The Power of Quantum Computation

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Introduction

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The Quantum Algorithm Zoo

(http://math.nist.gov/quantum/zoo/) cites 214 papers on quantum algorithms alone, so this is necessarily a partial view...

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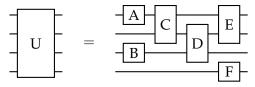
Theorem [Shor '97]

There is a quantum algorithm which finds the prime factors of an *n*-digit integer in time $O(n^3)$.

How do we measure the complexity of algorithms which run on a quantum computer?

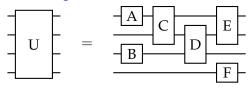
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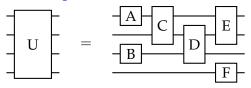
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- Then the time complexity of the algorithm is (roughly) modelled by the number of quantum gates used.
- Sometimes it is reasonable to measure the complexity of the algorithms by the number of queries to the input used.

Shor's algorithm: complexity comparison

Very roughly (ignoring constant factors!):

Number of digits	Timesteps (quantum)	Timesteps (classical)
100	106	$\sim 4 imes 10^5$
1,000	10 ⁹	$\sim 5 imes 10^{15}$
10,000	10 ¹²	$\sim 1 imes 10^{41}$

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- The fastest computer on the Top500 supercomputer list (~ 3.4×10^{16} operations per second) in ~ 1.2×10^{17} years.

(see e.g. [Van Meter et al '05] for a more detailed comparison)

The abelian hidden subgroup problem

The underlying mathematical problem which Shor's algorithm solves is:

Hidden subgroup problem (e.g. [Boneh and Lipton '95])

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- On a quantum computer, this problem can be solved using $O(\log |G|)$ queries to *f*. The algorithm is also time-efficient for all abelian groups *G*.
- Integer factorisation reduces to the case $G = \mathbb{Z}_M$ for some integer *M*.

The discrete log problem

Other important special cases of the abelian hidden subgroup problem:

Discrete log problem [Shor '97]

Given $g, x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{\times}$ for some prime p, find y such that $g^y = x$.

- Can be reduced to the hidden subgroup problem on Z_{p−1} × Z_{p−1}.
- Breaks Diffie-Hellman, ElGamal, DSA, ...

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Elliptic curves (e.g. [Proos and Zalka '03])

There is a polynomial-time quantum algorithm for the discrete log problem in the additive group of points on an elliptic curve over a finite field.

• Breaks ECDH, ECDSA, ECxxx, ...

The Shifted Legendre Symbol problem

Shifted Legendre Symbol problem [van Dam et al '00-'06]

Given access to the function $f : \mathbb{F}_p \to \mathbb{F}_p$ such that $f(x) = \left(\frac{x+s}{p}\right)$, where $\left(\frac{x}{p}\right)$ is the Legendre symbol $x^{(p-1)/2} \pmod{p}$, find *s*.

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- There is a quantum algorithm which solves this problem in time poly(log *p*), breaking a proposed secure pseudorandom number generator [Damgård '88].
- Allows certain algebraically homomorphic cryptosystems to be broken.
- Assume that we have access to a deterministic encryption function $E : \mathbb{F}_p \to X$ such that, given the encryptions E(x), E(y) of $x, y \in \mathbb{F}_p$, we can construct E(x + y) and E(xy) efficiently.
- Then (modulo some technicalities) using this algorithm we can find *s* efficiently given *E*(*s*).

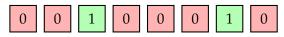
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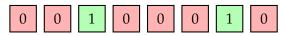
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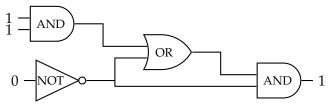


• On a classical computer, this task could require 2^n queries to f in the worst case. But on a quantum computer, Grover's algorithm [Grover '97] can solve the problem with $O(\sqrt{2^n})$ queries to f (and bounded error).

Grover's algorithm gives a speedup over naïve algorithms for any decision problem in NP, i.e. where we can verify the solution efficiently.

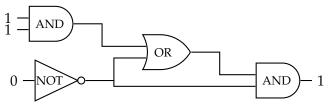
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• For example, in the CIRCUIT SAT problem we would like to find an input to a circuit on *n* bits such that the output is 1:



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• Grover's algorithm improves the runtime from $O(2^n)$ to $O(2^{n/2})$: applications to design automation, circuit equivalence, model checking, ...

An important generalisation: amplitude amplification.

Amplitude amplification [Brassard et al '00]

Assume we are given access to a "checking" function f, and a probabilistic algorithm A such that

 $\Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ outputs } w \text{ such that } f(w) = 1] = \epsilon.$

Then we can find *w* such that f(w) = 1 with $O(1/\sqrt{\epsilon})$ uses of *f*.

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- Gives a quadratic speed-up over classical algorithms based on the use of *f* as a black box.
- These primitives can be used to obtain many speedups over classical algorithms, e.g. finding a collision in a 2-1 function *f* : [*N*] → [*N*] with *O*(*N*^{1/3}) queries [Brassard et al '98] (but note controversy [Bernstein '09])

A number of bounds on the power of quantum computation are known.

Most results are in the **query complexity** model where we assume the algorithm wants to solve some problem given only access to an oracle as a black box. For example:

- Any quantum algorithm solving the unstructured search problem must use $\Omega(2^{n/2})$ queries [Bennett et al '97].
- Any quantum algorithm finding a collision in a 2-1 function $f : [N] \rightarrow [N]$ must use $\Omega(N^{1/3})$ queries to the function [Aaronson and Shi '04].

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- Solving the HSP for the symmetric group gives a quantum algorithm for graph isomorphism.

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- Solving the HSP for the dihedral group (in a certain way) gives a quantum algorithm for the shortest vector problem (SVP) in lattices [Regev '04].
- Solving the HSP for the symmetric group gives a quantum algorithm for graph isomorphism.

There is no known efficient quantum algorithm (i.e. running in time poly(log |G|)) for all nonabelian groups *G*.

• In particular, the best known algorithm for the dihedral group is subexponential-time: $2^{O(\sqrt{|G|})}$ [Kuperberg '05].

McEliece cryptosystem

The McEliece cryptosystem is (roughly) based on the hardness of finding transformations between equivalent linear codes.

The McEliece cryptosystem

Let *C* be an (n, k) linear code which can correct *t* errors. Let *G* be the $n \times k$ generator matrix for *C*, let *S* be a random $k \times k$ invertible matrix, and let *P* be a random $n \times n$ permutation. Then the public key is G' = SGP.

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- There can be no efficient attack on this cryptosystem based on Fourier sampling (the key ingredient in Shor's algorithm) [Dinh et al '10]...
- ... however, Grover's algorithm improves the runtime of the best known classical algorithms by a square root [Bernstein '10].

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Solving linear equations

Given access to a *d*-sparse $N \times N$ matrix *A*, and $b \in \mathbb{R}^N$, output *x* such that Ax = b.

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"Solving" linear equations

Given the ability to produce the quantum state $|b\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{N} b_i |i\rangle$, and access to *A* as above, produce the state $|x\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i |i\rangle$.

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Later improved to time $O(\kappa \log^3 \kappa \operatorname{poly}(d) \log N)$ [Ambainis '10].

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More recent applications of this algorithm include:

- "Solving" differential equations [Leyton and Osborne '08] [Berry '10]
- Data fitting [Wiebe et al '12]
- Space-efficient matrix inversion [Ta-Shma '13]

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- The algorithm is based on discrete-time quantum walks.
- Generalisation to finding a *k*-subset of Zⁿ satisfying any property: uses O(n^{k/(k+1)}) queries.

The same quantum walk framework lends itself to many different search problems, such as:

• Finding a triangle in a graph: $O(n^{1.3})$ queries, vs. classical $O(n^2)$ [Magniez et al '03] [Jeffery et al '12]



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• Testing group commutativity: $O(n^{2/3} \log n)$ queries, vs. classical O(n) [Magniez and Nayak '05]

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