

Quantum Attack on Cryptography

Shor's and Grover's Algorithm

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Overview

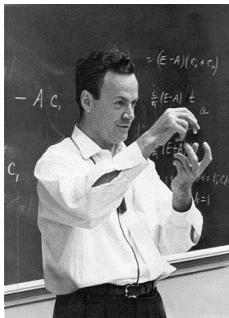
- 1 Introduction to Quantum Computing
- 2 Shor's Algorithm
- 3 Grover Search Algorithm
- 4 Recent Progress on Quantum Computer

Outline

- 1 Introduction to Quantum Computing
- 2 Shor's Algorithm
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The beginning of quantum computing

- Simulating physics with computers
 - In 1982, Feynman proposed the idea of creating machines based on the laws of quantum mechanics instead of the laws of classical physics
- Why quantum can do better than classical?
 - Superposition
 - Entanglement



Quantum State

In quantum computing, we use Dirac notation “ $|\cdot\rangle$ ” to represent a state. For example, a state of a coin could be

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$$|\text{Alive Cat}\rangle \text{ and } |\text{Dead Cat}\rangle .$$

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A **qubit** is a quantum object that has two states, usually written as

$$|0\rangle \text{ and } |1\rangle .$$

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Example (Fair Quantum Die)

What is the state of a fair quantum die before we measure it?

Answer:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} |1\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} |2\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} |3\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} |4\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} |5\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} |6\rangle .$$

Superposition

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|\text{cat sitting}\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|\text{cat lying}\rangle$$

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Assume we have a two qubits system:

$$(\alpha_1 |0\rangle + \beta_1 |1\rangle)(\alpha_2 |0\rangle + \beta_2 |1\rangle).$$

By distributive law, we have

$$\alpha_1\alpha_2 |0\rangle |0\rangle + \alpha_1\beta_2 |0\rangle |1\rangle + \beta_1\alpha_2 |1\rangle |0\rangle + \beta_1\beta_2 |1\rangle |1\rangle.$$

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For convenience, we write the state as

$$\alpha_1\alpha_2 |00\rangle + \alpha_1\beta_2 |01\rangle + \beta_1\alpha_2 |10\rangle + \beta_1\beta_2 |11\rangle.$$

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Of course, the sum of probability should be one ☺:

$$|\alpha_1\alpha_2|^2 + |\alpha_1\beta_2|^2 + |\beta_1\alpha_2|^2 + |\beta_1\beta_2|^2 = 1.$$

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the probability of getting 0 at first qubit is $|\alpha_1\alpha_2|^2 + |\alpha_1\beta_2|^2 = |\alpha_1|^2$, which is the same as we only focus on the first qubit.

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After measurement, the residue state is

$$|0\rangle \left(\frac{\alpha_1\alpha_2 |0\rangle + \alpha_1\beta_2 |1\rangle}{\sqrt{|\alpha_1\alpha_2|^2 + |\alpha_1\beta_2|^2}} \right) = |0\rangle (\alpha_2 |0\rangle + \beta_2 |1\rangle),$$

where $\sqrt{|\alpha_1\alpha_2|^2 + |\alpha_1\beta_2|^2} = \alpha_1$ is the normalized factor.

Entanglement

For the state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |00\rangle + 0 |01\rangle + 0 |10\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |11\rangle,$$

can we write it as a product state with some coefficients

$$(\alpha_1 |0\rangle + \beta_1 |1\rangle)(\alpha_2 |0\rangle + \beta_2 |1\rangle)?$$

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can we write it as a product state with some coefficients

$$(\alpha_1 |0\rangle + \beta_1 |1\rangle)(\alpha_2 |0\rangle + \beta_2 |1\rangle)?$$

NO! It means that if we measure one of the qubits, the coefficients of the other qubit will change.

We say these two qubits are **entangled**.

Mathematical Formalism

Postulate 1: A quantum system is described a unit vector in the Hilbert space.

- Hilbert space is defined as an inner product space on \mathbb{C} .

For a single qubit, we write $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. In general,

$$\alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}.$$

Example (EPR pair)

The state in the previous slide is the famous Einstein-Podolsky-Rosen (EPR) pair:

$$\frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} 00 \\ 01 \\ 10 \\ 11 \end{matrix}.$$

Mathematical Formalism

Postulate 2: Quantum operation in a closed system is described by a unitary operator U .

- An operator U in vector space V is unitary if for all $|v\rangle \in V$, operator U satisfies

$$||U|v\rangle|| = |||v\rangle||.$$

Example (NOT gate)

Let $X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Then,

$$X|0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = |1\rangle.$$

X gate is the NOT gate in quantum computing.

Quantum Parallel

A single quantum computer can compute multiple computations simultaneously by the effect of superposition.

$$U_f(|x\rangle |0\rangle) = |x\rangle |f(x)\rangle$$

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} |x\rangle |0\rangle$$

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

The problem is we only can find out one of the result from measurement.

- The Nature knows all the result but only tells us one!

Example (Modular Exponential)

Let $f_{a,N}(x) = a^x \bmod N$, and U_f is a unitary operator corresponding to $f_{a,N}$.

Now we have $a = 7$, $N = 15$ and $|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle + |2\rangle + |3\rangle)$.

Then,

$$U_f(|\psi\rangle |0\rangle) = \frac{1}{2}(|0\rangle |1\rangle + |1\rangle |7\rangle + |2\rangle |4\rangle + |3\rangle |13\rangle).$$

The example shows that we somehow can compute $7^0, 7^1, 7^2, 7^3 \pmod{15}$ simultaneously. The problem is “how we extract the answer?”

In the following slides, we will see that how different quantum algorithms deal with this problem.

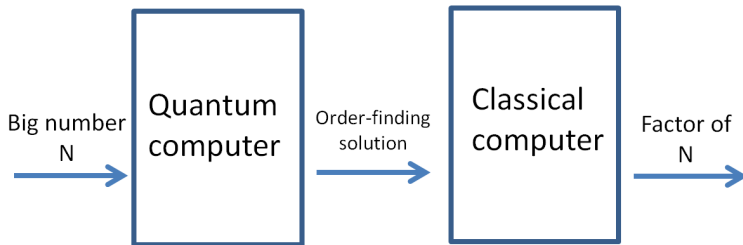
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Shor's Algorithm

Shor's algorithm has two parts:

- Classical part: reduce factoring to order-finding problem
- Quantum part: order-finding problem



Order-finding Problem

Order-finding problem

For $a \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$, the order of a in \mathbb{Z}_N^* (or the order of a modulo N) is the smallest positive integer r such that

$$a^r \equiv 1 \pmod{N}.$$

The order-finding problem is given a positive integer $N \geq 2$ and an element $a \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$, try to find the order of a in \mathbb{Z}_N^* .

Reduce Factoring to Order-finding Problem

If we have

$$a^r \equiv 1 \pmod{N},$$

then

$$N \mid a^r - 1.$$

If r is even, we have

$$N \mid (a^{r/2} - 1)(a^{r/2} + 1).$$

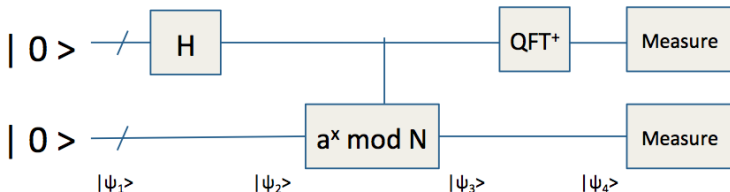
It cannot happen that $N \mid (a^{r/2} - 1)$, because this would mean that r was not the order of a . If $N \nmid (a^{r/2} + 1)$, then $\gcd(N, a^{r/2} + 1)$ is a non-trivial factor for N .

Theorem

If a is chosen randomly from Z_N^ , and r is the order of a , then*

$$\Pr[r \text{ is even} \wedge N \nmid (a^{r/2} + 1)] \geq \frac{1}{2}.$$

Order-finding Problem



$$|\psi_1\rangle = |0\rangle |0\rangle$$

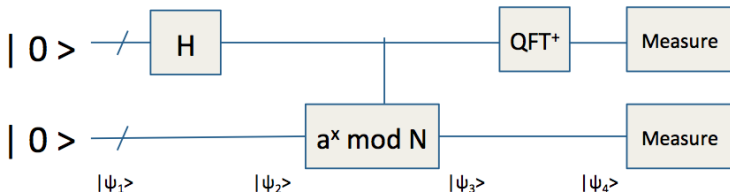
$$|\psi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} |x\rangle |0\rangle$$

$$|\psi_3\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} |x\rangle |a^x \bmod N\rangle$$

$$|\psi_4\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x=0}^{2^n-1} QFT^\dagger(|x\rangle) |a^x \bmod N\rangle$$

- $QFT^\dagger(|x\rangle) = \sum_{t=0}^N e^{ixt/N} |t\rangle$

Order-finding Problem



When measuring the second register and get some value “ u ”, the first register will collapse to the pre-image of u , i.e. $\{i \mid f(i) = u\}$. Since modular exponential is a periodic function, where the period is the order of a .

We can find the period by Fourier transform.

Remark: the probability that the circuit output an even order of a is $\Omega(\frac{1}{\log \log N})$.

Example

Example

Assume we want to factor 15. We choose $a = 7$. The first step is to prepare a superposition state

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{x=0}^{15} |x\rangle |0\rangle.$$

Next, compute the modular exponential and yield

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi'\rangle &= \frac{1}{4}(|0\rangle |1\rangle + |1\rangle |7\rangle + \dots + |15\rangle |13\rangle) \\ &= \frac{1}{4}((|0\rangle + |4\rangle + |8\rangle + |12\rangle) |1\rangle \\ &\quad + (|1\rangle + |5\rangle + |9\rangle + |13\rangle) |7\rangle \\ &\quad + (|2\rangle + |6\rangle + |10\rangle + |14\rangle) |4\rangle \\ &\quad + (|3\rangle + |7\rangle + |11\rangle + |15\rangle) |13\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

Example

Example (con'd)

The quantum Fourier transform yields

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{4} \left((|0\rangle + |4\rangle + |8\rangle + |12\rangle) |1\rangle \right. \\ & \quad + (|0\rangle + i|4\rangle - |8\rangle - i|12\rangle) |7\rangle \\ & \quad + (|0\rangle - |4\rangle + |8\rangle - |12\rangle) |4\rangle \\ & \quad \left. + (|0\rangle - i|4\rangle - |8\rangle + i|12\rangle) |13\rangle \right) \end{aligned}$$

When measuring the first register, we can get the even order with probability $\Omega(\frac{1}{\log \log 15})$.

Time Complexity

Assume we want to factor a n -bit number N :

- Modular exponential: $\Theta(n^3)$
- QFT: $\Theta(n^2)$
- Succeed probability: $\Omega(\frac{1}{\log n})$

Thus, the total time complexity is $O(n^3 \log n)$.

Example

To factor a 2048-bit number, we need roughly $2048^3 \cdot \log 2048 \sim 10^{11}$ operations. If we assume each operation takes 1 microsecond on a quantum computer, it takes only one day to factor the number.

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Motivation of Grover Search Algorithm

Envelope Problem: Suppose you have N envelopes. One of them has money inside but others are empty. How many trials do you need to do for finding money?

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- Worst case: $N - 1$ times.
- In average: $N/2$ times.
- Even you allow the probability of failure P_f (a constant), you still need to try $O(N)$ times.

Grover suggests an algorithm for such problem only takes $O(\sqrt{N})$ operations.

Grover Algorithm

One important design technique for quantum algorithm is preparing a superposed state that exploits quantum parallelism and try to maximize the amplitude of the right answer.

Grover algorithm is a beautiful example for demonstrating this technique. One Grover iteration consists of two steps:

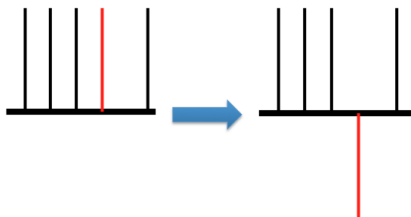
- 1 Phase inversion
- 2 Inversion about mean

After many iterations, we can get the result with high probability.

Grover Algorithm Overview

Phase inversion

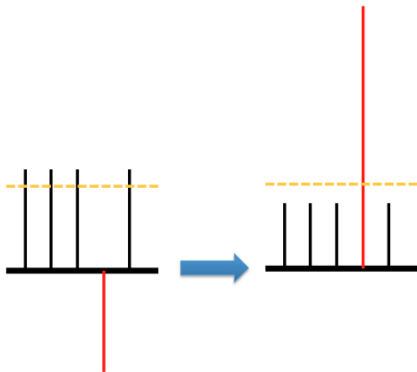
- First, we prepare a superposed state $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{x=0}^N \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} |x\rangle$
- Assume the red one is the right answer we want to observe
- Second, we inverse the amplitude of the right answer, i.e. $\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} |x\rangle \rightarrow -\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} |x\rangle$



Grover Algorithm Overview

Inversion about mean

- Orange dotted line represents the average of all the amplitude
- Since the red one has negative amplitude, the average will be slightly lower than most amplitude.
- If we invert each amplitude about the mean, the amplitude of the right answer will grow about three times high.



Phase Inversion

Assume we have a classical boolean function $f(x)$ such that

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \text{ is the answer we want;} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Phase Inversion

Assume we have a classical boolean function $f(x)$ such that

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \text{ is the answer we want;} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Let U_f be an unitary operator such that

$$U_f |x\rangle |q\rangle = |x\rangle |q \oplus f(x)\rangle,$$

which can be viewed as applying NOT gate on the desired state.

Magically, if we set $|q\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$, we would have

$$U_f |x\rangle |q\rangle = |x\rangle \frac{|1\rangle - |0\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = -|x\rangle |q\rangle,$$

which is the phase inversion we want.

Inversion about Mean

Q: If μ is the average, how can we inverse x about μ ?

A: $(x - \mu)$ is the difference between them. $\mu - (x - \mu) = 2\mu - x$ attains our goal.

Thus, in vector representation, inversion about mean can be done by

$$(2A - I)|x\rangle, \text{ where } A = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2^n} & \frac{1}{2^n} & \cdots & \frac{1}{2^n} \\ \frac{1}{2^n} & \frac{1}{2^n} & \cdots & \frac{1}{2^n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{1}{2^n} & \frac{1}{2^n} & \cdots & \frac{1}{2^n} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Remark: It can be showed that $(2A - I)$ is an unitary operator:
Since $(2A - I)$ is a real symmetric matrix, $(2A - I) = (2A - I)^\dagger$.

$$(2A - I)(2A - I) = 4A^2 - 4A + I = 4A - 4A + I = I$$

Example

Example (Grover iteration)

First, we prepare a superposed state and the red one is the amplitude we want to enhance.

$$|\psi_1\rangle = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}} \right]$$

Then, we inverse the amplitude of the target.

$$|\psi_2\rangle = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}, \frac{-1}{\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}} \right]$$

The average of these numbers is $\frac{7 \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}}{8} = \frac{3}{4\sqrt{8}}$. Calculating the inversion about the mean, we have

$$|\psi_3\rangle = \left[\frac{1}{2\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{2\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{2\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{2\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{2\sqrt{8}}, \frac{5}{2\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{2\sqrt{8}}, \frac{1}{2\sqrt{8}} \right]$$

Example

Example (con'd)

If we do another Grover iteration, we get

$$|\psi_4\rangle = \left[\frac{-1}{4\sqrt{8}}, \frac{-1}{4\sqrt{8}}, \frac{-1}{4\sqrt{8}}, \frac{-1}{4\sqrt{8}}, \frac{-1}{4\sqrt{8}}, \frac{-1}{4\sqrt{8}}, \frac{11}{4\sqrt{8}}, \frac{-1}{4\sqrt{8}}, \frac{-1}{4\sqrt{8}} \right]$$

Note that $\frac{11}{4\sqrt{8}} = 0.97227$. The probability of getting right answer is

$$\left| \frac{11}{4\sqrt{8}} \right|^2 = 0.9453.$$

We can find the desired answer with probability 95% only using two iterations!

Grover Algorithm on Cryptography

It can be showed that operating Grover iteration $O(\sqrt{N})$ times can attends the maximum probability to get the right answer.

Note that $f(x)$ could be “any” boolean function that can be implemented in quantum circuit. Thus, if you have plaintext-ciphertext pair, Grover algorithm could leads to quadratic speed up.

Example (AES-128)

Assume we want to break AES-128.

If we have a plaintext-ciphertext pair (m, c) , then we can have a function $f(x)$ such that output 1 when $c = Enc_x(m)$. About 2^{64} Grover iterations could find the correct key with high probability.

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Universal Set

A set of unitary operators is called universal set if all the unitary operator can be made up of the members of the set.

Theorem (Universal Set)

$\{X, Z, H, T, CNOT\}$ forms an universal set.

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{\frac{i\pi}{4}} \end{pmatrix}, CNOT = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

IBM Just Made a 17 Qubit Quantum Processor, Its Most Powerful One Yet



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May 17 2017, 10:13pm

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TECHNOLOGY

First 51-Qubit Quantum Computer Using Cold Atoms Announced In Moscow

BY HIMANSHU GOENKA 

ON 07/21/17 AT 6:17 AM

51-qubit vs 2000-qubit?

IBM Just Made a 17 Qubit Quantum Processor, Its Most Powerful One Yet

 MEREDITH RUTLAND BAUER
May 17 2017, 10:16pm

TECHNOLOGY

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SEP 27, 2016

D-Wave Systems Previews 2000-Qubit Quantum System

Comparison between Different Implementation

Which quantum computer is right for you?

There are many types to choose from. Here's how they compare and our all-important verdict

