## Introduction to Quantum Computing

How I Learned to Stop Worrying and Love the Bomb

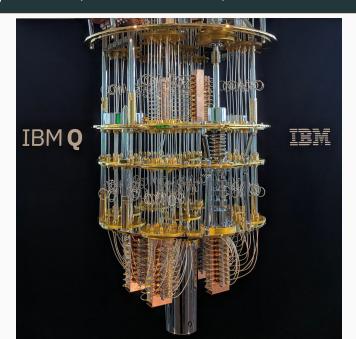
Dr. Omri Har-Shemesh

13. February 2019

Schmiede.ONE GmbH & Co. KG

## Introduction

#### Ce n'est pas un lustre (This is not a Chandelier)



· New computing paradigm

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- · Quantum Computing is technical
- · Quantum Algorithms are hard

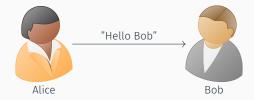
# Examples?

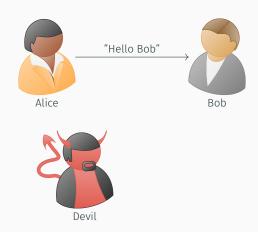
## Breaking the RSA algorithm















Generate Public/Private keys e, d, N = pq



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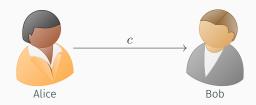




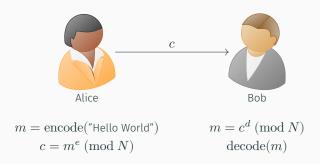


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$$c = m^e \pmod{N}$$



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It's easy to find  $e,d,N\in\mathbb{N}$ , such that:

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It's easy to find  $e,d,N\in\mathbb{N}$ , such that:

$$(m^e)^d \equiv m \; (\text{mod} \; N)$$

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But it's hard to find p, q, such that pq=N.

## Example: the RSA algorithm - Factorizing is Hard

#### Factorizing on a Classical Computer

Bits	Time	Notes
128	less than 2 seconds	
192	16 seconds	
256	35 minutes	
260	1 hour	
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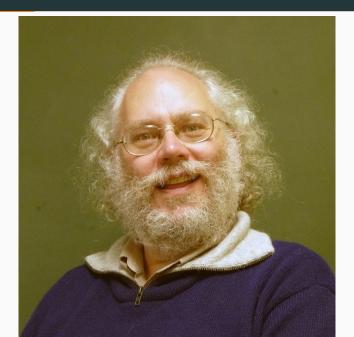
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Most RSA implementations use between 1024 and 4096 bits.

## Example: the RSA algorithm - Shor's Algorithm



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Would require  $\sim 4000$  qubits to break 2048-bit RSA

Movie

The Technical Part

"Shut up and calculate"

David Mermin

#### Overview

- · Representing computation with linear algebra
- · Qubits, superposition and quantum logic gates
- Simplest problem where a quantum computer outperforms a classical one
- · Bonus: Quantum entanglement

### Representing classical bits as vectors

One bit with value 0, also written as  $|0\rangle$  (Dirac vector notation)

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

One bit with value 1, also written as  $|1\rangle$ 

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

#### Review: matrix multiplication

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ax + by \\ cx + dy \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ax + by + cz \\ dx + ey + fz \\ gx + hy + iz \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} w & x \\ y & z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} aw + by & ax + bz \\ cw + dy & cx + dz \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{pmatrix}$$

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Operations on one classical bit (cbit)

What are the operations we can perform on one classical bit?

## Operations on one classical bit (cbit)

Identity 
$$f(x) = x \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f(x) = \neg x \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f(x) = 0 \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f(x) = 1 \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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### Reversible computing

- · Given the operation and the input, you can always infer the output.
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  - · Constant-0 and Constant-1 are not reversible.

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- · Permutations are reversible; erasing and overwriting are not
  - · Identity and negation are reversible.
  - Constant-0 and Constant-1 are not reversible.
- · Quantum computers use only reversible operations.
  - · In fact, all quantum operations are their own inverse.

#### Review: tensor product of vectors

## Representing multiple cbits

$$|00\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0\\0\\0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad |01\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0\\0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 0\\1\\1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\1\\0\\0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad |100\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\1\\0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\0\\0\\1\\0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|10\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\1\\0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\0\\1\\0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\0\\1\\0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- The tensor representation is called the product state.
- · It can be factored back into the individual state representation.
- The product state of n bits is a vector of size  $2^n$ .

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$ 01\rangle$	$ 01\rangle$
$ 10\rangle$	$ 10\rangle$
$ 11\rangle$	$ 11\rangle$

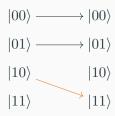
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$$\begin{array}{ccc} |00\rangle & \longrightarrow & |00\rangle \\ |01\rangle & & |01\rangle \\ |10\rangle & & |10\rangle \\ |11\rangle & & |11\rangle \end{array}$$

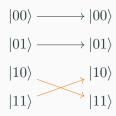
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$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$C \left| 10 \right\rangle = C \left( \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \left| 11 \right\rangle$$

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- · Cbits are a special case of Qubits!
- A qubit is represented by  $\binom{a}{b}$  where a and b are complex numbers such that  $||a||^2 + ||b||^2 = 1$ .
  - The cbit vectors  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$  fit this definition.
- · Example qubit values:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

What does that mean?

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### Superposition

The qubit is in a state of both  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$ . We can write this as:

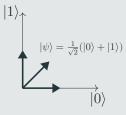
$$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = a \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + b \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = a |0\rangle + b |1\rangle.$$

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#### **Amplitudes**

a and b are called amplitudes.  $||a||^2$  is the probability of the qubit being 0 when measured;  $||b||^2$  is the probability of measuring 1.

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#### Measurement

The measurement of the qubit collapses its state. It will be in the state  $|0\rangle$  if we measured 0 and  $|1\rangle$  if we measured  $1^{\dagger}$ .

#### For example

The qubit  $\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$  has a  $\left| \left| \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right| \right|^2 = \frac{1}{2}$  chance of collapsing to  $|0\rangle$  or  $|1\rangle$ .

The qubit  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$  has 100% chance of collapsing to  $|0\rangle$ , and  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$  has a 100% chance of collapsing to  $|1\rangle$ .

· Multiple qubits are represented by the tensor product:

$$\binom{a}{b} \otimes \binom{c}{d} = \binom{ab}{ad}_{bc}_{bd} \text{ with } ||ac||^2 + ||ad||^2 + ||bc||^2 + ||bd||^2 = 1.$$

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· For example:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}; \quad \left\| \frac{1}{2} \right\|^2 = \frac{1}{4}; \quad \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = 1$$

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 $\rightarrow$  There's an equal chance (25%) of measuring  $|00\rangle$ ,  $|01\rangle$ ,  $|10\rangle$ ,  $|11\rangle$ .

#### Operations on qubits

- · We operate on qubits in the same way as on cbits: with matrices.
- All the operations we saw so far (bit flip, CNOT, etc...) work on qubits as well.
- In reality, the matrix operations model some device that manipulates the real qubits without measurement.
- Some gates only make sense in the quantum context...

### The Hadamard gate

· The Hadaramd gate puts a  $|0\rangle$  or  $|1\rangle$  bit into exact superposition:  $H \, |0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \, (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$  and  $H \, |1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \, (|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$ .

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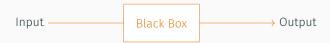
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- · Note that  $H^2=HH=\mathbf{1}$  so  $H^2\left|0\right>=\left|0\right>$  and  $H^2\left|1\right>=\left|1\right>$ .
- This allows us to get out of superposition without measurement! So we can structure computations deterministically.



• The Black Box is a deterministic function of one bit.



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- · And on a quantum computer?



 What if we want to determine whether the function is constant or variable?



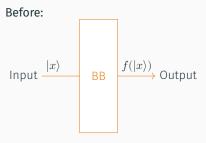
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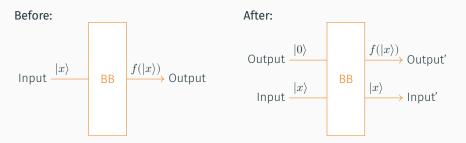
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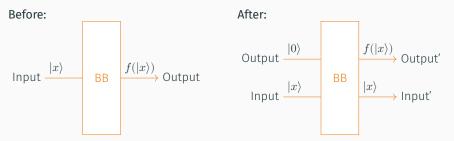


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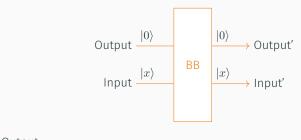


**Problem:** the constant-0 and constant-1 functions are non-reversible. Before we can continue, we have to write them in a reversible way:



The black box leaves the input qubit unchanged, writing the output of the function to the output qubit.

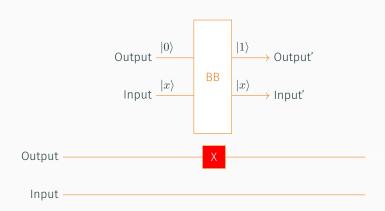
## The Deutsch oracle: constant-0



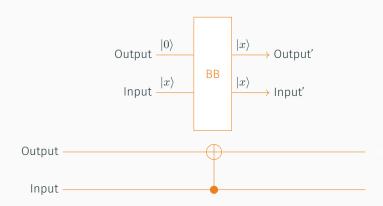
Output —

Input —

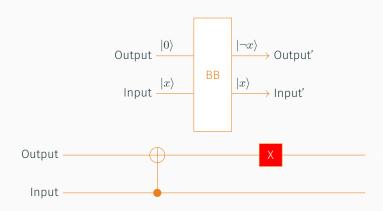
## The Deutsch oracle: constant-1



# The Deutsch oracle: identity



# The Deutsch oracle: negation



## The Deutsch oracle: solution

 $\boldsymbol{\cdot}\:$  So how do we solve the problem in one operation?

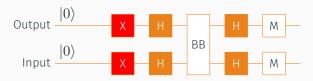
## The Deutsch oracle: solution

· So how do we solve the problem in one operation?



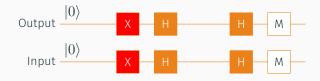
## The Deutsch oracle: solution

· So how do we solve the problem in one operation?



- If the black-box function is constant, we will measure  $|11\rangle$ .
- · If the black-box function is variable, we will measure  $|01\rangle$ .

## The Deutsch oracle: check for constant-0



$$\text{Output'} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\operatorname{Input'} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Output is  $|11\rangle$ .

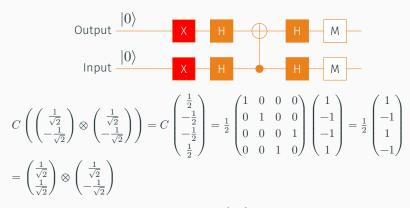
## The Deutsch oracle: check for constant-1

$$\text{Output'} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\operatorname{Input'} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Output is  $|11\rangle$ .

# The Deutsch oracle: check for the identity



Output (after applying Hadamard gate):  $|01\rangle$ .

# The Deutsch oracle: check for negation



# Left as an exercise :)

Output:  $|01\rangle$ .

- We managed to determine whether the function is constant in one query!
- We magnified the difference between categories (CNOT gate) and neutralized the difference within the categories (NOT gate).
- There is a generalization of this to n-bit black boxes (Deutsch-Josza problem).
- It was an inspiration for Shor's algorithm!

Bonus Topic - Quantum Entanglement

# Quantum entanglement

 If the product state of two qubits cannot be factored, they are said to be entangled

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \end{pmatrix}$$

$$ac = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$ad = 0$$

$$bc = 0$$

$$bd = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

- The system of equations has no solution, so we cannot factor the quantum state.
- This state has a 50% chance of collapsing to  $|00\rangle$  and 50% chance of collapsing to  $|11\rangle$ .

# Quantum entanglement

To reach an entangled state is quite simple:



$$CH_1\left(\begin{pmatrix}1\\0\end{pmatrix}\otimes\begin{pmatrix}1\\0\end{pmatrix}\right) = C\left(\begin{pmatrix}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\\\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\end{pmatrix}\otimes\begin{pmatrix}1\\0\end{pmatrix}\right) = \begin{pmatrix}1 & 0 & 0 & 0\\0 & 1 & 0 & 0\\0 & 0 & 0 & 1\\0 & 0 & 1 & 0\end{pmatrix}\begin{pmatrix}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\\0\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\\0\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\\0\\\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\end{pmatrix}$$

# Quantum entanglement - consequences

- $\cdot$  The qubits are forced to be equal (both are either 0 or 1)!
- If we measure one of them, the state of the other will collapse to be equal to the one we measured.
- This can happen even if they are very very far away from each other!
- The value is not predetermined.
- · We cannot use this to transmit information, however.