

18.435/2.111 Homework # 3 Solutions

Solution to 1:

For $N = 15$, $\frac{3}{4}$ of the possible x 's with $\gcd(x, 15) = 1$ yield an r that is even and with $x^{r/2} \neq -1$. For $N = 63$, $\frac{1}{2}$ of the residues yield such an r . One way to do this is to use the Chinese remainder theorem. I will do $N = 15$ in detail so that people can see what is happening, and then give a shorter way of figuring out the answer for $N = 63$.

For $N = 15$, we will need to look at the x 's modulo 3 and modulo 5. Consider the following table.

$x \pmod{3}$	r_3	$x \pmod{5}$	r_5	r	$x^{r/2} \pmod{3}$	$x^{r/2} \pmod{5}$
1	1	1	1	1	—	—
-1	2	1	1	2	-1	1
1	1	2	4	4	1	-1
-1	2	2	4	4	1	-1
1	1	3	4	4	1	-1
-1	2	3	4	4	1	-1
1	1	-1	2	2	1	-1
-1	2	-1	2	2	-1	-1

We found r by taking the least common multiple of r_3 and r_5 . Everything else in the table should be fairly self-evident. Note that $x^{r/2} \pmod{3}$ and $x^{r/2} \pmod{5}$ are either 1 or -1 . This has to be the case, since their squares are 1 and the only square roots of 1 modulo an odd prime p are ± 1 [this is a consequence of the multiplicative group modulo the prime being cyclic].

The procedure fails either if both the r 's are odd, or if both $x^{r/2} \pmod{3}$ and $x^{r/2} \pmod{5}$ are -1 .

Now, let's consider the case of 63. We give the relatively prime residues $\pmod{9}$ and $\pmod{7}$ and their orders r_9 and r_7 in the tables below:

r_7	residues	r_9	residues
1	1 $\pmod{7}$	1	1 $\pmod{9}$
2	-1 $\pmod{7}$	2	-1 $\pmod{9}$
3	2,4 $\pmod{7}$	3	4,7 $\pmod{9}$
2	3,5 $\pmod{7}$	2	2,5 $\pmod{9}$

In this case, the algorithm will fail if both r_7 and r_9 are odd, or if both r_7 and r_9 are even. It is easy to see that the probability that this happens is $\frac{1}{2}$.

The algorithm fails when both r_7 and r_9 are odd because then r is odd. Why does it fail when they're both even? We have $r/2 = \text{lcm}(r_7, r_9)/2$ is odd, and $x^{r/2} \equiv -1 \pmod{7}$ and $x^{r/2} \equiv -1 \pmod{9}$. Thus, $r/2 = (r_7/2)t$ for some odd integer t , and

$$x^{r/2} \equiv (x^{r_7/2})^t \equiv (-1)^t \equiv -1 \pmod{7}$$

and similarly $\pmod{9}$.

Now, suppose r_7 is even and r_9 is odd. Then $r/2 = (r_7/2)t_7$ for some odd integer t , and $r/2 = r_9t_9$ for some odd integer t_9 . The argument above can be adapted to show that $x^{r_7} \equiv -1 \pmod{7}$ but $x^{r_9} \equiv 1 \pmod{9}$, and the factoring algorithm works.

One could also use the statement from the proof of Theorem A4.13 in Nielsen and Chuang, which says that the algorithm will fail for a number $N = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_m^{\alpha_m}$ exactly when the largest powers of two dividing all the r_i are equal. Using the fact that multiplication modulo p^α forms a cyclic group for odd primes p and a little group theory, one can show that if $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, for exactly half the residues mod p^α , we have r_{p^α} odd and for the other half, r_{p^α} is twice an odd number, so if $N = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2}$ with both p_1 and p_2 congruent to 3 modulo 4, the factoring algorithm chooses a bad x with probability $\frac{1}{2}$.

Problem 2: Suppose we try to apply the factoring algorithm to a number $N = p^\alpha$ which is a power of p . Will it work? If not, what goes wrong.

Solution to 2: In the statement of the problem, I accidentally forgot to say explicitly that p was prime, which is the case I meant you to consider. If p is not prime, the algorithm works fine. If p is prime, then you run into the problem that the only square roots of 1 modulo p^α are $+1$ and -1 . Thus, $x^r \equiv 1 \pmod{p^\alpha}$ forces us to have $x^{r/2} \equiv -1 \pmod{p^\alpha}$. [We can't have $x^{r/2} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^\alpha}$ since r was the minimum power giving $x^r \equiv 1$]. This doesn't give us two numbers $a^2 \equiv b^2 \pmod{p^\alpha}$ with $x \not\equiv \pm y$, so we don't get a factorization.

Problem 3: Suppose we try to apply the factoring algorithm, but we forget to check whether $\gcd(x, N) = 1$ and accidentally choose an x with $1 < x < N$ and $\gcd(x, N) > 1$. Will the algorithm still work? If not, what goes wrong?

Solution to 3: In the algorithm, we need to construct the unitary transformation U acting on $|a\rangle$ for $0 \leq a < N$ as $U|a\rangle = |ax \bmod N\rangle$. This transformation is not unitary if $\gcd(x, N) > 1$. To see this, note that there are two unequal residues a_1 and $a_2 < N$ such that $a_1x \bmod N = a_2x \bmod N$. To see this explicitly, consider a prime p dividing both x and N . The transformation U has to take both $|a_1\rangle = |0\rangle$ and $|a_2\rangle = |N/p\rangle$ to $|0\rangle$.

Solution to 4:

We have

$$\tilde{f} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} e^{-2\pi i l x / N} f(x).$$

Now, let's write $x = ry + z$ where $0 \leq z < r$. We can rewrite the sum above

$$\tilde{f} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{z=0}^{r-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N/r-1} e^{-2\pi i l (ry+z) / N} f(ry + z).$$

Breaking the exponential in two parts and using the fact that $f(ry + z) = f(z)$, we get

$$\tilde{f} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{z=0}^{r-1} e^{-2\pi i l z / N} f(z) \sum_{y=0}^{N/r-1} e^{-2\pi i l r y / N}$$

The second piece is just 0 unless ℓ is an integer multiple of N/r , in which case it is N/r [the book has a typo]. This gives

$$\tilde{f} = \frac{\sqrt{N}}{r} \sum_{z=0}^r e^{-2\pi i \ell(z)/N} f(z).$$

if ℓ is an integer multiple of N/r and 0 otherwise.

The part about relating the result to 5.63 was fairly vague, and several students had questions about it. What I assume Nielsen and Chuang wanted you to do was use it to prove the approximation in Step 3 of the period-finding algorithm. You can do this by breaking the sum on x from 0 to $2^t - 1$ into two parts, where the first part runs from 0 to $N - 1$ where N is an integer multiple of r and the second part contains the remaining terms.

Solution to 5. The period-finding algorithm doesn't work well for the function

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= 1 && \text{if } r \text{ divides } x \\ f(x) &= 0 && \text{if } x \text{ is not a multiple of } r. \end{aligned}$$

Let's analyze it. We have the superposition

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^t}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^t-1} |x\rangle |f(x)\rangle$$

and we take the inverse Fourier transform of it. This is

$$\frac{1}{2^t} \sum_{x=0}^{2^t-1} \sum_{y=0}^{2^t-1} e^{-2\pi i xy/2^t} |y\rangle |f(x)\rangle$$

This sum splits into two parts, the case where $f(x) = 0$ and the case where $f(x) = 1$. Let's do the case where $f(x) = 0$ first. We get that the amplitude on the state $|y\rangle |0\rangle$ is:

$$\frac{1}{2^t} \sum_{\substack{x=0 \\ r \text{ does not divide } x}}^{2^t-1} e^{-2\pi i xy/2^t}$$

Suppose $y = 0$. Then, all the terms in this sum are 1, and there are roughly $(r - 1)/r$ terms in the sum, since we get one term for all the x that are not integer multiples of r . Thus, the amplitude of the sum is around $(r - 1)/r$, and the probability of seeing $|0\rangle |0\rangle$ is the square of the amplitude, or approximately $(r - 1)^2/r^2 \approx 1 - 2/r$. This outcome doesn't tell us anything about r , since it says that $0/2^t$ is a fraction close to $0/r$, which is true for any r . Now, suppose $y \neq 0$. We again have the amplitude

$$\frac{1}{2^t} \sum_{\substack{x=0 \\ r \text{ does not divide } x}}^{2^t-1} e^{-2\pi i xy/2^t}.$$

We can analyze this by breaking it into two sums as follows

$$\frac{1}{2^t} \left(\sum_{x=0}^{2^t-1} e^{-2\pi i x y / 2^t} - \sum_{\substack{x=0 \\ r \text{ divides } x}}^{2^t-1} e^{-2\pi i x y / 2^t} \right).$$

If $y \neq 0$, the first sum is 0, so we need only to analyze the second sum. Changing the index of summation, this is

$$-\frac{1}{2^t} \sum_{x'=0}^{(2^t-1)/r} e^{-2\pi i r x' y / 2^t},$$

which is the same sum we saw in the phase estimation algorithm. By the same analysis, we find that if $y/2^t$ is close to a fraction d/r , the sum has a value close to $2^t/r$, and if $y/2^t$ is far from a fraction d/r , the sum has a negligible value. Thus, for each of the $r-1$ fractions d/r , $d \neq 0$, we obtain a y with $y/2^t \approx d/r$ with probability $1/r^2$. From most of these fractions we will be able to recover r , so this case usually succeeds, but this case only occurs with probability around $1/r$.

If $f(x) = 1$, then x must be a multiple of r , and the amplitude is

$$\frac{1}{2^t} \sum_{\substack{x=0 \\ r \text{ divides } x}}^{2^t-1} e^{-2\pi i x y / 2^t}.$$

This sum is the same as for the case where $y \neq 0$ and $f(x) = 0$, so this case again occurs with probability approximately $1/r$, and if we are in this case we succeed most of the time.

The period-finding algorithm thus succeeds for this f with probability approximately $2/r$. The large failure probability is due to this function essentially having period 1, or more precisely, its being very close to a function with period 1. The Fourier transform picks out this period with high probability, and the period of r with only fairly low probability.

Solution to 6: Recall the geometric description of Grover's algorithm, where we have a basis in which ψ rotates by an angle of θ with each iteration. We start with an angle of $\theta/2$, and we a target set with probability 1 when $\theta = \pi/2$. Thus, we want $3\theta/2 = \pi/2$, or $\theta/2 = \pi/6$. But recall

$$\sin \frac{\theta}{2} = \sqrt{\frac{M}{N}}.$$

This gives $M/N = 1/4$.

Solution to 7: Let the target set be T . Define

$$\begin{aligned} |\beta\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} \sum_{x \in T} |x\rangle \\ |\alpha\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N-M}} \sum_{x \notin T} |x\rangle \\ |\psi\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_x |x\rangle \end{aligned}$$

Then we have that the starting state

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{\sqrt{M}}{\sqrt{N}} |\beta\rangle + \frac{\sqrt{N-M}}{\sqrt{N}} |\alpha\rangle$$

and after the first step

$$O|\psi\rangle = e^{i\phi} \frac{\sqrt{M}}{\sqrt{N}} |\beta\rangle + \frac{\sqrt{N-M}}{\sqrt{N}} |\alpha\rangle.$$

Now, note the inner products

$$\begin{aligned} \langle\beta|\psi\rangle &= \frac{\sqrt{M}}{\sqrt{N}} \\ \langle\alpha|\psi\rangle &= \frac{\sqrt{N-M}}{\sqrt{N}} \end{aligned}$$

Also, note that

$$H^{\otimes n}[(1 - e^{i\phi})|0\rangle\langle 0| - I]H^{\otimes n} = (1 - e^{i\phi})|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| - I$$

Thus, we get that

$$\tilde{G}|\psi\rangle = (1 - e^{i\phi})\left(\frac{M}{N}e^{i\phi} + \frac{N-M}{M}\right)\left(\frac{\sqrt{N-M}}{N}|\alpha\rangle + \frac{\sqrt{M}}{\sqrt{N}}|\beta\rangle\right) - e^{i\phi}|\beta\rangle - |\alpha\rangle$$

We can now pull off the coefficients on $|\alpha\rangle$ and $|\beta\rangle$. We find that we get

$$e^{i\phi}\left(-\frac{M}{N}2\cos\phi - \frac{N-2M}{N}\right)\sqrt{\frac{N-M}{N}}|\alpha\rangle$$

which can be made 0 for the appropriate choice of ϕ , provided M is between $N/4$ and N .

A generalization of this technique shows that if you know M , and choose the appropriate number of Grover iterations followed by one of these iterations, you can put all the amplitude on the target states.