



- · finite graups, subgraups, equivalence classes
- · Lagrange 's theorem
- Factoring:

· connection with the hidden subgraup

problem and classical algorithm

Finite graup

= finite set G = Eg1, g2, ..., gn} equipped with

internal operation q1, g2 +> 91.92 s.t.

1) $(g \cdot g') \cdot g'' = g \cdot (g' \cdot g'') \quad \forall g \cdot g', g'' \in G$ associativity

2) $\exists e \in G \leq t$. $g \cdot e = e \cdot g = g \quad \forall g \in G \quad neutral \ el$.

3) $\forall g \in G, \exists g' \in G$ s.r. $g \cdot g' = g' \cdot g = e$ inverse

On top of that, we say that G is <u>abelian</u> if $g \cdot g' = g \cdot g + \forall g \cdot g' \in G$.



= set \$\$ # HCG st if h, h'EH, then h. h'EH

and if hEH, then h'EH

Fran Huis definition, it follows that H is a grap,

contains the neutral element e, and the

associativity law holds inside H.

NB: H= {e} & H= 6 are always subgroups of G

Equivalence classes of a subgroup HCG

 $E_g = \{g, h : h \in H\} = set reachable from an$ element g acting by all possible elements of H:



Fundamental property If g === g' in G, then either Eg=Eg. or EgnEg.= \$\$

This is a direct cansequence of <u>Lagrange's Hum</u>:

(i) let g, g' e G; then either Eq= Eq. or EqnEq.= \$

(ii) The number of equivalence classes of H is equal to $\frac{|G|}{|H|}$, i.e. |H| divides |G|.

Notation: The set of equivalence classes of H

- is also denoted as G/H (the gudient grap)
- (so observe that |G/H|= |G|/IHI)
- Proof of Lagrange's Hum:
- (i) Let $q,q' \in G$. If $E_q \cap E_{q-} = \phi$, there is
 - nothing to prove; assume therefore $\overline{g} \in E_g \cap E_{\overline{g}}$
 - By def., Jh, h'ett s.t. g=g.h=g:h'

So $q' = q \cdot h \cdot (h')^{-1} \in E_q$; i.e. $E_q \cdot C \in E_q$ $i \in H$ Likewise, $q = q' \cdot h' \cdot h^{-1} \in E_q$; i.e. $E_q \in C \in Q$ $i \notin H$

(ii) |Eg|=|H| Vg because the mapping

So $|G/H| \cdot |H| = |G| \#(ii)$ (Hanks to port i)

Here are same "pictures":



NB: . The equivalence classes of H form a

<u>Partition</u> of G

· H = subgroup? check first that |H| duides ld!

Examples

a) G = ({20,13",) set of length n binary vectors

equipped with addition mad 2

· H= {0,a}, O=a EG: 141=2, 16/41=2"-1 $E_{x} = \xi y \in G : y = x \oplus q$ $E_{x} \cap E_{z} = \phi \quad \text{iff} \quad z \in x \neq a$ · H = k-dim subspace of G: |H|=2^k, |G/H|=2^{n-k}

b) G = (Z, +) the set of integer numbers

equipped with the usual addition

M=r. 2/ with r same positive integer

eq. dasses: Eo=H, Eq= Eq+n.r:neZ}

0 < 9 < 1.1

G/H = Z/rZ = {0,1,...,r-1}, [G/H]=r

integers modulor

c) G = Z/MZ = {0,1,..., M-1}

H = { nultiples of r between 0 & M-1 } (r fixed)

= subgroup of G if and only if r divides M

Note that is this case, G/H is isomorphic

to ZIrZ

Simon's algorithm seen last time can

be easily generalized to solve efficiently

the hidden subgraup problem:

let G be a group, H be a subgroup of G

and $f: G \rightarrow G/H$ be s.t. $f(q_1) = f(q_2)$

if and any if gigz' EH. The aim is then

to recover H with as four calls as possible

to the oracle f.

A new problem

Let f: Z -> Z be a function such that

Jre Z* with f(x)=f(x+r) VxeZ

(and assume that r is the smallest value such

that the above relation holds: r= period of f)

This is again a hidden subgrasp problem,

with the slight difference that G=Z is infinite

For the above problem to be interesting,

we assume furthermore that:

i) r is very large (n~400 digits, e.g.)

ii) the equation f(x) = f(x+r) is "impossible"

to solve in polynomial time in n



$f(x) = a^{x} \pmod{N}$ where both a & N have order n digits.

We show below how the resolution of the

above problem relates to the factoring pb.

As a reminder, the factoring problem is to find, given a (large) integer N, a number 2 ≤ a ≤ N-1 such that a IN (read this as "a divides N"). By repeatedly solving His pb, are finds the prime factor decomposition of N.

Here is the algorithm for factoring:

1. Choose 2 ≤ a ≤ N-1 cunif. at random

and campute d=gcd (a, N) (this

requires O ((logN)^S) runhine with Euclids algo)

2. If d>1 (which happens with low prob.),

then a=d solves the factoring pb.

Assume therefore d=1 in the following.

3. Campute the smallest value of rEZ* such that a (mod N) = 1. [NB: This is the part where shor's algorithm is going to help us.] 4. If r is odd, de clare failure and restart the algorithm in 1.

5. If r is even, then observe that $a^{r} - 1 = (a^{r/2} - 1) \cdot (a^{r/2} + 1)$ $:= d_{-}$ $:= d_{+}$

Also by part 3, a^r-1 = kN for some ked

So $N \mid a^{-1} = d_{-}d_{+}$

Then three different Hings can happen:

a) Either NId_= a^{1/2}-1, but this is actually impossible, as r is by assumption the smallest value s.t. N/a-1. b) or N/d+ = a^{1/2}+1; in this case, declare failure and restart the algorithm in 1. c) or N shares non-trivial prime factors with both d. and d. => success!

Rabin & Miller shaved in 1974 that

the success probability of this algorithm

is greater than or equal to 3/4.

(So by repeating the algo T times, are)

Can dotain an arbitrarily small croor prob.

The only weakness of the algorithm

is the resolution in part 3 ...

Classically, for a & N with order n digits,

finding the smallest value of r>1 s.t.

a (mod N) = 1

requires order $exp(\left(\frac{64n}{12}\right)^{1/3}(\log n)^{2/3})$

runtime with the best known algorithm

=> runtime superpolynomial in n.

As we shall see in the next le chures,

Shor's algorithm finds in O(n3) runtme

the smallest value of rz1 st.

$a^{x} = a^{x+r} \pmod{N} \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{Z}$

 $i \in 1 = a' \pmod{N}$.

This opens therefore the possibility of a

polynamial true resolution of the factoring po.