



Overview

Quantum Algorithms - ~~Difficult~~ circuits

Classical Algorithms - TM, RAM, etc

Complexity -

- coming up with good quantum algs
seems to be diff.

- want quantum algs to be better
than the best known classical algs

- Includes subset to classical algs

n bits $\leftrightarrow$ n qubits

Classical

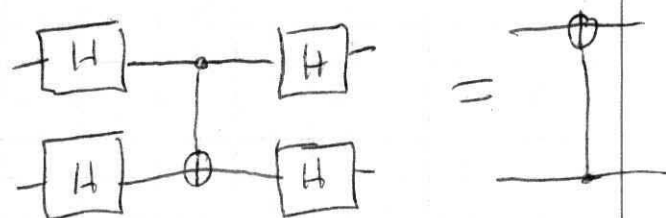
Number field

Sieve

$O(n^{1/3} \log^{2/3} n)$

Shor's

$O(n^2 \log n \log \log n)$



Thinking about problems with
classical intuition yields classical algorithms

→ An example of a "good" alg

I Num Theory

Divisibility, gcd, congruences

II Order finding

reduction of factoring to OF

III Intro Q Algs

give us a computational model

IV DFT and QFT

Product representation of QFT

Circuit realization

V Phase Estimation

use of QFT

→ Approximating eigenvalues of a unitary operator

VI Q Order Finding

Use of phase est

II Number Theoretic Introduction

(A) Divisibility

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $a \neq 0$. a divides b (or b is a multiple of a) if

$$\exists g \mid g = ba$$

Then we write $a \mid b$ a is a divisor of b

$$\therefore a \mid b \rightarrow a \mid kb \quad \forall k$$

$$\bullet a \mid b, b \mid a \rightarrow a = \pm b$$

$$\bullet a \mid b, b \mid c \rightarrow a \mid b + c$$

$$\bullet \forall k \neq 0, a \mid b \Leftrightarrow ka \mid kb$$

Division

Proof. Set
 $\{x \mid x > b/a\}$
 has least
 element t
 $q = t-1$

Thm. $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $a > 0$, then

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \exists! q, r \mid b = qa + r \text{ and } 0 \leq r < a \\ \text{q quotient, } \text{r remainder} \end{array} \right.$$

(B)

Def Largest positive integer dividing a, b is

$$\text{"gcd"} a, b \quad \gcd(a, b)$$

Thm $\gcd(a, b)$ is the smallest positive integer that can be expressed as a linear combination of a and b : $as + bt$ cor if $c \mid a, c \mid b$ then $c \mid \gcd(a, b)$

$$\text{Proof: } d = sa + tb \rightarrow d \mid d$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Proof Thm. } m = as + bt \\ \text{Division } a = qm + r \\ r = a - qm = a - q(sa + tb) \\ = (1 - qs)a + (-qt)b \\ \text{a l.c. of } a, b, \text{ and } m \rightarrow r \\ a = qm, m \mid a, m \mid b \\ d \mid m \rightarrow d \leq m \rightarrow d = m \end{array} \right.$$

Co-Primality (relatively prime)

Def integers a, b are said to be rel prime
if $\gcd(a, b) = 1$

skip { Integers $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k$ are pairwise relatively
prime if $\gcd(m_i, m_j) = 1 \iff \text{whenever } i \neq j$

GCD Algorithm

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

r remainder when a is divided by b

Euclid(a, b)

```

{
  if (b == 0) return a
  return Euclid(b, a % b)
}

```

Euclid(30, 21)

$$= \text{Euclid}(9, 9)$$

$$= E(9, 0)$$

$$= E(3, 0) = 3$$

Prime number is an integer $p \geq 1$ that
has no divisors other than 1 and itself.

others composed

Fundamental Theorem of Arith

Each integer $n \geq 1$ is a product of primes
This is unique up to the order of factors

⑥

Congruences

Let $m \in \mathbb{Z}_+$. If $m \mid (a-b)$ we say

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m} \quad \text{otherwise } a \not\equiv b \pmod{m}$$

m modulus, b = "residue of a modulo m "

$$\text{Eg } a = b + km \quad (\text{for some } k)$$

Two numbers are congruent modulo m if they

leave the same remainder when divided by m

"Modular arithmetic" $\rightarrow$ we only pay attn to remainders



$$\begin{cases} a \equiv b \pmod{m} \\ b \equiv a \pmod{m} \end{cases} \quad \text{equivalent}$$

Examples

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m}, b \equiv c \pmod{m} \rightarrow a \equiv c \pmod{m}$$

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m}, c \equiv d \pmod{m} \rightarrow a \pm c \equiv b \pm d \pmod{m}$$

etc.

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m} \text{ and } c \equiv d \pmod{m}$$

$$ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$$

"modular multiplication"

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m} \rightarrow a^n \equiv b^n \pmod{m}$$

"mod exp"

II Euler's ϕ -function

$$\forall m > 1$$

SKIP

$\phi(m) \equiv$ the number of positive integers n less than m such that $\gcd(m, n) = 1$

$$\phi(1) = 1$$

Properties:

$$\phi(m) \leq m-1$$

$$\phi(m) = m-1 \quad \text{if } m \text{ is prime}$$

II Order finding

Suppose N is a positive integer,

x is relatively prime to N . $1 \leq x < N$

The order of x modulo N is defined to be the least positive integer r s.t. $x^r \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$



Exa

$$3^1 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$3^2 \equiv 9 \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$$

$$3^3 \equiv 27 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$$

$$3^4 \equiv 81 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$$

$$3 \text{ is order } 4 \pmod{5}$$

$N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ $\gcd(x, N) = 1$, $1 \leq x < N$, then

The order of $x \pmod{N}$ is the least positive integer

$$r \mid x^r \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$$

Given x, N , the "order-finding" problem is to determine r .

(A) Reduction of factoring to order finding

1. Show we can ^{find a} factor of n if we can solve (nontrivially) $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$

2. a random $y \mid \gcd(N, y) = 1$ likely has an order r modulo n which is even and s.t. $y^{r/2} \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{N}$

1. Trivial solutions

$$x \equiv 1 \pmod{N}, \quad x \equiv -1 \pmod{N} \quad (x = N-1)$$

But, if $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ (nontrivial...)

$$N \mid (x^2 - 1) \rightarrow N \mid (x+1)(x-1)$$

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} N \text{ must share at least one factor with} \\ \text{either } x+1 \text{ or } x-1 \end{array} \right.$ ($p \mid ab \rightarrow p \mid a \text{ or } p \mid b$ and N is a product of primes)

Since $1 < x < N-1$

$x-1 < x+1 < N$ so the common factor cannot be N .

$\rightarrow$ compute $\gcd(x-1, N)$ $\gcd(x+1, N)$
one of these gives a nontrivial factor

$$2. \quad p(r \text{ is even and } y^{r/2} \not\equiv -1 \pmod{N}) \geq 1 - \frac{1}{2^m}$$

m is number of unique prime factors of N

⑧

Decomposition

Find-factor(N)

if N even

return 2

Remove other degenerate cases, where possible

$x \leftarrow \text{Random}(1, N-1)$ exclusive

if $\text{gcd}(x, N) > 1$

return $\text{gcd}(x, N)$

Find the order $\leq$ of x modulo N

if r even, and $x^{r/2} \not\equiv -1 \pmod{N}$

compute $\text{gcd}(x^{r/2} - 1, N)$

compute $\text{gcd}(x^{r/2} + 1, N)$

return nontrivial factor

III Quantum Algorithm

(A)

Quantum computer $\leftrightarrow$ Quantum circuit

i) ^{quantum} classical part, (to make things simpler)

c) State space

n qubits $\rightarrow$ 2^n -dimensional complex Hilbert space
product states of the form

$$|x_1\rangle \otimes |x_2\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes |x_n\rangle \leftrightarrow |x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\rangle$$

$$x_i = 0, 1$$

are called computational basis states

"Analogy" with n -d vector
essentially a sequence of complex numbers

3) Quantum gates

Applies to any subset of qubits

some gate sets are universal

ii) Ability to perform measurements in the basis

$\rightarrow$ collapses state space

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} \overset{|0\rangle}{0} & \overset{|1\rangle}{1} \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

action of X on basis states

(B)

Review

$$\text{Single qubit } |\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$$

$$\alpha, \beta \text{ complex, } |\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$$

IV DFT and QFT

(A) Recall $\mathcal{F}(\langle x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{N-1} \rangle) \rightarrow \langle y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{N-1} \rangle$

$$y_k \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} x_j e^{2\pi i j \cdot k / N}$$

Used in Signal Processing, etc

Here $\langle x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle$ is some vector of complex numbers.

(B) QFT is exactly the same thing

Instead of a vector of complex numbers
we have coefficients for each basis state computational

$$\langle x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle \rightarrow \langle y_0, y_1, \dots, y_n \rangle$$

Quantum

$$x_0 |000\rangle + x_1 |001\rangle + \dots + x_n |111\rangle \rightarrow y_0 |000\rangle + y_1 |001\rangle + \dots + y_n |111\rangle$$

↓
binary representation
of subscript

y_n 's are as before.

To define QFT we (use Dirac Not.)

$$|j\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i j \cdot k / N} |k\rangle$$

define its action on basis states
Just like C-NOT, etc.

This is like the "Truth table" (but not)

Equivalently for an arbitrary state

$$\sum_{j=0}^{N-1} x_j |j\rangle \rightarrow \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} y_k |k\rangle \quad (y_k \text{ are DFT of } x_k)$$

Example:

$$|000 \dots 0\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i \cdot 0 \cdot k/N} |k\rangle$$

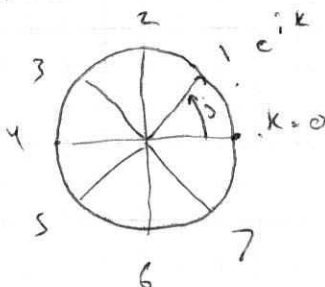
$z^N = N$

$$\rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} [|000\rangle + |0001\rangle + |00010\rangle + \dots + |1111\rangle]$$

$n=3$

$N = 2^n = 8$

$$|001\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}} \sum_{k=0}^7 e^{2\pi i \cdot 1 \cdot k/8} |k\rangle$$



Explain frequency?

$$\rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}} [|000\rangle + e^{i\pi/4} |001\rangle + i |002\rangle + e^{i3\pi/4} |003\rangle + \dots]$$

A natural question is that if we can compute $\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}$ of some state $|k\rangle$ can we leverage this to speed up any algorithm requiring $\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}$ (signal processing)

NO $\rightarrow$ measurement is probabilistic, disturbs remaining system

Notation

$$j = j_1 j_2 \dots j_n \quad j_k \in \{0, 1\}$$

$$0 \cdot j_1 j_2 \dots j_m \leftrightarrow \frac{j_1}{2} + \frac{j_2}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{j_m}{2^m} \dots$$



345 (C) Product Representation

$$|j\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{2^{n/2}} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} e^{2\pi i j k / 2^n} |k\rangle$$

$$k = k_n 2^{n-1} + k_{n-1} 2^{n-2} + \dots + k_1$$

n qubits

$$\frac{k}{2^n} = \frac{k_1}{2^1} + \frac{k_2}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{k_n}{2^n}$$

Break this sum up

$$\frac{1}{2^{n/2}} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} e^{2\pi i j (\sum_{l=1}^n k_l 2^{-l})} |k_1 \dots k_n\rangle$$

$$e^{a+b} = e^a e^b$$

$$\frac{1}{2^{n/2}} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} e^{2\pi i j \frac{k_1}{2}} e^{2\pi i j \frac{k_2}{2^2}} \dots e^{2\pi i j \frac{k_n}{2^n}} |k_1\rangle \otimes |k_2\rangle \otimes \dots$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{n/2}} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} \bigotimes_{l=1}^n e^{2\pi i j k_l 2^{-l}} |k_l\rangle$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{n/2}} \sum_{k_1=0}^1 \sum_{k_2=0}^1 \dots \sum_{k_n=0}^1 \bigotimes_{l=1}^n e^{2\pi i j k_l 2^{-l}} |k_l\rangle$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{n/2}} \bigotimes_{l=1}^n \left[\sum_{k_l=0}^1 e^{2\pi i j k_l 2^{-l}} |k_l\rangle \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{n/2}} \bigotimes_{l=1}^n \left[|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i j 2^{-l}} |1\rangle \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{n/2}} \left(|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i j 0.5} |1\rangle \right) \left(|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i j 0.25} |1\rangle \right) \dots \left(|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i j 0.5 \cdot 2^{-n}} |1\rangle \right)$$

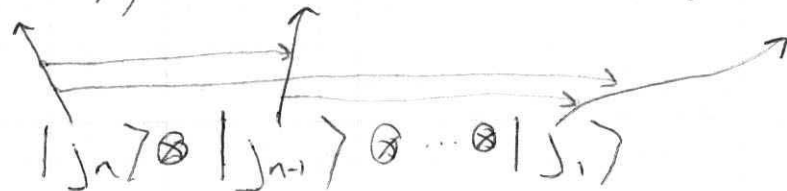


① Using product rep allows an efficient circuit.

$$\left\{ \text{define } R_k \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{2\pi i / 2^k} \end{bmatrix} \right.$$

we want to map $|j_1, j_2, \dots, j_n\rangle \rightarrow$

$$(|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0 \cdot j_n} |1\rangle)(|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0 \cdot j_{n-1}, j_n} |1\rangle) \otimes (|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0 \cdot j_{n-2}, j_{n-1}, j_n} |1\rangle)$$



Hadamard

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\rightarrow$

$$|0\rangle \rightarrow \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$|1\rangle \rightarrow \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Basis state

$$|j\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + (-1)^j |1\rangle)$$

"computational basis"

$$|j\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + e^{j\pi i} |1\rangle)$$

Thus to map $j_n \rightarrow$ we apply



What about $(|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0 \cdot j_{n-1}, j_n} |1\rangle)$



$$|j_{n-1}\rangle \xrightarrow{H} (|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0 \cdot j_{n-1}} |1\rangle)$$

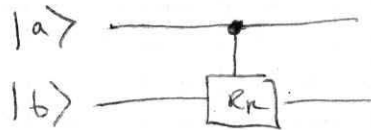
Action of R_k on basis states

$$R_k \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{2\pi i / 2^k} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} |0\rangle &\rightarrow |0\rangle \\ |1\rangle &\rightarrow e^{2\pi i / 2^k} |1\rangle \end{aligned}$$

Controlled- R_k

almost what we want



If $a=1$ apply R_k

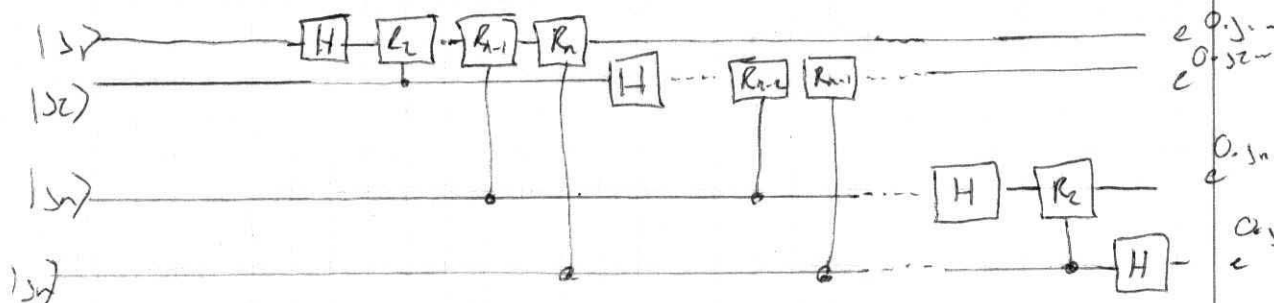
a	b	
0	0	0 0
0	1	0 1
1	0	1 0
1	1	1 $e^{2\pi i / 2^k}$ 1

$$\begin{aligned} |0\rangle &\rightarrow |0\rangle \\ |1\rangle &\rightarrow e^{2\pi i a / 2^k} |1\rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$|j_{n-1}\rangle \xrightarrow{H} (|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0 \cdot j_{n-1}} |1\rangle) \xrightarrow{R_k} (|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0 \cdot j_{n-1}} |1\rangle)$$

QFT Circuit

$n(n+1)/2$ gates





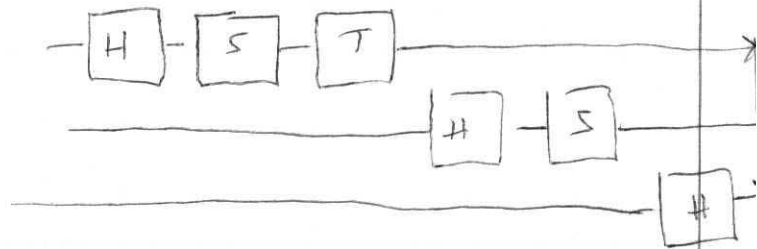
E

Three qubit QFT

Box 5.1 MUC

$$e^{i\pi/2} = i \quad R_2 = S$$

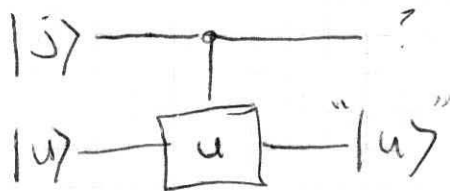
$$e^{i\pi/4} \quad R_3 = T$$



4:20 ✓ Phase Est.

Given a unitary U , eigenvector $|u\rangle$

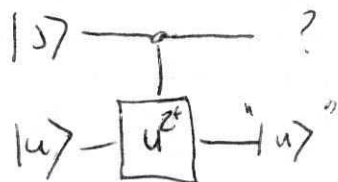
$$U|u\rangle = e^{2\pi i \phi} |u\rangle$$

The goal of phase est is to estimate ϕ Assume $\exists$ a black box performing U , register in $|u\rangle$ A Consider controlled- U acting on an eigenvector

$$|0\rangle|u\rangle \rightarrow |0\rangle|u\rangle$$

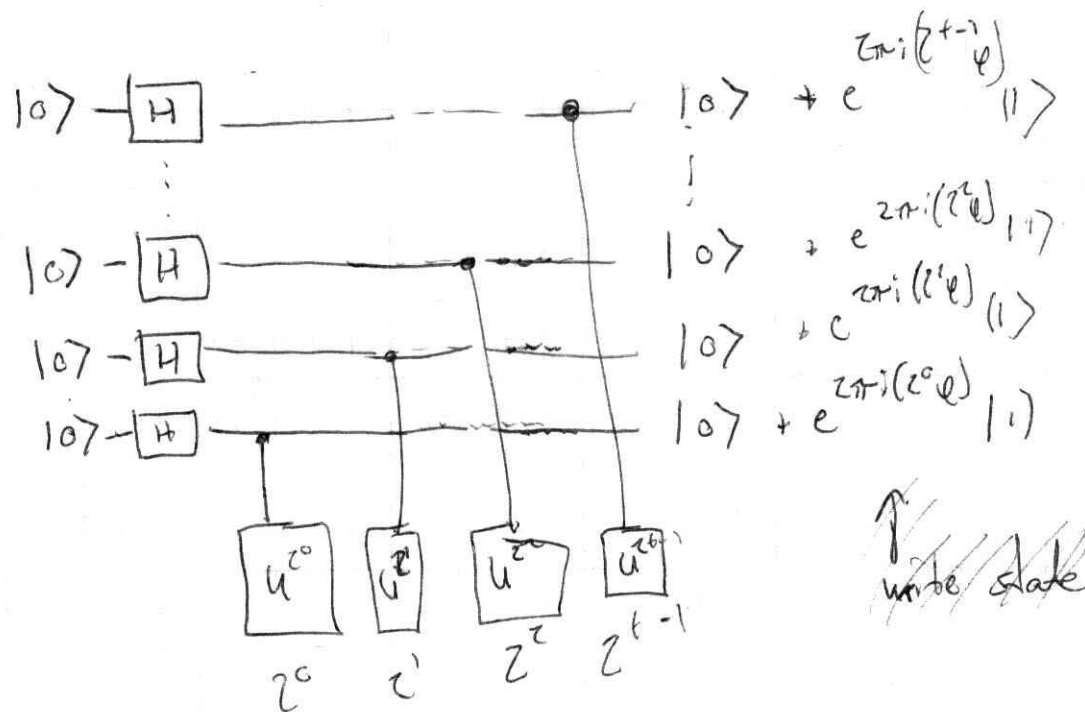
$$|1\rangle|u\rangle \rightarrow |1\rangle|u\rangle \cdot e^{2\pi i \phi}$$

Eigenvalue has appeared, but how can we get more information?



$$|0\rangle|u\rangle \rightarrow |0\rangle|u\rangle$$

$$|1\rangle|u\rangle \rightarrow e^{2\pi i \phi^2} |1\rangle|u\rangle$$



(B)

How is this useful?

Suppose φ can be written exactly in t bits

$$0.\varphi_1\varphi_2\varphi_3\varphi_4$$

Then state is

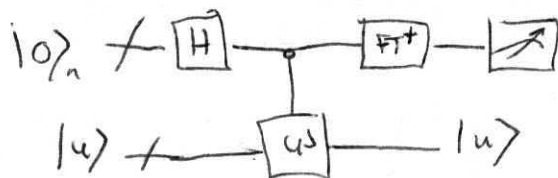
$$(|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i(z^{t-1}\varphi)}|1\rangle) = (|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i(z^0\varphi)}|1\rangle)$$

$$\frac{(|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0.\varphi_1} |1\rangle)(|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0.\varphi_1\varphi_2} |1\rangle) + \dots + (|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i \varphi_1 \dots \varphi_t} |1\rangle)}{2^{t/2}}$$

This looks like QFT! apply inverse QFT $\rightarrow$

get basis state $|\varphi_1 \dots \varphi_t\rangle$ with probability 1.

Measure in computational basis $\rightarrow \varphi$



This works even if φ is not exact,
instead producing accuracy to

$$t - \left\lceil \log \left(t + \frac{1}{2\epsilon} \right) \right\rceil \text{ bits}$$

with probability $1 - \epsilon$

Let $|\tilde{\varphi}_u\rangle$ be an approx (proof sketch) in the book

Qp Est

init $|0\rangle_n |u\rangle$

$$[H] \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^b}} \sum_{j=0}^{2^b-1} |j\rangle |u\rangle \quad \text{sup}$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^b}} \sum_{j=0}^{2^b-1} |j\rangle U^j |u\rangle \quad \text{apply C-Block Box}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^b}} \sum_{j=0}^{2^b-1} e^{i\pi j \varphi_u} |j\rangle |u\rangle \quad \text{res}$$

$$\rightarrow |\tilde{\varphi}_u\rangle |u\rangle \quad \text{FT}^\dagger$$

$$\rightarrow \tilde{\varphi}_u$$



Quantum Order finding

(C) (Mod.) black box $U'_{x,N}$ which performs

$$|s\rangle |k\rangle \rightarrow |s\rangle |x^s k \bmod N\rangle$$

$t = 2(t+1)$ qubits to get ' s/r '

$$L \text{ qubits} \rightarrow |1\rangle$$

$$1) \quad |0\rangle \xrightarrow{t} |1\rangle_L$$

$$2) \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^t}} \sum_{j=0}^{2^t-1} |j\rangle |1\rangle$$

create superposition


$$3) \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^t}} \sum_{j=0}^{2^t-1} |j\rangle |x^j \bmod N\rangle$$

apply U' , recall
 $U' \leftrightarrow U^{2^t}$

$$\approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^t}} \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} \sum_{j=0}^{2^t-1} e^{2\pi i s j / r} |j\rangle |u_s\rangle$$

$$4) \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} |\tilde{s}/r\rangle |u_s\rangle$$

FT†

$$5) \rightarrow \tilde{s}/r$$

$$6) \rightarrow / \quad (\text{continued fractions algo})$$

Goreads

①

1) Small mod exp circum2) compute $\langle us \rangle$ requires knowing r !!

Notice

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} \langle us \rangle \approx 1/r$$

Bugs:

1. ~~bad estimate to s/r ?~~what if $\gcd(s, r) \neq 1$?then we have a factor of r , not r a $\rightarrow$ 1. algorithm is random,
repeat it.b $\rightarrow$

$$\text{use } x^* \equiv x^{r'} \pmod{N}$$

then the order of x^* is (r/r')

$$x^{*(r/r')} \equiv x^r \pmod{N} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$$

c. Do Ph ed 200 $\rightarrow r', s', r'', s''$