

# An Application of QPE: Order-Finding

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Renato Neves



Universidade do Minho



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## Introduction

A sprinkle of number theory

The problem of order-finding

Choosing suitable input parameters in QPE

## The Problem

A **periodic** function  $f$ . Find its period.

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A **periodic** function  $f$ . Find its period.

Problem can be difficult (particularly if  $f$  has no obvious structure, such as being trigonometric)

We will see how quantum computation tackles it

Actually we tackle only a specific case  $\Rightarrow$  **order-finding**

The latter is handled efficiently via QPE

**Integer factorisation** reduces to it

The only quantum component in Shor's algorithm

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# A Handful of Definitions

## Definition

We call the integer  $x$  a **divisor** of the integer  $y$  if  $k \cdot x = y$  for some integer  $k$

## Examples

2 is a divisor of 10 and 5 is a divisor of 15. What are the divisors of a prime number?

## Definition

For two integers  $x$  and  $y$ ,  $\mathit{gcd}(x, y)$  is the greatest divisor common to  $x$  and  $y$

## Examples

$\mathit{gcd}(8, 12) = 4$  and  $\mathit{gcd}(10, 15) = 5$

# A Handful of Definitions pt. II

## Definition

Two integers  $x$  and  $y$  are called **co-prime** if  $\gcd(x, y) = 1$

## Examples

8 and 9 are co-prime and 13 and 15 are co-prime as well. The integers 12 and 15 are not co-prime.



## Definition

Given an integer  $N$  the set of **integers mod  $N$**  is  $\{0, 1, \dots, N - 1\}$

We can think of this set as a **circular** circuit with different positions and where the position after  $N - 1$  is 0

## Definition

For two integers  $x$  and  $y$  we write  **$x \equiv y \pmod{N}$**  if  $x \bmod N = y$

## Examples

$5 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$  and  $6 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$

# Order-Finding

## Definition

For co-prime integers  $a < N$  the **order of  $a \pmod{N}$**  is the smallest integer  $r > 0$  s.t.  $a^r \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$

## Example

If  $N = 5$  the sequence  $3^0, 3^1, 3^2, 3^3, 3^4, 3^5, 3^6, \dots$  leads to the sequence  $1, 3, 4, 2, 1, 3, 4, \dots$

Order of  $3 \pmod{5}$  is thus 4

## Exercise

What is the order of  $2 \pmod{11}$ ?

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## The Problem

Co-prime integers  $a < N$

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Co-prime integers  $a < N$

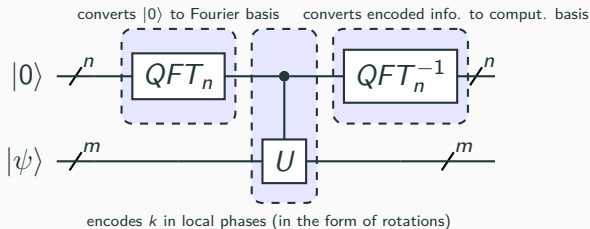
What is the order of  $a \pmod{N}$ ?

Classically, problem can be difficult for large integers

Quantumly, it can be solved efficiently via QPE

# QPE Revisited

Recall the QPE circuit



Need to choose suitable  $U$  and  $|\psi\rangle$  to disclose the order

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# Choosing the Right Unitary

Take co-prime integers  $a < N$

Let  $m = \lceil \log_2 N \rceil$  and define  $U : \mathbb{C}^{2^m} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2^m}$

$$U|x\rangle = \begin{cases} |xa \pmod{N}\rangle & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq N - 1 \\ |x\rangle & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

## Exercise

Show that  $U|a^n \pmod{N}\rangle = |a^{n+1} \pmod{N}\rangle$



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## Exercise

Show that  $U|a^n \pmod{N}\rangle = |a^{n+1} \pmod{N}\rangle$

Next step is to identify suitable eigenvectors

## Starting with an Example

Recall: if  $N = 5$  sequence  $3^0, 3^1, 3^2, 3^3, 3^4, 3^5, 3^6, \dots$  leads to 1, 3, 4, 2, 1, 3, 4,  $\dots$

Order  $r$  of  $3 \pmod{5}$  is 4. We then calculate,

$$\begin{aligned} & U\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}(|1\rangle + |3\rangle + |4\rangle + |2\rangle)\right) \\ &= U\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} |3^i \pmod{5}\rangle\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} |3^{i+1} \pmod{5}\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}(|3\rangle + |4\rangle + |2\rangle + |1\rangle) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}(|1\rangle + |3\rangle + |4\rangle + |2\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

The latter state is therefore an eigenvector of  $U$

# A First Approach

Previous example alludes to the equation

$$U\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} |a^i \pmod{N}\rangle\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} |a^i \pmod{N}\rangle$$

Unfortunately, corresponding eigenvalue is  $1 = e^{i2\pi 0 \frac{1}{2^n}}$

It does not disclose any information about the period  $r$  :(

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Need to find eigenvectors with **more informative eigenvalues**

## A Second Approach

Let  $\omega = e^{i2\pi \cdot \frac{1}{r}}$  (division of the **unit circle** in  $r$  slices)  
a.k.a. the  $r$  roots of unity

$$\begin{aligned} & U\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \omega^{-i} |a^i \pmod{N}\rangle\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \omega^{-i} |a^{i+1} \pmod{N}\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \omega \omega^{-(i+1)} |a^{i+1} \pmod{N}\rangle \\ &= \omega \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \omega^{-(i+1)} |a^{i+1} \pmod{N}\rangle \right) \\ &= \omega \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \omega^{-i} |a^i \pmod{N}\rangle \right) \end{aligned}$$

### Exercise

Formally justify all the steps in the calculation above

## A Second Approach

Let  $\omega = e^{i2\pi \cdot \frac{1}{r}}$  and  $|\psi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \omega^{-i} |a^i \pmod{N}\rangle$

Previous slide says  $U |\psi_1\rangle = \omega |\psi_1\rangle$

So if we feed QPE with  $U$  and  $|\psi_1\rangle$  we obtain an approximation of  $\frac{1}{r}$  with good success probability ( $\geq \frac{4}{\pi^2} \approx 0.4$ )

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So if we feed QPE with  $U$  and  $|\psi_1\rangle$  we obtain an approximation of  $\frac{1}{r}$  with good success probability ( $\geq \frac{4}{\pi^2} \approx 0.4$ )

However  $|\psi_1\rangle$  is difficult to construct. Can you see why?

## A Third Approach

We define a **superposition of eigenvectors** that is equal to  $|1\rangle$ :

$$\text{set } |\psi_k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \omega^{-ik} |a^i \pmod{N}\rangle \text{ and } |\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} |\psi_k\rangle$$

### Exercise

Then show  $U |\psi_k\rangle = \omega^k |\psi_k\rangle$

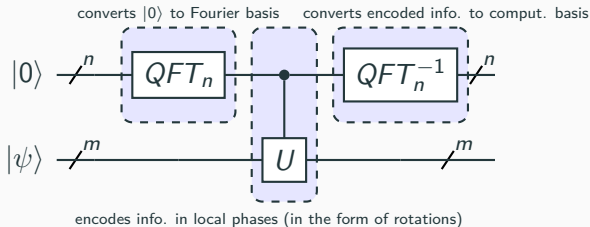
### Exercise

Finally show  $|\psi\rangle = |1\rangle$  (hint: show  $\langle 1|\psi\rangle = 1$  or alternatively use the closed-form formula of geometric series)



## A Third Approach

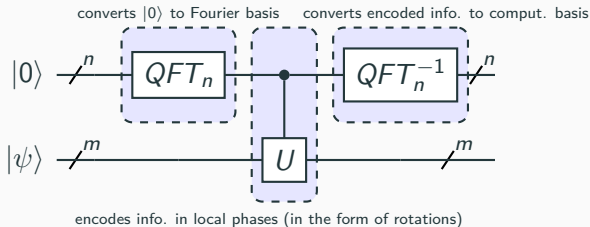
$U|\psi_k\rangle = \omega^k |\psi_k\rangle = e^{i2\pi\frac{k}{r}} |\psi_k\rangle$  and  $|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} |\psi_k\rangle$ . Therefore



returns  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} \left( |\tilde{\phi}_k\rangle |\psi_k\rangle \right)$  where each  $|\tilde{\phi}_k\rangle$  is the best  $n$ -bit approximation of  $\frac{k}{r}$  with probability  $\geq \frac{4}{\pi^2}$

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But how to extract  $r$  from  $|\tilde{\phi}_k\rangle$ ?

# Extracting the Period

Let  $\varphi$  be the best  $n$ -bit approximation of some  $\frac{k}{r}$

## Theorem

If  $\left| \frac{k}{r} - \varphi \right| \leq \frac{1}{2r^2}$  then we can extract  $\frac{k}{r}$  in reduced form, and with complexity  $O(m^3)$

## Proof.

Uses the continued fractions alg. (see Appendix 4, Nielsen and Chuang, *Quantum Computation and Quantum Information*)  $\square$

Previous theorem tells we need to use a minimum number  $n$  of qubits to represent  $\varphi$ . Particularly,

# Extracting the Period

recall:  $m = \lceil \log_2 N \rceil$

$$2^{n+1} \geq 2r^2$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 2^{n+1} \geq 2(2^m)^2$$

$$\{r \leq N \leq 2^m\}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 22^n \geq 2(2^m)^2$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 2^n \geq 2^{2m}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow n \geq 2m$$

Thus the number of qubits to use in the approximation  $\varphi$  should be at least  $2m$

## Finally...

In order to obtain the order  $r$ , proceed with the following steps

1. run QPE + continued fractions alg. twice to obtain two reduced fractions  $\frac{k_1}{r_1}$  and  $\frac{k_2}{r_2}$
2. if  $\gcd(k_1, k_2) \neq 1$  repeat previous step else set  $r :=$  least common multiple of  $r_1$  and  $r_2$
3. if  $a^r \pmod{N} \equiv 1$  output  $r$  else go back to step 1

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3. if  $a^r \pmod{N} \equiv 1$  output  $r$  else go back to step 1

In step 2, probability of  $\gcd(k_1, k_2) = 1$  is  $\geq \frac{1}{4}$ . Hence whole algorithm has constant probability of success

In step 2, computation of  $\gcd$  and least common multiple has complexity  $O(m^2)$ . Hence the whole algorithm must be efficient