

Quantum algorithms

Daniel J. Bernstein

“Quantum algorithm”
means an algorithm that
a quantum computer can run.
i.e. a sequence of instructions,
where each instruction is
in a quantum computer’s
supported instruction set.

**How do we know which
instructions a quantum
computer will support?**

Quantum computer type 1 (QC1):
contains many “qubits”;
can efficiently perform
“NOT gate”, “Hadamard gate”,
“controlled NOT gate”, “ T gate”.

Quantum computer type 1 (QC1):
contains many “qubits”;
can efficiently perform
“NOT gate”, “Hadamard gate”,
“controlled NOT gate”, “ T gate”.

**Making these instructions work
is the main goal of quantum-
computer engineering.**

Quantum computer type 1 (QC1):
contains many “qubits”;
can efficiently perform
“NOT gate”, “Hadamard gate”,
“controlled NOT gate”, “ T gate”.

**Making these instructions work
is the main goal of quantum-
computer engineering.**

Combine these instructions
to compute “Toffoli gate”;
... “Simon’s algorithm”;
... “Shor’s algorithm”; etc.

Quantum computer type 1 (QC1):
contains many “qubits”;
can efficiently perform
“NOT gate”, “Hadamard gate”,
“controlled NOT gate”, “ T gate”.

**Making these instructions work
is the main goal of quantum-
computer engineering.**

Combine these instructions
to compute “Toffoli gate”;
... “Simon’s algorithm”;
... “Shor’s algorithm”; etc.

General belief: Traditional CPU
isn’t QC1; e.g. can’t factor quickly.

Quantum computer type 2 (QC2):
stores a simulated universe;
efficiently simulates the
laws of quantum physics
with as much accuracy as desired.

This is the original concept of
quantum computers introduced
by [1982 Feynman](#) “Simulating
physics with computers” .

Quantum computer type 2 (QC2):
stores a simulated universe;
efficiently simulates the
laws of quantum physics
with as much accuracy as desired.

This is the original concept of
quantum computers introduced
by [1982 Feynman](#) “Simulating
physics with computers” .

General belief: any QC1 is a QC2.

Partial proof: see, e.g.,

[2011 Jordan–Lee–Preskill](#)

“Quantum algorithms for
quantum field theories” .

Quantum computer type 3 (QC3):
efficiently computes anything
that any possible physical
computer can compute efficiently.

Quantum computer type 3 (QC3):
efficiently computes anything
that any possible physical
computer can compute efficiently.

General belief: any QC2 is a QC3.

Argument for belief:

any physical computer must
follow the laws of quantum
physics, so a QC2 can efficiently
simulate any physical computer.

Quantum computer type 3 (QC3):
efficiently computes anything
that any possible physical
computer can compute efficiently.

General belief: any QC2 is a QC3.

Argument for belief:

any physical computer must
follow the laws of quantum
physics, so a QC2 can efficiently
simulate any physical computer.

General belief: any QC3 is a QC1.

Argument for belief:

look, we're building a QC1.

A note on D-Wave

Apparent scientific consensus:
Current “quantum computers”
from D-Wave are useless—
can be more cost-effectively
simulated by traditional CPUs.

A note on D-Wave

Apparent scientific consensus:
Current “quantum computers”
from D-Wave are useless—
can be more cost-effectively
simulated by traditional CPUs.

But D-Wave is

- collecting venture capital;

A note on D-Wave

Apparent scientific consensus:
Current “quantum computers”
from D-Wave are useless—
can be more cost-effectively
simulated by traditional CPUs.

But D-Wave is

- collecting venture capital;
- selling some machines;

A note on D-Wave

Apparent scientific consensus:
Current “quantum computers”
from D-Wave are useless—
can be more cost-effectively
simulated by traditional CPUs.

But D-Wave is

- collecting venture capital;
- selling some machines;
- collecting possibly useful engineering expertise;

A note on D-Wave

Apparent scientific consensus:
Current “quantum computers”
from D-Wave are useless—
can be more cost-effectively
simulated by traditional CPUs.

But D-Wave is

- collecting venture capital;
- selling some machines;
- collecting possibly useful engineering expertise;
- not being punished for deceiving people.

A note on D-Wave

Apparent scientific consensus:
Current “quantum computers”
from D-Wave are useless—
can be more cost-effectively
simulated by traditional CPUs.

But D-Wave is

- collecting venture capital;
- selling some machines;
- collecting possibly useful engineering expertise;
- not being punished for deceiving people.

Is D-Wave a bad investment?

The state of a computer

Data (“state”) stored in 3 bits:
a list of 3 elements of $\{0, 1\}$.

e.g.: $(0, 0, 0)$.

The state of a computer

Data (“state”) stored in 3 bits:
a list of 3 elements of $\{0, 1\}$.

e.g.: $(0, 0, 0)$.

e.g.: $(1, 1, 1)$.

The state of a computer

Data (“state”) stored in 3 bits:
a list of 3 elements of $\{0, 1\}$.

e.g.: $(0, 0, 0)$.

e.g.: $(1, 1, 1)$.

e.g.: $(0, 1, 1)$.

The state of a computer

Data (“state”) stored in 3 bits:
a list of 3 elements of $\{0, 1\}$.

e.g.: $(0, 0, 0)$.

e.g.: $(1, 1, 1)$.

e.g.: $(0, 1, 1)$.

Data stored in 64 bits:

a list of 64 elements of $\{0, 1\}$.

The state of a computer

Data (“state”) stored in 3 bits:

a list of 3 elements of $\{0, 1\}$.

e.g.: $(0, 0, 0)$.

e.g.: $(1, 1, 1)$.

e.g.: $(0, 1, 1)$.

Data stored in 64 bits:

a list of 64 elements of $\{0, 1\}$.

e.g.: $(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1,$

$0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0,$

$0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1,$

$1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1,$

$0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0,$

$1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1)$.

The state of a quantum computer

Data stored in 3 qubits:

a list of 8 numbers, not all zero.

e.g.: (3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6).

The state of a quantum computer

Data stored in 3 qubits:

a list of 8 numbers, not all zero.

e.g.: $(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6)$.

e.g.: $(-2, 7, -1, 8, 1, -8, -2, 8)$.

The state of a quantum computer

Data stored in 3 qubits:

a list of 8 numbers, not all zero.

e.g.: $(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6)$.

e.g.: $(-2, 7, -1, 8, 1, -8, -2, 8)$.

e.g.: $(0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0)$.

The state of a quantum computer

Data stored in 3 qubits:

a list of 8 numbers, not all zero.

e.g.: $(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6)$.

e.g.: $(-2, 7, -1, 8, 1, -8, -2, 8)$.

e.g.: $(0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0)$.

Data stored in 4 qubits: a list of

16 numbers, not all zero. e.g.:

$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6, 5, 3, 5, 8, 9, 7, 9, 3)$.

The state of a quantum computer

Data stored in 3 qubits:

a list of 8 numbers, not all zero.

e.g.: (3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6).

e.g.: (-2, 7, -1, 8, 1, -8, -2, 8).

e.g.: (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0).

Data stored in 4 qubits: a list of

16 numbers, not all zero. e.g.:

(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6, 5, 3, 5, 8, 9, 7, 9, 3).

Data stored in 64 qubits:

a list of 2^{64} numbers, not all zero.

The state of a quantum computer

Data stored in 3 qubits:

a list of 8 numbers, not all zero.

e.g.: (3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6).

e.g.: (-2, 7, -1, 8, 1, -8, -2, 8).

e.g.: (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0).

Data stored in 4 qubits: a list of 16 numbers, not all zero. e.g.:

(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6, 5, 3, 5, 8, 9, 7, 9, 3).

Data stored in 64 qubits:

a list of 2^{64} numbers, not all zero.

Data stored in 1000 qubits: a list of 2^{1000} numbers, not all zero.

Measuring a quantum computer

Can simply look at a bit.

Cannot simply look at the list of numbers stored in n qubits.

Measuring a quantum computer

Can simply look at a bit.

Cannot simply look at the list of numbers stored in n qubits.

Measuring n qubits

- produces n bits and
- destroys the state.

Measuring a quantum computer

Can simply look at a bit.

Cannot simply look at the list of numbers stored in n qubits.

Measuring n qubits

- produces n bits and
- destroys the state.

If n qubits have state

$(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{2^n-1})$ then

measurement produces q

with probability $|a_q|^2 / \sum_r |a_r|^2$.

Measuring a quantum computer

Can simply look at a bit.

Cannot simply look at the list of numbers stored in n qubits.

Measuring n qubits

- produces n bits and
- destroys the state.

If n qubits have state

$(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{2^n-1})$ then

measurement produces q

with probability $|a_q|^2 / \sum_r |a_r|^2$.

State is then all zeros

except 1 at position q .

e.g.: Say 3 qubits have state
(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1).

e.g.: Say 3 qubits have state
(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1).

Measurement produces

000 = 0 with probability $1/8$;

001 = 1 with probability $1/8$;

010 = 2 with probability $1/8$;

011 = 3 with probability $1/8$;

100 = 4 with probability $1/8$;

101 = 5 with probability $1/8$;

110 = 6 with probability $1/8$;

111 = 7 with probability $1/8$.

e.g.: Say 3 qubits have state
(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1).

Measurement produces

000 = 0 with probability $1/8$;

001 = 1 with probability $1/8$;

010 = 2 with probability $1/8$;

011 = 3 with probability $1/8$;

100 = 4 with probability $1/8$;

101 = 5 with probability $1/8$;

110 = 6 with probability $1/8$;

111 = 7 with probability $1/8$.

“Quantum RNG.”

e.g.: Say 3 qubits have state
(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1).

Measurement produces

000 = 0 with probability $1/8$;

001 = 1 with probability $1/8$;

010 = 2 with probability $1/8$;

011 = 3 with probability $1/8$;

100 = 4 with probability $1/8$;

101 = 5 with probability $1/8$;

110 = 6 with probability $1/8$;

111 = 7 with probability $1/8$.

“Quantum RNG.”

Warning: Quantum RNGs sold
today are **measurably biased**.

e.g.: Say 3 qubits have state
(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6).

e.g.: Say 3 qubits have state
(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6).

Measurement produces

000 = 0 with probability $9/173$;

001 = 1 with probability $1/173$;

010 = 2 with probability $16/173$;

011 = 3 with probability $1/173$;

100 = 4 with probability $25/173$;

101 = 5 with probability $81/173$;

110 = 6 with probability $4/173$;

111 = 7 with probability $36/173$.

e.g.: Say 3 qubits have state
(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6).

Measurement produces

000 = 0 with probability $9/173$;

001 = 1 with probability $1/173$;

010 = 2 with probability $16/173$;

011 = 3 with probability $1/173$;

100 = 4 with probability $25/173$;

101 = 5 with probability $81/173$;

110 = 6 with probability $4/173$;

111 = 7 with probability $36/173$.

5 is most likely outcome.

e.g.: Say 3 qubits have state
(0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0).

e.g.: Say 3 qubits have state
(0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0).

Measurement produces

000 = 0 with probability 0;

001 = 1 with probability 0;

010 = 2 with probability 0;

011 = 3 with probability 0;

100 = 4 with probability 0;

101 = 5 with probability 1;

110 = 6 with probability 0;

111 = 7 with probability 0.

e.g.: Say 3 qubits have state
(0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0).

Measurement produces

000 = 0 with probability 0;

001 = 1 with probability 0;

010 = 2 with probability 0;

011 = 3 with probability 0;

100 = 4 with probability 0;

101 = 5 with probability 1;

110 = 6 with probability 0;

111 = 7 with probability 0.

5 is guaranteed outcome.

NOT gates

NOT₀ gate on 3 qubits:

$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto$

$(1, 3, 1, 4, 9, 5, 6, 2).$

NOT gates

NOT₀ gate on 3 qubits:

$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto$

$(1, 3, 1, 4, 9, 5, 6, 2).$

NOT₀ gate on 4 qubits:

$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6, 5, 3, 5, 8, 9, 7, 9, 3) \mapsto$

$(1, 3, 1, 4, 9, 5, 6, 2, 3, 5, 8, 5, 7, 9, 3, 9).$

NOT gates

NOT₀ gate on 3 qubits:

$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto$

$(1, 3, 1, 4, 9, 5, 6, 2).$

NOT₀ gate on 4 qubits:

$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6, 5, 3, 5, 8, 9, 7, 9, 3) \mapsto$

$(1, 3, 1, 4, 9, 5, 6, 2, 3, 5, 8, 5, 7, 9, 3, 9).$

NOT₁ gate on 3 qubits:

$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto$

$(4, 1, 3, 1, 2, 6, 5, 9).$

NOT gates

NOT₀ gate on 3 qubits:

$$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto (1, 3, 1, 4, 9, 5, 6, 2).$$

NOT₀ gate on 4 qubits:

$$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6, 5, 3, 5, 8, 9, 7, 9, 3) \mapsto (1, 3, 1, 4, 9, 5, 6, 2, 3, 5, 8, 5, 7, 9, 3, 9).$$

NOT₁ gate on 3 qubits:

$$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto (4, 1, 3, 1, 2, 6, 5, 9).$$

NOT₂ gate on 3 qubits:

$$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto (5, 9, 2, 6, 3, 1, 4, 1).$$

state	measurement
(1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)	000 ←
(0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)	001 ←
(0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)	010 ←
(0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0)	011 ←
(0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0)	100 ←
(0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0)	101 ←
(0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0)	110 ←
(0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1)	111 ←

Operation on quantum state:

NOT_0 , swapping pairs.

Operation after measurement:

flipping bit 0 of result.

Flip: output is not input.

Controlled-NOT (CNOT) gates

e.g. $C_1\text{NOT}_0$:

$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto$

$(3, 1, 1, 4, 5, 9, 6, 2)$.

Controlled-NOT (CNOT) gates

e.g. $C_1\text{NOT}_0$:

$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto$

$(3, 1, 1, 4, 5, 9, 6, 2)$.

Operation after measurement:

flipping bit 0 *if* bit 1 is set; i.e.,

$(q_2, q_1, q_0) \mapsto (q_2, q_1, q_0 \oplus q_1)$.

Controlled-NOT (CNOT) gates

e.g. $C_1\text{NOT}_0$:

$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto$

$(3, 1, 1, 4, 5, 9, 6, 2)$.

Operation after measurement:

flipping bit 0 *if* bit 1 is set; i.e.,

$(q_2, q_1, q_0) \mapsto (q_2, q_1, q_0 \oplus q_1)$.

e.g. $C_2\text{NOT}_0$:

$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto$

$(3, 1, 4, 1, 9, 5, 6, 2)$.

Controlled-NOT (CNOT) gates

e.g. $C_1\text{NOT}_0$:

$$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto (3, 1, 1, 4, 5, 9, 6, 2).$$

Operation after measurement:

flipping bit 0 *if* bit 1 is set; i.e.,

$$(q_2, q_1, q_0) \mapsto (q_2, q_1, q_0 \oplus q_1).$$

e.g. $C_2\text{NOT}_0$:

$$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto (3, 1, 4, 1, 9, 5, 6, 2).$$

e.g. $C_0\text{NOT}_2$:

$$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto (3, 9, 4, 6, 5, 1, 2, 1).$$

Toffoli gates

Also known as CCNOT gates:
controlled-controlled-NOT gates.

e.g. $C_2C_1NOT_0$:

$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto$

$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 6, 2)$.

Toffoli gates

Also known as CCNOT gates:
controlled-controlled-NOT gates.

e.g. $C_2C_1NOT_0$:

$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto$

$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 6, 2)$.

Operation after measurement:

$(q_2, q_1, q_0) \mapsto (q_2, q_1, q_0 \oplus q_1 q_2)$.

Toffoli gates

Also known as CCNOT gates:
controlled-controlled-NOT gates.

e.g. $C_2C_1NOT_0$:

$$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto (3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 6, 2).$$

Operation after measurement:

$$(q_2, q_1, q_0) \mapsto (q_2, q_1, q_0 \oplus q_1 q_2).$$

e.g. $C_0C_1NOT_2$:

$$(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6) \mapsto (3, 1, 4, 6, 5, 9, 2, 1).$$

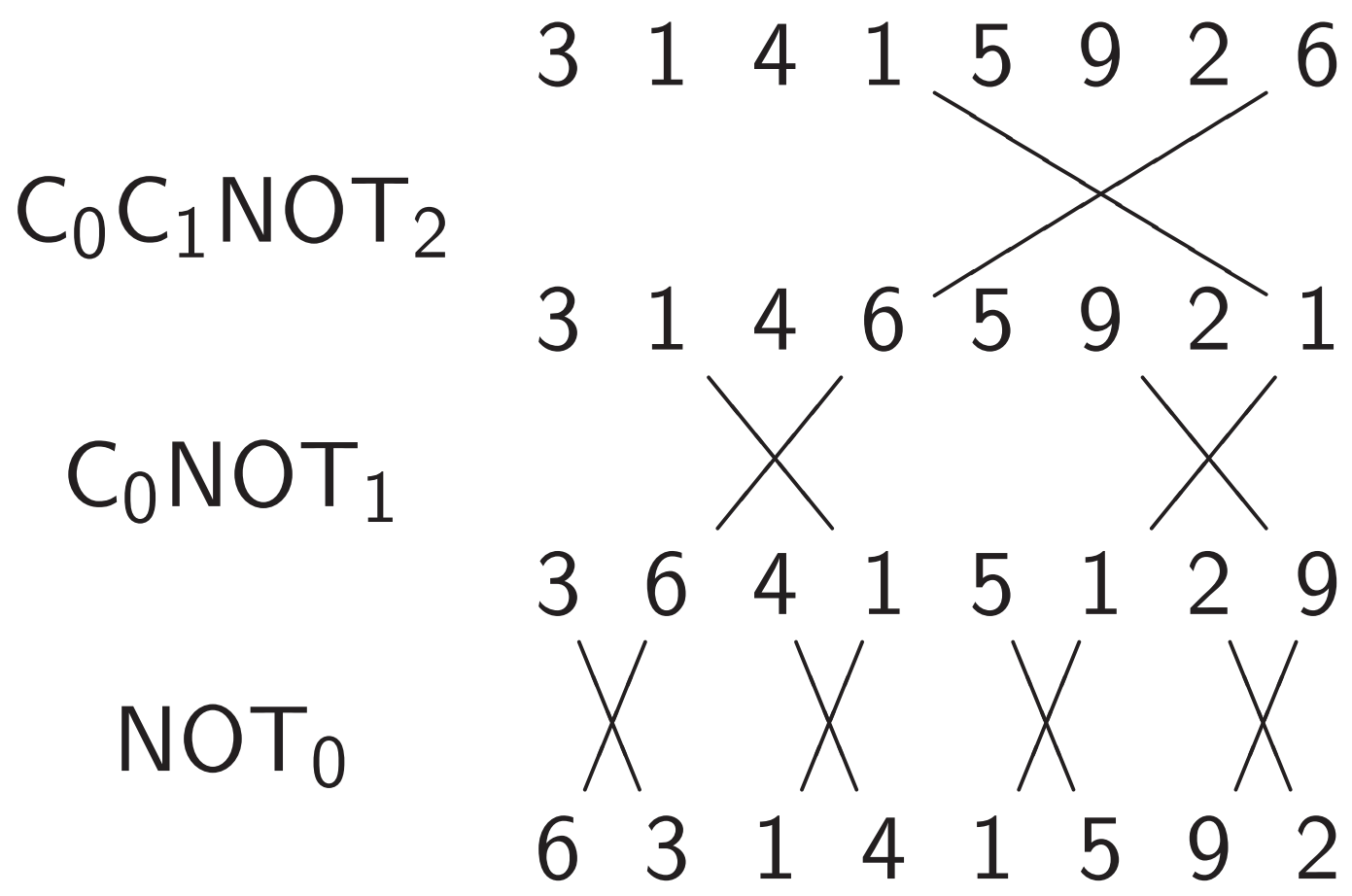
More shuffling

Combine NOT, CNOT, Toffoli
to build other permutations.

More shuffling

Combine NOT, CNOT, Toffoli to build other permutations.

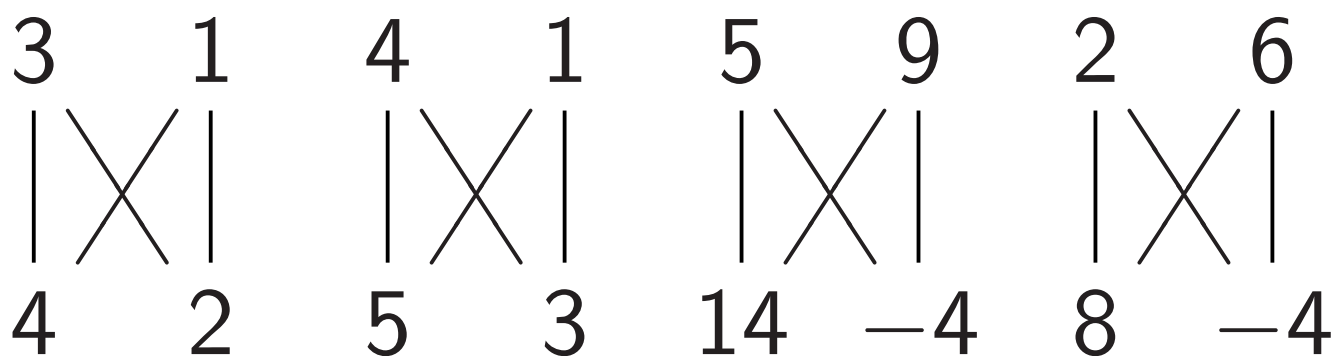
e.g. series of gates to rotate 8 positions by distance 1:



Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀:

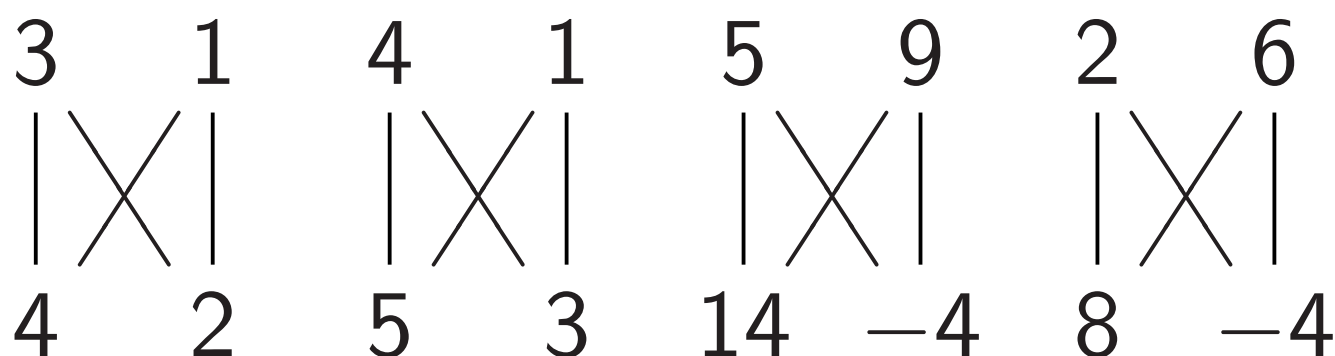
$$(a, b) \mapsto (a + b, a - b).$$



Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀:

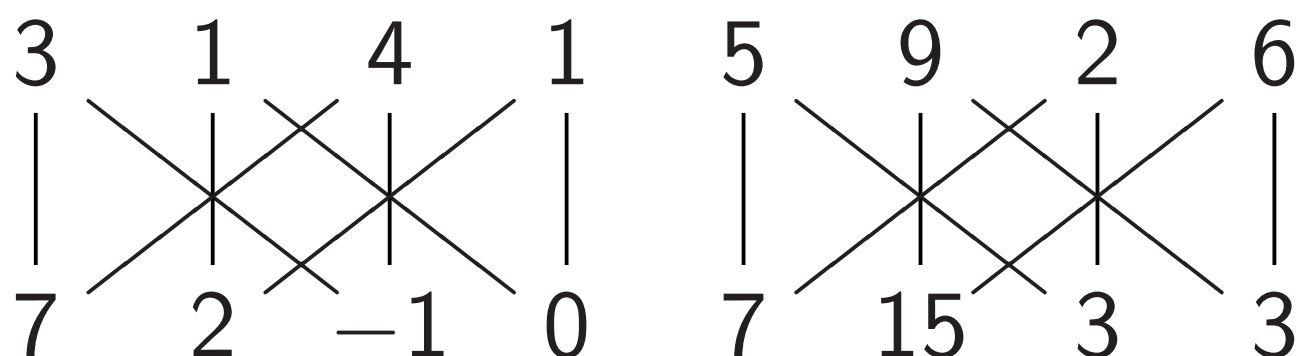
$$(a, b) \mapsto (a + b, a - b).$$



Hadamard₁:

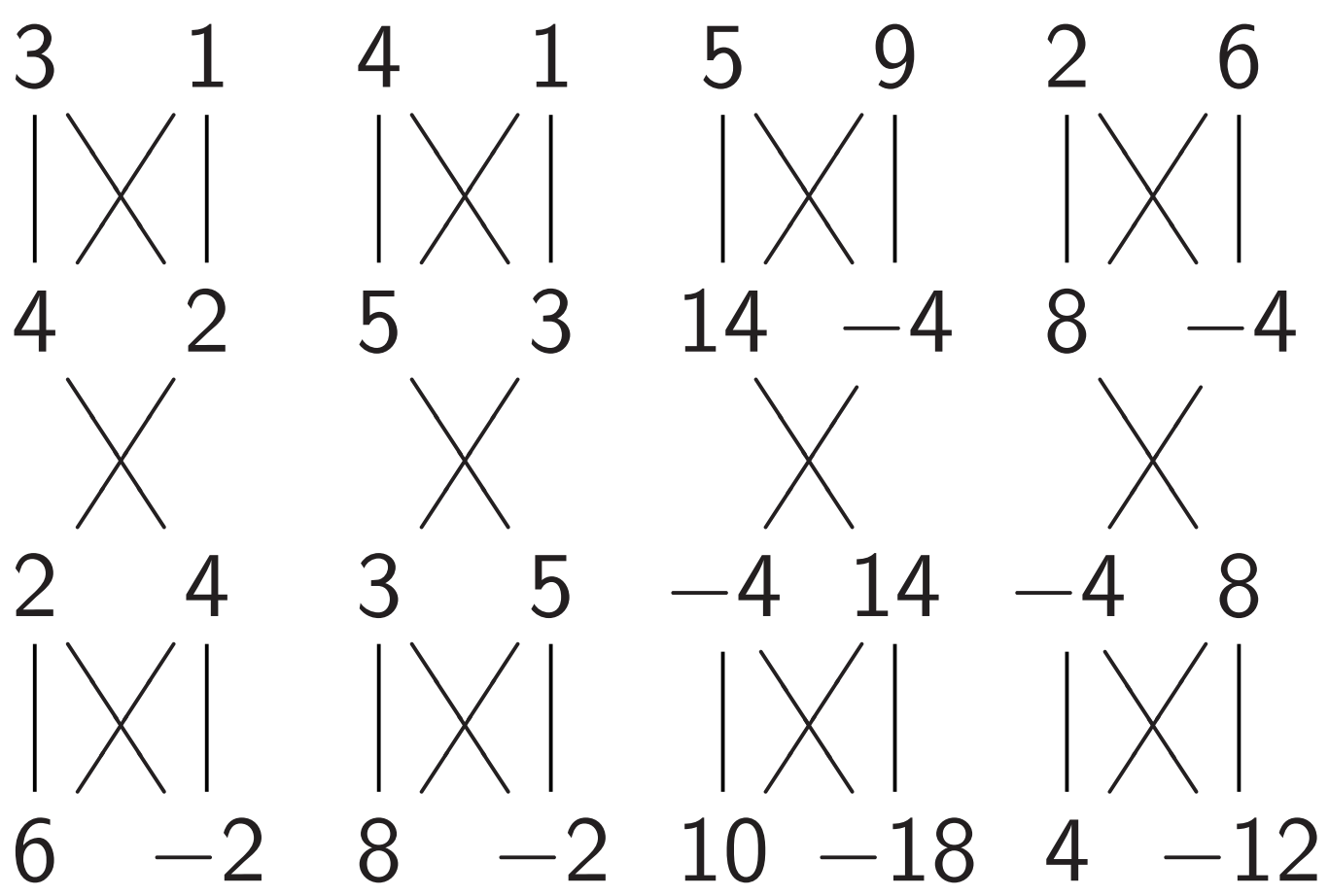
$$(a, b, c, d) \mapsto$$

$$(a + c, b + d, a - c, b - d).$$



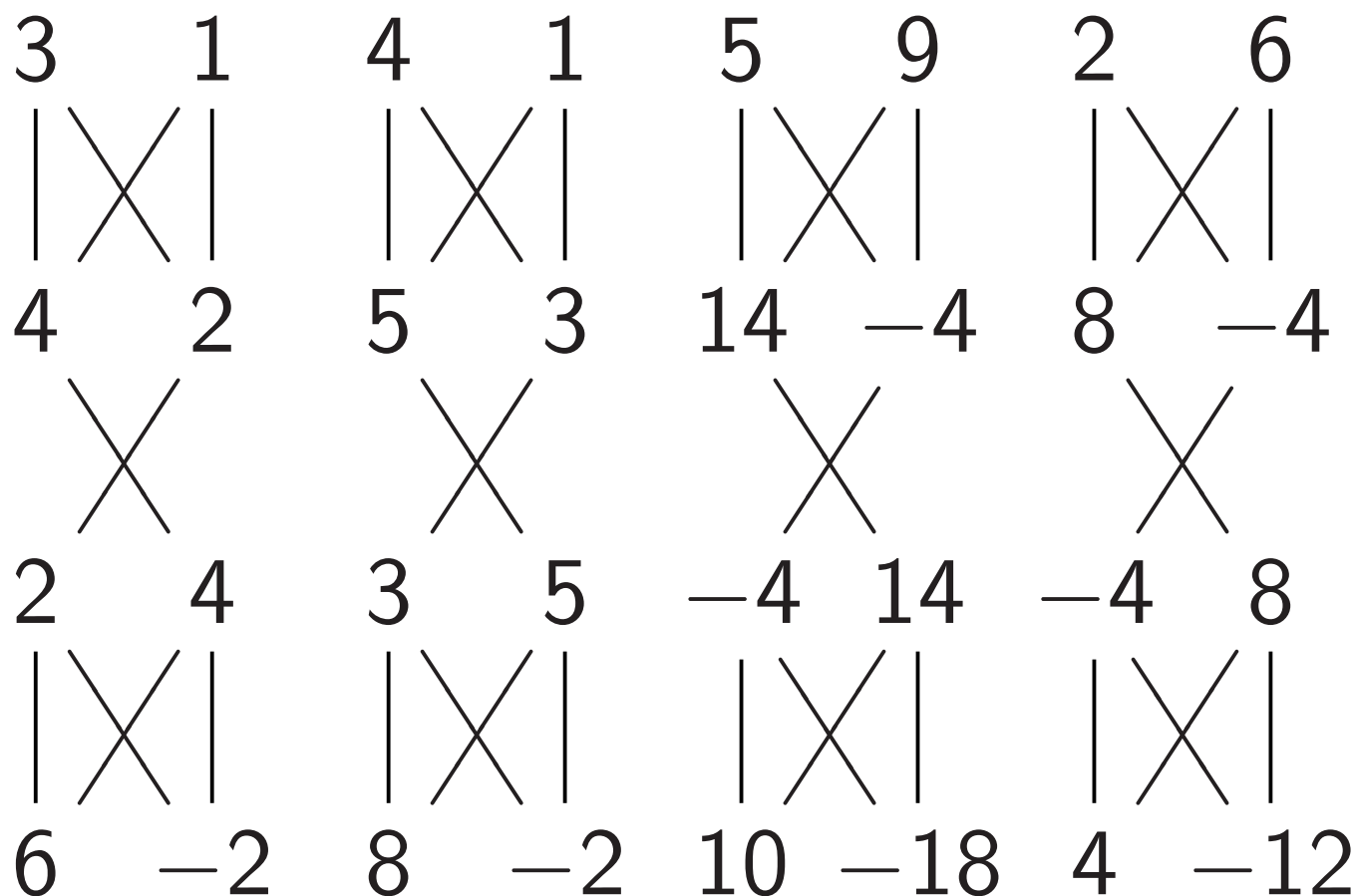
Some uses of Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀, NOT₀, Hadamard₀:



Some uses of Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀, NOT₀, Hadamard₀:

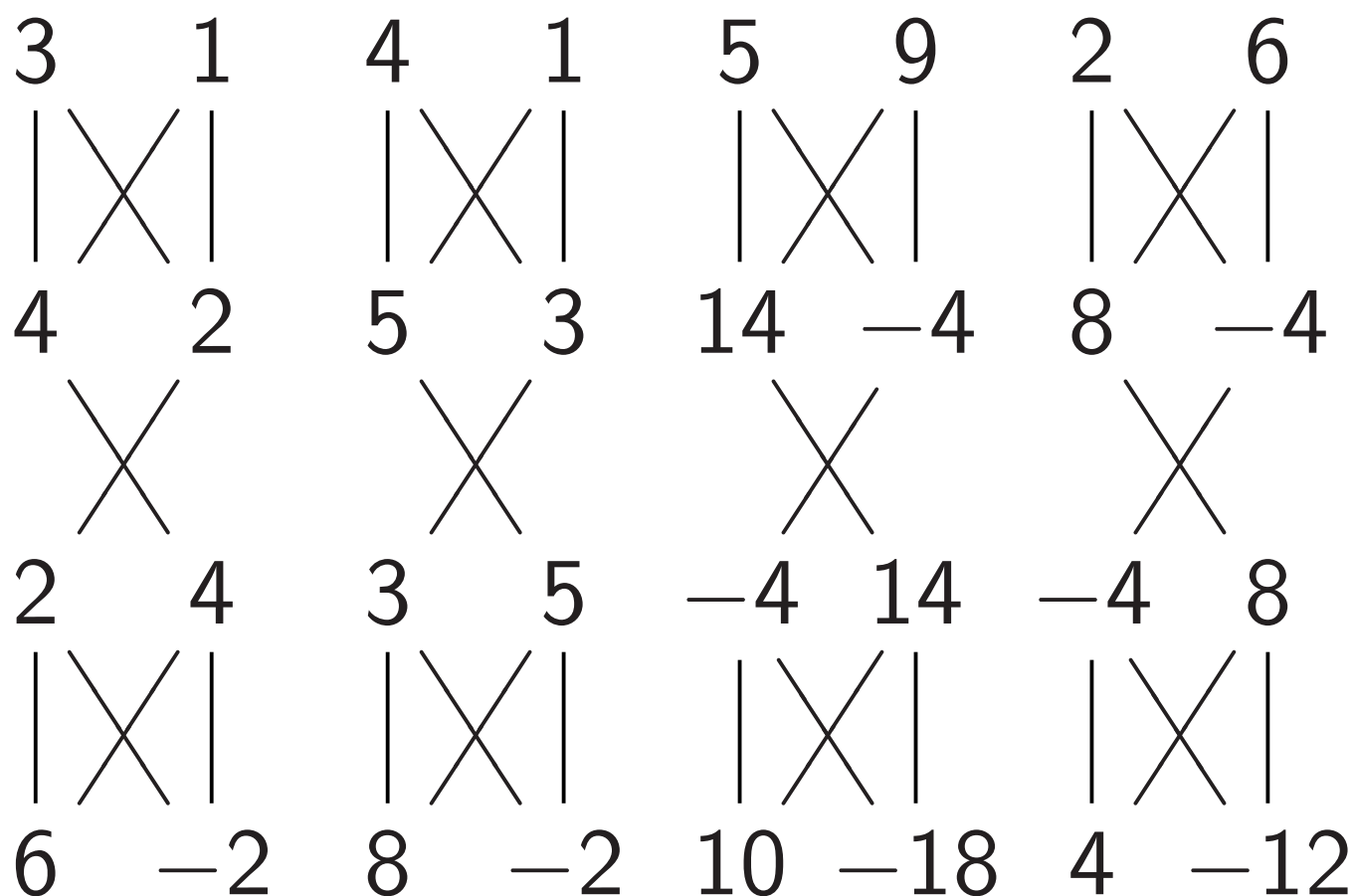


“Multiply each amplitude by 2.”

This is not physically observable.

Some uses of Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀, NOT₀, Hadamard₀:



“Multiply each amplitude by 2.”

This is not physically observable.

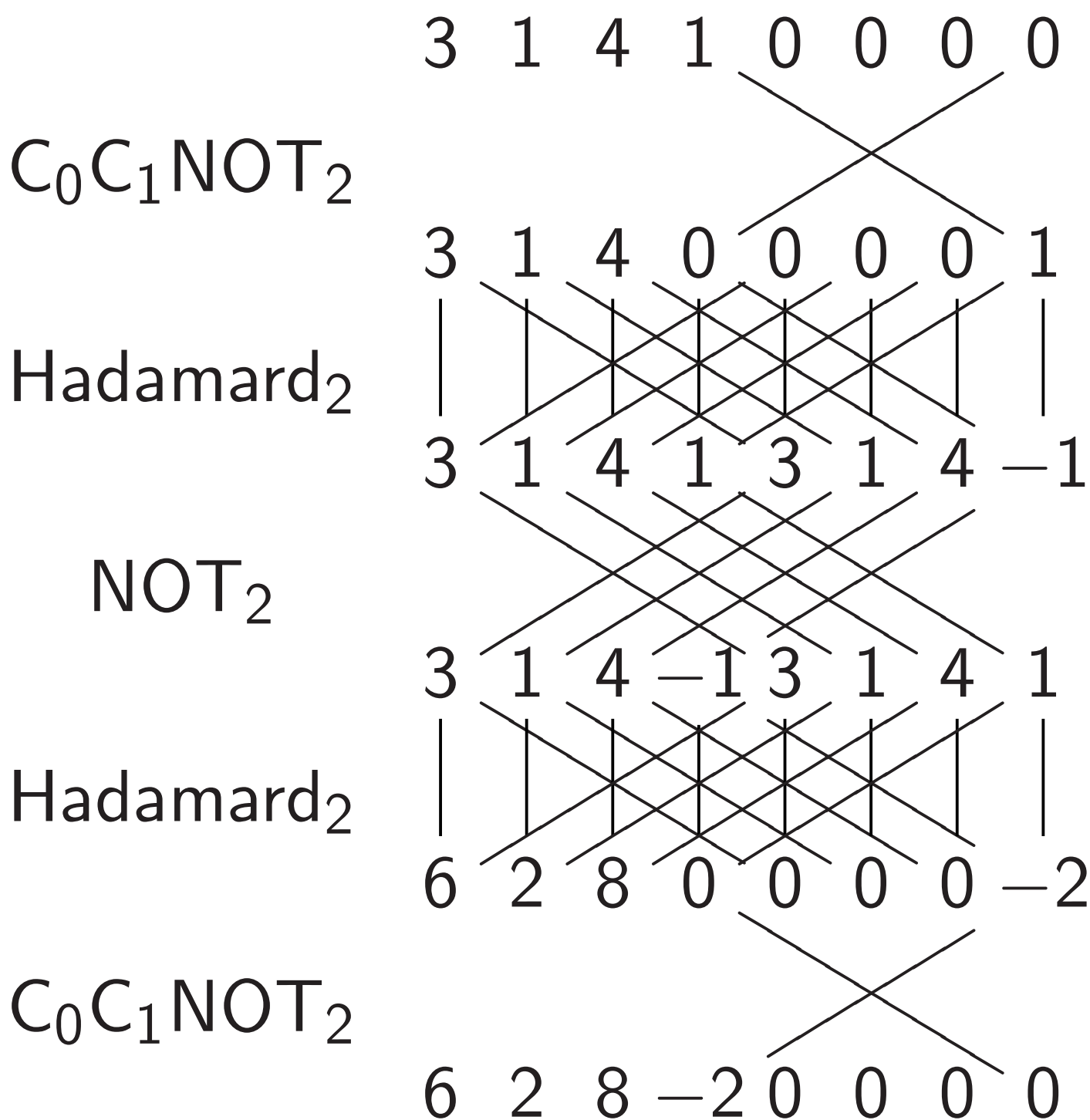
“Negate amplitude if q_0 is set.”

No effect on measuring *now*.

Fancier example:

“Negate amplitude if $q_0 q_1$ is set.”

Assumes $q_2 = 0$: “ancilla” qubit.

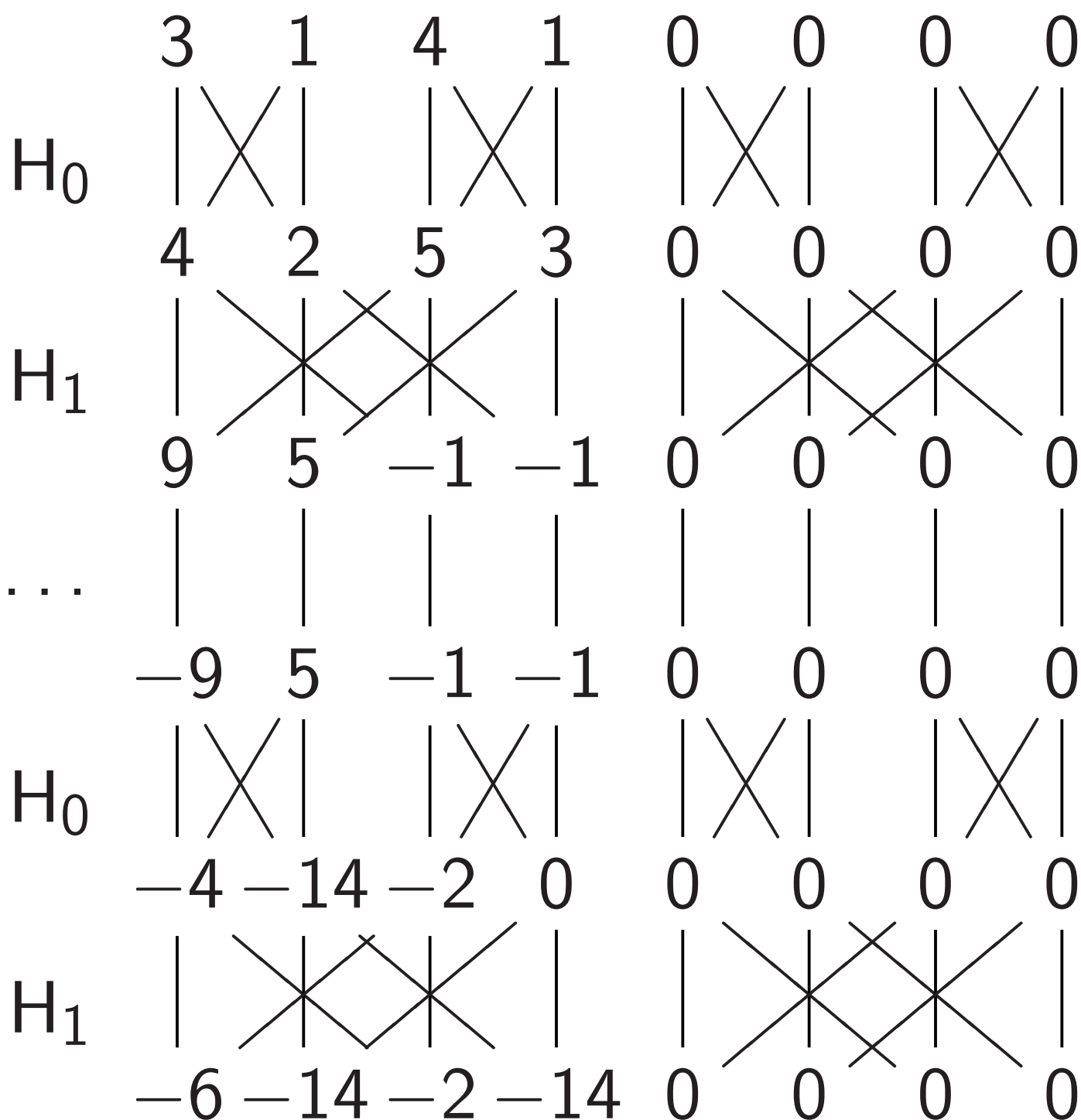


Affects measurements: “Negate amplitude around its average.”

$(3, 1, 4, 1) \mapsto (1.5, 3.5, 0.5, 3.5)$.

Affects measurements: “Negate amplitude around its average.”

$$(3, 1, 4, 1) \mapsto (1.5, 3.5, 0.5, 3.5).$$



Simon's algorithm

Assumptions:

- Given any $u \in \{0, 1\}^n$,
can efficiently compute $f(u)$.
- Nonzero $s \in \{0, 1\}^n$.
- $f(u) = f(u \oplus s)$ for all u .
- f has no other collisions.

Goal: Figure out s .

Simon's algorithm

Assumptions:

- Given any $u \in \{0, 1\}^n$,
can efficiently compute $f(u)$.
- Nonzero $s \in \{0, 1\}^n$.
- $f(u) = f(u \oplus s)$ for all u .
- f has no other collisions.

Goal: Figure out s .

Traditional algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

Simon's algorithm

Assumptions:

- Given any $u \in \{0, 1\}^n$,
can efficiently compute $f(u)$.
- Nonzero $s \in \{0, 1\}^n$.
- $f(u) = f(u \oplus s)$ for all u .
- f has no other collisions.

Goal: Figure out s .

Traditional algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

Simon's algorithm finds s with
 $\approx n$ quantum computations of f .

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 1. Set up pure zero state:

1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 3. Hadamard₁:

1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 4. Hadamard₂:

1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0.

Each column is a parallel universe.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 5. C_0NOT_3 :

1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0,

0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0.

Each column is a parallel universe performing its own computations.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 5b. More shuffling:

1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0,
0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0,
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0,
0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1,
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0.

Each column is a parallel universe performing its own computations.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 5c. More shuffling:

1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0,
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0,
0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0,
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0,
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1.

Each column is a parallel universe performing its own computations.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 5d. More shuffling:

1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0,
0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0,
0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1,
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0,
0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0.

Each column is a parallel universe performing its own computations.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 5e. More shuffling:

1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0,
0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0,
0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1,
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0,
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0.

Each column is a parallel universe performing its own computations.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 5f. More shuffling:

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0,
1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0,
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1,
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,
0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0.

Each column is a parallel universe performing its own computations.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 5g. More shuffling:

0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0,

1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1.

Each column is a parallel universe performing its own computations.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 5h. More shuffling:

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1,

0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0,

1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0.

Each column is a parallel universe performing its own computations.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 5i. More shuffling:

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0,

0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1,

0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0,

1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0.

Each column is a parallel universe performing its own computations.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 5j. Final shuffling:

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1,

0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0.

Each column is a parallel universe performing its own computations.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 5j. Final shuffling:

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1,

0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0.

Each column is a parallel universe performing its own computations.

Surprise: u and $u \oplus 101$ match.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 6. Hadamard₀:

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 1, $\bar{1}$, 0, 0, 1, 1,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, $\bar{1}$,

1, $\bar{1}$, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

1, 1, 0, 0, 1, $\bar{1}$, 0, 0.

Notation: $\bar{1}$ means -1 .

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 7. Hadamard₁:

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

1, $\bar{1}$, $\bar{1}$, 1, 1, 1, $\bar{1}$, $\bar{1}$,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

1, 1, $\bar{1}$, $\bar{1}$, 1, $\bar{1}$, $\bar{1}$, 1,

1, $\bar{1}$, 1, $\bar{1}$, 1, 1, 1, 1,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

1, 1, 1, 1, 1, $\bar{1}$, 1, $\bar{1}$.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 8. Hadamard₂:

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

2, 0, $\bar{2}$, 0, 0, $\bar{2}$, 0, 2,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

2, 0, $\bar{2}$, 0, 0, 2, 0, $\bar{2}$,

2, 0, 2, 0, 0, $\bar{2}$, 0, $\bar{2}$,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

2, 0, 2, 0, 0, 2, 0, 2.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 8. Hadamard₂:

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

2, 0, $\bar{2}$, 0, 0, $\bar{2}$, 0, 2,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

2, 0, $\bar{2}$, 0, 0, 2, 0, $\bar{2}$,

2, 0, 2, 0, 0, $\bar{2}$, 0, $\bar{2}$,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

2, 0, 2, 0, 0, 2, 0, 2.

Step 9: Measure. Obtain some information about the surprise: a random vector orthogonal to 101.

Repeat to figure out 101.

Repeat to figure out 101.

Generalize Step 5 to any function

$u \mapsto f(u)$ with $f(u) = f(u \oplus s)$.

“Usually” algorithm figures out s .

Repeat to figure out 101.

Generalize Step 5 to any function $u \mapsto f(u)$ with $f(u) = f(u \oplus s)$.

“Usually” algorithm figures out s .

Shor’s algorithm replaces \oplus
with more general $+$ operation.

Many spectacular applications.

Repeat to figure out 101.

Generalize Step 5 to any function $u \mapsto f(u)$ with $f(u) = f(u \oplus s)$.

“Usually” algorithm figures out s .

Shor’s algorithm replaces \oplus with more general $+$ operation.

Many spectacular applications.

e.g. Shor finds “random” s with $2^u \bmod N = 2^{u+s} \bmod N$.

Easy to factor N using this.

Repeat to figure out 101.

Generalize Step 5 to any function $u \mapsto f(u)$ with $f(u) = f(u \oplus s)$.

“Usually” algorithm figures out s .

Shor’s algorithm replaces \oplus with more general $+$ operation.

Many spectacular applications.

e.g. Shor finds “random” s with $2^u \bmod N = 2^{u+s} \bmod N$.

Easy to factor N using this.

e.g. Shor finds “random” s, t with $4^u 9^v \bmod p = 4^{u+s} 9^{v+t} \bmod p$.

Easy to compute discrete logs.

Grover's algorithm

Assume: unique $s \in \{0, 1\}^n$
has $f(s) = 0$.

Traditional algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find output 0.

Success probability is very low
until #inputs approaches 2^n .

Grover's algorithm

Assume: unique $s \in \{0, 1\}^n$
has $f(s) = 0$.

Traditional algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find output 0.

Success probability is very low
until #inputs approaches 2^n .

Grover's algorithm takes only $2^{n/2}$
reversible computations of f .

Typically: reversibility overhead
is small enough that this
easily beats traditional algorithm.

Start from uniform superposition over all n -bit strings u .

Start from uniform superposition over all n -bit strings u .

Step 1: Set $a \leftarrow b$ where

$$b_u = -a_u \text{ if } f(u) = 0,$$

$$b_u = a_u \text{ otherwise.}$$

This is fast.

Start from uniform superposition over all n -bit strings u .

Step 1: Set $a \leftarrow b$ where

$$b_u = -a_u \text{ if } f(u) = 0,$$

$$b_u = a_u \text{ otherwise.}$$

This is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

Start from uniform superposition over all n -bit strings u .

Step 1: Set $a \leftarrow b$ where

$$b_u = -a_u \text{ if } f(u) = 0,$$

$$b_u = a_u \text{ otherwise.}$$

This is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

about $0.58 \cdot 2^{0.5n}$ times.

Start from uniform superposition over all n -bit strings u .

Step 1: Set $a \leftarrow b$ where

$$b_u = -a_u \text{ if } f(u) = 0,$$

$$b_u = a_u \text{ otherwise.}$$

This is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

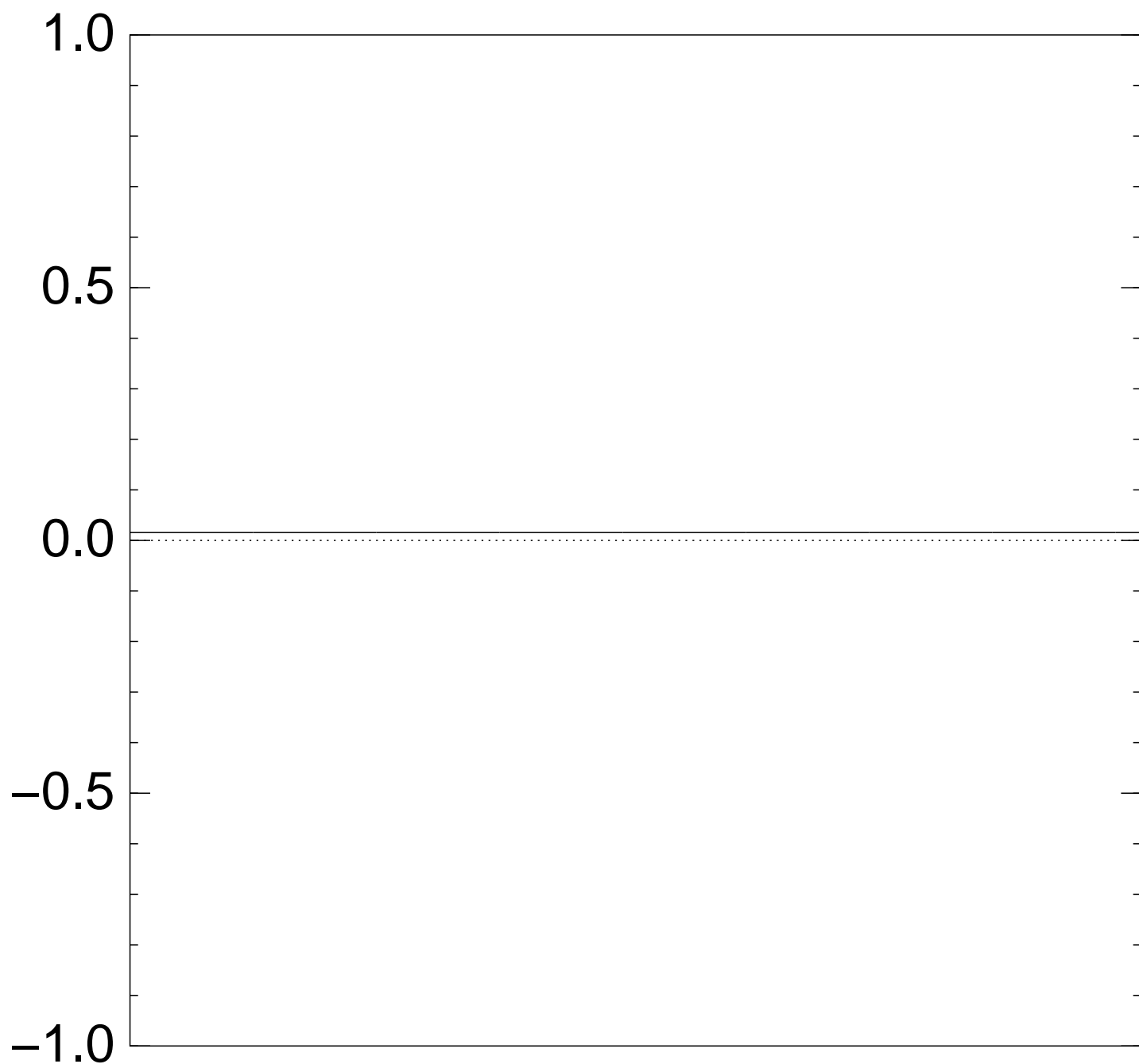
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

about $0.58 \cdot 2^{0.5n}$ times.

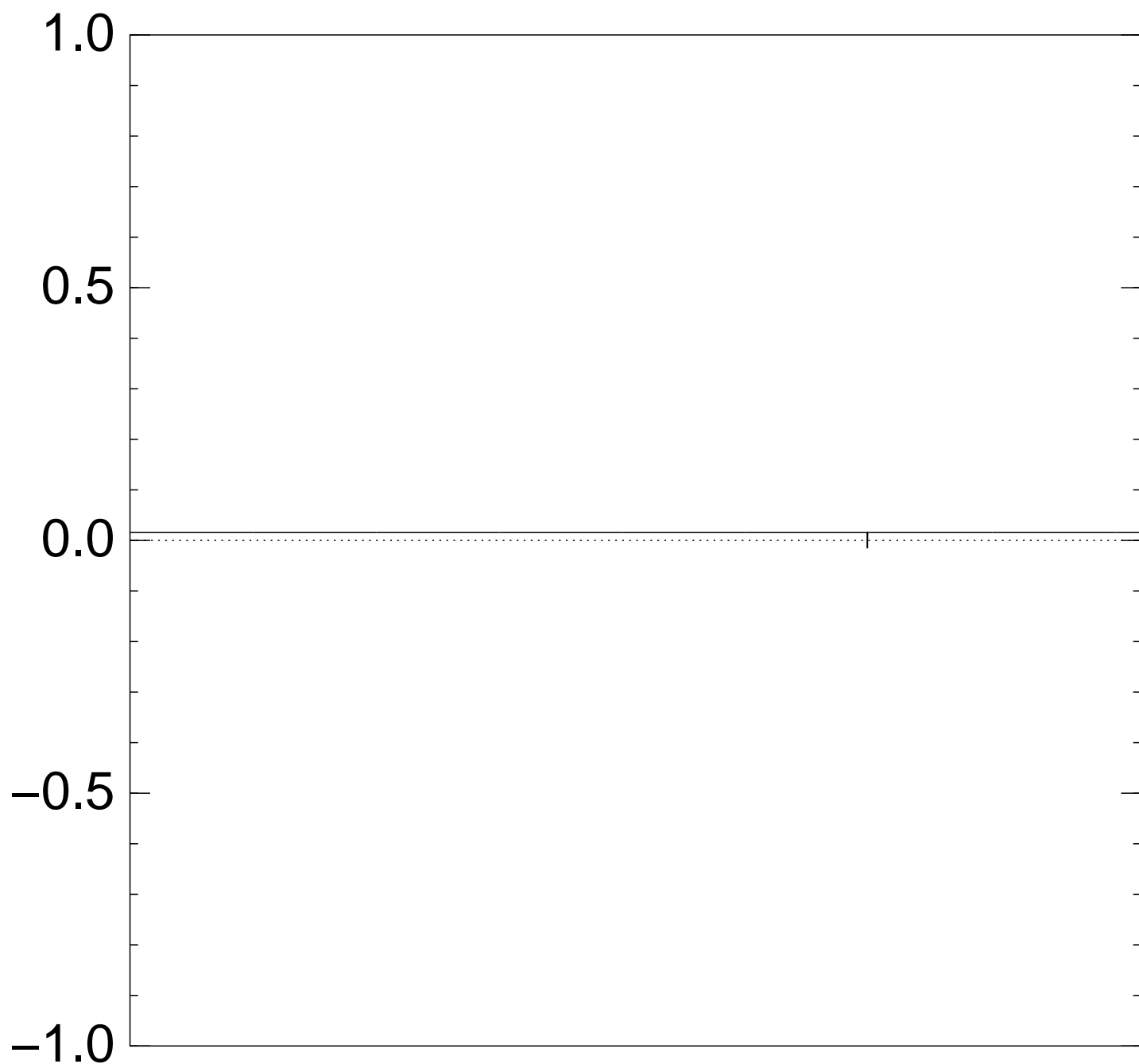
Measure the n qubits.

With high probability this finds s .

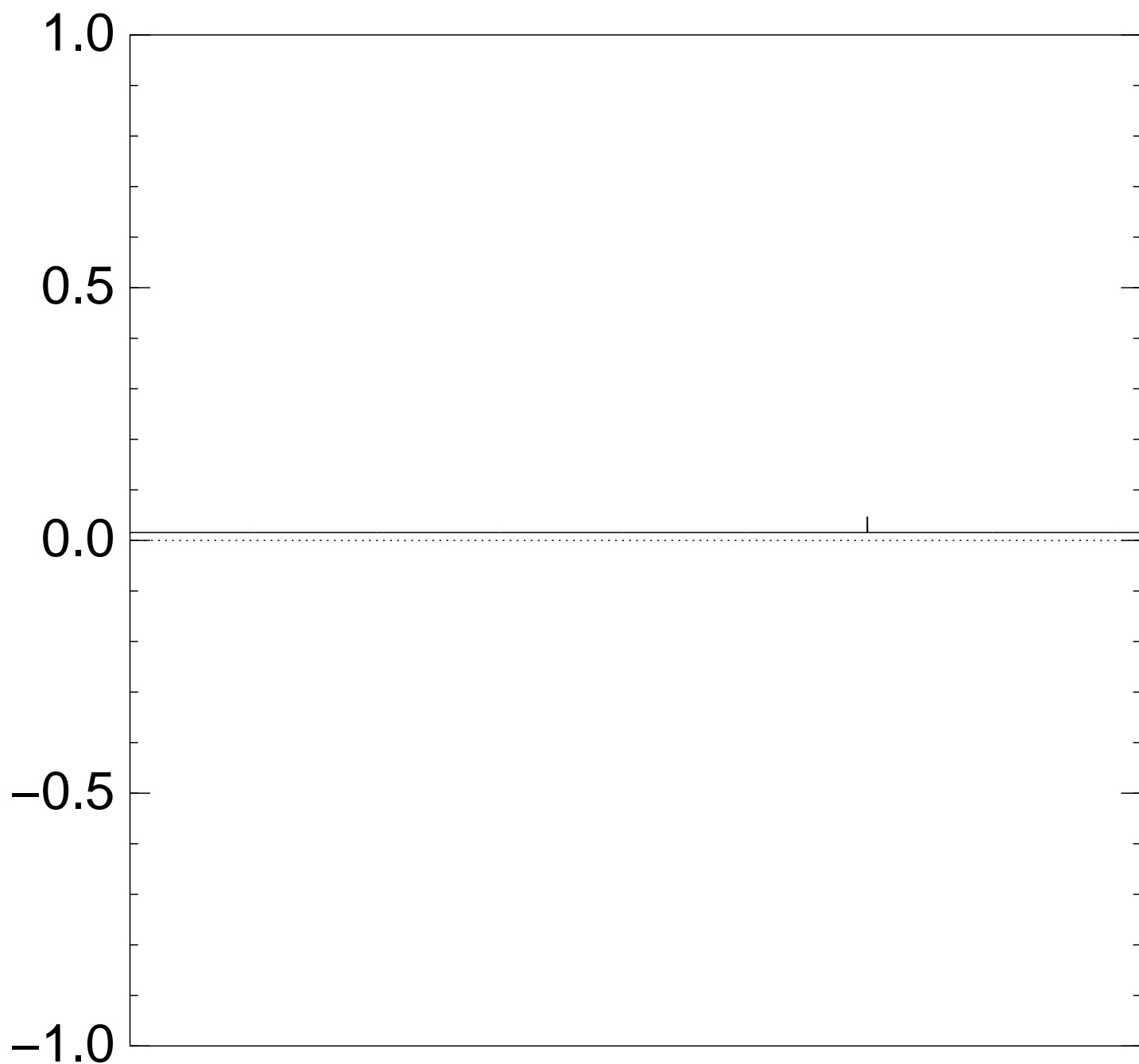
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after 0 steps:



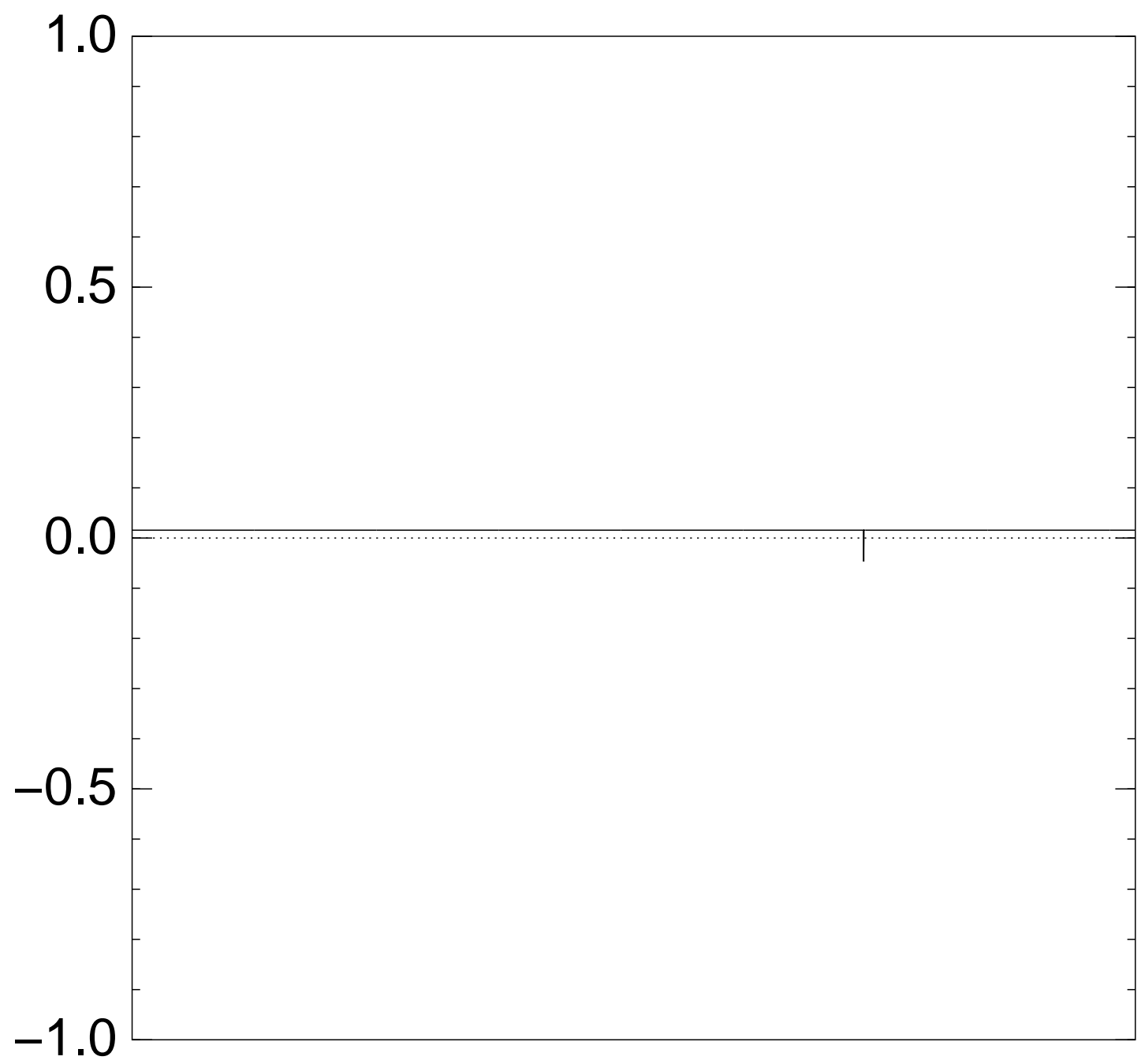
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after Step 1:



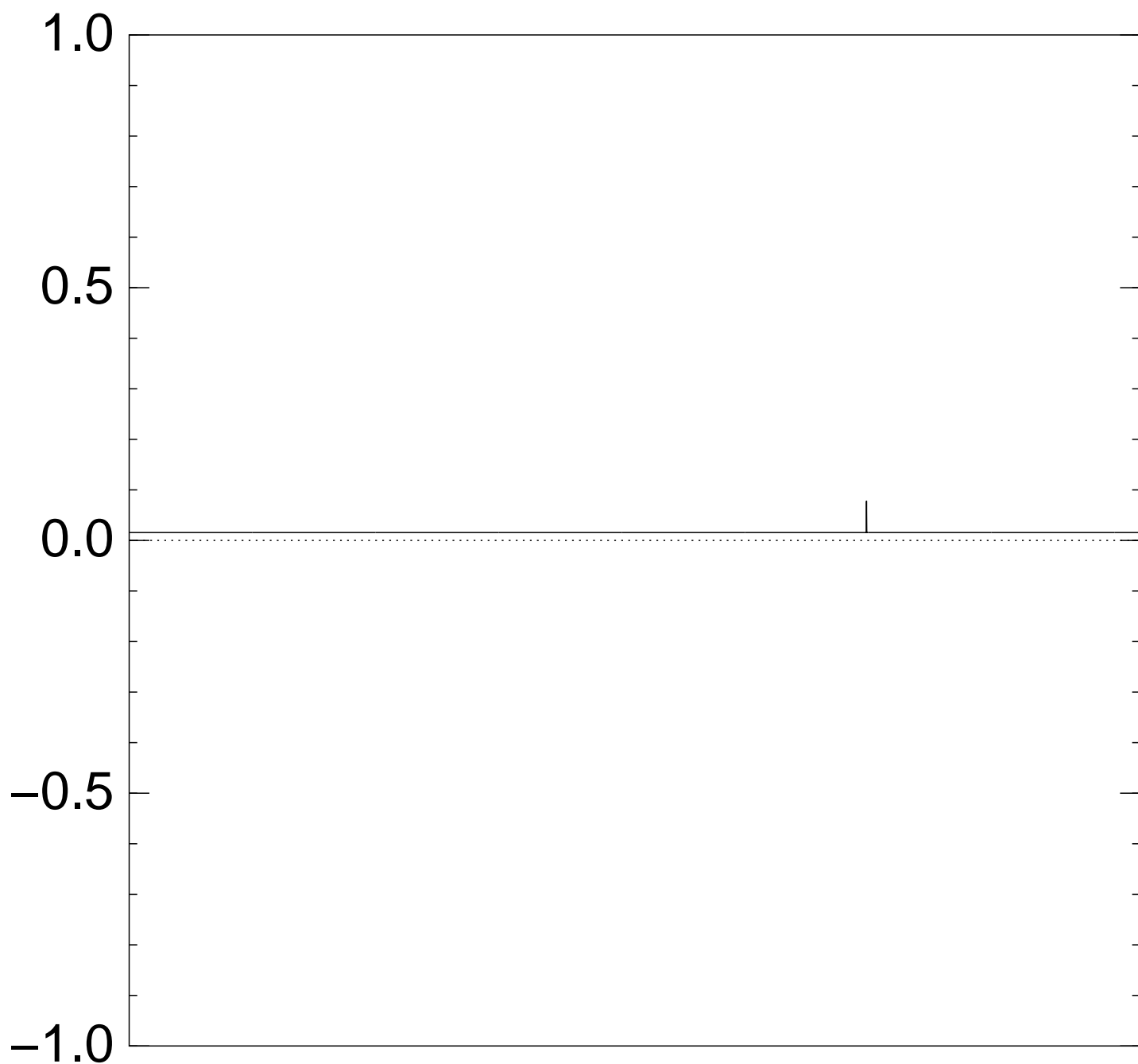
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after Step 1 + Step 2:



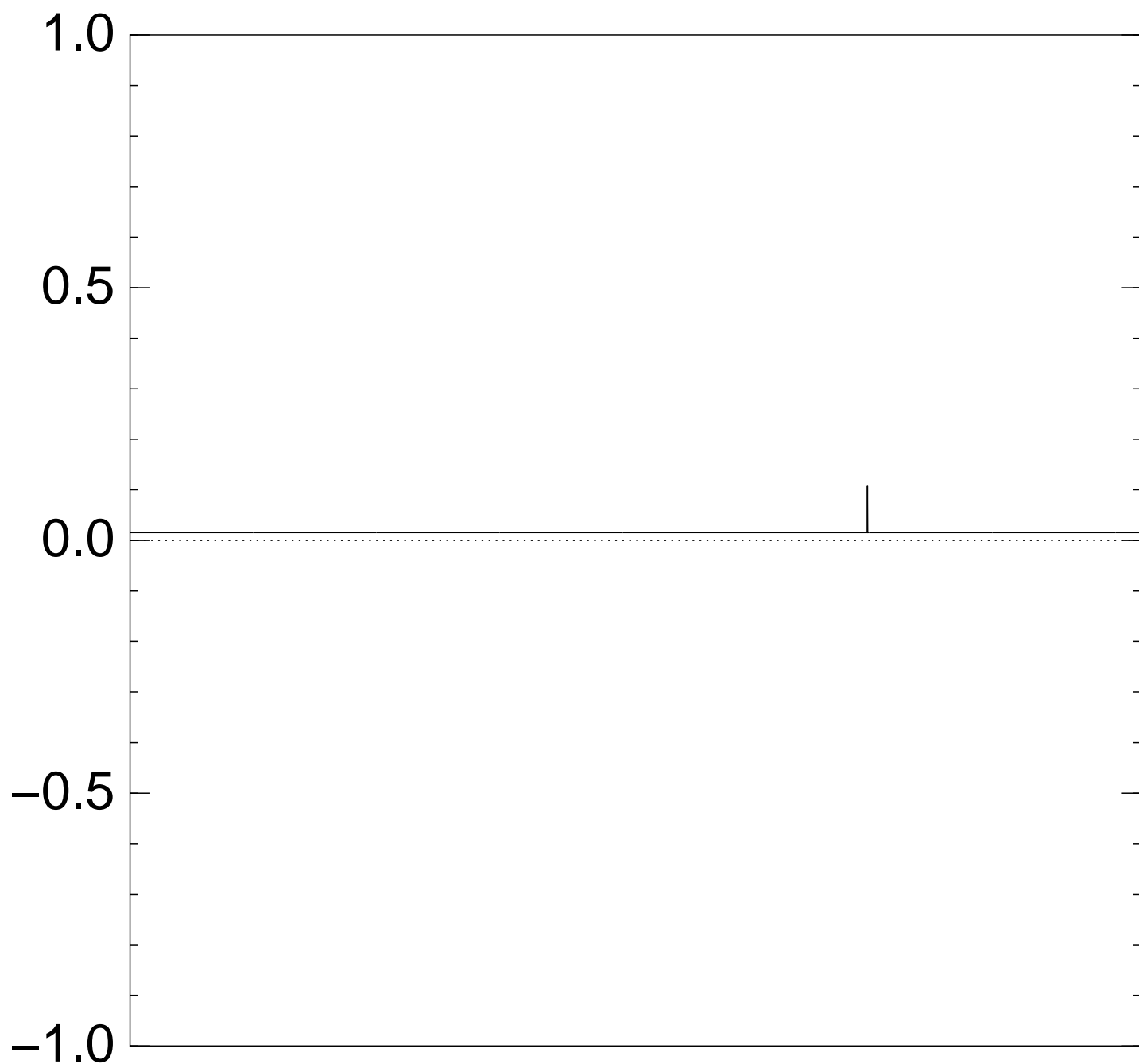
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after Step 1 + Step 2 + Step 1:



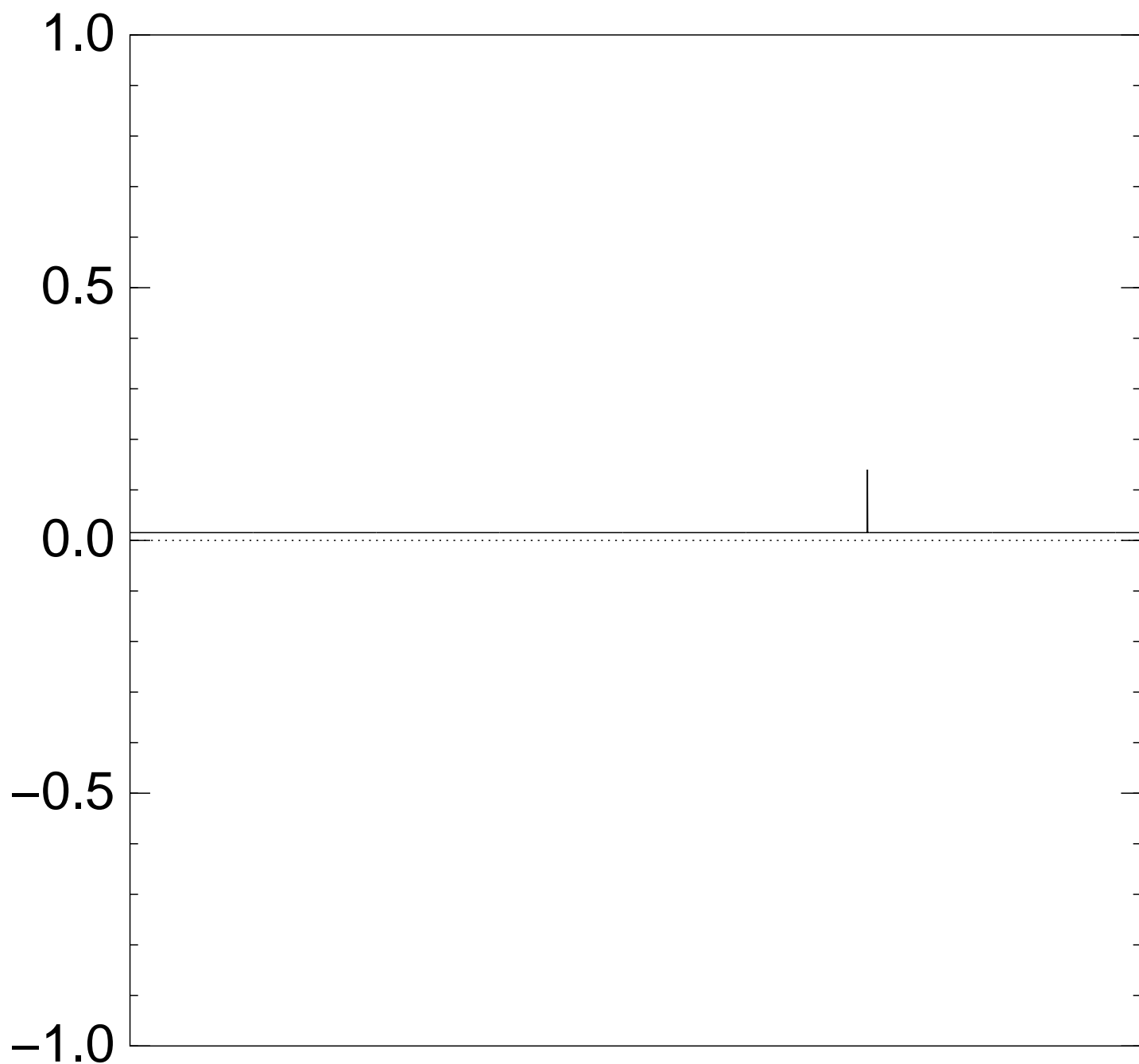
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $2 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



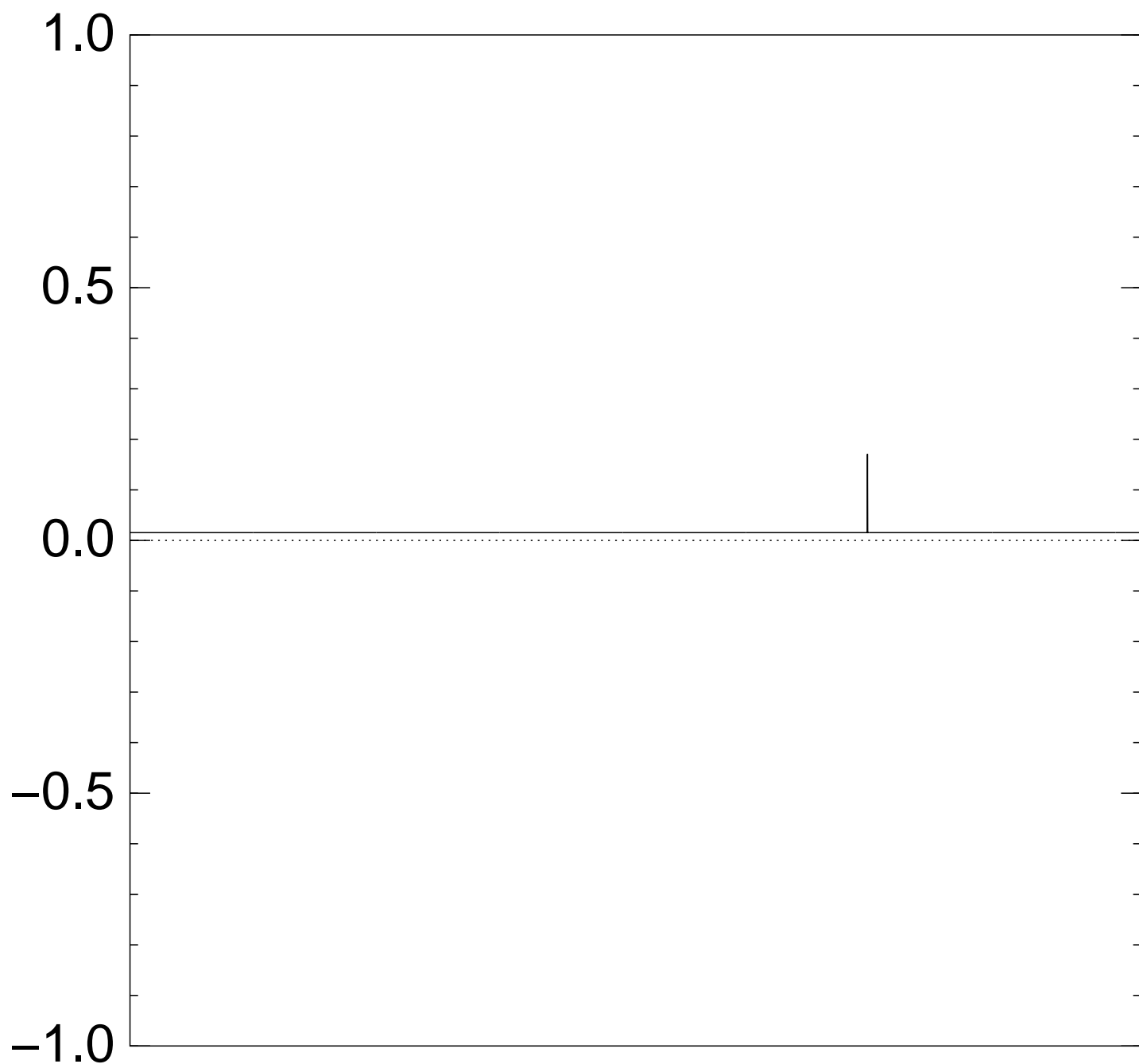
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $3 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



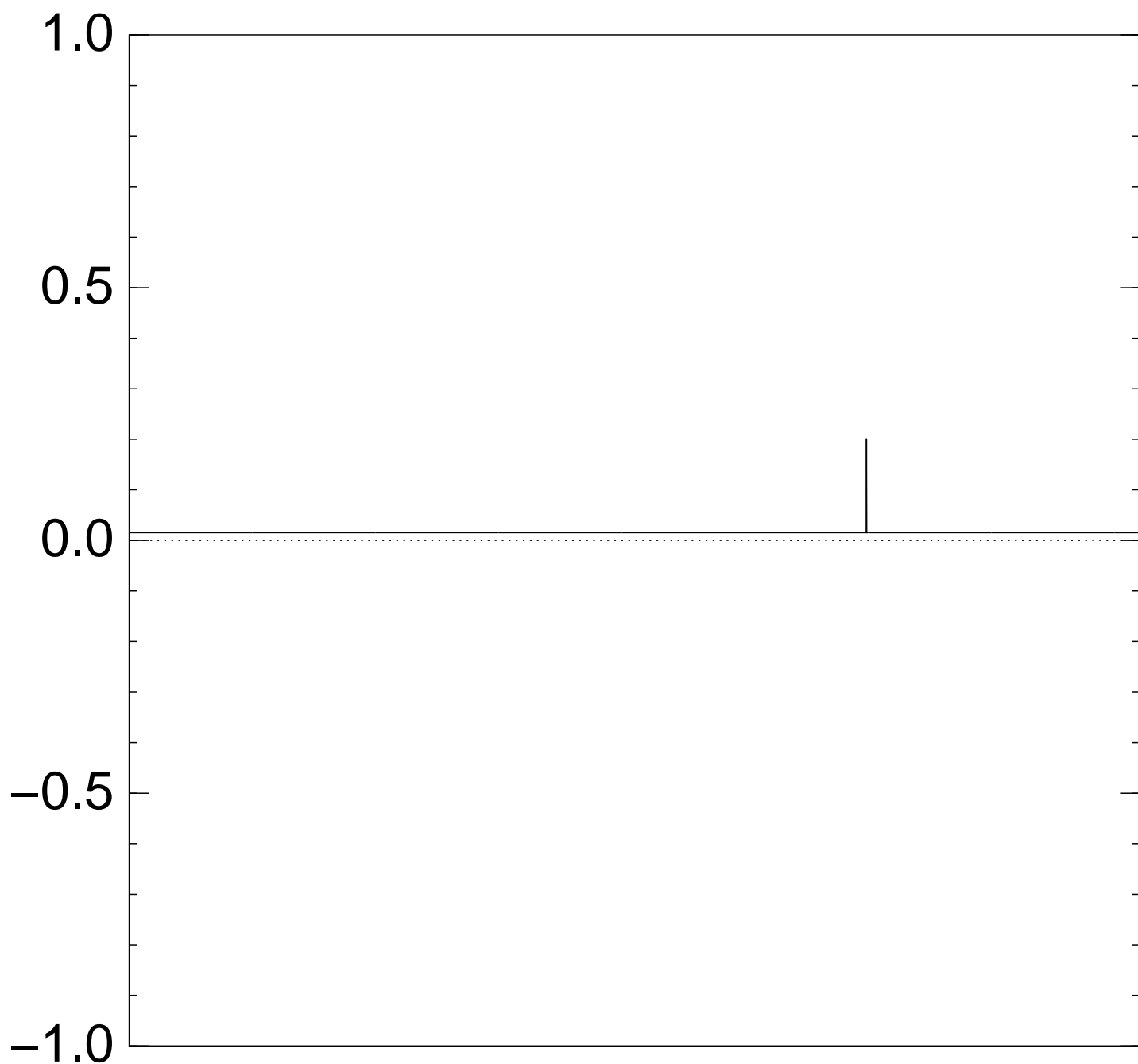
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $4 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



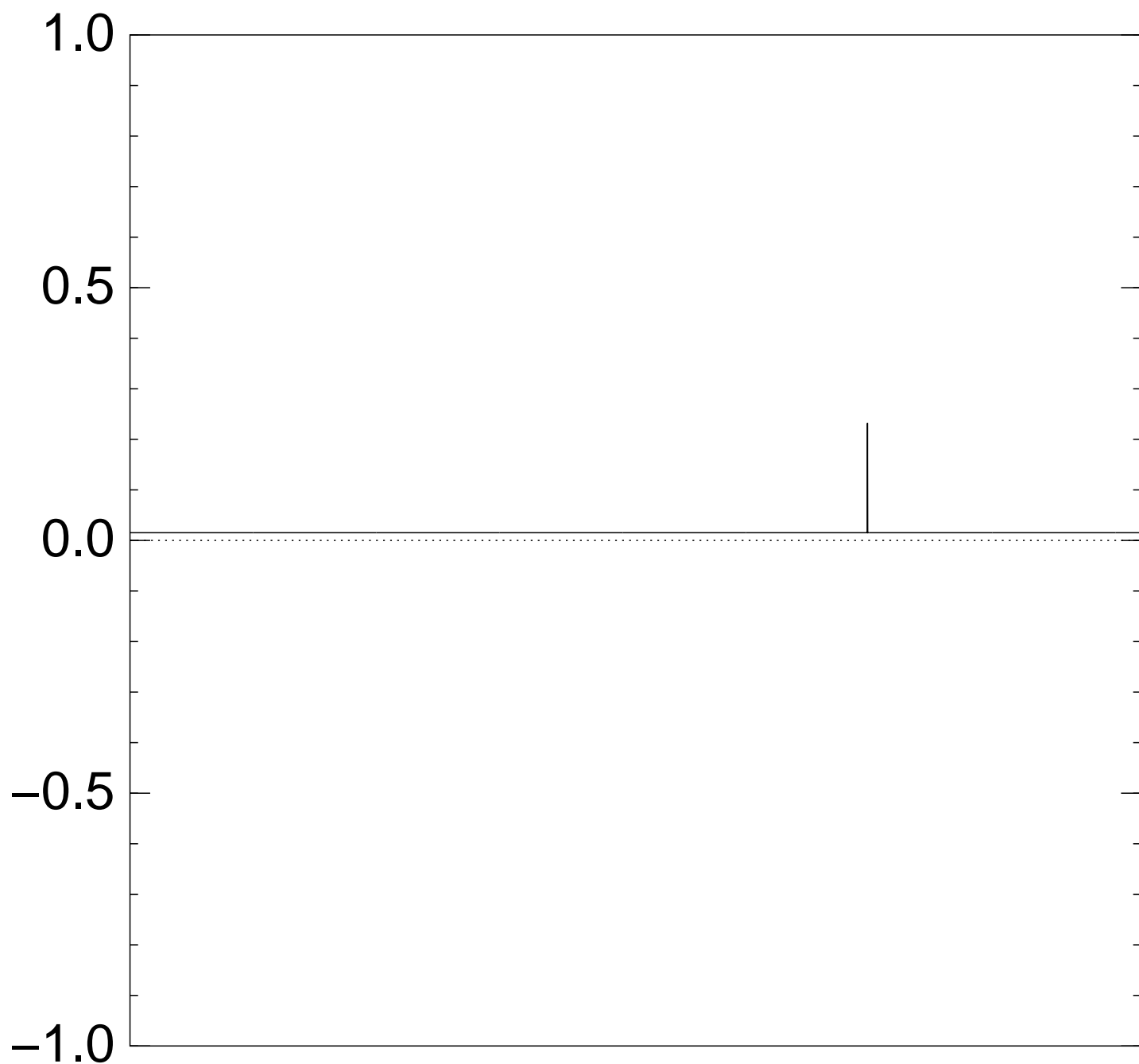
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $5 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



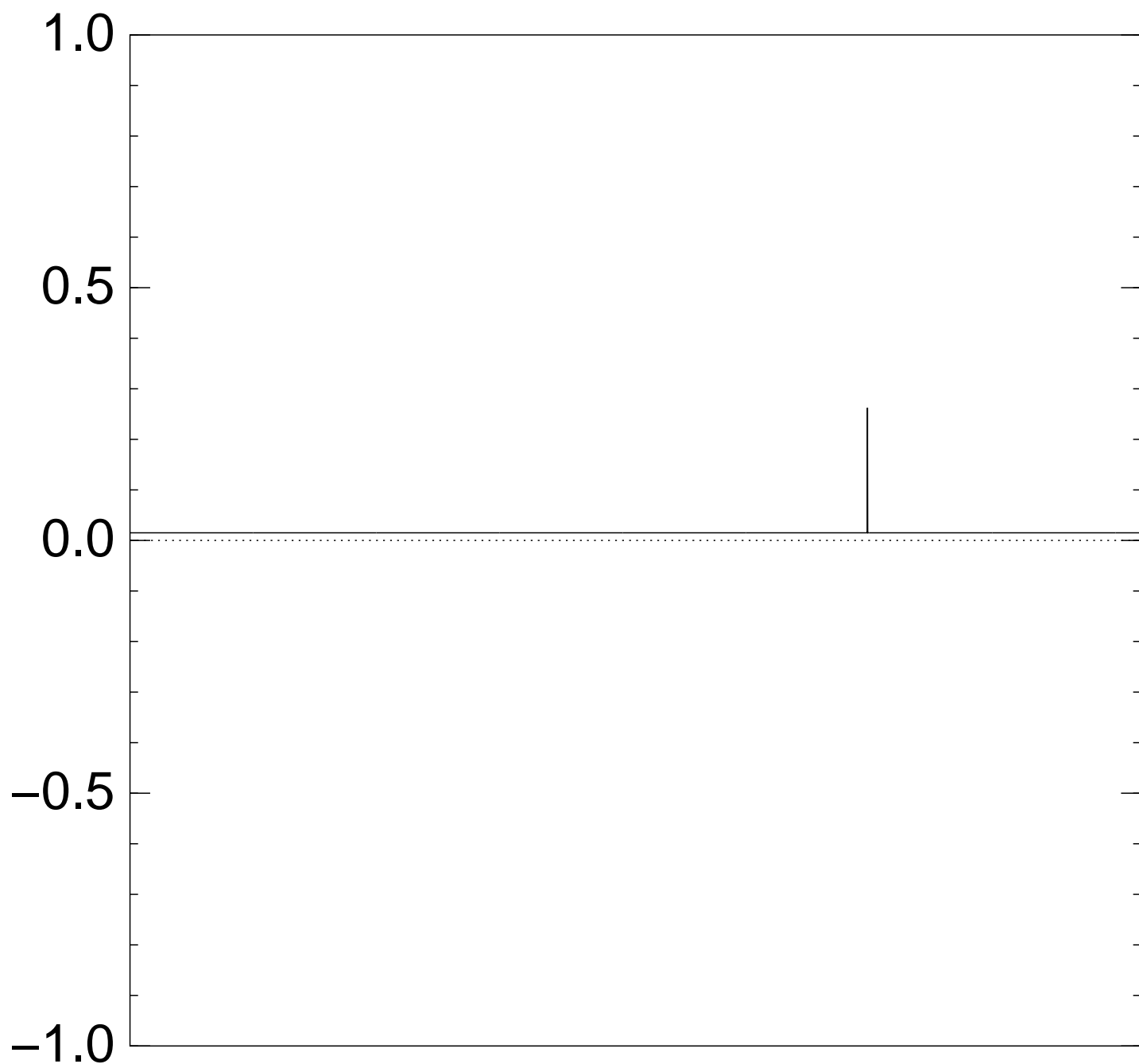
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $6 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



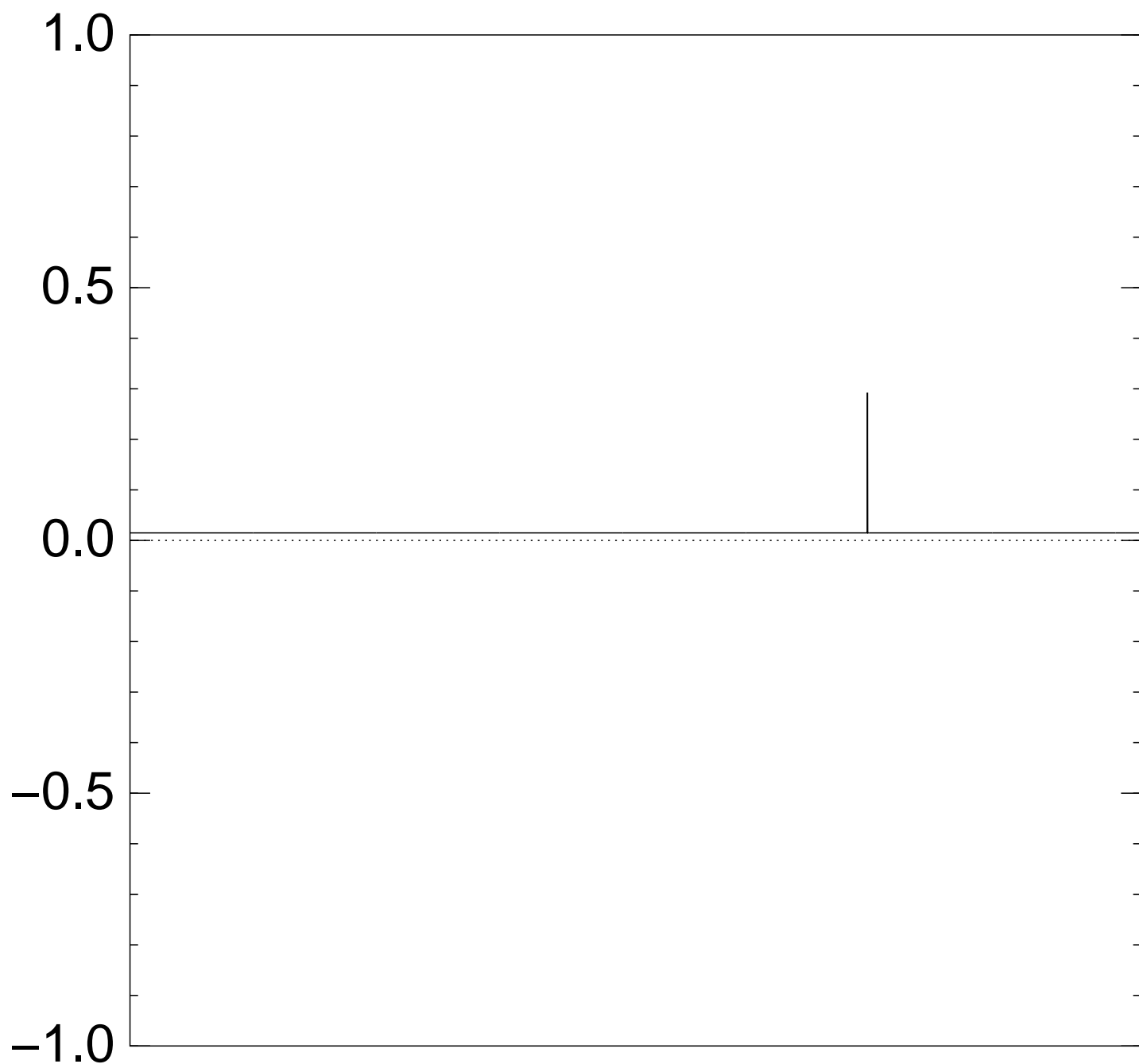
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $7 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



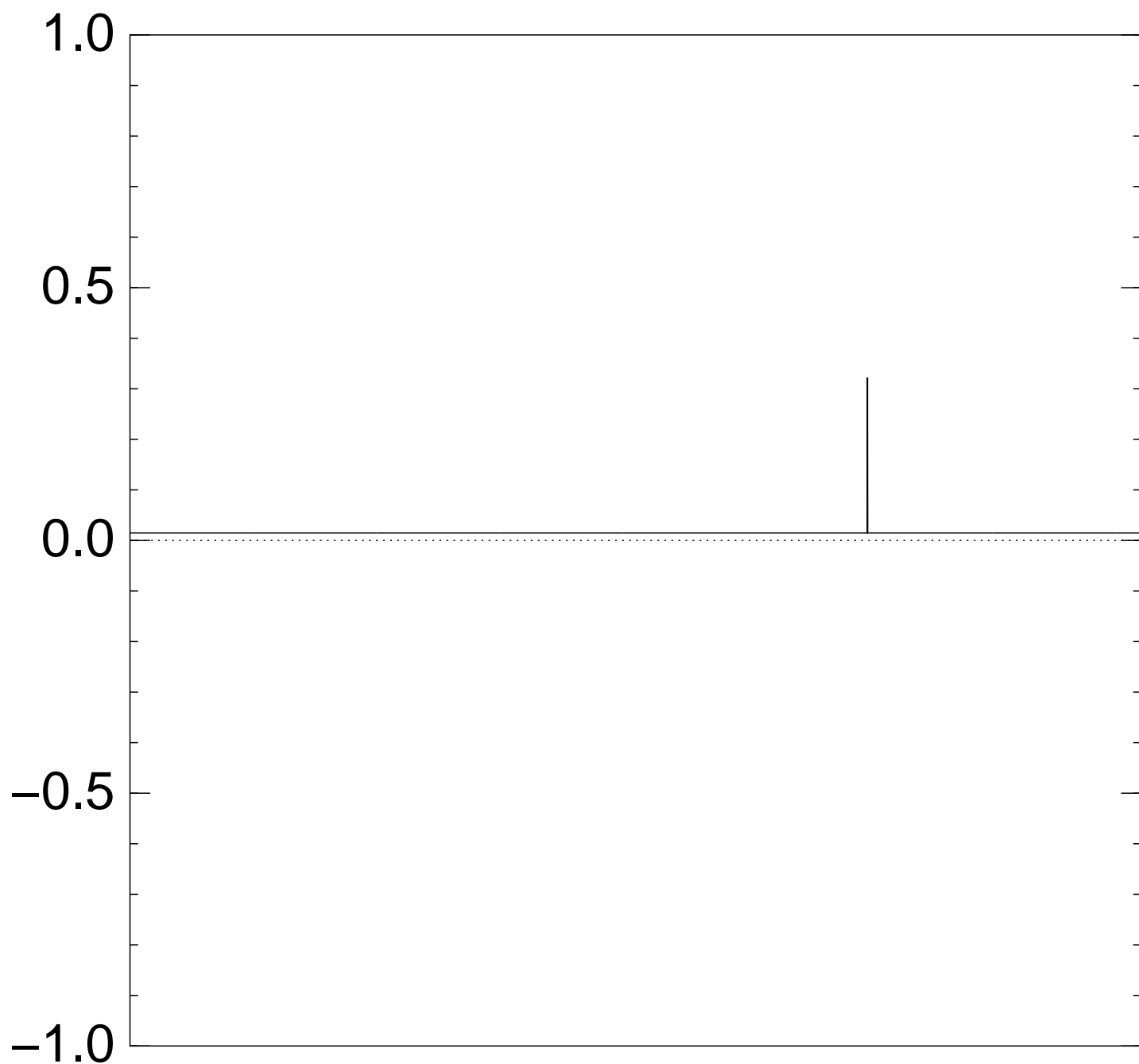
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $8 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



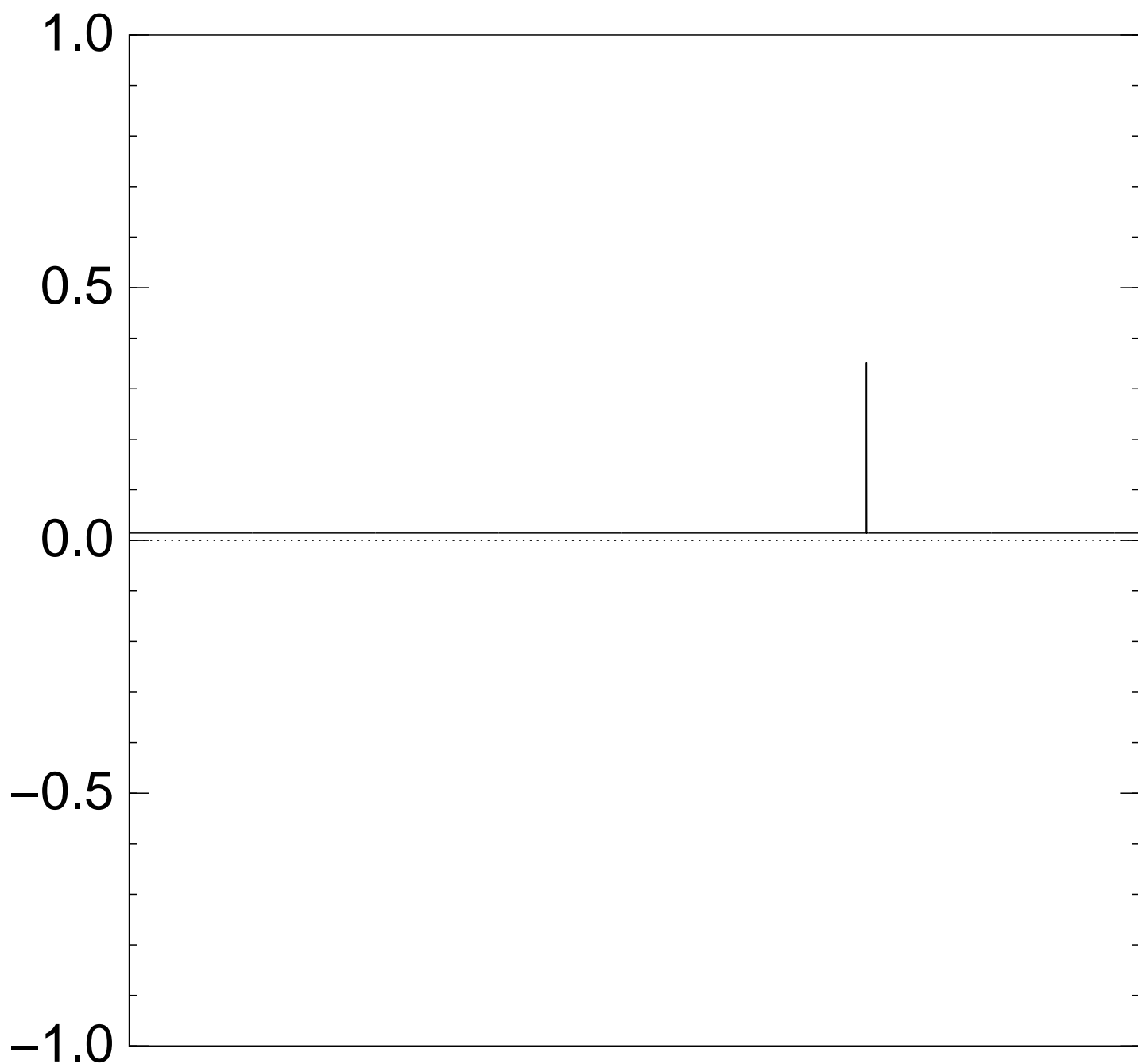
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $9 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



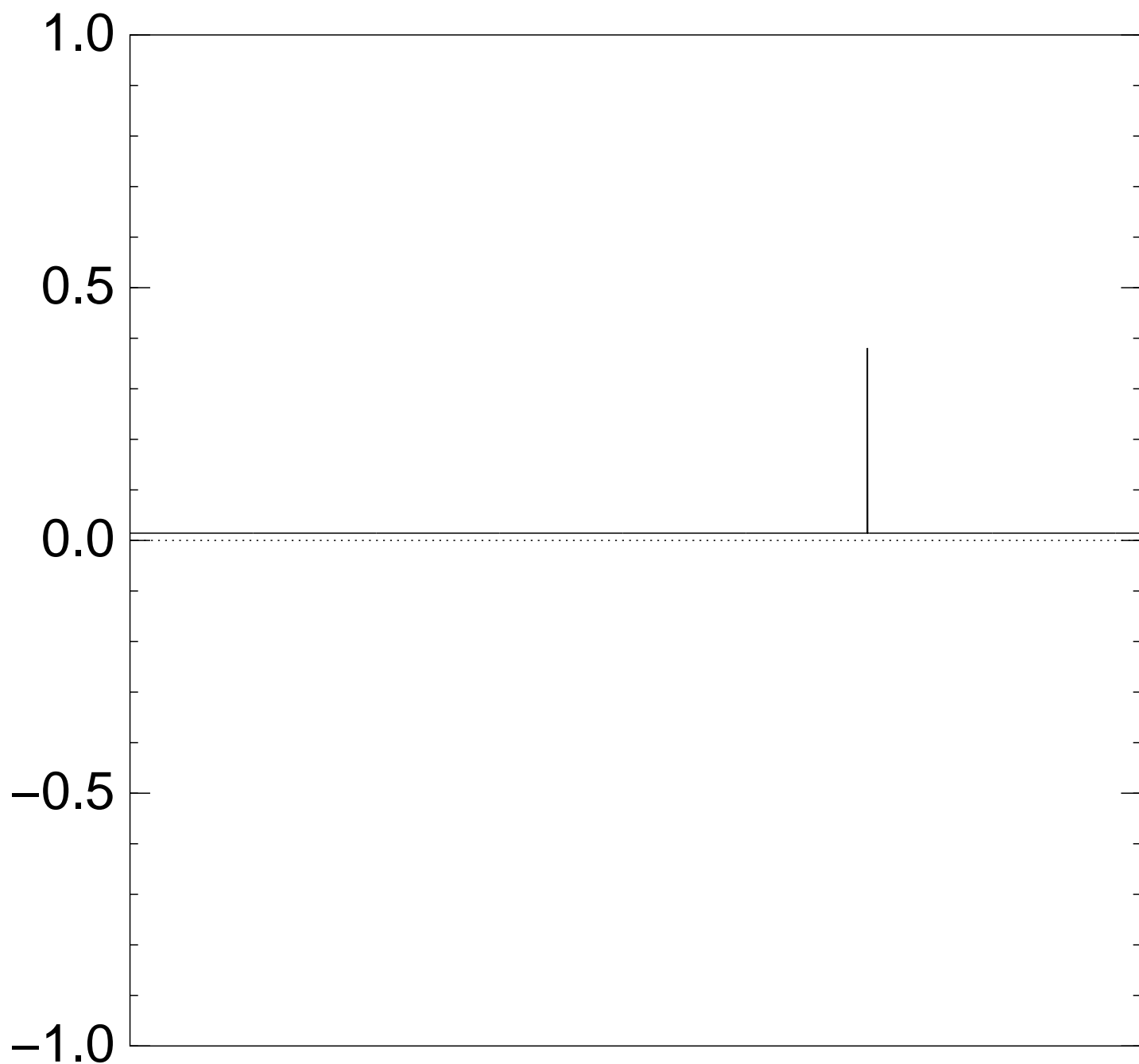
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $10 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



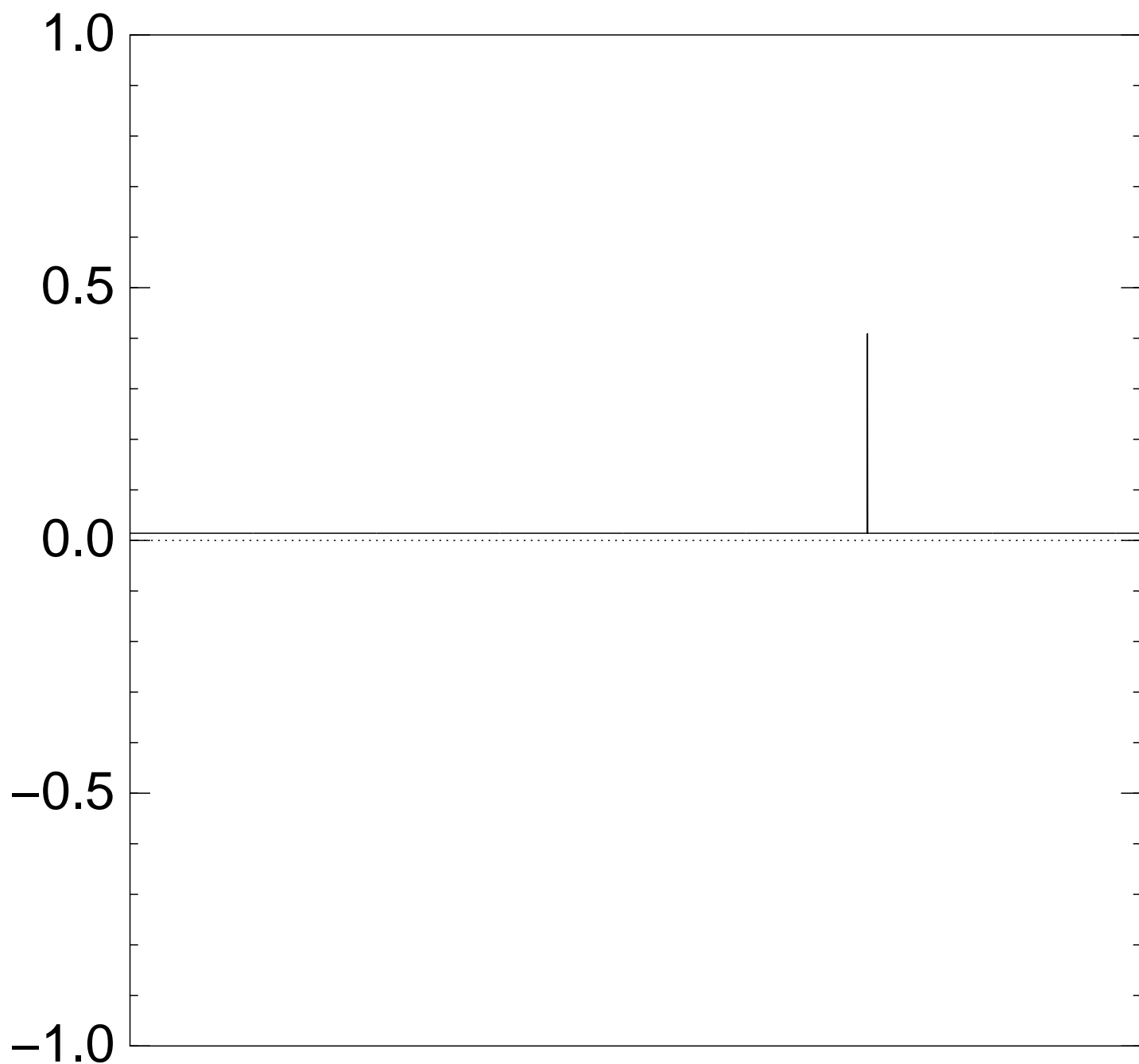
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $11 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



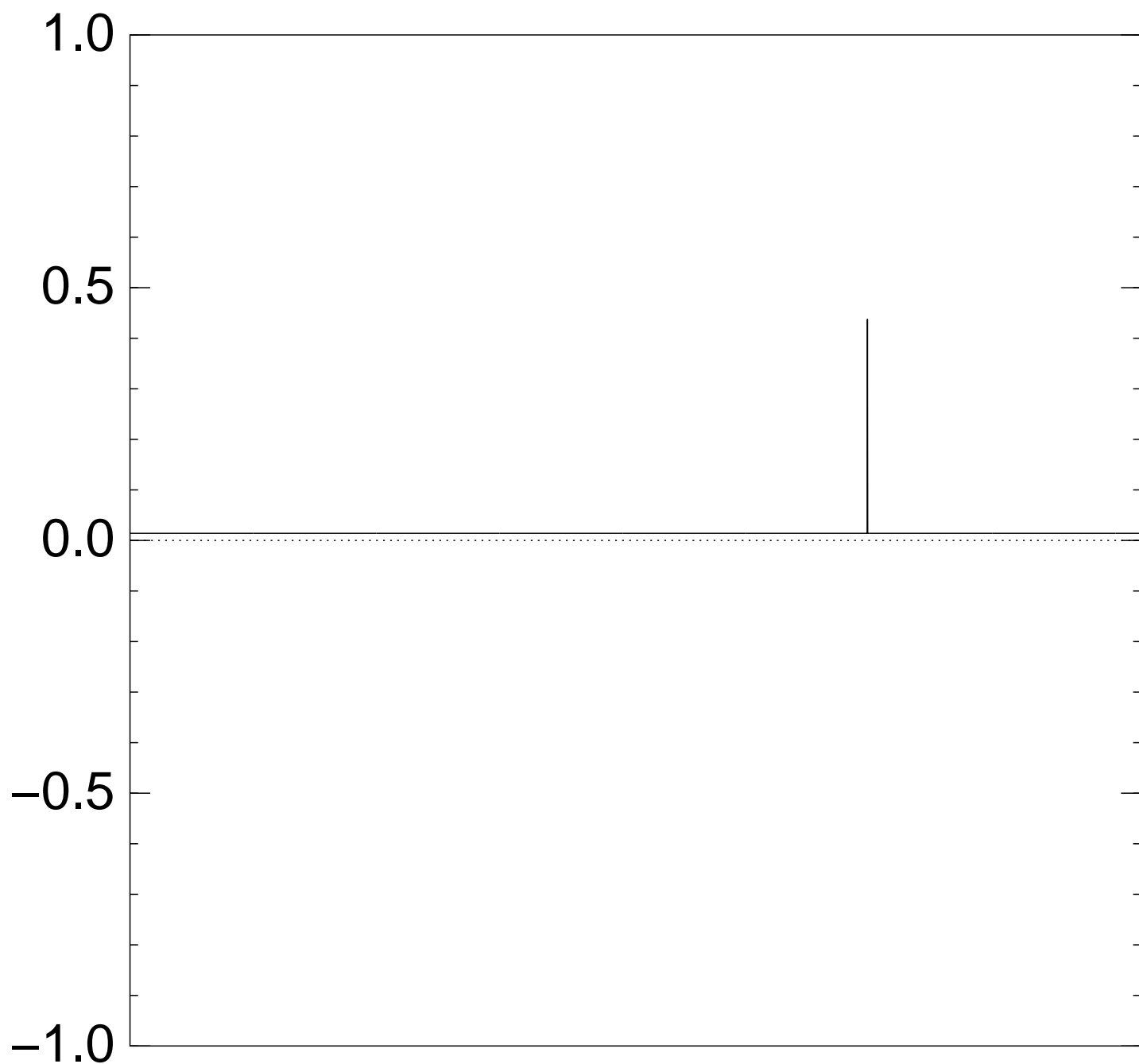
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $12 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



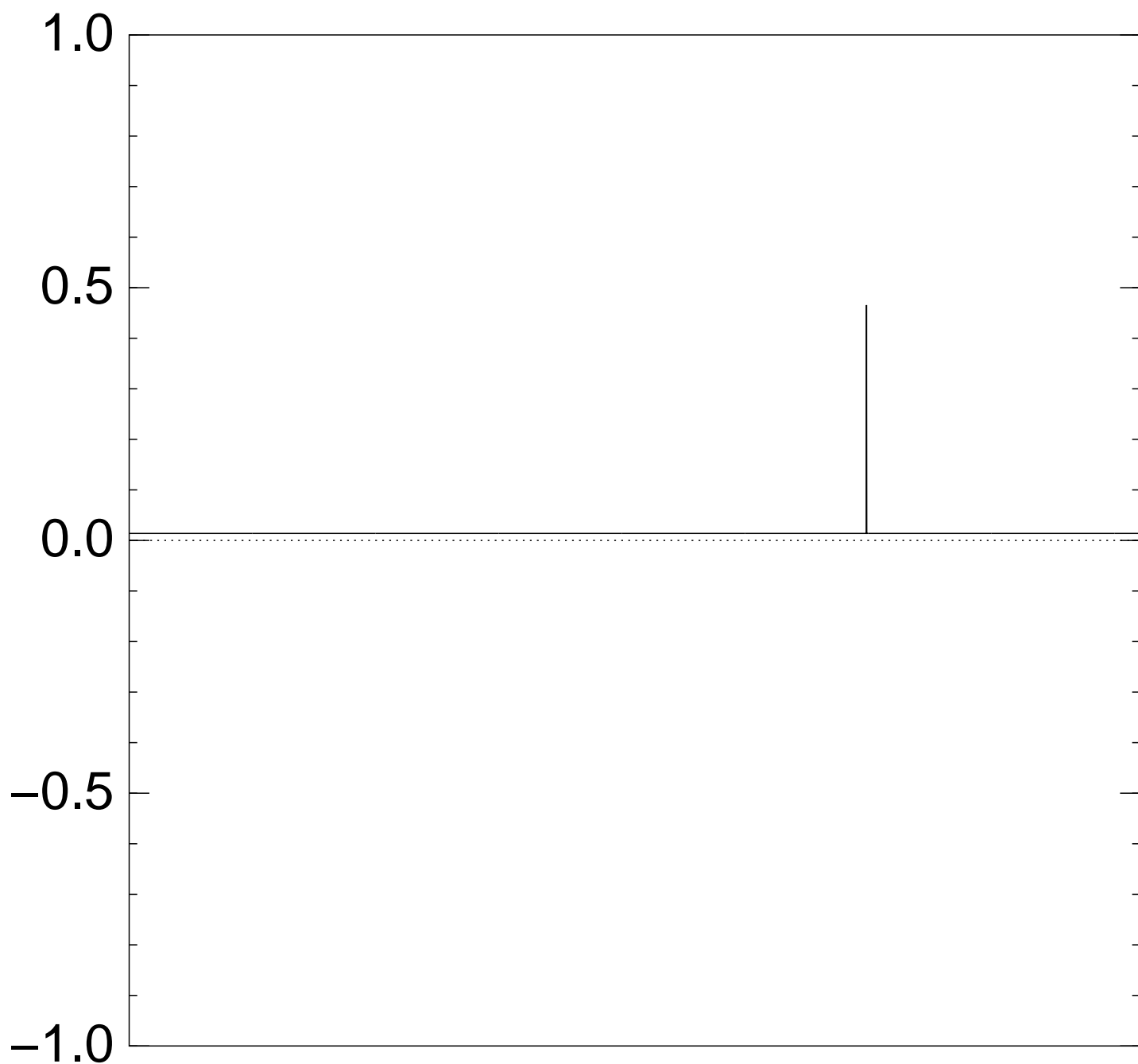
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $13 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



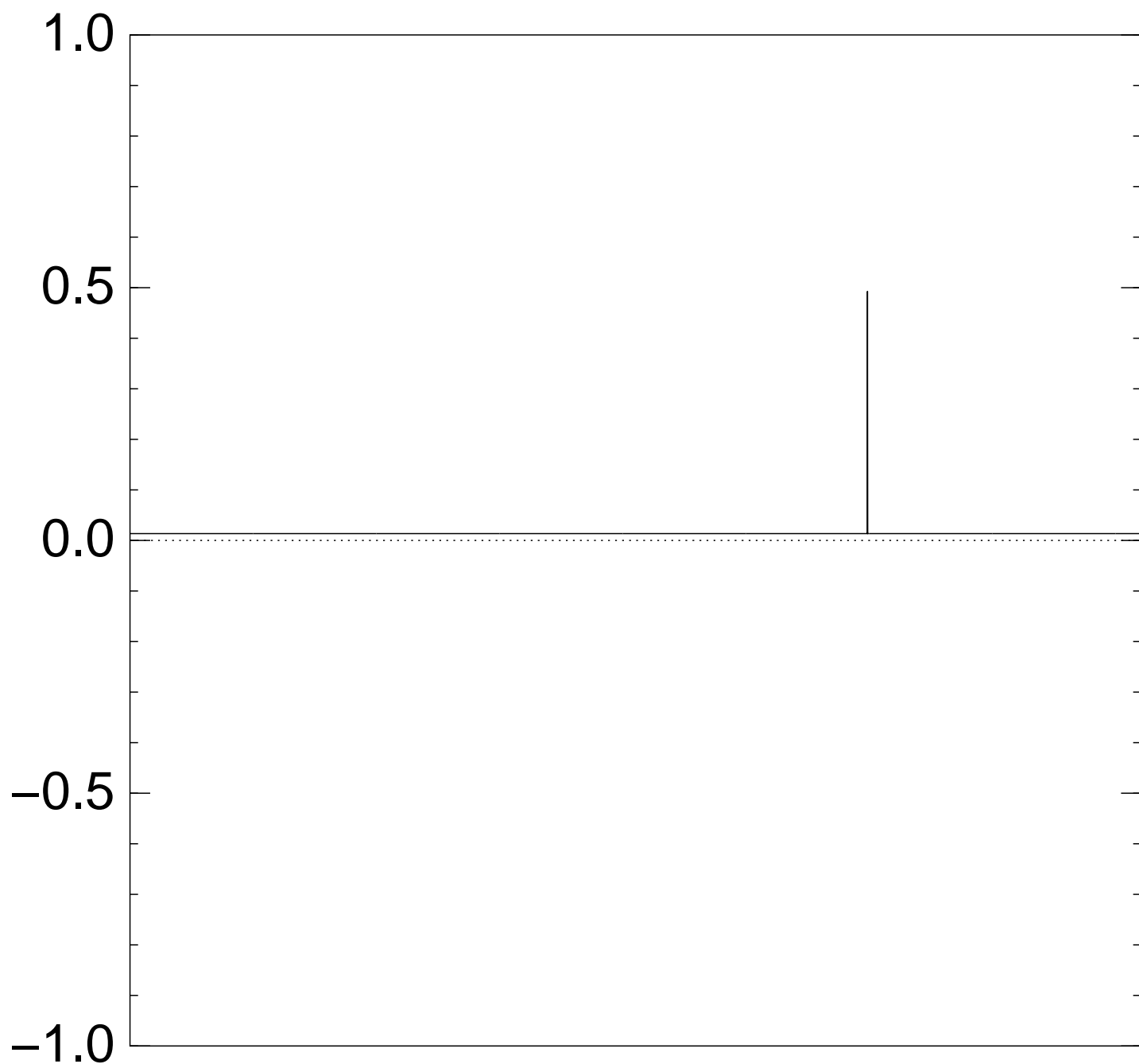
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $14 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



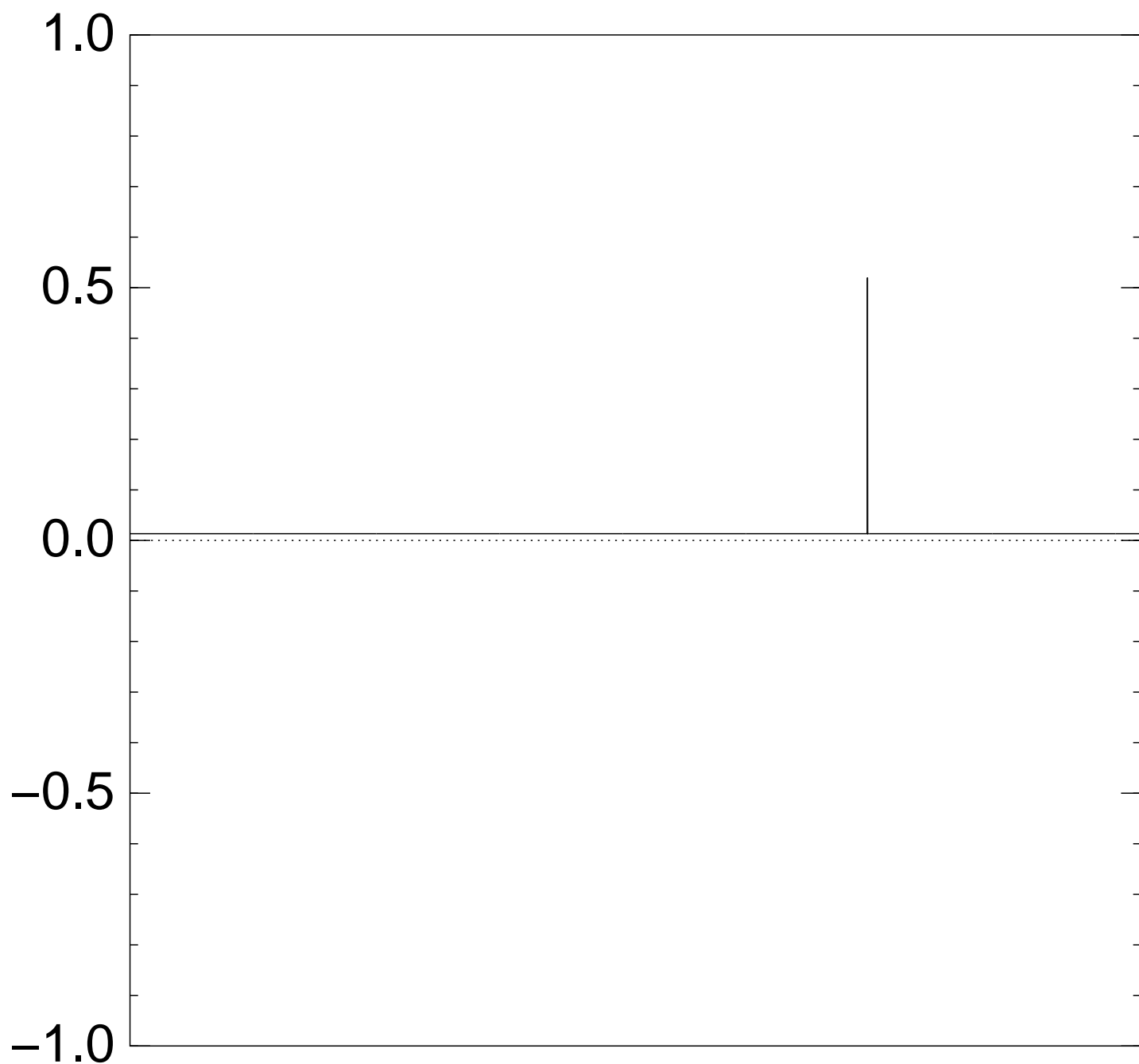
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $15 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



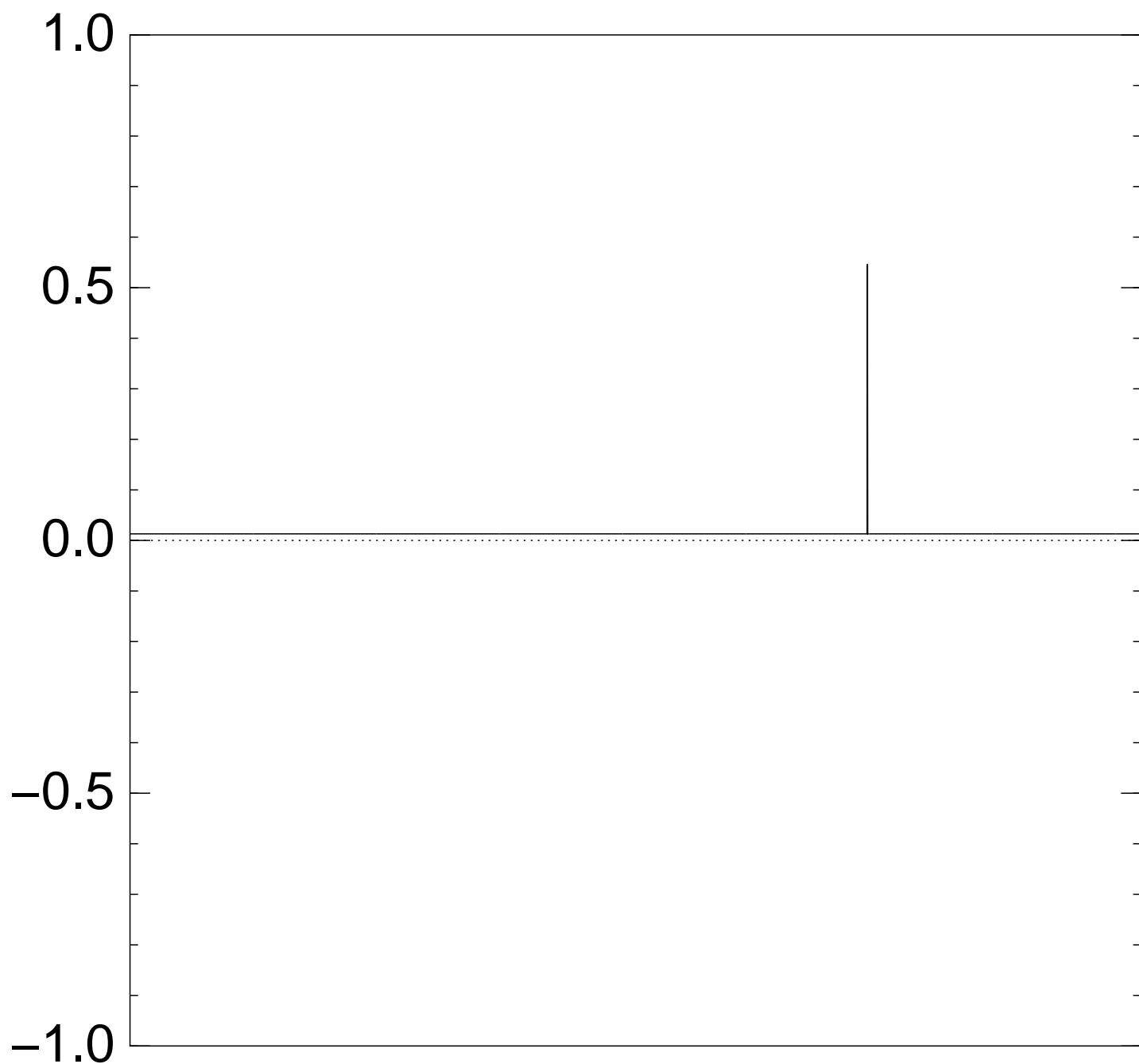
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $16 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



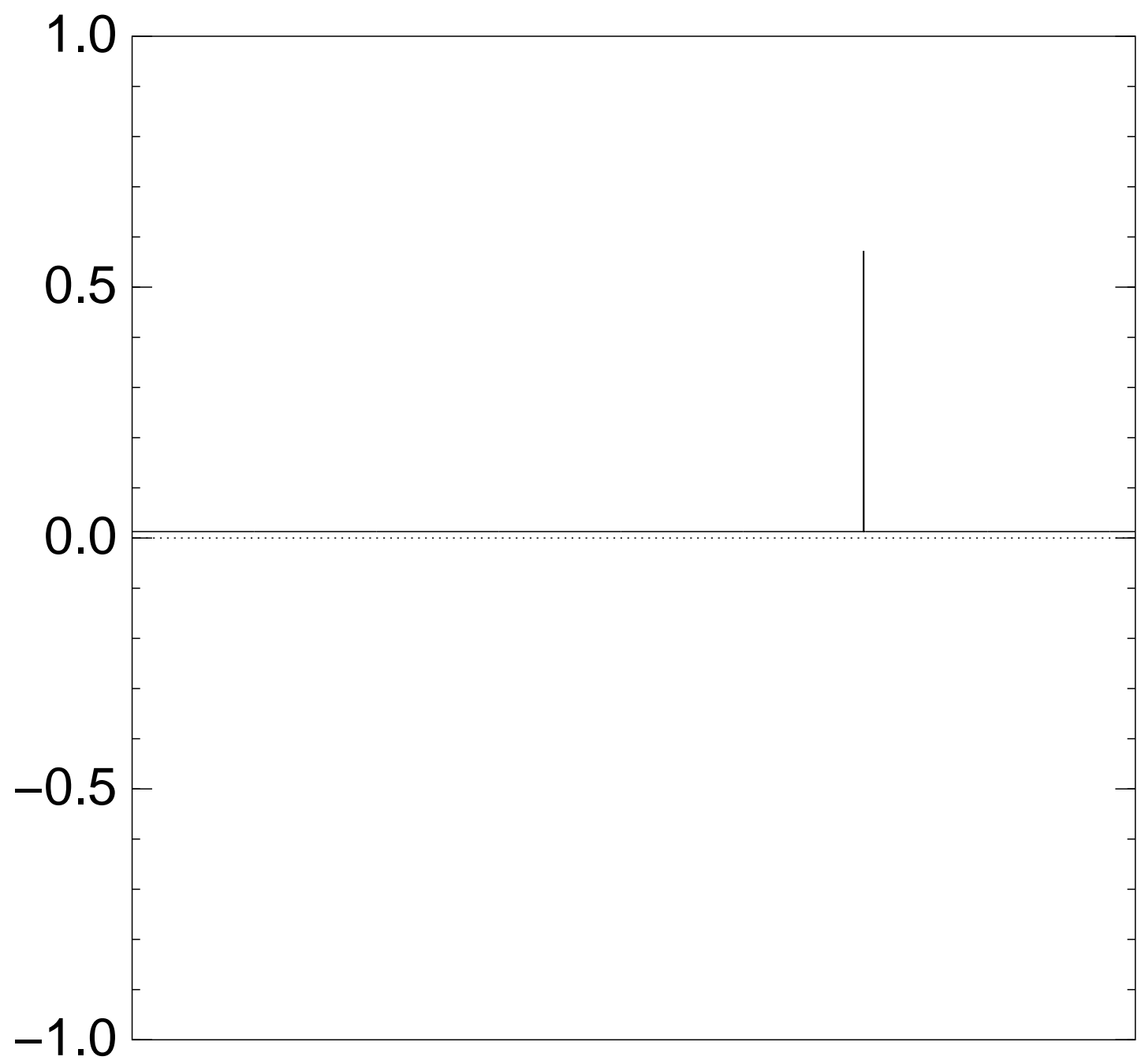
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $17 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



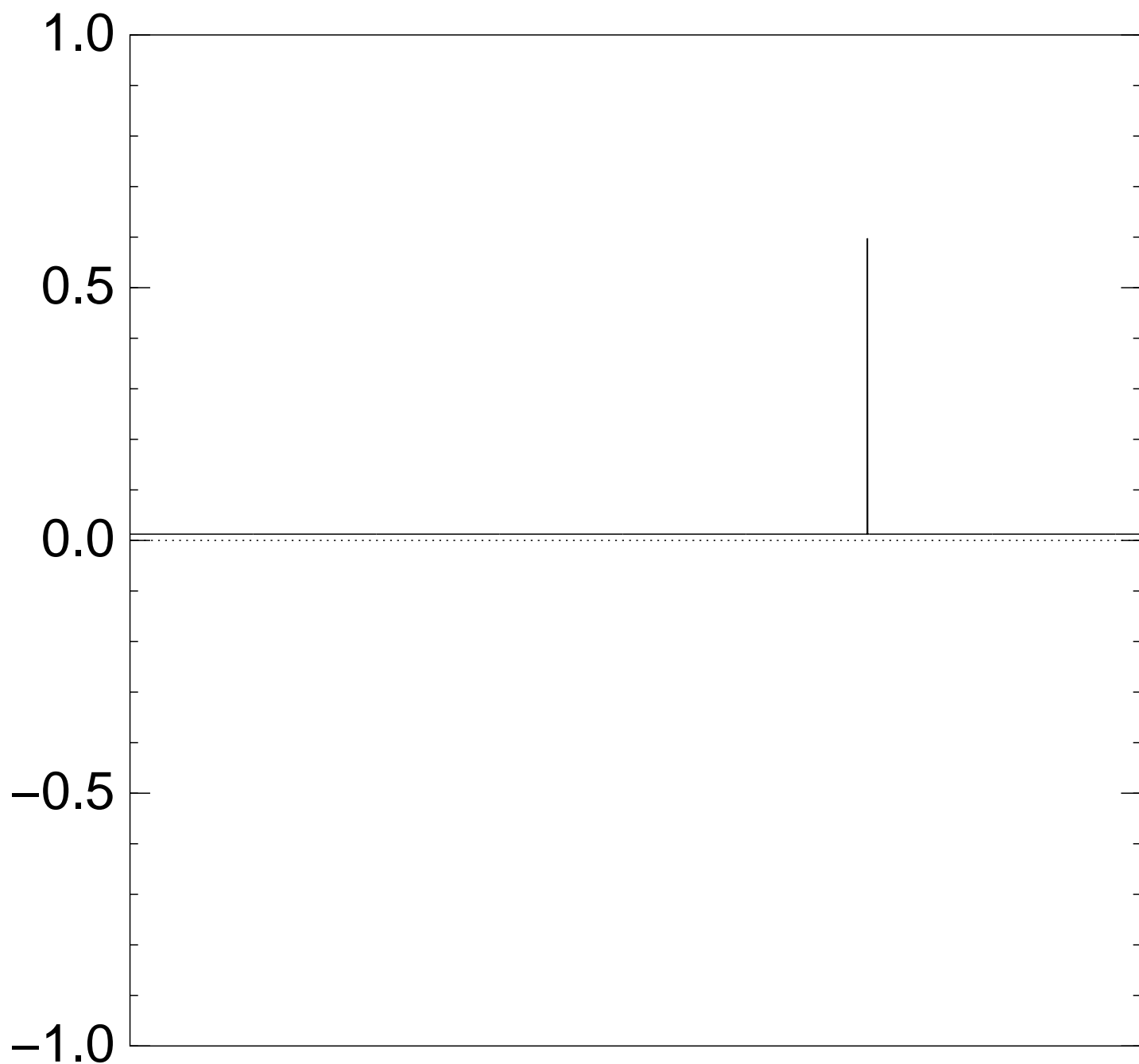
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $18 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



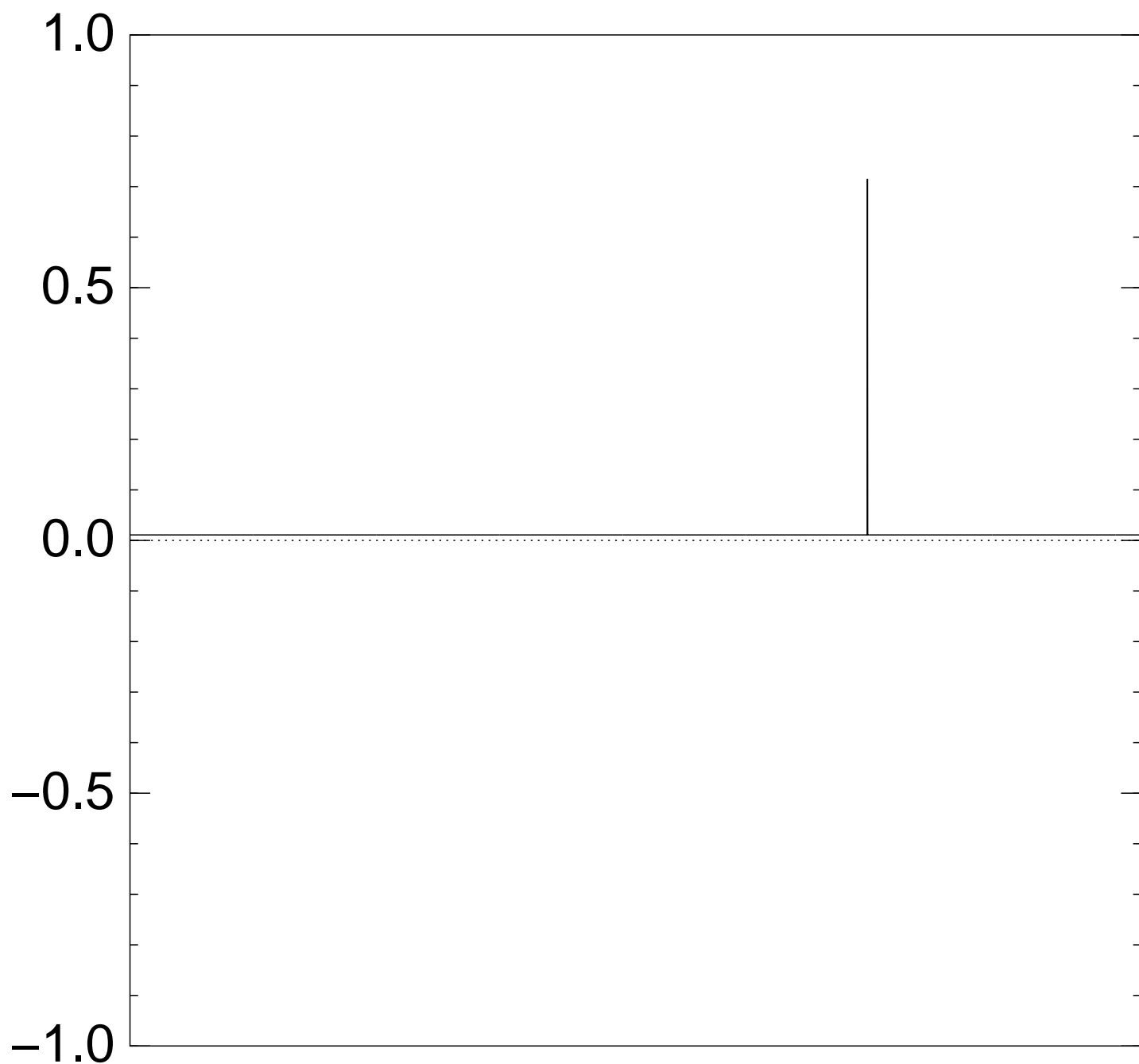
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $19 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



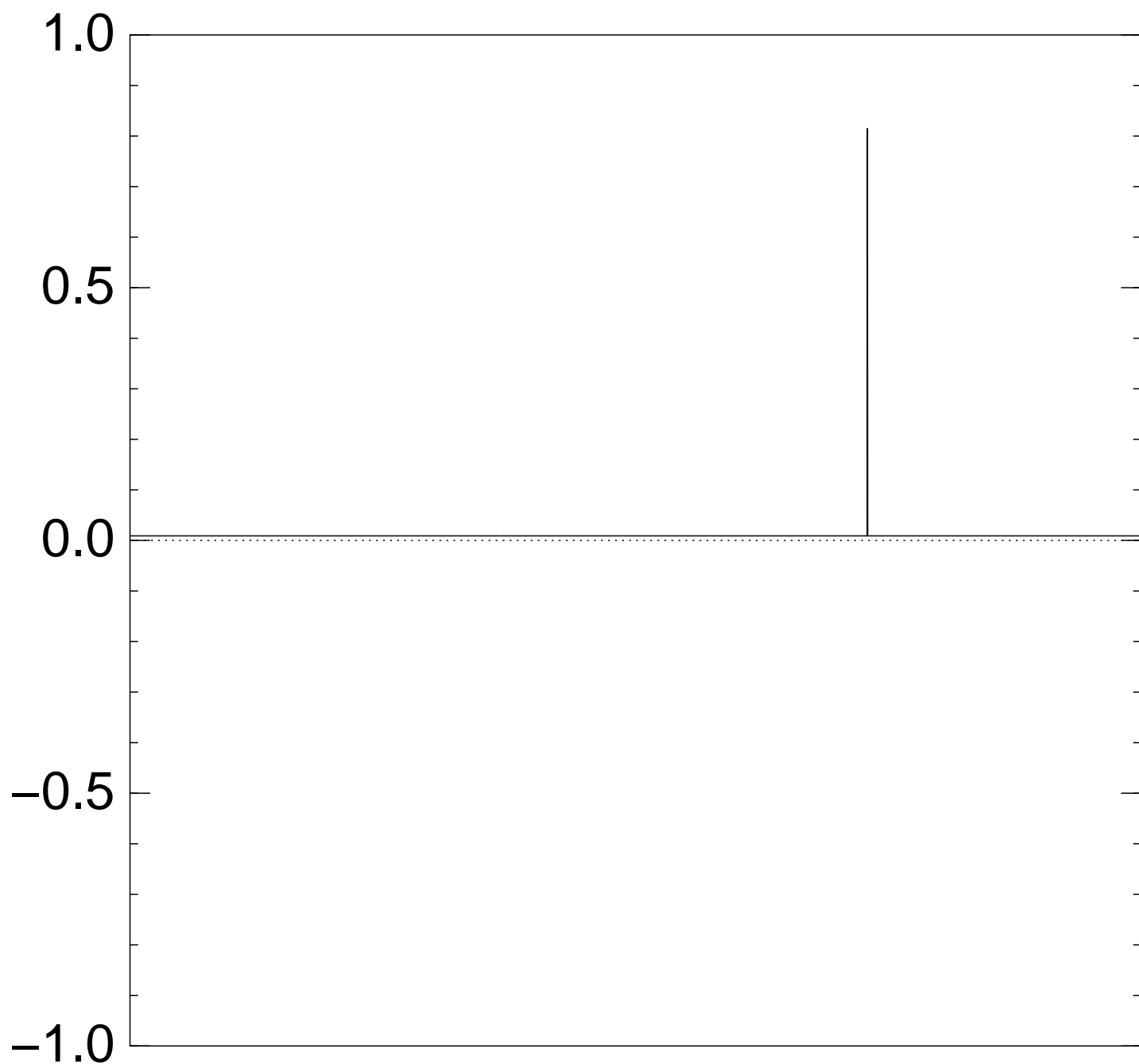
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $20 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



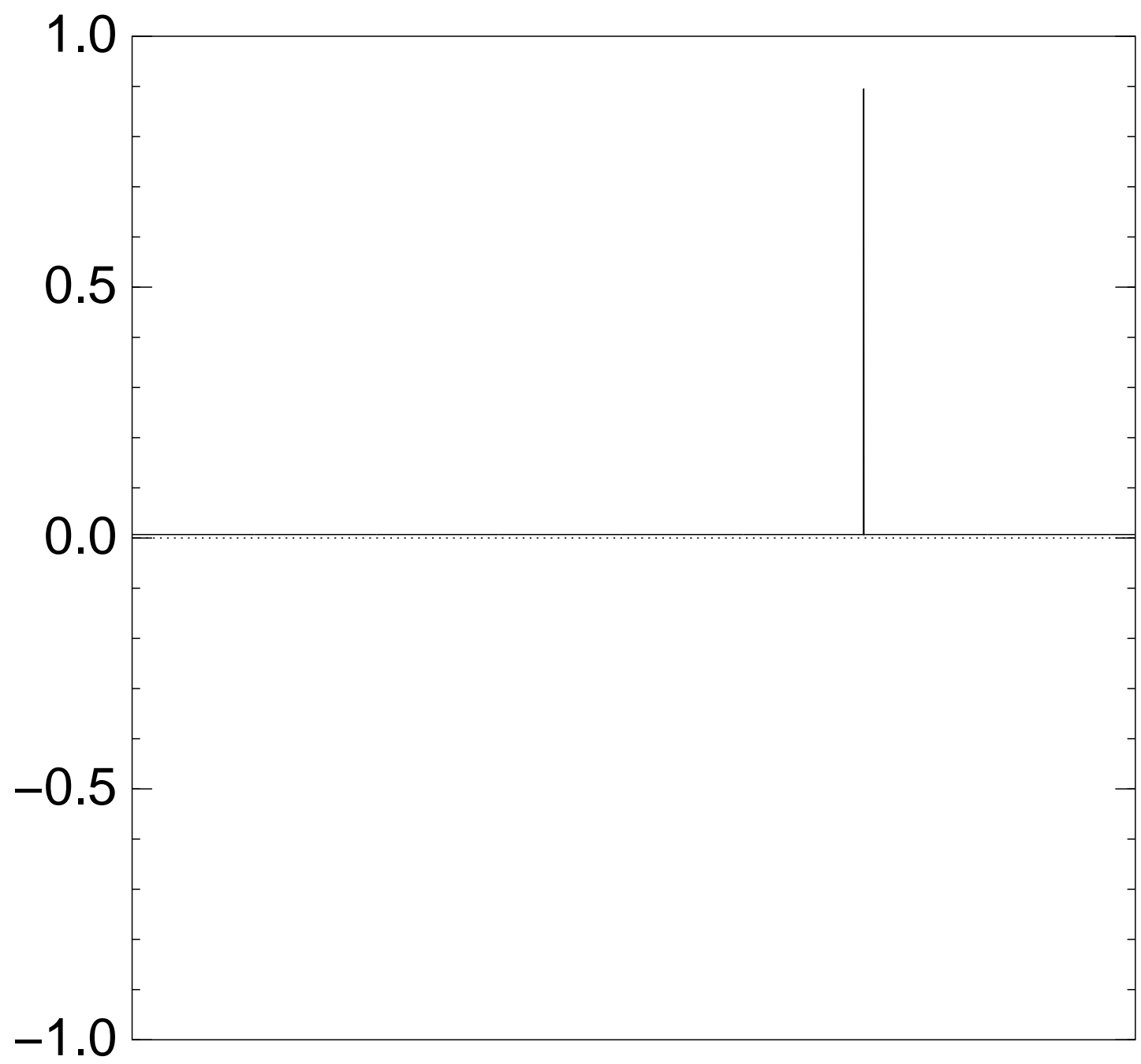
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $25 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $30 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):

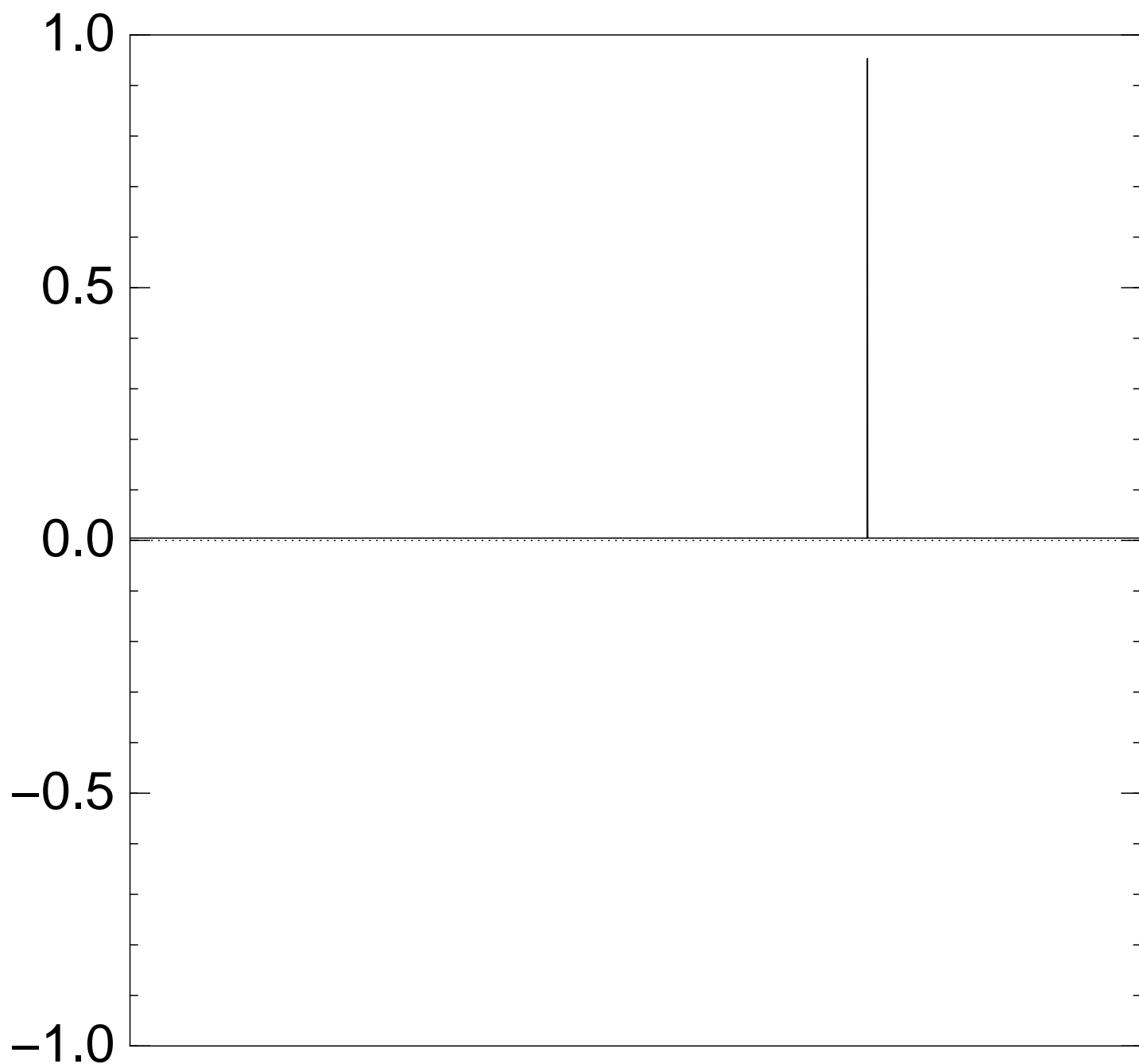


Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $35 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):

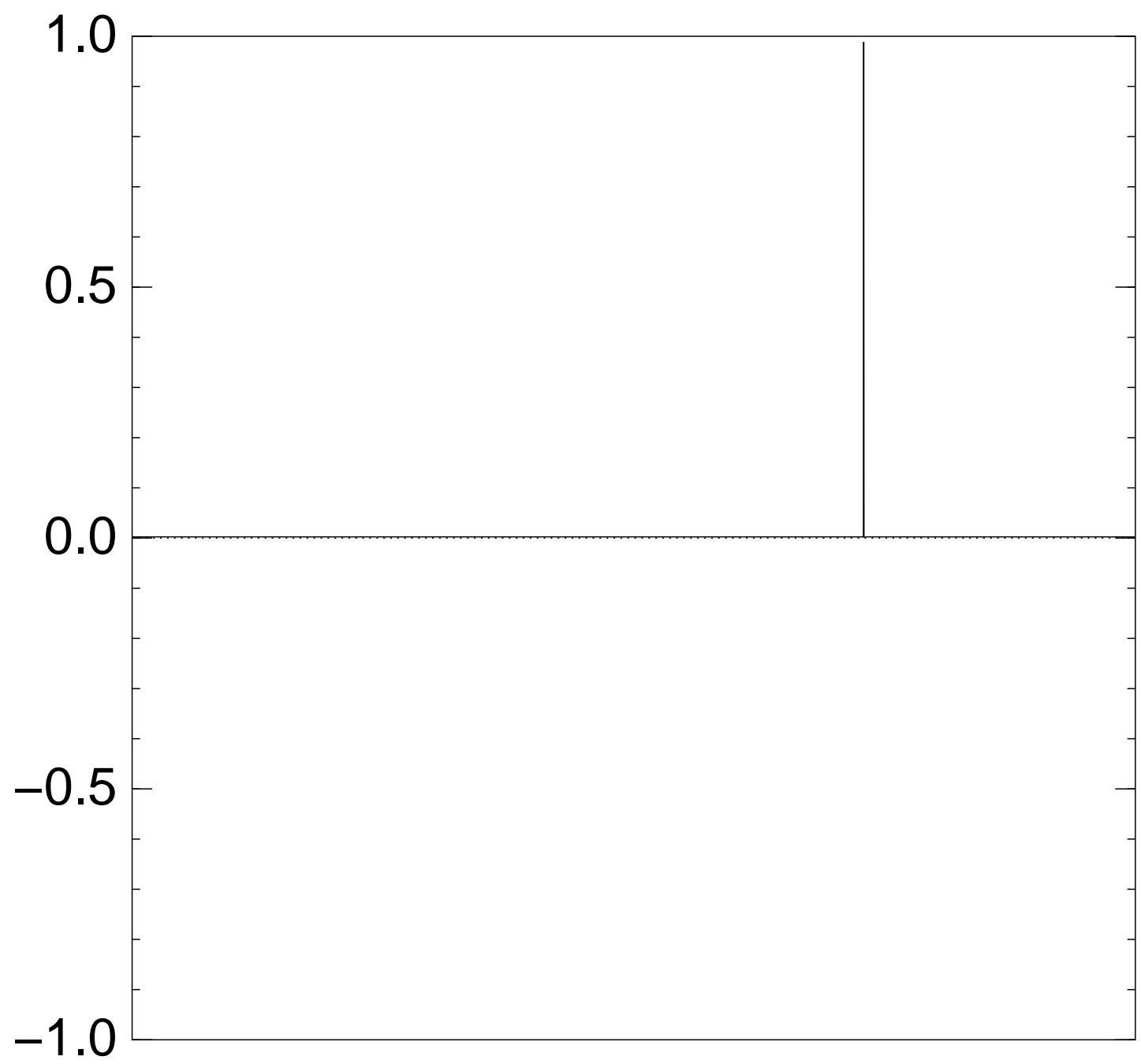


Good moment to stop, measure.

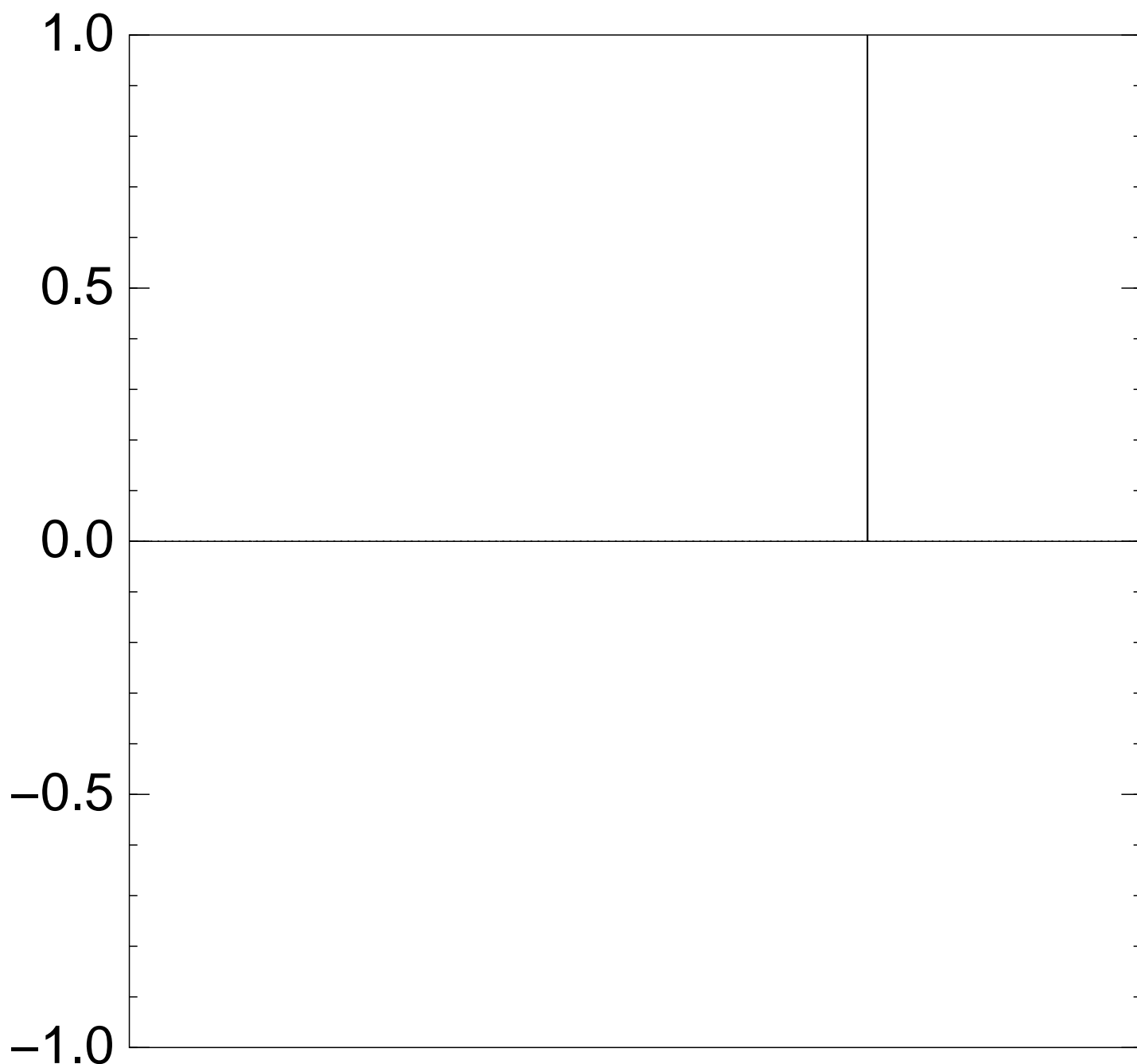
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $40 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $45 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):

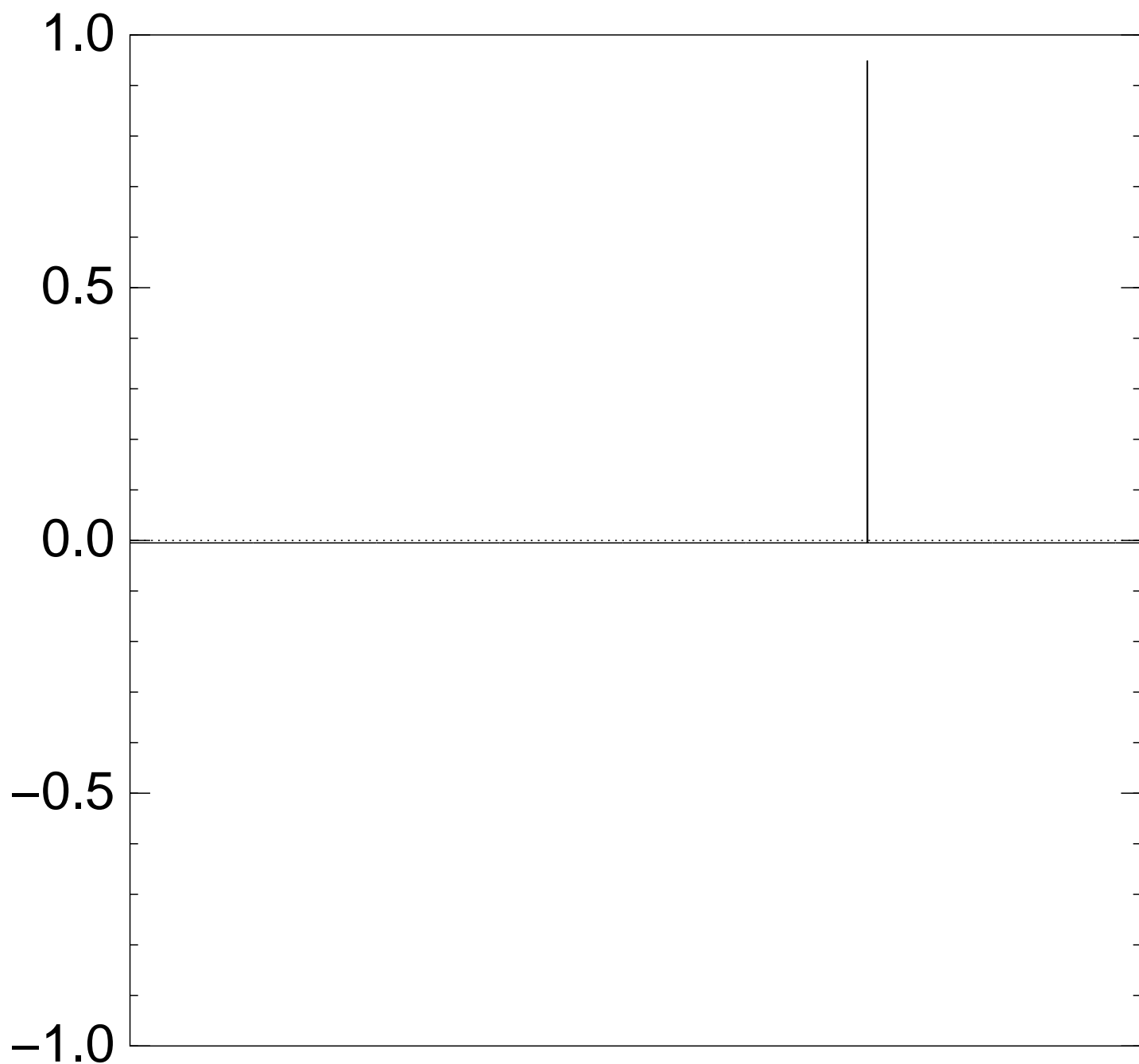


Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $50 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):

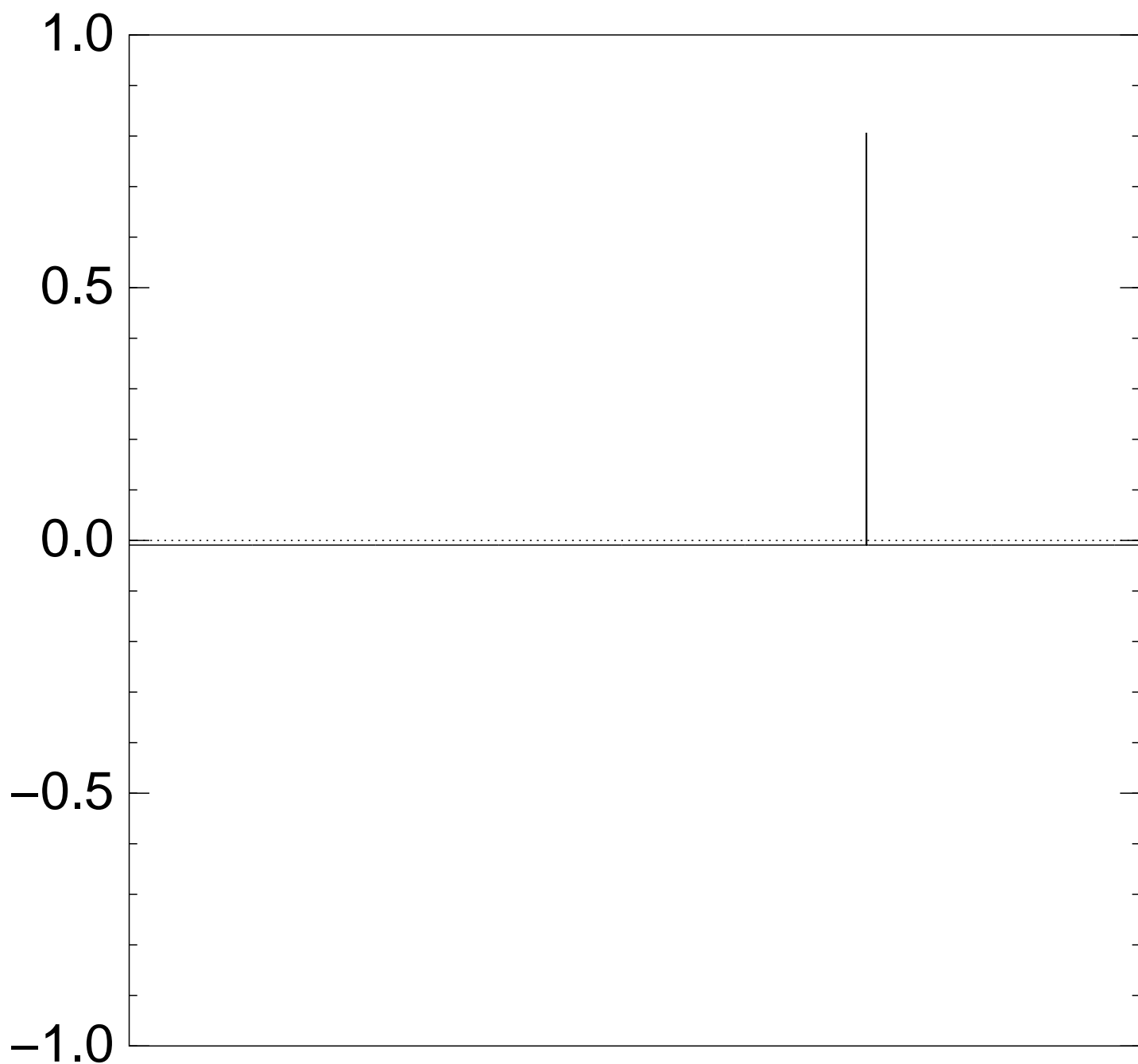


Traditional stopping point.

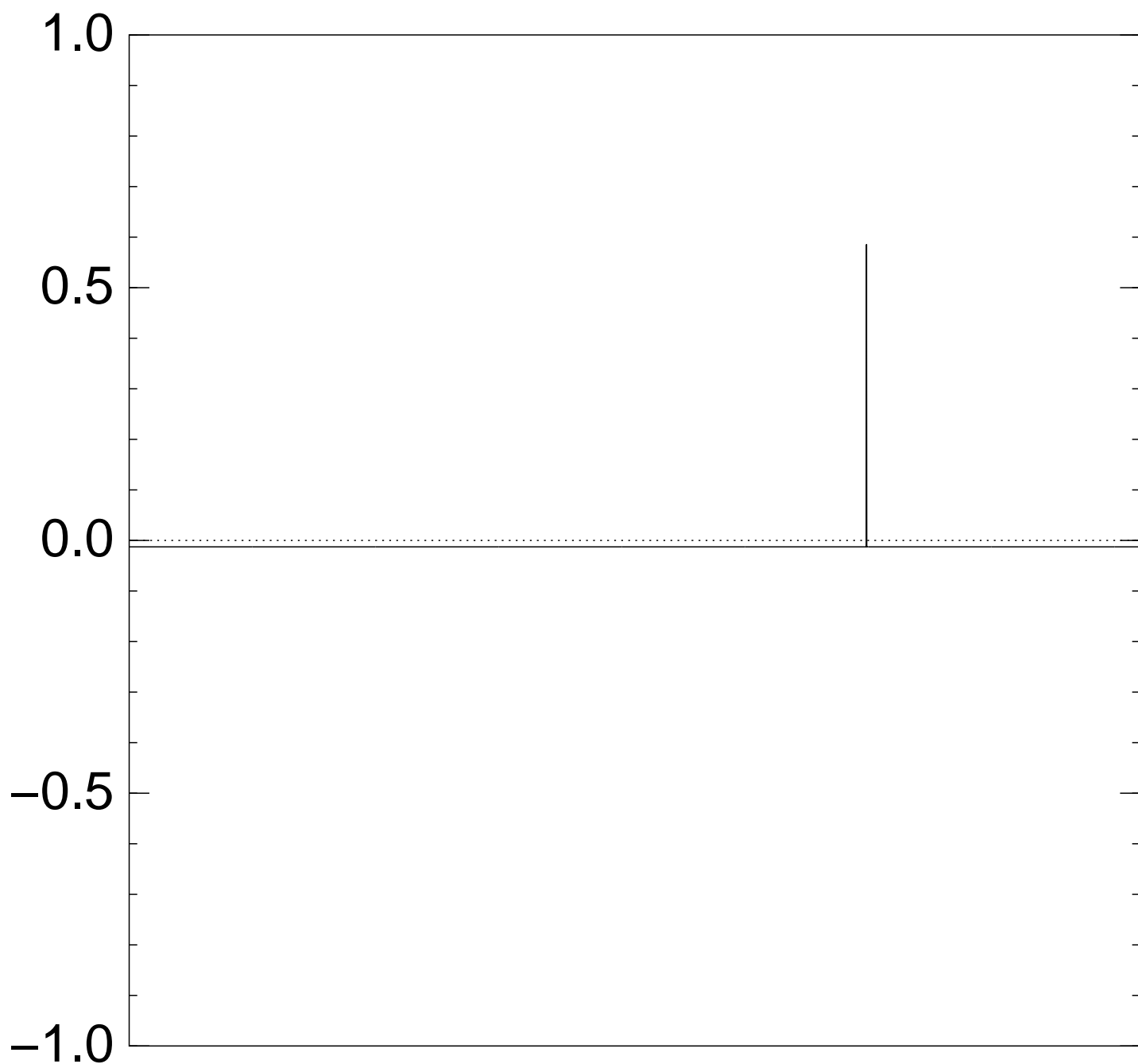
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $60 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



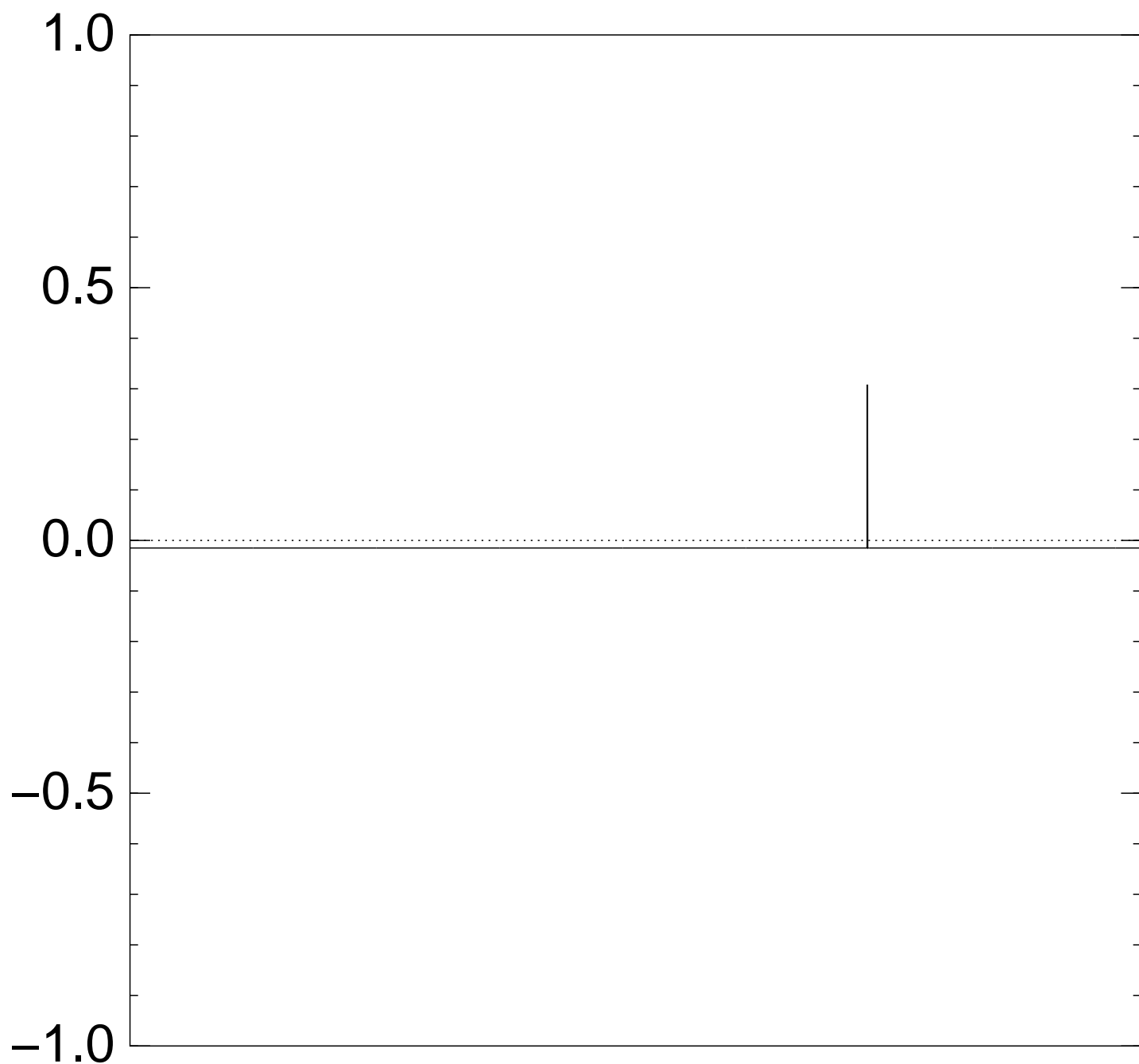
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $70 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



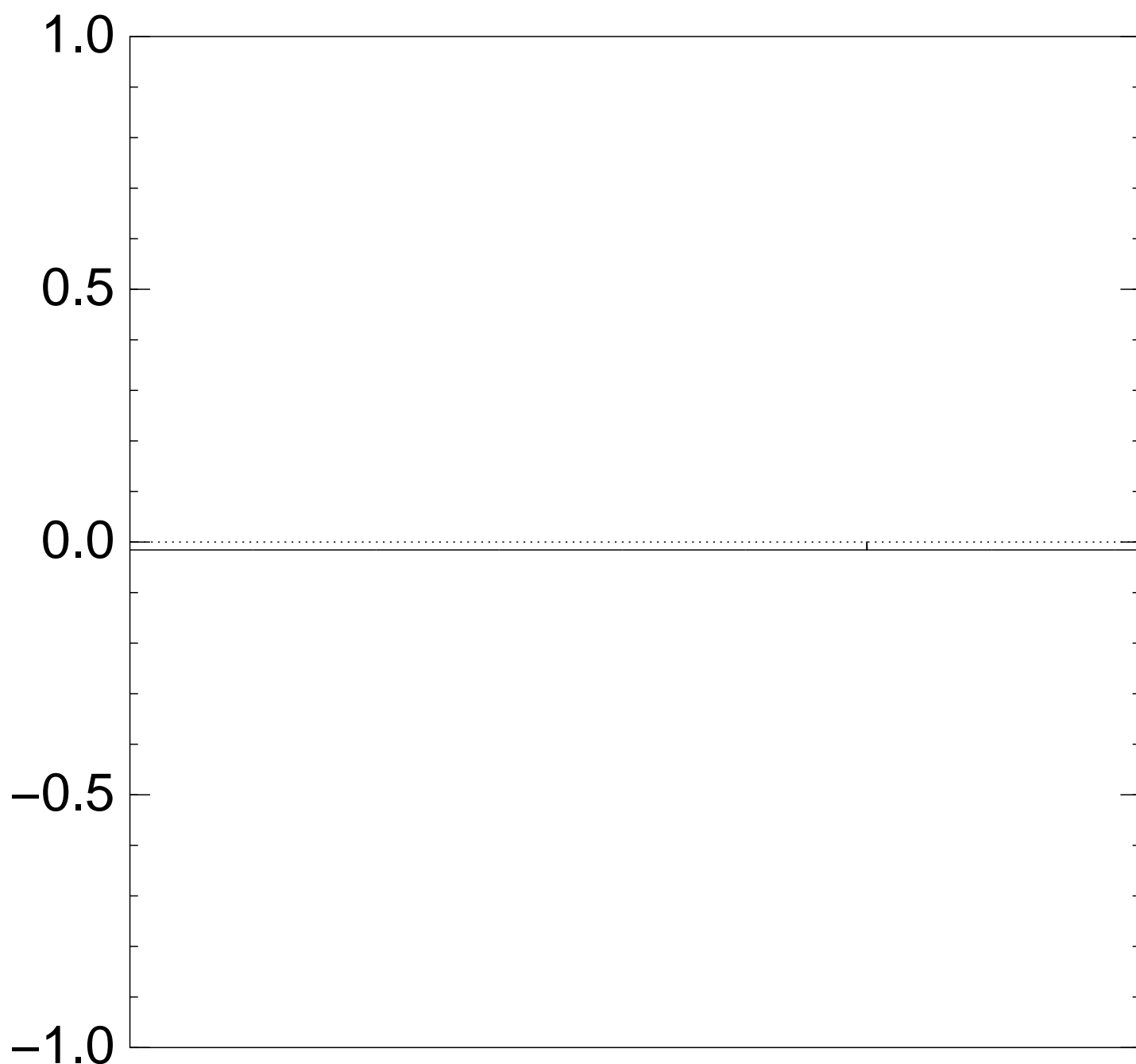
Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $80 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $90 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
for an example with $n = 12$
after $100 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



Very bad stopping point.

$u \mapsto a_u$ is completely described
by a vector of two numbers
(with fixed multiplicities):

- (1) a_u for roots u ;
- (2) a_u for non-roots u .

$u \mapsto a_u$ is completely described
by a vector of two numbers
(with fixed multiplicities):

- (1) a_u for roots u ;
- (2) a_u for non-roots u .

Step 1 + Step 2

act linearly on this vector.

$u \mapsto a_u$ is completely described by a vector of two numbers (with fixed multiplicities):

- (1) a_u for roots u ;
- (2) a_u for non-roots u .

Step 1 + Step 2

act linearly on this vector.

Easily compute eigenvalues and powers of this linear map to understand evolution of state of Grover's algorithm.

\Rightarrow Probability is ≈ 1

after $\approx (\pi/4)2^{0.5n}$ iterations.

Many more applications

Shor generalizations:

e.g., poly-time attack breaking
“cyclotomic” case of Gentry
STOC 2009 “Fully homomorphic
encryption using ideal lattices” .

Grover generalizations:

e.g., fastest subset-sum attacks
use “quantum walks” .

Not just Shor and Grover:

e.g., subexponential-time
CRS/CSIDH isogeny attack
uses “Kuperberg’s algorithm” .