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CMPE 598

LECTURE 10

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SHOR'S ALGORITHM

Given a positive integer, find its factors. There exists a fast classical algorithm for detecting whether the number is prime. If so, problem solved. There exists a fast classical algorithm for detecting whether the number is a power (ie. of the form a^b for $b > 1$)

$$x = a^b$$

$\log x = b * \log a$ so b cannot be bigger than $\log x$

Binary search: : If you can find a factor, you can find all other factors as well using the same method repeatedly.

Assume you are given a number pq where p and q are primes.

We want to factor a large integer N .

- FACTORING is reduced to finding a non-trivial square root of 1 modulo $N \Rightarrow y^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{N}, y \in (1, 2, 3, \dots, N - 1)$

if $N=15$

trivial square roots:

$$1^2 = 1 \pmod{15} \quad (-1)^2 = 1 \pmod{15}$$

$$14^2 = 1 \pmod{15}$$

example non-trivial root:

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

if y is a non-trivial square root of 1 mod N , then N divides $y^2 - 1 \equiv (y + 1)(y - 1)$, but N does not divide neither $(y-1)$ nor $(y+1)$ so this

means that $\gcd(y - 1, N) > 1$ because if $y-1$ and N were relatively prime, then since N divides $(y - 1)(y + 1)$, it would have to divide $(y + 1)$.

- Finding such a root is reduced to computing the order of a random integer modulo N .

Pick a random number $X(\text{mod}N)$, order of $X(\text{mod}N)$ is the smallest number r such that $x^r \equiv 1(\text{mod}N)$

Note: Until this step everything can be solved by classical machines in a fast manner

- The order of an integer is precisely the period of a particular periodic superposition

$$\begin{matrix} 2^1 & 2^2 & 2^3 & 2^4 & 2^5 & 2^6 & 2^7 & 2^8 \\ 2 & 4 & 8 & 1 & 2 & 4 & 8 & 1 \end{matrix}$$

Classical FFT's input is an M -dimensional complex valued vector alpha (Where M is a power of 2) and output is a an M -dimensional complex valued vector beta.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{M-1} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & w & w^2 & \dots & w^{m-1} \\ 1 & w^2 & w^4 & \dots & w^{2(m-1)} \\ 1 & w^3 & w^6 & \dots & w^{3(m-1)} \\ 1 & w^4 & w^8 & \dots & w^{4(m-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & w^{m-1} & w^{2(m-1)} & \dots & w^{(m-1)(m-1)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_{M-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Where W is a complex M th root of unity.

FFT runs in $O(M \log M)$ steps.

- And, periods of superposition can be found by the quantum FFT. Since whole β cannot be accessed because of the quantum reality this is called "Quantum Fourier Sampling".

Input: A superposition of $M = 2^m$ qubits $|\alpha\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \alpha_i |j\rangle$.

Method: We'll use $O(m^2)$ quantum operations to obtain superposition

$$|\beta\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \beta_i |j\rangle$$

Output: A random m -bit number j (ie. $0 \leq j \leq M - 1$), from the probability distribution $P_i[j] = |\beta_j|^2$.

Suppose the input to quantum Fourier sampling is periodic with the period k , for some k that divides M . Then the output will be a multiple of M/k , and it is equally likely to be any of the k multiples of M/k .

$$|\alpha\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_{M-1} \end{bmatrix} \text{ is such that } \alpha_j = \alpha_i \text{ whenever } i = j(\text{mod}k) \text{ where } k \text{ is a}$$

particular integer that divides M . So there are M/k repetitions of same sequence $(\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{M-1})$ of length k . AND SUPPOSE EXACTLY ONE OF THE k NUMBERS IS NONZERO say α_j .

Suppose the vector $(\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{M-1})^T$ is periodic with period k with no offset. Thus $|\alpha\rangle = \sum_{j=0}^{M/k-1} \sqrt{\frac{k}{M}} |jk\rangle$ (non-zero terms are $\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots$)

$$\text{Claim: } |\beta\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} | \frac{jM}{k} \rangle$$

In the input vector, the coefficient of α_l is $\frac{k}{M}$ if k divides l , and zero otherwise. The j th coefficient of $|\beta\rangle$ is $|\beta\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{l=0}^{M-1} w^{jl} \alpha_l =$

$$\frac{\sqrt{k}}{M} \sum_{i=0}^{M/k-1} w^{jik} .$$

So this sum is the geometric series $1 + w^{jk} + w^{2jk} + \dots$ containing $\frac{M}{k}$ terms and with ratio w^{jk} . There are two cases. If the ratio is exactly 1, which happens if $jk = 0(\text{mod}M)$, then the sum of the series is just the number of terms.

If the ratio isn't 1, apply the usual formula for geometric series to find that sum.

So $\beta_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}$ if M divides jk , and is zero otherwise.

Also work (with little mod function) for the case where the offset isn't zero.

Suppose s independent samples are drawn uniformly from $0, \frac{M}{k}, \frac{2M}{k}, \frac{3M}{k}, \dots, \frac{(k-1)M}{k}$. Then with probability at least $1 - \frac{k}{2^s}$, the greatest common divisor of these samples is M/k .

Proof: The only way this can fail is if all the samples are multiples of $j \cdot M/k$, for some $j > 1$. So fix any integer $j \geq 2$.

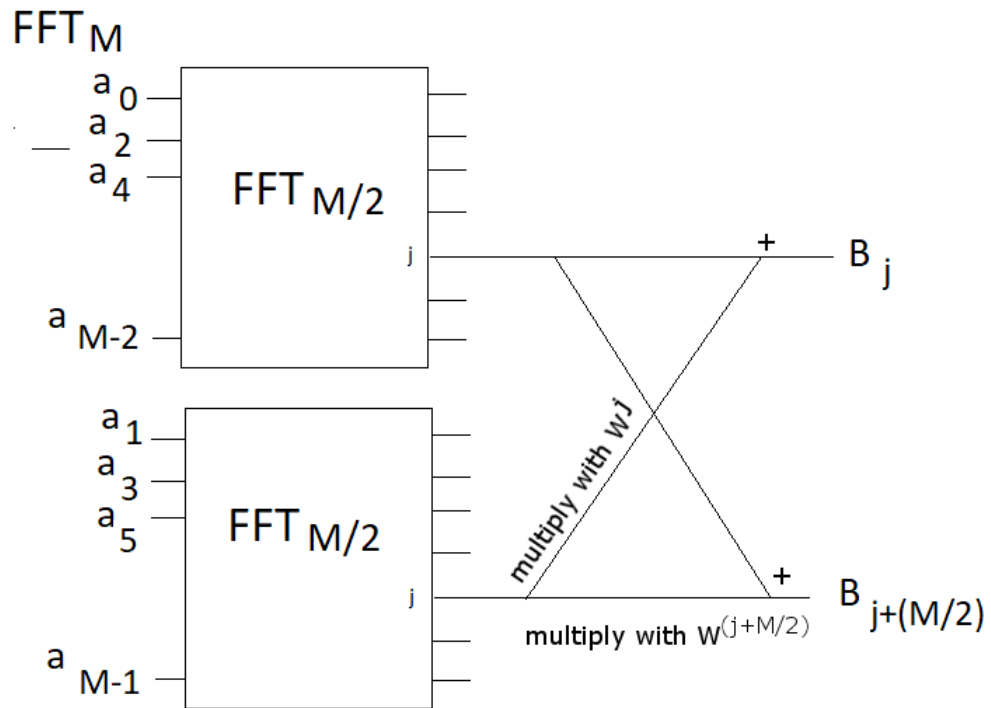
The chance that particular sample is a multiple of $\frac{jM}{k}$ is at most $\frac{1}{j} \leq \frac{1}{2}$,

so the chance that all samples are multiples of $\frac{jM}{k}$ is at most $\frac{1}{2^s}$. The probability that this bad thing will happen for some $j \leq k$ is at most $k \frac{1}{2^s}$, since there are k candidates for number j .

How does the classical FFT work?

Divide and Conquer

From input $(\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{M-1})^T$ to output $(\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_{M-1})^T$.

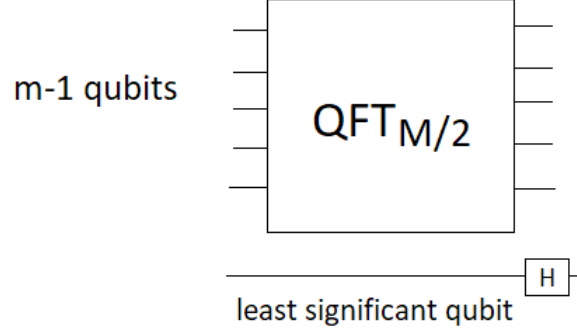


In the quantum version, the input is now encoded in the 2^M amplitudes of $m = \log M$ qubits. So the decomposition of the inputs to evens and odds is determined by the least significant qubit.

We will design a quantum circuit (subroutine) $QFT_M \cdot QFT_{M/2}$ will applied to the remaining $m - 1$ qubits.

Sidenote:

For the 6 qubit system:



$$I(32) \otimes H = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

011000 \rightarrow *even*, 011001 \rightarrow *odd*

$$A \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_y 0 \\ \alpha_y 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\alpha_y 0 + \alpha_y 1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{\alpha_y 0 - \alpha_y 1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

For each j , an operation is done in the classical FFT on the $(\frac{m}{2} + j)$ th wire. If j is represented by the $m - 1$ bits $j_1, j_2, j_3, j_4, \dots, j_{m-1}$ then

$$w^j = \prod_{l=1}^{m-1} w^{2^l j_l}$$

$$\text{Gate with 2 qubits} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & W^2 \end{bmatrix}$$