N}} U|y\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} e^{\frac{2i\pi ky}{N}} |y+1\rangle \\ &= e^{\frac{-2i\pi k}{N}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} e^{\frac{2i\pi ky}{N}} |y\rangle \\ &= e^{2i\pi \frac{N-k}{N}} \text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle \end{aligned}$$

→ $\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle$ is an eigenvector of U with eigenvalue $e^{2i\pi\varphi}$ where

$$\varphi \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{N-k}{N}$$

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Applying phase estimation with $n = \lceil \log N \rceil$ (bits of precision) enables to compute:

$$\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle |0\rangle \longmapsto \text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle |N-k\rangle$$

→ **Be careful**: phase estimation gives only an estimation with high probability of the transform!

Therefore: after applying the unitary $|x\rangle \mapsto |N-x\rangle$ we obtain an approximation of

$$\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle |0\rangle \longmapsto \text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}} |k\rangle |k\rangle$$

Cost:

We need to compute $t = O(\log^2 N)$ gates $U^{2^j} : |k\rangle \mapsto |k + 2^j \bmod N\rangle$ and it costs each $\log(N)$

→ Final cost to compute $\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}}$: $O(\log^3 N)$

WHAT ABOUT THE GENERAL CASE?

Is it possible to efficiently build QFT_G where G is any arbitrary finite abelian group?

WHAT ABOUT THE GENERAL CASE?

Is it possible to efficiently build QFT_G where G is any arbitrary finite abelian group?

→ Yes!

How to proceed (rough explanation)?

Any finite abelian group G of size N is isomorphic to the product of cyclic groups:

$$\mathbb{Z}/n_1\mathbb{Z} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}/n_k\mathbb{Z}$$

Then (admitted),

QFT_G can be written as $\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/n_1\mathbb{Z}} \otimes \cdots \otimes \text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/n_k\mathbb{Z}}$

→ We deduce that QFT_G can be computed in time $O(\log^3 \#G)$

Be careful, given a finite Abelian group it is **classically** hard to compute its decomposition as cyclic groups... Quantum case: end of the lecture

APPLICATION 2: ORDER FINDING

Order finding problem

- **Input:** integers x, N where $\gcd(x, N) = 1$
- **Output:** least positive integer r such that $x^r = 1 \pmod N$.

→ Solving the factorization reduces to this problem

Proposition

We can quantumly determine the order r (with high probability) in time

$$O(\log^3 N)$$

→ Best classical algorithms are sub-exponential in N :

$$\exp\left((c + o(1)) \log^\alpha(N) \log^{1-\alpha}(\log N)\right)$$

where c, α are constants

Suppose that we work in the space of L qubits

Given $y \in \llbracket 0, 2^L - 1 \rrbracket$, we will naturally identify $|y\rangle$ to $|y_1, \dots, y_L\rangle$

where $y_1 \dots y_L$ **binary decomposition of y**

For instance:

Given $3, 5 \in \llbracket 0, 2^3 - 1 \rrbracket$,

$$|3\rangle = |011\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad |5\rangle = |101\rangle$$

IT REDUCES TO PHASE ESTIMATION

x integer : $\gcd(x, N) = 1$ and r its order, smallest positive integer such that $x^r = 1 \pmod N$

Phase estimation applied to the following unitary and eigenvector

Let,

$L \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lceil \log N \rceil$ (work in the space of L -qubits)

$$\forall y \in \{0, 1\}^L = \llbracket 0, 2^L - 1 \rrbracket, \quad \mathbf{U} |y\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{cases} |xy \pmod N\rangle & \text{if } 0 \leq y \leq N - 1 \\ |y\rangle & \text{otherwise } (N - 1 \leq y < 2^{\lceil \log N \rceil}). \end{cases}$$

$$\forall s \in \llbracket 0, r \rrbracket, \quad |u_s\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} e^{-\frac{2i\pi sk}{r}} |x^k \pmod N\rangle \text{ with eigenvalue } e^{2i\pi \frac{sx}{r}}$$

→ We work here in the **space of qubits** (natural trick, identity if integers $\geq N - 1$)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{U} |u_s\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} e^{-\frac{2i\pi sk}{r}} \mathbf{U} |x^k \pmod N\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} e^{-\frac{2i\pi sk}{r}} |x^{k+1} \pmod N\rangle \\ &= e^{2i\pi \frac{sx}{r}} |u_s\rangle \end{aligned}$$

→ Be careful: in the last equality we used that **x has order r modulo N , thus $x^r = 1 \pmod N$**

BUT TWO QUESTIONS

For the eigenvalue $\frac{\xi}{r}$: we work in $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ and $L = \lceil \log N \rceil$.

To perform efficiently phase estimation, two issues:

- ▶ How to compute efficiently the U^{2^j} ?
- ▶ How to compute the eigenvector $|u_s\rangle$?

→ We will be able to recover approximations of $\frac{\xi}{r}$, not r ...

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→ We will be able to recover approximations of $\frac{\xi}{r}$, not r ...

Be patient!

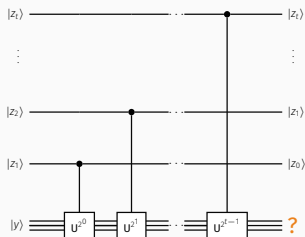
Parameter of phase estimation

We will determine the first $2L + 1$ bits of $\frac{\xi}{r}$ with probability $1 - \epsilon$

→ Choose in phase estimation $t = 2L + 1 + \lceil \log(2 + \frac{1}{2\epsilon}) \rceil$

In particular: $t = O(L)$ even if $\epsilon = e^{-CL}$ with $C > 0$.

$$U |y\rangle = |xy \bmod N\rangle \quad (0 \leq y \leq N - 1)$$



The above circuit (used in the phase estimate) performs the following computation:

$$\begin{aligned} |z_t \dots z_1\rangle |y\rangle &\longrightarrow |z\rangle U^{z_t 2^{t-1}} \dots U^{z_1 2^0} |y\rangle \\ &= |z\rangle \left| x^{z_t 2^{t-1}} \times \dots \times x^{z_1 2^0} y \bmod N \right\rangle \\ &= |z\rangle |yx^z \bmod N\rangle \end{aligned}$$

→ To perform **efficiently** phase estimation: compute $|z\rangle |y\rangle \mapsto |z\rangle |yx^z \bmod N\rangle$ efficiently
(**modular exponentiation**)

Aim: computing efficiently

$$|z\rangle |y\rangle \mapsto |z\rangle |yx^z \bmod N\rangle$$

1. Let $U_{EM} : |z\rangle |y\rangle \mapsto |z\rangle |y \oplus (x^z \bmod N)\rangle$ (be careful $z \mapsto x^z \bmod N$ not bijective)

$$|z\rangle |y\rangle |0\rangle \xrightarrow{U_{EM}} |z\rangle |y\rangle |x^z \bmod N\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{mult}} |z\rangle |yx^z \bmod N\rangle |x^z \bmod N\rangle \xrightarrow{U_{EM}^{-1}} |z\rangle |yx^z \bmod N\rangle |0\rangle$$

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2. Computing efficiently U_{EM} : classically

$$x \mapsto x^z \bmod N$$

can be computed in $O(\log z) = O(\log t) = O(\log N)$ squaring, therefore $O(\log^3 N)$ operations

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Conclusion: using phase estimation

We determine the first $2L + 1$ bits of $\frac{\xi}{r}$ with probability $1 - e^{-cL}$ in time $O(L^3)$ where $L = \lceil \log N \rceil$.

Aim: computing

$$|u_s\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} e^{-\frac{2i\pi sk}{r}} |x^k \bmod N\rangle$$

But we do not know r ... Our aim is to find it!

The trick

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

→ Plugging $|1\rangle$ in the phase estimation algorithm will give the first $2L + 1$ bits of $\frac{s}{r}$ for some (unknown) $s \in \llbracket 0, r - 1 \rrbracket$ with probability $1 - \epsilon$

Exercise session:

Proof of this statement

Up to now we have recovered (with high probability) in quantum time $O(L^3)$ the first $2L + 1$ bits of

$$\frac{s}{r} \text{ where } 0 \leq s < r \in \llbracket 1, N - 1 \rrbracket$$

→ It does not give r , even $\frac{s}{r}...$

CONTINUED FRACTION ALGORITHM

Theorem (see exercise session)

Let $\tilde{\varphi}$ be a rational **given as input**, let s and r be L bits integers such that

$$\left| \frac{s}{r} - \varphi \right| < \frac{1}{2r^2}$$

Then, there exists an algorithm (using “continued fractions”) that outputs s', r' which verify

$$\gcd(s', r') = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{s'}{r'} = \frac{s}{r}$$

using $O(L^3)$ classical operations

In our case

With probability $1 - \epsilon$, φ is an approximation of $\frac{s}{r}$ accurate to $2L + 1$ bits, therefore:

$$\left| \frac{s}{r} - \varphi \right| \leq \frac{1}{2^{2L+1}} \leq \frac{1}{2r^2} \quad (\text{as } r \leq N - 1)$$

→ In time $O(L^3)$ we compute s', r' co-prime such that $\frac{s'}{r'} = \frac{s}{r}$

s', r' are co-prime such that $\frac{s'}{r'} = \frac{s}{r}$

→ If $\gcd(s, r) > 1$ then $r' \neq r$, only $r' \mid r$...

A solution (but inefficient...)

The number of prime numbers $< r$ is $\approx r / \log(r)$

→ $\mathbb{P}(\gcd(s, r) = 1) \approx \log(r)/r$ as s is uniformly picked in $\llbracket 0, r - 1 \rrbracket$

Therefore we need to repeat $\approx r = O(L)$ number of times the algorithm before reaching $\gcd(s, r) = 1$. It will increase the cost from $O(L^3)$ to $O(L^4)$.

Fundamental remark

$$\frac{s'_1}{r'_1} = \frac{s_1}{r} \Rightarrow s'_1 = \frac{s_1}{r} r'_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{s'_2}{r'_2} = \frac{s_2}{r} \Rightarrow s'_2 = \frac{s_2}{r} r'_2$$

Supposing that $\gcd(s'_1, s'_2) = 1$ implies that $r = \text{lcm}(r_1, r_2)$

→ Therefore: obtaining two estimations (s'_1, r'_1) and (s'_2, r'_2) and supposing that $\gcd(s'_1, s'_2) = 1$ we can recover $r = \text{lcm}(r_1, r_2)$.

What is the probability that $\gcd(s'_1, s'_2) = 1$ given that s'_1 and that s'_2 are uniformly distributed in $\llbracket 0, r - 1 \rrbracket$?

REPEAT JUST A CONSTANT NUMBER OF TIMES!

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→ It is $\geq \frac{1}{4}$ (see exercise session)

In conclusion

Repeating the algorithm a constant number of times enables to recover r with probability exponentially close to one (times $(1 - \varepsilon)!$)

ORDER FINDING ALGORITHM

To compute the order r of $x \bmod N$ (where $\gcd(x, N) = 1$) we first run a constant number of times the **phase estimation** with $t = 2\lceil \log N \rceil + 1 + \log\left(2 + \frac{1}{2\varepsilon}\right)$. We have needed to compute:

- ▶ $\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/2^t\mathbb{Z}}$: done in time $O(t^2) = O(\log^2 N)$
- ▶ modular exponentiation $|z\rangle |y\rangle \mapsto |z\rangle |yx^z \bmod N\rangle$: done in time $O(\log^3 N)$

It outputs a $2\lceil \log N \rceil + 1$ approximation of some $\frac{s}{r}$ where $s \in \llbracket 0, r - 1 \rrbracket$.

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Then after collecting some approximations of $\frac{s_i}{r}$, apply **continued fraction algorithm** to obtain (s'_i, r'_i) in time $O(\log^3 N)$ with $\frac{s'_i}{r'_i} = \frac{s_i}{r}$. It enables to get r by computing some $\text{lcm}(r'_i, r'_j)$.

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→ This procedure works with probability $(1 - e^{-C \log N})(1 - \varepsilon)$ for constant $C > 0$ depending on the number of repetitions.

Final cost

$$O(\log^3 N)$$

→ This could be done in time $O(\log^2(N)\text{poly}(\log\log N))$

Order finding algorithm is efficient because we know quantumly how to perform classical computations **and the quantum Fourier transform over $\mathbb{Z}/2^t\mathbb{Z}$**

SHOR'S ALGORITHM

Factoring problem

- **Input:** an integer N
- **Output:** a non-trivial factor of N

→ Security of public-key encryption scheme RSA relies on the hardness of this problem...

Classically best algorithms have a complexity

$$\exp\left((c + o(1)) \log^\alpha(N) \log^{1-\alpha}(\log N)\right)$$

Shor's algorithm is basically applying order finding for some random $x \in \llbracket 0, N - 1 \rrbracket \dots$

But why?

Theorem 1

Suppose N is a L bits not prime integer and $1 \leq y \leq N$ be a non-trivial integer such that

$$y^2 = 1 \pmod N$$

Then, at least $\gcd(y - 1, N)$ or $\gcd(y + 1, N)$ is a non-trivial factor of N that can be computed in time $O(L^3)$.

Theorem 2

Suppose that $N = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot \dots \cdot p_m^{\alpha_m}$ where the p_i 's are different primes. Let x be an integer chosen uniformly at random, subject to the requirements that $1 \leq x \leq N - 1$ and $\gcd(x, N) = 1$. Let r be the order of x . Then

$$\mathbb{P} \left(r \text{ is even and } x^{r/2} \neq -1 \pmod N \right) \geq 1 - \frac{1}{2^m}$$

→ Let x be picked according to Theorem 2, then with (at least) a constant probability

$$x^{r/2} \text{ is a solution } \neq \pm 1 \text{ of } X^2 = 1 \pmod N$$

According to Theorem 1: $\gcd(x^{r/2} - 1, N)$ or $\gcd(x^{r/2} + 1, N)$ is a $\neq \pm 1$ factor of N

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Given x , we just need to compute its order to find a non-trivial factor!

1. Pick x uniformly at random in $\llbracket 1, N \rrbracket$
2. Compute $d = \text{gcd}(x, N)$. If $d > 1$ output d
3. Use the order-finding subroutine to find the order r of $x \bmod N$
4. If r is even and $x^{r/2} \neq -1 \bmod N$ then compute $\text{gcd}(x^{r/2} - 1, N)$ or $\text{gcd}(x^{r/2} + 1, N)$ and test if one of these is a non-trivial factor of N . Otherwise go back to Step 1..

By using the law of total probability:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{P}(\text{success}) &\geq \mathbb{P}(\text{success} \mid \text{Step 3 succeeds}) \mathbb{P}(\text{Step 3 succeeds}) \\
 &= \mathbb{P}(r \text{ is even and } x^{r/2} \neq -1 \bmod N) \mathbb{P}(\text{order finding succeeds}) \\
 &\geq (1 - e^{-c \log N})(1 - \varepsilon) \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^m}\right) \quad (m \text{ number of prime factors of } N)
 \end{aligned}$$

→ Repeating the algorithm a constant amount of times gives a non-trivial factor

Final cost:

$$O(\log^3 N) \text{ cost of phase estimation} + \text{Step 4}$$

HIDDEN SUBGROUP PROBLEM

Shor's algorithm relies on the order-finding which itself crucially used $\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/2^t\mathbb{Z}}$
(in the phase estimation)

→ It turns out that what we did is extremely “general”

Techniques we have presented enable to compute the “period” of a wide class of functions...

- ▶ What do we mean by “general”?
- ▶ Computing the “period” of which class of functions and does it imply some interesting statements?

→ Hidden Subgroup Problem!

Hidden Subgroup Problem (HSP)

- **Input:** a function $f : G \rightarrow S$ where G is a known group^a and S is a finite set.

- **Promise:** f satisfies

$$f(x) = f(y) \text{ if and only if } y \in xH \tag{1}$$

i.e., $y = xh$ for some $h \in H$

for an **unknown subgroup** $H \subseteq G$.

- **Output:** H .

^a see later for a precise definition

→ We say that f hides the subgroup H .

Cosets

The following set:

$$xH \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{xh : h \in H\}$$

is called a **left-coset** of H .

→ A function f that hides H is constant on each left-coset of H and distinct on different left cosets.

WHY IS THIS PROBLEM IMPORTANT?

HSP may be seen as a purely abstract problem... **But no!**

Here are **particular instantiations of HSP**

- ▶ Simon's problem:

$$G = \mathbb{F}_2^n, \quad H = \{0, \mathbf{s}\} \quad \text{and} \quad f \quad \text{being the input in Simon's problem}$$

- ▶ Order finding:

$$G = \mathbb{Z}/\Phi(N)\mathbb{Z} \quad (\Phi \text{ be the Euler function}), \quad H = \{rx : x \in \mathbb{Z}/\Phi(N)\mathbb{Z}\} \quad \text{and} \quad f(a) = x^a \bmod N$$

- ▶ Discrete logarithm problem: see exercise session!
- ▶ etc...

Be careful

In Shor's algorithm, when using a solver to order finding we don't know $\Phi(N)$ and therefore we don't know G ...

We suppose that G is **Abelian**

$f : G \rightarrow S$ that hides some subgroup H

1. Start with $|0\rangle |0\rangle$, where the two registers have dimension $\#G$ and $\#S$, respectively
2. Create a uniform superposition over G in the first register: $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\#G}} \sum_{g \in G} |g\rangle |0\rangle$
3. Compute f in superposition: $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\#G}} \sum_{g \in G} |g\rangle |f(g)\rangle$
4. Measure the second register. This yields some value $s \in G$. The second register collapses to (using the promise over f)

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\#H}} \sum_{h \in H} |s + h\rangle$$

5. **Apply QFT_G** giving: $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\#H}} \sum_{h \in H} |\chi_{s+h}\rangle$ for some quantum state $|\chi_{s+h}\rangle$
6. Measure and output the resulting $g \in G$

WHY DOES IT WORK?

G is Abelian, be $(\chi_g)_{g \in G}$ be its characters

$$\begin{aligned} |\chi_{s+h}\rangle &= \text{QFT}_G \sum_{h \in H} |s+h\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{G}} \sum_{h \in H} \text{QFT}_G |s+h\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{G}} \sum_{h \in H} \sum_{g \in G} \chi_g(s+h) |g\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{G}} \sum_{g \in G} \left(\sum_{h \in H} \chi_g(h) \right) \chi_g(s) |g\rangle \quad \text{from Lecture 5: } \sum_{h \in H} \chi_g(h) = \begin{cases} \#H & \text{if } g \in H^\perp \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{G}} \sum_{g \in H^\perp} \#H \chi_g(s) |g\rangle \end{aligned}$$

→ The quantum step before measurement is: $\sqrt{\frac{\#H}{\#G}} \sum_{g \in H^\perp} \chi_g(s) |g\rangle$

The quantum step before measurement is

$$\sqrt{\frac{\#H}{\#G}} \sum_{g \in H^\perp} \chi_g(s) |g\rangle \quad \text{where } H^\perp = \{g \in G : \forall h \in H, \chi_g(h) = 1\}$$

→ Measuring gives a uniform $g \in H^\perp$ giving some information about H ...

repeating a **poly(log #G)** times enables to recover H with high probability!

- For a rigorous proof of this statement: see Chapter 6 in the lecture notes by Andrew Childs

An example: Simon's problem

$$G = \mathbb{F}_2^n, \quad \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n, \quad \chi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{y}) = (-1)^{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}} \quad \text{and } H = \{\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{s}\}$$

$$\rightarrow H^\perp = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n : \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{s} = 0\}$$

In other words, we recover Simon's algorithm...

HOW TO COMPUTE QFT OVER G ?

G is an **Abelian** group

Recall that we compute QFT_G as $\text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/n_1\mathbb{Z}} \otimes \cdots \otimes \text{QFT}_{\mathbb{Z}/n_k\mathbb{Z}}$ where **we used the isomorphism:**

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}/n_1\mathbb{Z} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}/n_k\mathbb{Z} \quad (2)$$

But is it easy to compute this isomorphism/decomposition even if we “know” G ?

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But is it easy to compute this isomorphism/decomposition even if we “know” G ?

→ **Yes!** At least quantumly for a “good” definition of knowing G ...

Quantum decomposition of Abelian groups

Suppose we have (i) **a unique encoding of each element of G** , (ii) **the ability to perform group operations on these elements**, and (iii) **a generating set for G** .

Then, there exists an efficient quantum algorithm that decomposes G , namely outputs the isomorphism given in Equation (2)

→ See Chapter 6 in the lecture notes by Andrew Childs

GENERALIZATION TO THE NON-ABELIAN CASE?

To solve HSP we crucially used that we restrict ourself to the Abelian case...

→ And the **non-Abelian case**?

No efficient algorithm is known for the non-Abelian case (even if nothing indicates that it is impossible)...

→ Finding such an algorithm would have a huge impact in theoretical computer science, (post-quantum) cryptography...

If you are interested by this topic:

- ▶ Nice reading about Fourier transform (classical & quantum) over non-Abelian group: Chapter 11 in the lectures by Andrew Child <https://www.cs.umd.edu/~amchilds/qa/>
- ▶ The hidden nonabelian subgroup problem and the Kuperberg algorithm, see Chapters 11-13 in the lectures by Andrew Child <https://www.cs.umd.edu/~amchilds/qa/>

EXERCISE SESSION
