

# Shor's Algorithm and the Period Finding Problem

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# Agenda

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Period Finding
- 3 Quantum Circuits
- 4 The Quantum Fourier Transform
- 5 Shor's Algorithm



- Modern day cryptosystems rely on problems that are *difficult to solve*.
- One common cryptosystem is RSA (Rivest-Shamir-Adleman) which relies on the difficult problem of factoring a composite number  $N$ .
- Classical algorithms can factor with runtimes of  $2^{(\log N)^\alpha}$ , where  $\alpha \approx \frac{1}{3}$ , which is exponential in the input size  $\log N$ .
- A quantum algorithm like Shor's Algorithm can factor a composite number  $N$  in  $\approx (\log N)^2$  steps, which is polynomial in the input size  $n = \log N$ .

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# Reduction to Period-Finding

Suppose we are trying to factor odd  $N$  which is not a prime power.

- Randomly choose  $x < N$  coprime to  $N$  (Euclidean Algorithm).
- Now  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ , so consider it's order  $r$ .
- In particular, this is the *period* of the sequence

$$1 = x^0 \pmod{N}, \quad x^1 \pmod{N}, \quad x^2 \pmod{N}, \dots$$



# Reduction to Period-Finding

## Fact

With probability  $\geq 1/2$ , the period  $r$  is even and  $x^{r/2} - 1$  and  $x^{r/2} + 1$  are not multiples of  $N$ .

Pick multiple  $x$  until we get a valid  $r$ . Then,

$$x^r - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{N} \implies (x^{r/2} - 1)(x^{r/2} + 1) \equiv 0 \pmod{N}.$$

Compute  $\gcd(x^{r/2} \pm 1, N)$  for non-trivial factors of  $N$ .

**The crux of this algorithm relies on being able to find the period  $r$ .**

We can do this using quantum computers.



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- Classical bit:  $|0\rangle$  or  $|1\rangle$ .
- **Qubit** is a superposition:

$$|\phi\rangle = x_0|0\rangle + x_1|1\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^2,$$

$$x_i \in \mathbb{C} \text{ and } \sum |x_i|^2 = 1.$$

- Multiple qubit system is **tensor product space**: two-qubit system has bases  $|0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle$ ,  $|1\rangle \otimes |0\rangle$ ,  $|0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$ ,  $|1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$ . Abbreviate  $|1\rangle \otimes |0\rangle$  as  $|1\rangle|0\rangle$  or even  $|10\rangle$  or  $|2\rangle$
- $n$  qubit system:

$$x_0|0\rangle + x_1|1\rangle + \cdots + x_{N-1}|N-1\rangle \text{ with } \sum |x_i|^2 = 1,$$

where  $N = 2^n$ .



# Measurement and Entanglement

We cannot see superpositions, only measure them. When you *measure* a qubit system  $|\phi\rangle$ , we will see a classical state  $|j\rangle$ , each with probability  $|x_j|^2$ . Then  $\sum |x_j|^2 = 1$  is good.

2-qubit state **EPR Pair (Einstein, Podolsky, Rosen)**:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|00\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|11\rangle.$$

Measuring the first qubit collapses state and forces second qubit. This state is called *entangled*.



# Unitary Transformations

Instead of measuring a qubit state, we can also apply transformations to send

$$\left[ |\phi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_i |i\rangle \right] \mapsto \left[ |\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} y_i |i\rangle \right].$$

Quantum mechanics only allows *linear* transformations, so we can view this transformation as multiplication by a unitary matrix  $U$ :

$$U \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_{N-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_{N-1} \end{pmatrix}.$$

The matrix  $U$  must be unitary to preserve the norm of 1. This process is reversible by  $U^{-1}$ , unlike measurement.



# One-Qubit Quantum Gates

Call unitary matrices on qubits gates, analogous to classical AND,OR,NOT.

On one qubit, consider

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$X$  is a bitflip gate which switches the coefficients of  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$ , where  $Z$  is phaseflip which switches the sign of  $|1\rangle$ . Another important gate is

$$R_\theta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\theta} \end{pmatrix},$$

the phase gate which rotates the phase of the  $|1\rangle$  state by an angle  $\theta$ .



# The Hadamard Transform

Hadamard gate:

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

This maps  $|0\rangle$  to  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|1\rangle$ , the state which has equal probability of observing  $|0\rangle$  or  $|1\rangle$ . However, if we apply the Hadamard again, we get

$$H \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|1\rangle \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}H|0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}H|1\rangle = |0\rangle!$$

Here, we see an example of *interference*, as the  $|1\rangle$  cancels out.



# Controlled Gates

CNOT gate:

$$\text{CNOT} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Performs bitflip  $X$  if first qubit is  $|1\rangle$ , nothing if first qubit is  $|0\rangle$ .

Controlled-U gate:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & U_{11} & U_{12} \\ 0 & 0 & U_{21} & U_{22} \end{pmatrix}.$$



# The Circuit Model

A quantum circuit generalizes the idea of classical circuits, replacing AND, OR, NOT gates with quantum linear transformation gates. We will construct a circuit for Shor's Algorithm that will allow us to find the period  $r$ .



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# Fourier Transforms

(Note: here specifically  $N = 2^n$  is a power of two.)

Classical (Discrete) Fourier Transform: maps vector

$(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{N-1}) \in \mathbb{C}^N$  to  $(y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{N-1}) \in \mathbb{C}^N$  by the rule

$$y_k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} x_j \omega_N^{-jk},$$

where  $\omega_N = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{N}}$  is an  $N$ th root of unity.

Quantum Fourier Transform (QFT): maps quantum state

$|x\rangle = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} x_j |j\rangle$  to the quantum state  $\sum_{j=0}^{N-1} y_j |j\rangle$  by the rule

$$y_k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} x_j \omega_N^{jk},$$

where  $\omega_N = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{N}}$  is an  $N$ th root of unity.





If  $|x\rangle$  is a basis state, then QFT can also be expressed as

$$U_{\text{QFT}}(|x\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \omega_N^{xj} |j\rangle.$$

Since QFT (specifically  $F_N$ ) is a quantum operation expressible by the unitary matrix

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega_N & \omega_N^2 & \omega_N^3 & \dots & \omega_N^{N-1} \\ 1 & \omega_N^2 & \omega_N^4 & \omega_N^6 & \dots & \omega_N^{2(N-1)} \\ 1 & \omega_N^3 & \omega_N^6 & \omega_N^9 & \dots & \omega_N^{3(N-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \omega_N^{N-1} & \omega_N^{2(N-1)} & \omega_N^{3(N-1)} & \dots & \omega_N^{(N-1)(N-1)} \end{bmatrix},$$

it can also be viewed as a quantum gate.



# QFT Circuit Implementation

Can put QFT in a form that is implementable by a quantum circuit:

$$\begin{aligned}U_{QFT}(|x\rangle) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i j x / 2^n} |j\rangle \\&= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} e^{2\pi i (\sum_{\ell=1}^n j_{\ell} 2^{-\ell}) x} |j_1 j_2 \dots j_n\rangle \\&= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \prod_{\ell=1}^n e^{2\pi i j_{\ell} x / 2^{\ell}} |j_1 j_2 \dots j_n\rangle \\&= \bigotimes_{\ell=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( |0\rangle + e^{2\pi i x / 2^{\ell}} |1\rangle \right).\end{aligned}$$



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# The Period-Finding Problem

Recall that we are trying to solve the following problem to break RSA:

## Problem

Given some function  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, N - 1\}$  with period  $r$  ( $f(a) = f(b)$  if  $a \equiv b \pmod{r}$ ), find  $r$ .

- Suppose we are given a machine (a unitary matrix) that maps  $|a\rangle|0^n\rangle \mapsto |a\rangle|f(a)\rangle$ .
- Idea is to pick  $2^\ell = q \in (N^2, 2N^2]$  and evaluate  $f(0), f(1), \dots, f(q - 1)$ .
- Now use QFT to separate the frequencies and determine the period.



# Overview of Circuit

- 1 We begin with a register of  $(\ell + n)$   $|0\rangle$ s
- 2 Apply QFT to the first  $\ell$
- 3 Apply the previously mentioned unitary matrix to all qubits
- 4 Make an observation of the last  $n$  qubits
- 5 Apply a QFT to the first  $\ell$  qubits again, and then make a measurement.



# First Two Steps

- The first QFT is applied to  $|0^\ell\rangle|0^n\rangle$  yields the superposition  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{a=0}^{q-1} |a\rangle|0^n\rangle$
- Applying the unitary matrix on  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{a=0}^{q-1} |a\rangle|0^n\rangle$  yields the superposition  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{a=0}^{q-1} |a\rangle|f(a)\rangle$



# First Observation

- We make an observation of the second register, yielding some value  $f(s)$  with  $s < r$ .
- Thus, the superposition in the first register collapses to only those values that also map to  $f(s)$ . (Entanglement!)
- Let  $m$  be the number of elements in this new superposition of the first register
- The second register has just collapsed to  $|f(s)\rangle$ . We ignore it from now on.
- In the first we have:  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} |jr + s\rangle$ .



- Apply another QFT to the first register, yielding

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{b=0}^{q-1} e^{2\pi i \frac{(jr+s)b}{q}} |b\rangle \text{ which we rearrange into:}$$
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{mq}} \sum_{b=0}^{q-1} e^{2\pi i \frac{sb}{q}} \left( \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \left( e^{2\pi i \frac{rb}{q}} \right)^j \right) |b\rangle$$

- Using the fact that  $\sum_{j=0}^{m-1} z^j = \frac{1-z^m}{1-z}$  for  $z \neq 1$ , the term

$$\sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \left( e^{2\pi i \frac{rb}{q}} \right)^j = m \text{ or } \frac{1 - e^{2\pi i \frac{mrb}{q}}}{1 - e^{2\pi i \frac{rb}{q}}}.$$

- We will observe this superposition, and will probabilistically get values of  $b$  whose squared amplitude is large.



# The Easy Case

- $r|q$  and  $m = \frac{q}{r}$ .
- We observe that  $e^{\frac{2\pi irb}{q}} = 1$  iff  $\frac{rb}{q}$  is an integer iff  $b$  is a multiple of  $q/r$ .
- Such  $b$  will have squared amplitude equal to  $(\frac{m}{\sqrt{mq}})^2 = \frac{m}{q} = \frac{1}{r}$  and there are  $r$  such  $b$ , so they account for the amplitude.
- In this final superposition, we are left with only integer multiples of  $\frac{q}{r}$  or in other words, we get  $b$  such that  $\frac{b}{q} = \frac{c}{r}$  for some  $c$ .
- With  $O(\log \log N)$  repetitions of this procedure, we can recover the value of  $r$ .



# The Hard Case: $r \nmid q$

- Using the fact that  $|1 - e^{i\theta}| = 2|\sin \frac{\theta}{2}|$  we can rewrite the absolute value of the earlier fraction as  $\frac{|\sin \pi m r b / q|}{|\sin \pi r b / q|}$
- This ratio is large for  $b$  that are close to integer multiples of  $\frac{q}{r}$
- Thus, with high probability, a measurement of this superposition yields  $b$  that satisfies  $|\frac{b}{q} - \frac{c}{r}| \leq \frac{1}{2q}$
- It's easy to recover the exact value of  $\frac{c}{r}$  now, and we recover  $r$  just as we did in the easy case.



# Limitations and Conclusion

- Need to build a new circuit for every number you want to factor, as well as every random choice of  $a$ .
- Still use classical computation for beginning and ending, QC is only applicable for period finding problem
- Take advantage of the superposition of things in a period, and apply QFT.
- Entanglement of the above states is the key to the success of this algorithm.



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