

Quantum Computing & Cryptography

Richard Perry

Villanova University

Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering

richard.perry@villanova.edu

March 2020

Outline

1. Background

2. Physics

3. Math

4. Simulation

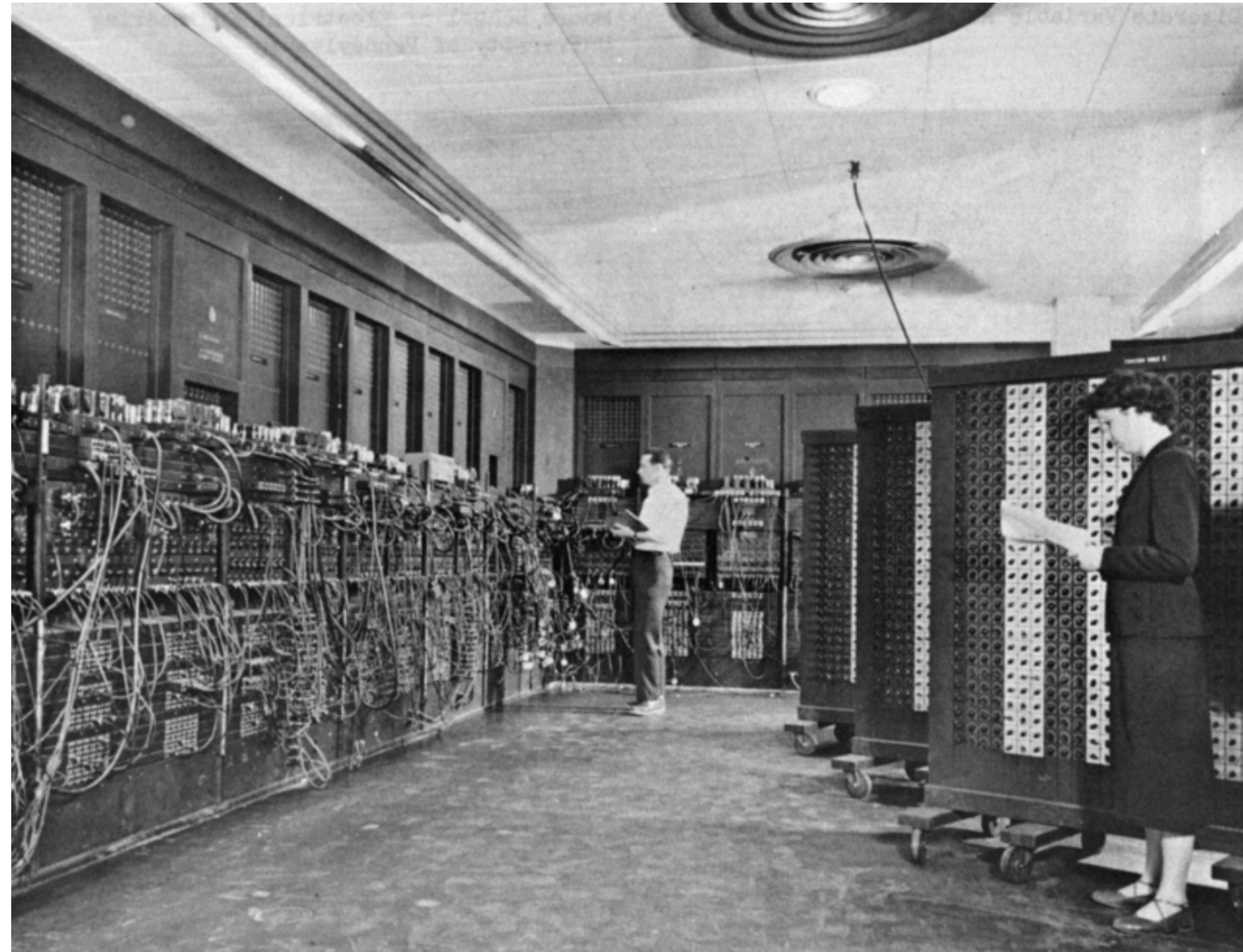
5. Breaking Cryptography

6. Post-Quantum Cryptography

▲ ◀ ▶ **Quantum Computing & Cryptography**

0100001011100110101001111011011011101001101111100001010100010011010100110111010110110001010011110000011111010010100001101000101011111110001010110011111100000101011011110011010101101

Eniac 1950: 30 tons, 150 KW, 1 KB, 100 KHz



▲ ◀ ▶ **Quantum Computing & Cryptography**

01000010111001101010011110110110111010011011111100001010100010011010100110111010110110001010011110000011111101001010000110100010101111111100010101100111111100000101011

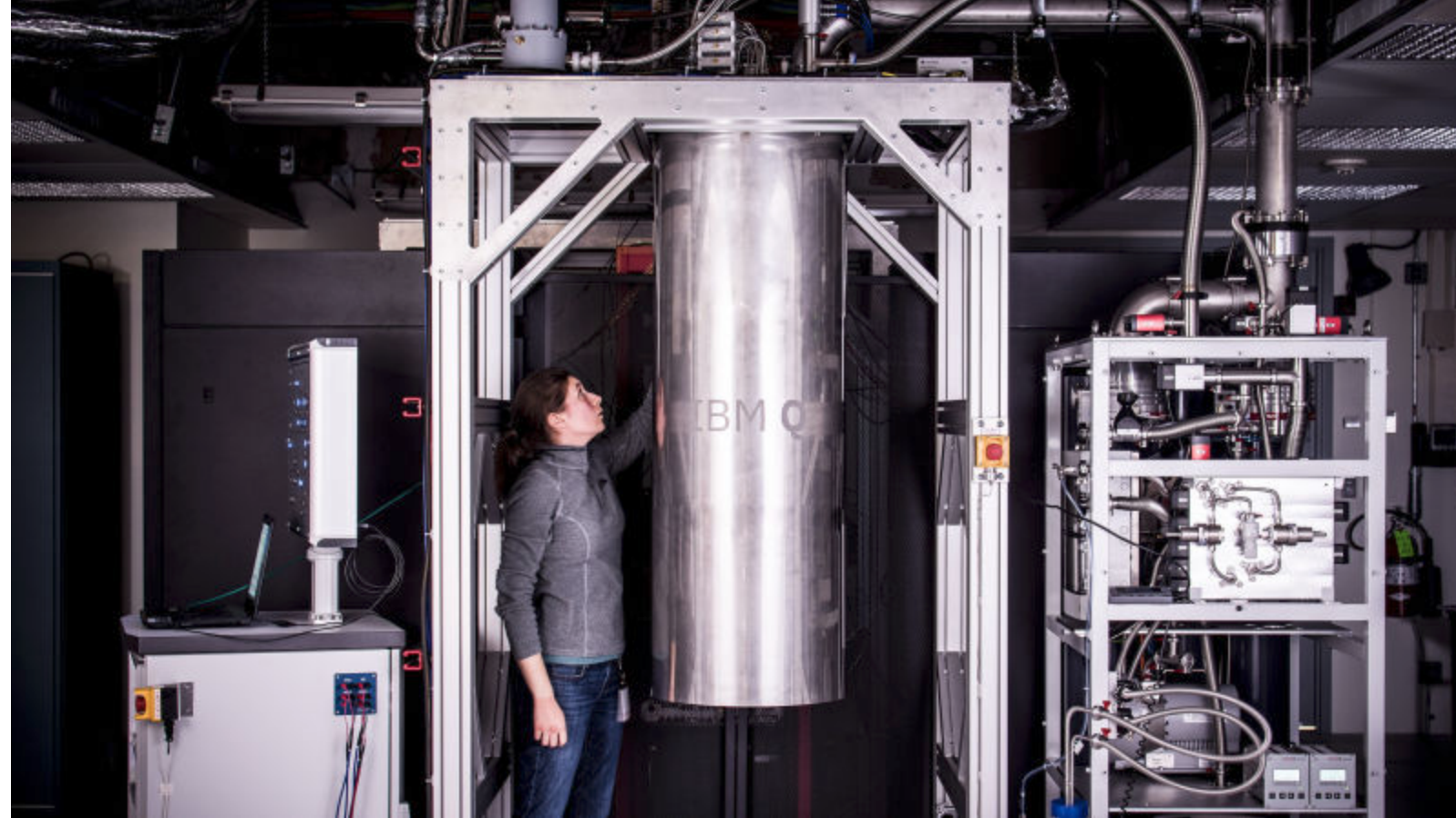
Phone 2020: 5 oz., 1 W, 4 GB, 2 GHz



▲ ◀ ▶ **Quantum Computing & Cryptography**

010000101110011010100111101101101110100110111110000101010001001101010011011101011011000101001111000001111110100101000011010001010111111100010101100111111100000101011

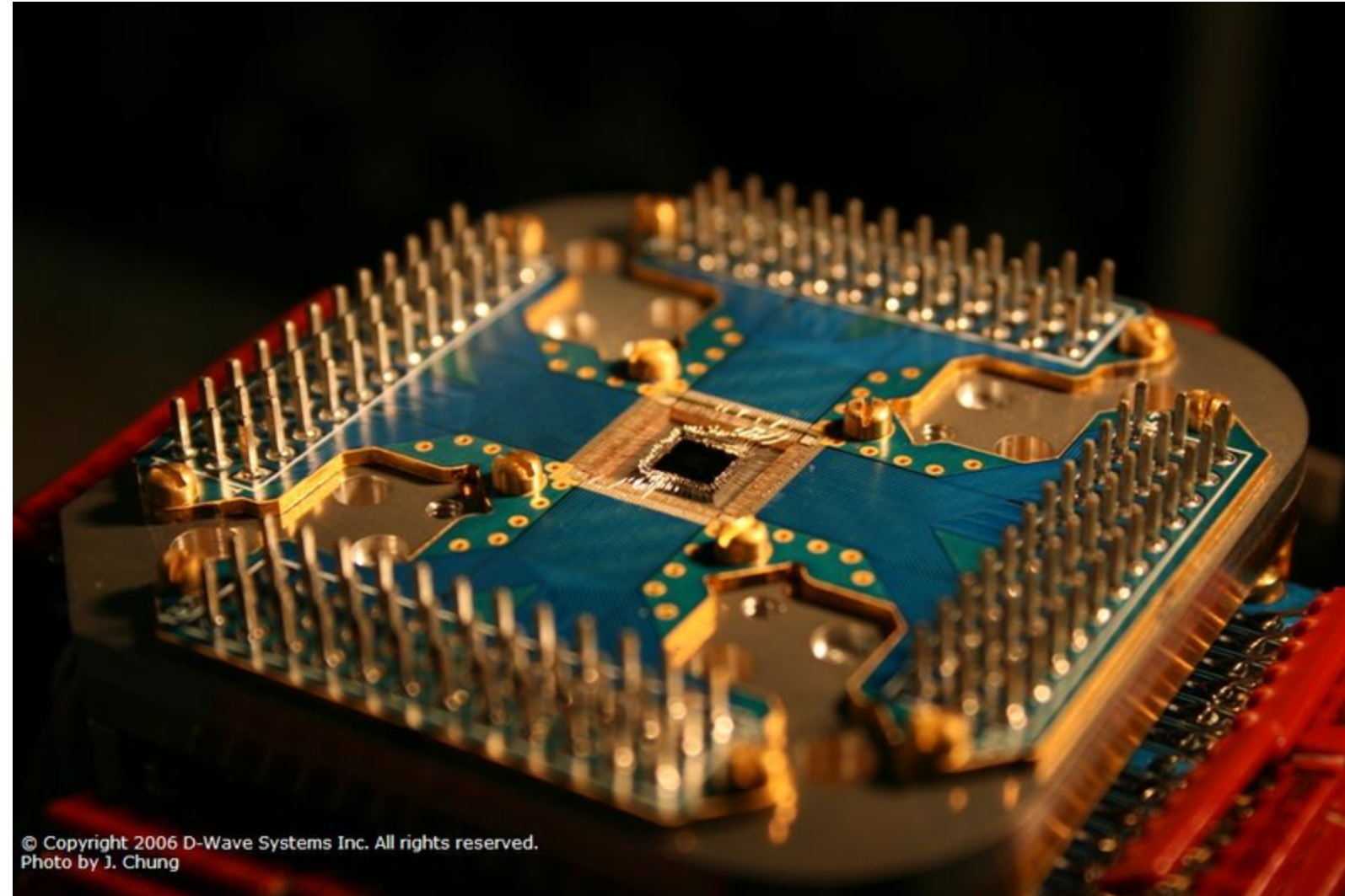
QC 2020: tons, KW, 50 qubits, 1 MHz



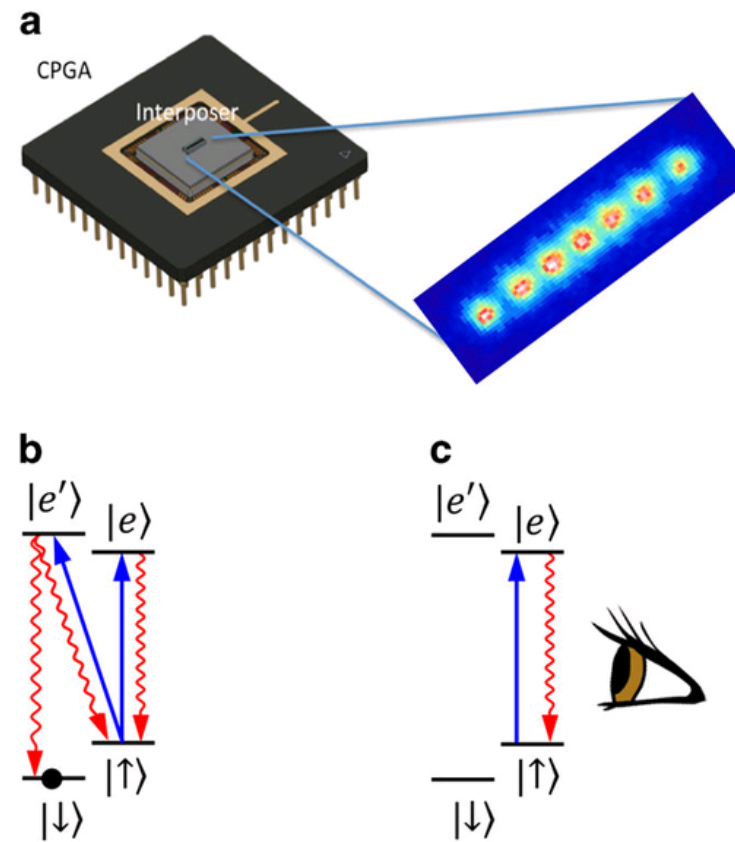
▲ ◀ ▶ Quantum Computing & Cryptography

0100001011100110101001111011011011101001101111100001010100010011010100110111010110110001010011110000011111101001010000110100010101111111100010101100111111100000101011

QC 2050: ???

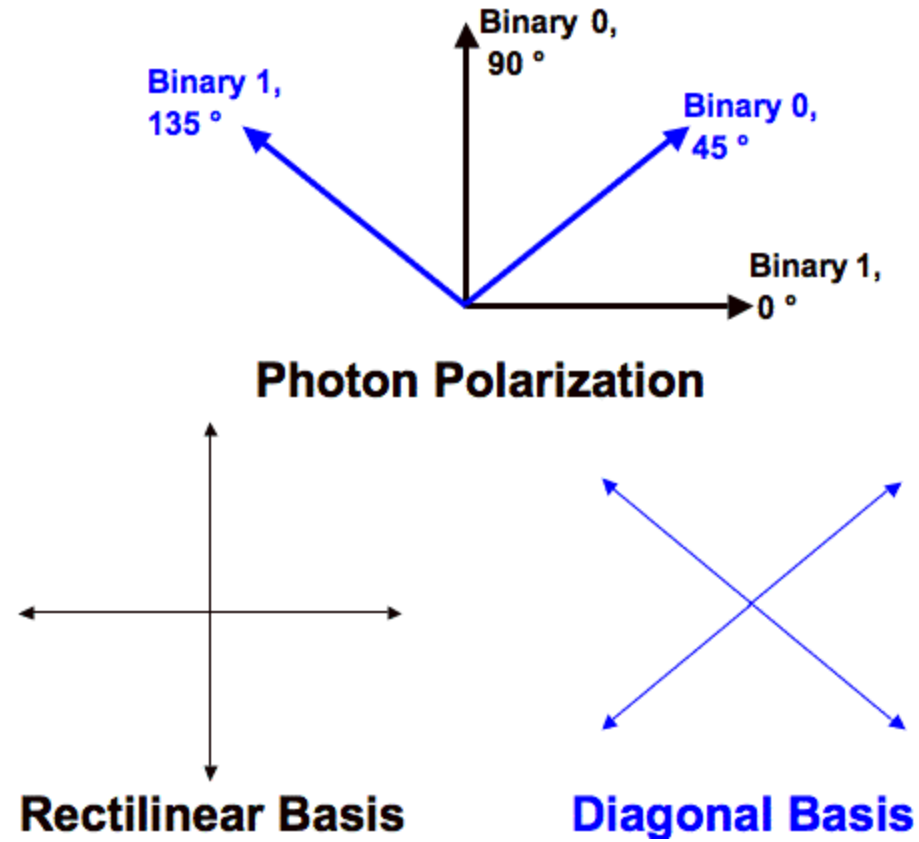


Ion Trap Quantum Device



(a) Schematic of silicon chip-trap mounted on a ceramic pin grid array carrier with raised interposer, confining atomic ions that hover $\sim 75 \mu\text{m}$ above the surface. The inset is an image of 7 atomic ytterbium ($^{171}\text{Yb}^+$) ions arranged in a linear crystal and laser-cooled to be nearly at rest. The few-micrometre separation between ions is determined by a balance between the external confinement force and Coulomb repulsion. (b,c) Reduced energy level diagram of a single $^{171}\text{Yb}^+$ atomic ion, showing the atomic hyperfine levels $|\uparrow\rangle$ and $|\downarrow\rangle$ that represent a qubit. The electronic excited states $|e\rangle$ and $|e'\rangle$ are separated from the ground states by an energy corresponding to an optical wavelength of 369.53 nm, and applied laser radiation (blue arrows) drives these transitions for (b) initialisation to state $|\downarrow\rangle$, and (c) fluorescence detection of the qubit state ($|\uparrow\rangle$, fluorescence, $|\downarrow\rangle$, no fluorescence).

Quantum Key Distribution



[A Survey of the Prominent Quantum Key Distribution Protocols](#), Mart Haitjema. Figure 2, corrected.

Quantum Key Distribution

Alice's bit	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
Alice's basis	+	+	X	+	X	X	X	+
Alice's polarization	↑	→	↖	↑	↖	↗	↗	→
Bob's basis	+	X	X	X	+	X	+	+
Bob's measurement	↑	↗	↖	↗	→	↗	→	→
Public discussion								
Shared Secret key	0		1			0		1

Alice's bits: secret

Alice's basis: initially secret, public later

Alice's polarization: secret

Bob's basis: public

Bob's measurement: secret

Schrödinger Equation

$$i\hbar \frac{d|\psi\rangle}{dt} = H|\psi\rangle$$

Complex state vector Ψ : $|\Psi_i|^2 = \text{Prob}(\text{measure state } i)$

Hamiltonian matrix H , Hermitian: $H^\dagger = H$

$$|\psi(t_2)\rangle = \exp\left[\frac{-iH(t_2 - t_1)}{\hbar}\right] |\psi(t_1)\rangle = U(t_1, t_2)|\psi(t_1)\rangle$$

$$U(t_1, t_2) \equiv \exp\left[\frac{-iH(t_2 - t_1)}{\hbar}\right]$$

Unitary matrix U : $U^{-1} = U^\dagger$

One Qubit

The standard basis for \mathbb{C}^2 is denoted by $|0\rangle_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $|1\rangle_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. The standard basis for $(\mathbb{C}^2)^{\otimes q}$, which has 2^q elements, is denoted by $|0\rangle_q, |1\rangle_q, \dots, |2^q - 1\rangle_q$.

If we pick the standard basis for \mathbb{C}^2 , then a single qubit ($q = 1$) can be represented as $\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \beta \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ where $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ and $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$.

Superposition: $\alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle$

Complex Amplitudes: α, β

Probabilities: $|\alpha|^2, |\beta|^2$

[An Introduction to Quantum Computing, Without the Physics](#), Giacomo Nannicini, 2017 (2020).

Single Qubit Operations

Definition 11. *The four Pauli gates are the following single-qubit gates:*

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} & X &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ Y &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} & Z &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Proposition 5. *The Pauli gates form a basis for $\mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2}$, they are Hermitian, and they satisfy the relationship $XYZ = iI$.*

The X, Y, Z gates all correspond to 90° rotations, around different axes. The X gate flips a qubit:

$$X|0\rangle = |1\rangle \quad X|1\rangle = |0\rangle.$$

This is the equivalent of a NOT gate in classical computers. At the same time, the Z gate is also called a phase-flip gate: it leaves $|0\rangle$ unchanged, and maps $|1\rangle$ to $-|1\rangle$.

$$Z|0\rangle = |0\rangle \quad Z|1\rangle = -|1\rangle.$$

A single-qubit gate that is used in many quantum algorithms is the *Hadamard* gate:

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The action of H is as follows:

$$H|0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \quad H|1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

Superposition

Two Qubits

Let us write the basis elements of $(\mathbb{C}^2)^{\otimes 2} = \mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2$:

$$\begin{aligned} |0\rangle_2 = |0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle = |00\rangle &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} & |1\rangle_2 = |0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle = |01\rangle &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ |2\rangle_2 = |1\rangle \otimes |0\rangle = |10\rangle &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} & |3\rangle_2 = |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle = |11\rangle &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} |x\rangle &= \alpha_0|0\rangle + \alpha_1|1\rangle \\ |y\rangle &= \beta_0|0\rangle + \beta_1|1\rangle. \end{aligned}$$

that taken as a whole will be in state:

$$|x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle = \alpha_0\beta_0|00\rangle + \alpha_0\beta_1|01\rangle + \alpha_1\beta_0|10\rangle + \alpha_1\beta_1|11\rangle, \quad (1)$$

with the normalization conditions $|\alpha_0|^2 + |\alpha_1|^2 = 1$ and $|\beta_0|^2 + |\beta_1|^2 = 1$. The general state of a 2-qubit register $|\psi\rangle$ is:

$$|\psi\rangle = \gamma_{00}|00\rangle + \gamma_{01}|01\rangle + \gamma_{10}|10\rangle + \gamma_{11}|11\rangle, \quad (2)$$

with normalization condition $|\gamma_{00}|^2 + |\gamma_{01}|^2 + |\gamma_{10}|^2 + |\gamma_{11}|^2 = 1$.

Entanglement

CNOT: creating entangled states



Figure 10: The CNOT, or controlled-NOT, gate.

The matrix description of the gate with control qubit 2 and target qubit 1 is as follows:

$$CNOT_{21} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

initially a = |0>+|1>, b = |0>

q	a	b	p ->	a	b⊕a
0	0	0	0.5	0	0.5
1	0	1		0	1
2	1	0	0.5	1	0
3	1	1		1	0.5

```
class TwoQubit:
    def cnot(self):
        '''Controlled NOT operation'''
        self.onezero, self.oneone = self.oneone, self.onezero
        return self
```

Using an array:

```
q[0], q[1], q[2], q[3]

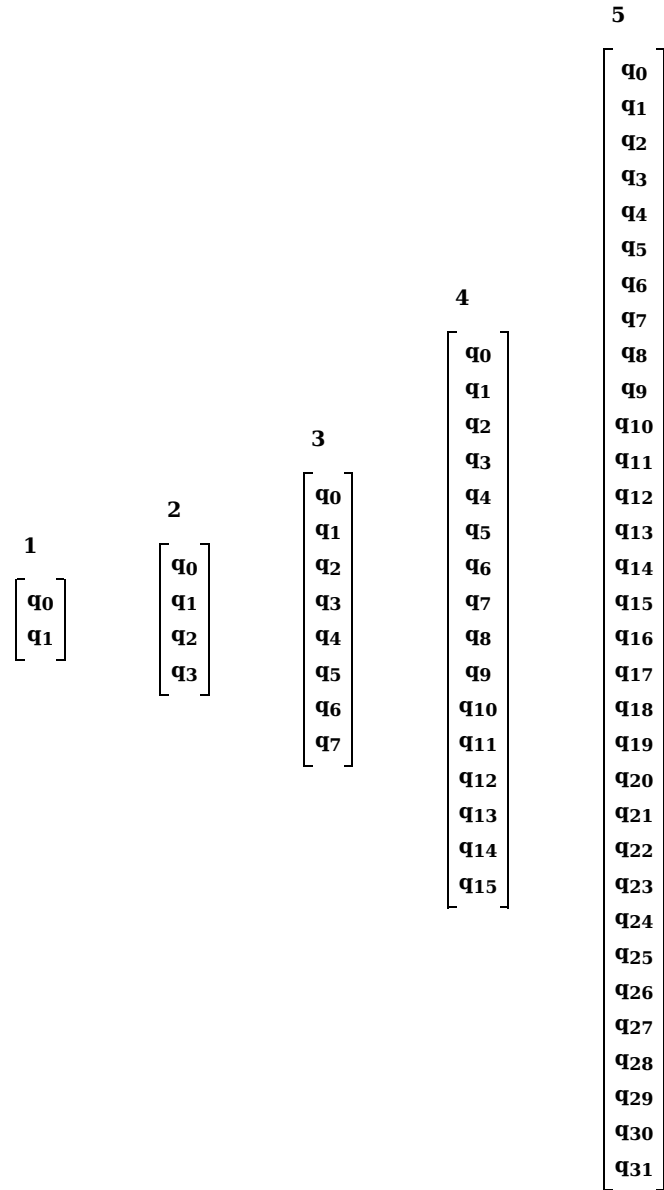
swap q[2] and q[3]
```

Using names for the complex amplitudes:

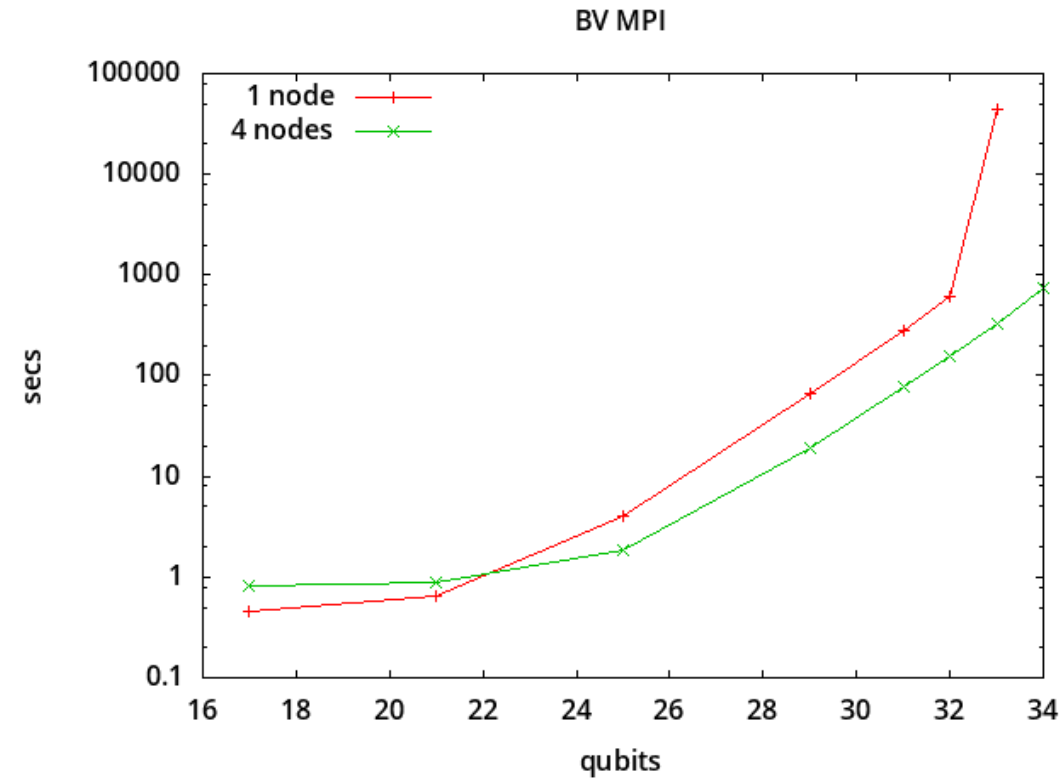
```
zerozero, zeroone, onezero, oneone
```

[Python Quantum Computing simulator](#), Juliana Peña, 2011.

Simulation: n qubits -> 2ⁿ complex state amplitudes



Simulation: distributed computing



For n=33 qubits, 128 GB of memory is required just for the array of quantum amplitudes. On a single 128 GB node this causes swapping, and the run-time increases to 43832 seconds (about 12 hours) which is a factor of 36 times what would be expected following the exponential scaling (20 minutes). For n=34 qubits a single node has insufficient memory and can not perform the simulation.

Grover's Search (1996): Quadratic Speedup

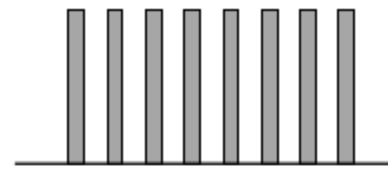
- Search space of size 2^n using $2^{(n/2)}$ function evaluations vs. classical $(2^n)/2$
- Security implications: 256-bit key for ANY algorithm will have only 128-bit security level
- Simulation:

```
for( iter = 1; iter <= k; ++iter)
{
    // apply f, i.e. flip sign of state m
    //
    q[m] = -q[m];

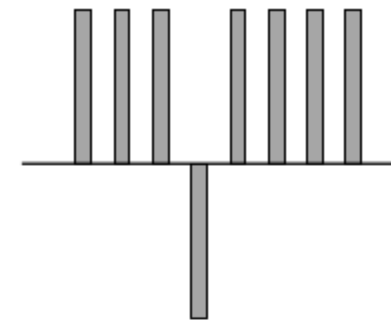
    // inversion about the average
    //
    avg = 0; for( i = 0; i < N; ++i) avg += q[i];

    avg *= 2.0/N; for( i = 0; i < N; ++i) q[i] = avg - q[i];
}
```

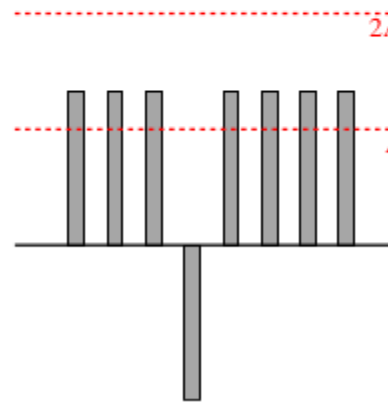
Grover's Search: inversion about the average



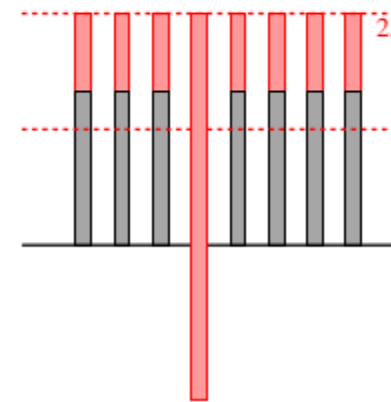
(a) Initialization.



(b) Sign flip.



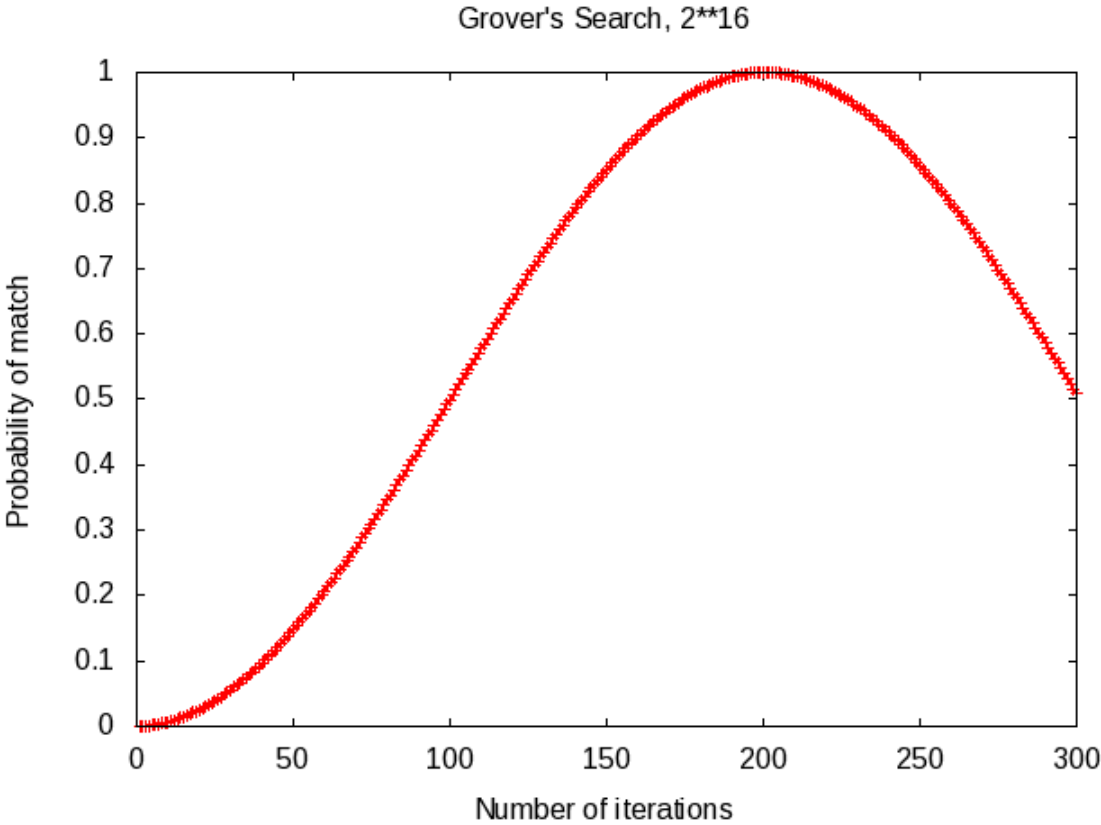
(c) Computation of the average.



(d) Inversion about the average.

Grover's Search: 16-bit Example

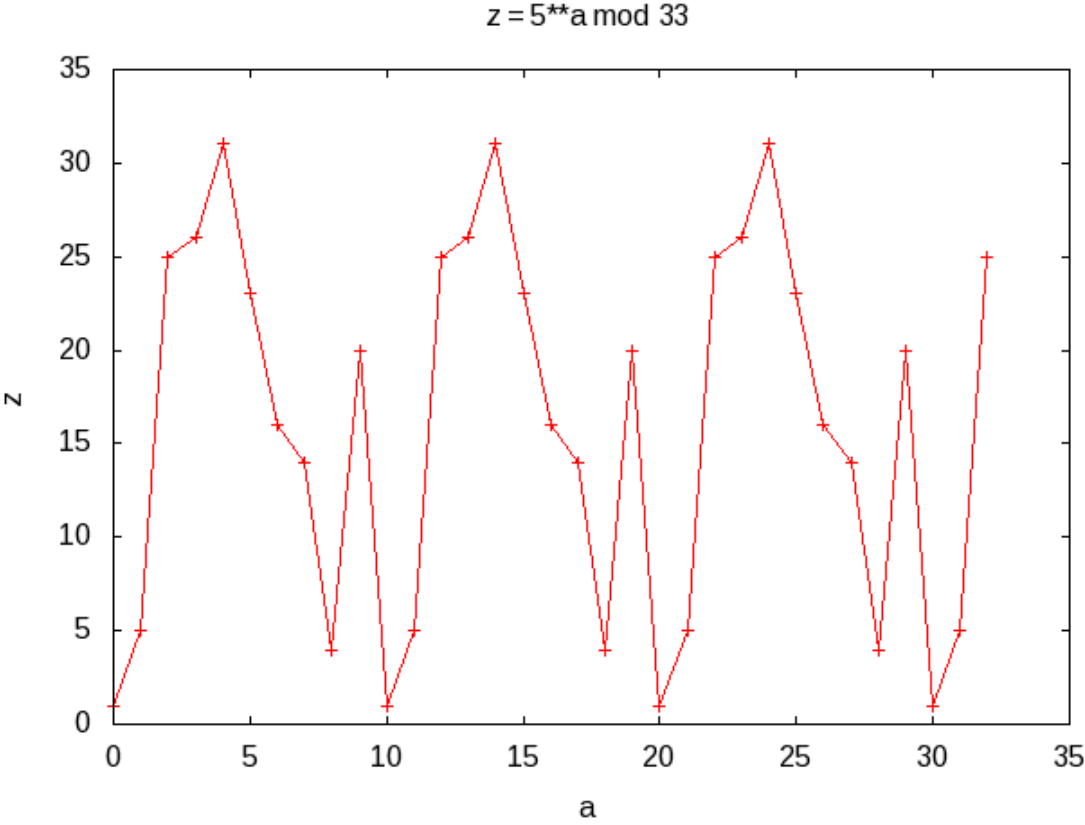
- $2^{16} = 65536$ possibilities, would take $(2^{16})/2 = 32768$ iterations on average classically
 - Takes only $(\pi/4)2^{(16/2)} = 201$ quantum iterations optimally, success probability **0.999988**





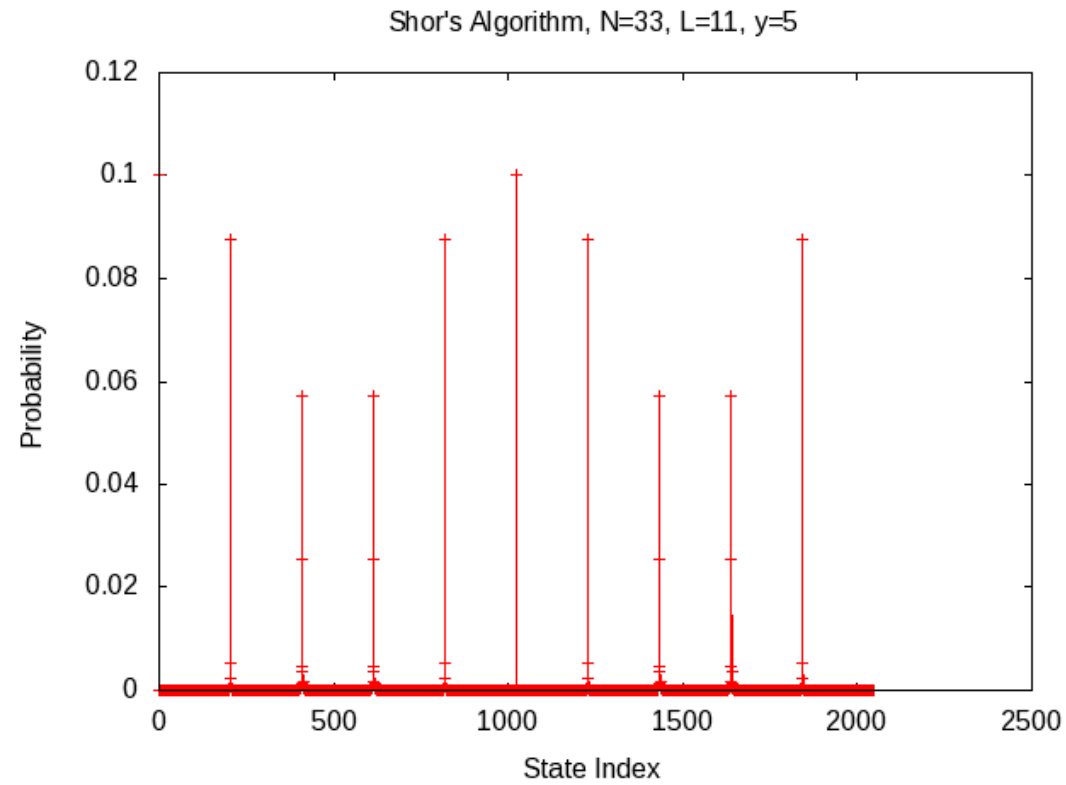
Shor factoring (1994): breaking RSA

- Quantum evaluation of $y^a \pmod N$ for random y , and ALL a at once
- Determine period r , $\pmod N$: $y^r = 1$, so $(y^{r/2} - 1)(y^{r/2} + 1) = 0 \rightarrow$ will share factor with N



Shor factoring example: $N = 33$

- DFT probability peaks (205, 410, 614, 819, ...) produce period estimates (9.9902, 4.9951, 3.3355, 2.5006, ...)
- Using $r = 10 \approx 9.9902$: $(5^{10/2} - 1) * (5^{10/2} + 1) = 22 * 24$
 - $\text{gcd}(22, N) = 11$, $\text{gcd}(24, N) = 3$, both factors of N



Post-Quantum Cryptography

- **NIST = National Institute of Standards and Technology**
- **Standardizing one or more quantum-resistant public-key cryptographic algorithms**
- **For use on classical computers**
- **Must be resistant to classical and quantum computing attacks**
- **Second-round candidate algorithms include:**
 - **17 public-key encryption and key-establishment algorithms**
 - **9 algorithms for digital signatures**
- ***"A wide range of mathematical ideas are represented by these algorithms... to hedge against the possibility that if someone breaks one, we could still use another."***
- **pqcrypto.org - Dan Bernstein's post-quantum cryptography resources**

[NIST Post-Quantum-Cryptography-Standardization](#)

[NIST Reveals 26 Algorithms Advancing to the Post-Quantum Crypto 'Semifinals'](#)

References

1. [An Introduction to Quantum Computing, Without the Physics](#), Giacomo Nannicini, 2017 (2020). *arxiv.org/abs/1708.03684*
 2. [Python Quantum Computing simulator](#), Juliana Pena, 2011. Two qubits and superdense coding protocol example. *gist.github.com/limitedmage/945473*
 3. [Quantum Computing Emulation](#), R. Perry, 2018-2020. *fog.misty.com/perry/qce/notes.html*
-

Hackers of the Future

Already planning attacks on quantum computers:

4. [An entangling-probe attack on Shor's algorithm for factorization](#), Hiroo Azuma, 2017. *arxiv.org/abs/1705.00271* : *an attacker can steal an exact solution of Shor's algorithm outside an institute where the quantum computer is installed if he replaces its initialized quantum register with entangled qubits.*