# **Quantum Computing**

András Gilyén

Summer School in Post-Quantum Cryptography, 2nd & 4th August 2022

# 4 postulates of quantum mechanics

We consider the finite-dimensional case. (Complex Euclidean vector space.)

We consider the finite-dimensional case. (Complex Euclidean vector space.)

• E.g.: a qubit has state space  $\mathbb{C}^2 = \text{Span}\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ 

$$|\psi\rangle = \underbrace{a|0
angle + b|1
angle}$$
 such that  $|a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$ 

superposition

We consider the finite-dimensional case. (Complex Euclidean vector space.)

• E.g.: a qubit has state space  $\mathbb{C}^2 = \text{Span}\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ 

$$|\psi\rangle = \underbrace{a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle}_{\text{superposition}}$$
 such that  $|a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$ 

• Dirac notation: ket vector  $|\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle - a, b$  are called amplitudes bra vector  $\langle \psi | = |\psi \rangle^{\dagger} = \begin{pmatrix} \overline{a} & \overline{b} \end{pmatrix}$ 

We consider the finite-dimensional case. (Complex Euclidean vector space.)

• E.g.: a qubit has state space  $\mathbb{C}^2 = \text{Span}\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ 

 $|\psi\rangle = \underbrace{a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle}_{\text{superposition}} \text{ such that } |a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$ 

• Dirac notation: ket vector  $|\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle - a, b$  are called amplitudes bra vector  $\langle \psi | = |\psi \rangle^{\dagger} = \begin{pmatrix} \overline{a} & \overline{b} \end{pmatrix}$ 

Motivation: inner product notation (let  $|\phi\rangle = c|0\rangle + d|1\rangle$ )

$$\langle \psi, \phi \rangle = \langle \psi | \cdot | \phi \rangle = \overline{a}c + \overline{b}d$$

## 1: Example qubit — photon polarization



### 1: Example qubit — photon polarization



Note: two states are "fully" distinguishable iff they are orthogonal

 $|v\rangle \in V, |w\rangle \in W \Longrightarrow$  Joint state:  $|v\rangle \otimes |w\rangle \in V \otimes W$ 

 $|v\rangle \in V, |w\rangle \in W \Longrightarrow$  Joint state:  $|v\rangle \otimes |w\rangle \in V \otimes W$ 

► E.g.: *n* qubits have state space  $\mathbb{C}^{2^n}$  = Span{ $|i\rangle$ :  $i \in \{0, 1\}^n$ } (computational basis)

 $|v\rangle \in V, |w\rangle \in W \Longrightarrow$  Joint state:  $|v\rangle \otimes |w\rangle \in V \otimes W$ 

► E.g.: *n* qubits have state space  $\mathbb{C}^{2^n} = \text{Span}\{|i\rangle: i \in \{0, 1\}^n\}$  (computational basis)

2 qubits: 
$$|0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}; |0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}; \dots$$

Generic two-qubit state 
$$|\psi\rangle = a_{00}|00\rangle + a_{01}|01\rangle + a_{10}|10\rangle + a_{11}|11\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} a_{00} \\ a_{01} \\ a_{10} \\ a_{11} \end{pmatrix}$$

 $|v\rangle \in V, |w\rangle \in W \Longrightarrow$  Joint state:  $|v\rangle \otimes |w\rangle \in V \otimes W$ 

► E.g.: *n* qubits have state space  $\mathbb{C}^{2^n} = \text{Span}\{|i\rangle: i \in \{0, 1\}^n\}$  (computational basis)

2 qubits: 
$$|0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0\\0\\0 \end{pmatrix}; |0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 0\\1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\1\\0\\0 \end{pmatrix}; \dots$$

Generic two-qubit state  $|\psi\rangle = a_{00}|00\rangle + a_{01}|01\rangle + a_{10}|10\rangle + a_{11}|11\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} a_{00} \\ a_{01} \\ a_{10} \\ a_{11} \end{pmatrix}$ 

 $|v\rangle \otimes |w\rangle$  is a product state; non-product sates are called entangled

 $|v\rangle \in V, |w\rangle \in W \Longrightarrow$  Joint state:  $|v\rangle \otimes |w\rangle \in V \otimes W$ 

► E.g.: *n* qubits have state space  $\mathbb{C}^{2^n} = \text{Span}\{|i\rangle: i \in \{0, 1\}^n\}$  (computational basis)

2 qubits: 
$$|0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0\\0\\0 \end{pmatrix}; |0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 0\\1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\1\\0\\0 \end{pmatrix}; \dots$$

Generic two-qubit state  $|\psi\rangle = a_{00}|00\rangle + a_{01}|01\rangle + a_{10}|10\rangle + a_{11}|11\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} a_{00} \\ a_{01} \\ a_{10} \\ a_{11} \end{pmatrix}$ 

►  $|v\rangle \otimes |w\rangle$  is a product state; non-product sates are called entangled E.g., Einstein-Podolsky-Rosen (EPR)-pair:  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00\rangle + |11\rangle)$ 

Measure state  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} a_i |i\rangle$  in orthonormal basis  $(|0\rangle, |1\rangle, \dots, |N-1\rangle) \Longrightarrow$ We get outcome *i* with probability  $|a_i|^2$ , and the state collapses to  $|i\rangle$ 

Measure state  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} a_i |i\rangle$  in orthonormal basis  $(|0\rangle, |1\rangle, \dots, |N-1\rangle) \Longrightarrow$ We get outcome *i* with probability  $|a_i|^2$ , and the state collapses to  $|i\rangle$ 

Extended Born's rule for partial measurements:

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} |i\rangle \otimes |\phi_i\rangle \Longrightarrow \mathsf{Pr}(\mathsf{outcome}\ i) = ||\phi_i||^2 \& \mathsf{state} \mathsf{``collapses'' to} \frac{|i\rangle \otimes |\phi_i\rangle}{||\phi_i||}$$

Measure state  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} a_i |i\rangle$  in orthonormal basis  $(|0\rangle, |1\rangle, \dots, |N-1\rangle) \Longrightarrow$ We get outcome *i* with probability  $|a_i|^2$ , and the state collapses to  $|i\rangle$ 

Extended Born's rule for partial measurements:

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} |i\rangle \otimes |\phi_i\rangle \Longrightarrow \mathsf{Pr}(\mathsf{outcome}\ i) = ||\phi_i||^2 \& \mathsf{state} \mathsf{``collapses"} \mathsf{to}\ \frac{|i\rangle \otimes |\phi_i\rangle}{||\phi_i||}$$

Analogous to conditioning probability distributions

 $Pr(outcome ij) = Pr(outcome j|i) \cdot Pr(outcome i)$ 

determined by the collapsed state

Measure state  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} a_i |i\rangle$  in orthonormal basis  $(|0\rangle, |1\rangle, \dots, |N-1\rangle) \Longrightarrow$ We get outcome *i* with probability  $|a_i|^2$ , and the state collapses to  $|i\rangle$ 

Extended Born's rule for partial measurements:

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} |i\rangle \otimes |\phi_i\rangle \Longrightarrow \mathsf{Pr}(\mathsf{outcome}\ i) = ||\phi_i||^2 \& \mathsf{state} \mathsf{``collapses"} \mathsf{to}\ \frac{|i\rangle \otimes |\phi_i\rangle}{||\phi_i||}$$

Analogous to conditioning probability distributions

 $Pr(outcome ij) = Pr(outcome j|i) \cdot Pr(outcome i)$ 

determined by the collapsed state

More general projective measurement:

$$\Pi_j$$
 orth. projectors s.t.  $I = \sum_j \Pi_j \Longrightarrow$  Pr(outcome  $j$ ) =  $\|\Pi_j|\psi\rangle\|^2$  collapse:  $\frac{|\Pi_j|\psi\rangle}{\|\Pi_j|\psi\rangle\|}$ 

### 4: "Time-evolution" is described by unitary operators

Linear map mapping states to states  $\iff$  unitary operator

#### 4: "Time-evolution" is described by unitary operators

Linear map mapping states to states  $\iff$  unitary operator

• Quantum algorithm: unitary matrix U (i.e.,  $U^{\dagger}U = I = UU^{\dagger}$ )

#### 4: "Time-evolution" is described by unitary operators

Linear map mapping states to states  $\iff$  unitary operator

• Quantum algorithm: unitary matrix U (i.e.,  $U^{\dagger}U = I = UU^{\dagger}$ )

# Quantum Circuits and algorithms

#### **Quantum circuits**

• Quantum algorithm: unitary matrix U (i.e.,  $U^{\dagger}U = I = UU^{\dagger}$ )

#### Quantum circuits

- Quantum algorithm: unitary matrix U (i.e.,  $U^{\dagger}U = I = UU^{\dagger}$ )
- (circuit) complexity: number of elementary gates

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad R_{\varphi} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{2\pi i \varphi} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$CNOT = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

(Gates extend by  $\otimes I$  to the other qubits.)

• quantum circuit notation for  $X, H, R_{\varphi}, CNOT$ , and SWAP:

$$-X - H - R_{\varphi} - - + +$$

Quantum circuits implement unitary operations which are reversible.

- Quantum circuits implement unitary operations which are reversible.
- Quantum computers can implement reversible logical operations.

- Quantum circuits implement unitary operations which are reversible.
- Quantum computers can implement reversible logical operations.
- Every classical Boolean circuit can be made reversible by using ancilla (qu)bits!

- Quantum circuits implement unitary operations which are reversible.
- Quantum computers can implement reversible logical operations.
- Every classical Boolean circuit can be made reversible by using ancilla (qu)bits!

- Quantum circuits implement unitary operations which are reversible.
- Quantum computers can implement reversible logical operations.
- Every classical Boolean circuit can be made reversible by using ancilla (qu)bits!
- Classical and gate:



- Quantum circuits implement unitary operations which are reversible.
- Quantum computers can implement reversible logical operations.
- Every classical Boolean circuit can be made reversible by using ancilla (qu)bits!
- Classical and gate:



Reversible quantum version (a.k.a. Toffoli gate):

$$\begin{array}{c} |a\rangle & & |a\rangle \\ |b\rangle & & |b\rangle \\ |0\rangle & & |a \wedge b| \end{array}$$

- Quantum circuits implement unitary operations which are reversible.
- Quantum computers can implement reversible logical operations.
- Every classical Boolean circuit can be made reversible by using ancilla (qu)bits!
- Classical and gate:



Reversible quantum version (a.k.a. Toffoli gate):

$$\begin{array}{ccc} |a\rangle & & & |a\rangle \\ |b\rangle & & & |b\rangle \\ |0\rangle & & & & |a \wedge b\rangle \end{array}$$

► For general logical operation  $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$ :

$$\begin{vmatrix} x \rangle & - & |x \rangle \\ |c \rangle & - & |c \oplus f(x) \end{vmatrix}$$

The (quantum) Fourier transform for  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_N$  is defined as

$${\sf F}_N\colon |k
angle\mapsto \sum_{j=0}^{N-1}e^{rac{2\pi i}{N}j\cdot k}|j
angle,$$

where  $j \cdot k$  is the usual product of two integers in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$ .

The (quantum) Fourier transform for  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_N$  is defined as

$$F_N: \ket{k} \mapsto \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} e^{rac{2\pi i}{N}j\cdot k} \ket{j}$$

where  $j \cdot k$  is the usual product of two integers in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$ . Let  $\omega_N := e^{2\pi i/N}$ , in matrix notation we can write:

$$F_N = rac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \left( egin{array}{ccc} & ec & & ec & & \ & ec & & \ & & ec & & \ & ec & & ec & & ec & & \ & ec & & ec & & ec & ec$$

The (quantum) Fourier transform for  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_N$  is defined as

$$F_N: |k
angle \mapsto \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} e^{rac{2\pi i}{N}j\cdot k} |j
angle$$

where  $j \cdot k$  is the usual product of two integers in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$ . Let  $\omega_N := e^{2\pi i/N}$ , in matrix notation we can write:

$$F_N = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \begin{pmatrix} \vdots \\ \cdots \\ \omega_N^{jk} \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}.$$

Note that for  $\mathbb{Z}_2$  we have  $H = F_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

 $F_N$  is a unitary matrix, since each column has norm 1, and any two distinct columns k and k' are orthogonal:

$$\begin{split} (F_N|k\rangle)^{\dagger} \cdot (F_N|k'\rangle) &= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} (\omega_N^{jk})^* \langle j|\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j'=0}^{N-1} (\omega_N^{j'k'})|j'\rangle\right) \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} (\omega_N^{jk})^* \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \omega_N^{jk'} \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \omega_N^{j(k'-k)} \\ &= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k = k' \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \end{split}$$

Since  $F_N$  is unitary we have that  $F_N^{-1} = F_N^{\dagger}$ . As  $F_N$  is also symmetric we further get  $F_N^{-1} = F_N^{\dagger} = F_N^*$ , i.e.,  $F_N^{-1}$  can be computed by simply conjugating each entry of  $F_N$ .

# Shor's factoring algorithm from period finding

For an 1 < x < N,  $x \nmid N$  consider the sequence

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

This sequence will cycle after a while: there is a least  $0 < r \le N$  such that  $x^r = 1 \pmod{N}$ . This *r* is called the <u>period</u> of the sequence (a.k.a. the <u>order</u> of the element *x* in the group  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$ ).

Assuming *N* is odd and not a prime power (those cases are easy to factor anyway), it can be shown that with probability  $\ge 1/2$ , the period *r* is even and  $x^{r/2} + 1$  and  $x^{r/2} - 1$  are not multiples of *N*.

## Shor's factoring algorithm from period finding

For an 1 < x < N,  $x \nmid N$  consider the sequence

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

This sequence will cycle after a while: there is a least  $0 < r \le N$  such that  $x^r = 1 \pmod{N}$ . This *r* is called the <u>period</u> of the sequence (a.k.a. the <u>order</u> of the element *x* in the group  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$ ).

Assuming *N* is odd and not a prime power (those cases are easy to factor anyway), it can be shown that with probability  $\ge 1/2$ , the period *r* is even and  $x^{r/2} + 1$  and  $x^{r/2} - 1$  are not multiples of *N*.

In that case we have:

$$x' \equiv 1 \mod N \iff (x^{r/2})^2 \equiv 1 \mod N \iff (x^{r/2}+1)(x^{r/2}-1) \equiv 0 \mod N \iff (x^{r/2}+1)(x^{r/2}-1) \equiv kN \text{ for some } k.$$

#### **Quantum Period Finding**

Suppose *f* has period *r* and for all x = 1, ..., r the value f(x) is distinct. Let  $M := 2^m$ .

$$|0\rangle^{\otimes m} \xrightarrow{/} H^{\otimes m} O_f \xrightarrow{F_M}$$

#### **Quantum Period Finding**

Suppose *f* has period *r* and for all x = 1, ..., r the value f(x) is distinct. Let  $M := 2^m$ .

$$\begin{array}{c|c} |0\rangle^{\otimes m} & \xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} & H^{\otimes m} \\ |0\rangle^{\otimes n} & \xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} & O_f \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$|0
angle^{\otimes m}|0
angle^{\otimes n} \xrightarrow{H^{\otimes m}} \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} |j
angle |0
angle^{\otimes n} \xrightarrow{O_f} \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} |j
angle |f(j)
angle \xrightarrow{\max}_{k=0}^{measure} \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor \frac{M-1-s}{r} \rfloor} |s+k\cdot r
angle |f(s)
angle$$

#### **Quantum Period Finding**

Suppose f has period r and for all x = 1, ..., r the value f(x) is distinct. Let  $M := 2^m$ .

$$|0\rangle^{\otimes m} \xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} H^{\otimes m} \xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} O_f \xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} F_M \xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} M$$
  
 $|0\rangle^{\otimes n} \xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} O_f \xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} M$ 

$$|0
angle^{\otimes m}|0
angle^{\otimes n} \xrightarrow{H^{\otimes m}} \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} |j
angle |0
angle^{\otimes n} \xrightarrow{O_f} \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} |j
angle |f(j)
angle \xrightarrow{\max_r} \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor \frac{M-1-s}{r} \rfloor} |s+k\cdot r
angle |f(s)
angle$$

For simplicity let us assume that  $r \mid M$ , then

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\frac{M}{r}-1} |s+k\cdot r\rangle \xrightarrow{F_{M}} \sum_{k=0}^{\frac{M}{r}-1} \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} e^{\frac{2\pi i}{M}j\cdot(s+k\cdot r)} |j\rangle = \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} e^{\frac{2\pi i}{M}j\cdot s} |j\rangle \sum_{k=0}^{\frac{M}{r}-1} e^{\frac{2\pi i}{M}j\cdot r\cdot k} = \begin{cases} \frac{M}{r} & \text{if } j=c\cdot \frac{M}{r} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
$$(e^{\frac{2\pi i}{M}j\cdot r\frac{M}{r}}-1)/(e^{\frac{2\pi i}{M}j\cdot r}-1)$$

Given a known group G and a function  $f : G \to S$  where S is some finite set.

Given a known group *G* and a function  $f : G \to S$  where *S* is some finite set. Suppose *f* has the property that there exists a subgroup  $H \le G$  such that *f* is constant within each coset, and distinct on different cosets: f(g) = f(g') iff gH = g'H.

Given a known group *G* and a function  $f : G \to S$  where *S* is some finite set. Suppose *f* has the property that there exists a subgroup  $H \le G$  such that *f* is constant within each coset, and distinct on different cosets: f(g) = f(g') iff gH = g'H. Goal: find *H* (for example output a set of generators).

► For Abelian groups *G*, a generalized version of Shor's algorithm works.

Given a known group *G* and a function  $f : G \to S$  where *S* is some finite set. Suppose *f* has the property that there exists a subgroup  $H \le G$  such that *f* is constant within each coset, and distinct on different cosets: f(g) = f(g') iff gH = g'H. Goal: find *H* (for example output a set of generators).

- ► For Abelian groups *G*, a generalized version of Shor's algorithm works.
- ► This breaks discrete logartihm, elliptic curve based crypto, Diffie-Hellman, etc.

Given a known group *G* and a function  $f : G \to S$  where *S* is some finite set. Suppose *f* has the property that there exists a subgroup  $H \le G$  such that *f* is constant within each coset, and distinct on different cosets: f(g) = f(g') iff gH = g'H. Goal: find *H* (for example output a set of generators).

- ► For Abelian groups *G*, a generalized version of Shor's algorithm works.
- ► This breaks discrete logartihm, elliptic curve based crypto, Diffie-Hellman, etc.
- ► For <u>some</u> types of non-Abelian groups we have efficient quantum algorithms.

Given a known group *G* and a function  $f : G \to S$  where *S* is some finite set. Suppose *f* has the property that there exists a subgroup  $H \le G$  such that *f* is constant within each coset, and distinct on different cosets: f(g) = f(g') iff gH = g'H. Goal: find *H* (for example output a set of generators).

- ► For Abelian groups *G*, a generalized version of Shor's algorithm works.
- ► This breaks discrete logartihm, elliptic curve based crypto, Diffie-Hellman, etc.
- ► For <u>some</u> types of non-Abelian groups we have efficient quantum algorithms.
- For the dihedral group  $D_n$  (containing the symmetries of a regular *n*-gon), Kuperberg's sieve solves the problem in subexponential time (about  $O(2^{\sqrt{n}})$ ).

#### Suppose we have a probabilistic algorithm that detects "success" $U|0\rangle^{\otimes n} = |\psi\rangle = \sqrt{p} |\psi_{\text{good}}\rangle |1\rangle + \sqrt{1-p} |\psi_{\text{bad}}\rangle |0\rangle.$

Suppose we have a probabilistic algorithm that detects "success"

$$|U|0
angle^{\otimes n} = |\psi
angle = \sqrt{p} |\psi_{\mathrm{good}}
angle |1
angle + \sqrt{1-p} |\psi_{\mathrm{bad}}
angle |0
angle.$$

The Grover operator  $G_U$  is defined as follows

 $G_U = (2|\psi \chi \psi| - I_n) \cdot (2I_{n-1} \otimes |0 \chi 0| - I_n).$ 

Suppose we have a probabilistic algorithm that detects "success"

$$|U|0
angle^{\otimes n} = |\psi
angle = \sqrt{p} |\psi_{\mathrm{good}}
angle |1
angle + \sqrt{1-p} |\psi_{\mathrm{bad}}
angle |0
angle.$$

The Grover operator  $G_U$  is defined as follows

$$G_U = (2|\psi \chi \psi| - I_n) \cdot (2I_{n-1} \otimes |0 \chi 0| - I_n).$$

Suppose we have a probabilistic algorithm that detects "success"

$$|U|0
angle^{\otimes n}=|\psi
angle=\sqrt{
ho}ig|\psi_{
m good}ig
angle|1
angle+\sqrt{1-
ho}|\psi_{
m bad}
angle|0
angle.$$

The Grover operator  $G_U$  is defined as follows

$$G_U = (2|\psi \chi \psi| - I_n) \cdot (2I_{n-1} \otimes |0 \chi 0| - I_n).$$



Suppose we have a probabilistic algorithm that detects "success"

$$|U|0
angle^{\otimes n} = |\psi
angle = \sqrt{p} |\psi_{\mathrm{good}}
angle |1
angle + \sqrt{1-p} |\psi_{\mathrm{bad}}
angle |0
angle.$$

The Grover operator  $G_U$  is defined as follows

$$G_U = (2|\psi \chi \psi| - I_n) \cdot (2I_{n-1} \otimes |0 \chi 0| - I_n).$$



Suppose we have a probabilistic algorithm that detects "success"

$$|U|0
angle^{\otimes n}=|\psi
angle=\sqrt{p}ig|\psi_{ ext{good}}ig
angle|1
angle+\sqrt{1-p}|\psi_{ ext{bad}}
angle|0
angle.$$

The Grover operator  $G_U$  is defined as follows

$$G_U = (2|\psi \chi \psi| - I_n) \cdot (2I_{n-1} \otimes |0 \chi 0| - I_n).$$







The success probability after k iteration is  $sin^2((2k + 1)\theta)!$ 

• For small *p* we have  $\theta \approx \sqrt{p} \gg p$ .



- For small *p* we have  $\theta \approx \sqrt{p} \gg p$ .
- It is possible to over-rotate.



- For small *p* we have  $\theta \approx \sqrt{p} \gg p$ .
- It is possible to over-rotate.
- ► Grover's original problem find a (unique) marked element *m* among *N* choices.



- For small *p* we have  $\theta \approx \sqrt{p} \gg p$ .
- It is possible to over-rotate.
- Grover's original problem find a (unique) marked element *m* among *N* choices. Prepare a uniform superposition and check:

$$|0
angle \xrightarrow{H} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j=0}^{N} |j
angle |0
angle \xrightarrow{\text{check}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{j=0}^{N} |j
angle \left| \delta_{mj} \right\rangle \Rightarrow \left| \psi_{\text{good}} \right\rangle = |m
angle \quad (p = \frac{1}{N})$$

Classically secure protocol = (classically) hard problem + security reduction

Efficient A wins "security game"  $\Rightarrow$  We get efficient A' solving hard problem

Classically secure protocol = (classically) hard problem + security reduction Efficient A wins "security game"  $\Rightarrow$  We get efficient A' solving hard problem

Post-quantum security = quantum-hard problem + (classical) reduction?

Classically secure protocol = (classically) hard problem + security reduction Efficient A wins "security game"  $\Rightarrow$  We get efficient A' solving hard problem

Post-quantum security = quantum-hard problem + (classical) reduction? [BCMVV18] protocol: Prover ⇔ Verifier: accept/reject

Classically secure protocol = (classically) hard problem + security reduction Efficient A wins "security game"  $\Rightarrow$  We get efficient A' solving hard problem

Post-quantum security = quantum-hard problem + (classical) reduction?

[BCMVV18] protocol: Prover  $\leftrightarrows$  Verifier: accept/reject

Efficient classical P cannot make V accept assuming LWE hard

Classically secure protocol = (classically) hard problem + security reduction Efficient A wins "security game"  $\Rightarrow$  We get efficient A' solving hard problem

#### Post-quantum security = quantum-hard problem + (classical) reduction?

- Efficient classical P cannot make V accept assuming LWE hard
- Efficient quantum P can convince V to accept

Classically secure protocol = (classically) hard problem + security reduction

Efficient A wins "security game"  $\Rightarrow$  We get efficient A' solving hard problem

#### Post-quantum security = quantum-hard problem + (classical) reduction?

- Efficient classical P cannot make V accept assuming LWE hard
- Efficient quantum P can convince V to accept

For more details see the "Quantum Rewinding Tutorial" of Alex Lombardi (MIT) and Fermi Ma (UC Berkeley) recorded at the Simons Institute (available on YouTube).

[BCMVV18]: Zvika Brakerski, Paul Christiano, Urmila Mahadev, Umesh V. Vazirani, and Thomas Vidick. A cryptographic test of quantumness and certifiable randomness from a single quantum device. J. ACM (August 2021). Earlier version at FOCS 2018.

#### You hold a useful quantum state

- If you measure in basis  $A \Rightarrow$  you can solve problem A
- If you measure in basis  $B \Rightarrow$  you can solve problem B

#### You hold a useful quantum state

- If you measure in basis  $A \Rightarrow$  you can solve problem A
- If you measure in basis  $B \Rightarrow$  you can solve problem B

#### **Mariott-Watrous trick**

Suppose you can measure projector Π and any state in the image of Π is good for you.

#### You hold a useful quantum state

- If you measure in basis  $A \Rightarrow$  you can solve problem A
- If you measure in basis  $B \Rightarrow$  you can solve problem B

#### **Mariott-Watrous trick**

- Suppose you can measure projector Π and any state in the image of Π is good for you.
- Suppose you can solve problem A via a binary measurement  $(\Pi_A, I \Pi_A)$ .

Trick: alternately repeat the two measurements  $(\Pi_A, I - \Pi_A)$  and  $(\Pi, I - \Pi)$  until you get lucky and get back a state in the image of  $\Pi$ .

#### You hold a useful quantum state

- If you measure in basis  $A \Rightarrow$  you can solve problem A
- If you measure in basis  $B \Rightarrow$  you can solve problem B

#### **Mariott-Watrous trick**

- Suppose you can measure projector Π and any state in the image of Π is good for you.
- Suppose you can solve problem A via a binary measurement  $(\Pi_A, I \Pi_A)$ .

Trick: alternately repeat the two measurements  $(\Pi_A, I - \Pi_A)$  and  $(\Pi, I - \Pi)$  until you get lucky and get back a state in the image of  $\Pi$ .

In expectation 4 measurements suffice to get back such a state!

### **Further reading**

- Parts of this presentation come from Ronald de Wolf's Quantum Coputing Lecture Notes – arXiv: 1907.09415.
- See also the "Quantum Rewinding Tutorial" Part <u>1,2</u>, & <u>3</u> of Alex Lombardi (MIT) and Fermi Ma (UC Berkeley) recorded at the Simons Institute on June 15th.