

Quantum cryptanalysis

Daniel J. Bernstein

Main question in
quantum cryptanalysis:
What is the most efficient
quantum algorithm
to attack this cryptosystem?

(For comparison, main question
in non-quantum cryptanalysis:

What is the most efficient
non-quantum algorithm
to attack this cryptosystem?)

1

“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?**

(Something to think about:
Do we really know the answer
for non-quantum computers?)

2

m cryptanalysis

. Bernstein

estion in

n cryptanalysis:

the most efficient

n algorithm

k this cryptosystem?

mparison, main question

uantum cryptanalysis:

the most efficient

ntum algorithm

k this cryptosystem?)

1

“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?**

(Something to think about:

Do we really know the answer
for non-quantum computers?)

2

Quantum

contains
can effie

“NOT g

“control

1

“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?

(Something to think about: Do we really know the answer for non-quantum computers?)

2

Quantum computer contains many “quantum gates” that can efficiently perform operations like “NOT gate”, “Hadamard gate”, “controlled NOT gate”, etc.

1

“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?

(Something to think about: Do we really know the answer for non-quantum computers?)

2

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

“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?

(Something to think about: Do we really know the answer for non-quantum computers?)

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

“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?

(Something to think about: Do we really know the answer for non-quantum computers?)

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 today.

“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?

(Something to think about: Do we really know the answer for non-quantum computers?)

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 today.

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

“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?

(Something to think about: Do we really know the answer for non-quantum computers?)

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 today.

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.

um algorithm”
n algorithm that
um computer can run.
quence of instructions,
ach instruction is
ntum computer’s
ed instruction set.
**o we know which
ions a quantum
er will support?**
ing to think about:
eally know the answer
quantum computers?)

2

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 today.**

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.

3

Quantum
stores a
efficiently
laws of c
with as

This is t
quantum
by 1980
[paper](#) ap

2

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 today.**

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.

3

Quantum computer
stores a simulated
efficiently simulate
laws of quantum p
with as much accu

This is the original
quantum compute
by 1980 Manin (E
[paper](#) appendix),

2

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 today.**

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.

3

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 1980 Manin (English version
[paper](#) appendix), 1982 Feynman.

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 today.**

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 1980 Manin (English version:
[paper](#) appendix), [1982 Feynman](#).

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 today.**

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 1980 Manin (English version:
[paper](#) appendix), [1982 Feynman](#).

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 1 (QC1):
stores many “qubits”;
efficiently perform
“CNOT gate”, “Hadamard gate”,
“controlled NOT gate”, “T gate”.

**These instructions work
as the main goal of quantum-
computer engineering today.**

With these instructions
we can compute “Toffoli gate”;
“Shor’s algorithm”;
“Grover’s algorithm”; etc.

General belief: Traditional CPU
type 1; e.g. can’t factor quickly.

3

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 1980 Manin (English version:
[paper](#) appendix), [1982 Feynman](#).

General belief: any QC1 is a QC2.

Partial proof: see, e.g.,
[2011 Jordan–Lee–Preskill](#)

“Quantum algorithms for
quantum field theories”.

4

Quantum
efficiently
that any
computer

er type 1 (QC1):
ubits” ;
Form
damard gate” ,
gate” , “*T* gate” .

**structions work
of quantum-
ering today.**

structions
oli gate” ;
rithm” ;
chm” ; etc.

additional CPU
n’t factor quickly.

3

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 1980 Manin (English version:
[paper](#) appendix), [1982 Feynman](#).

General belief: any QC1 is a QC2.

Partial proof: see, e.g.,

[2011 Jordan–Lee–Preskill](#)

“Quantum algorithms for
quantum field theories” .

4

Quantum compute
efficiently compute
that any possible p
computer can com

3

(QC1):

ate”,
gate”.

work
m-
ay.

CPU
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 1980 Manin (English version:
[paper](#) appendix), [1982 Feynman](#).

General belief: any QC1 is a QC2.

Partial proof: see, e.g.,
[2011 Jordan–Lee–Preskill](#)
“Quantum algorithms for
quantum field theories”.

4

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

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 1980 Manin (English version: [paper](#) appendix), [1982 Feynman](#).

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 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 1980 Manin (English version: [paper](#) appendix), [1982 Feynman](#).

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.

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 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 1980 Manin (English version: [paper](#) appendix), [1982 Feynman](#).

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.

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.

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

The original concept of
universal quantum computers introduced
by David Deutsch (English version:
see appendix), [1982 Feynman](#).

General belief: any QC1 is a QC2.

Proof: see, e.g.,

[Jordan–Lee–Preskill](#)

Quantum algorithms for
simulating quantum field theories”.

4

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.

5

State of

Data (“state”)
a list of
e.g.: (0, 1)

4

er type 2 (QC2):
 universe;
 es the
 physics
 uracy as desired.
 l concept of
 rs introduced
 nglish version:
 1982 Feynman.
 y QC1 is a QC2.
 e.g.,
 Preskill
 nms for
 ories” .

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.

5

State of a non-qua
 Data (“state”) sto
 a list of 3 element
 e.g.: (0, 0, 0).

4

(QC2):

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.

5

State of a non-quantum con

Data ("state") stored in 3 b
a list of 3 elements of $\{0, 1\}$
e.g.: (0, 0, 0).

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.

State of a non-quantum computer

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

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.

State of a non-quantum 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).

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.

State of a non-quantum 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).

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.

State of a non-quantum 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 $\{0, 1\}$.

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.

State of a non-quantum 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).

computer type 3 (QC3):
y computes anything
possible physical
er can compute efficiently.

belief: any QC2 is a QC3.

nt for belief:

sical computer must

ne laws of quantum

so a QC2 can efficiently

any physical computer.

belief: any QC3 is a QC1.

nt for belief:

're building a QC1.

5

State of a non-quantum 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).

6

State of

Data sto

a list of

e.g.: [3,

5

er type 3 (QC3):
 es anything
 physical
 compute efficiently.
 y QC2 is a QC3.
 ef:
 ounter must
 quantum
 can efficiently
 ical computer.
 y QC3 is a QC1.
 ef:
 g a QC1.

State of a non-quantum 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).

6

State of a quantum

Data stored in 3 q
 a list of 8 numbers
 e.g.: [3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9

5

(QC3):

State of a non-quantum 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).

6

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].

State of a non-quantum 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.: $(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1,$

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

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

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

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

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

State of a quantum computer

Data stored in 3 qubits:

a list of 8 numbers, not all zero.

e.g.: $[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6]$.

State of a non-quantum 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.: $(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1,$

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

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

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

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

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

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.: $[-2, 7, -1, 8, 1, -8, -2, 8]$.

State of a non-quantum 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.: $(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1,$

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

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

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

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

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

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.: $[0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0]$.

State of a non-quantum 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.: $(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1,$

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

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

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

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

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

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.:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6, 5, 3, 5, 8, 9, 7, 9, 3]$.

State of a non-quantum 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.: $(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1,$

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

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

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

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

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

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.

State of a non-quantum 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.: $(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1,$

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

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

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

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

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

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.

a non-quantum computer

state") stored in 3 bits:

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

(0, 0).

(1, 1).

(1, 1).

stored in 64 bits:

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

(1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1,

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

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

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

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

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

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.

Measurim

Can sim

Cannot s

of numb

Quantum computer

stored in 3 bits:
elements of $\{0, 1\}$.

bits:
elements of $\{0, 1\}$.

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

6

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.

7

Measuring a quantum state

Can simply look at the state.
Cannot simply look at the state.
of numbers stored

bits:

-.

}.

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 comp

Can simply look at a bit.

Cannot simply look at the li

of numbers stored in n qubit

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.

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 n qubits

- produces n bits and
- “collapses” the state.

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 n qubits

- produces n bits and
- “collapses” 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 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 n qubits

- produces n bits and
- “collapses” the state.

If n qubits have state

$[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{2^n-1}]$ then

measurement produces q

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

“Collapse”: New state is all zeros except 1 at position q .

a quantum computer

stored in 3 qubits:

8 numbers, not all zero.

[1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6].

[2, 7, -1, 8, 1, -8, -2, 8].

[0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0].

stored in 4 qubits: a list of

numbers, not all zero. e.g.:

[1, 5, 9, 2, 6, 5, 3, 5, 8, 9, 7, 9, 3].

stored in 64 qubits:

2^{64} numbers, not all zero.

stored in 1000 qubits: a list

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 n qubits

- produces n bits and
- “collapses” the state.

If n qubits have state

$[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{2^n-1}]$ then

measurement produces q

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

“Collapse”: New state is all zeros except 1 at position q .

e.g.: Say

[1, 1, 1, 1]

Classical computer

qubits:

numbers, not all zero.

[0, 2, 6].

[1, -8, -2, 8].

[1, 0, 0].

qubits: a list of

numbers, not all zero. e.g.:

[5, 3, 5, 8, 9, 7, 9, 3].

qubits:

numbers, not all zero.

100 qubits: a list

of 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 n qubits

- produces n bits and
- “collapses” the state.

If n qubits have state

$[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{2^n-1}]$ then

measurement produces q

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

“Collapse”: New state is all zeros except 1 at position q .

e.g.: Say 3 qubits

[1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1]

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
- “collapses” the state.

If n qubits have state $[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{2^n-1}]$ then measurement produces q with probability $|a_q|^2 / \sum_r |a_r|^2$.

“Collapse”: New state is all zeros except 1 at position q .

e.g.: Say 3 qubits have state $[1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1]$.

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
- “collapses” the state.

If n qubits have state

$[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{2^n-1}]$ then

measurement produces q

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

“Collapse”: New state is all zeros except 1 at position q .

e.g.: Say 3 qubits have state $[1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1]$.

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
- “collapses” the state.

If n qubits have state

$[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{2^n-1}]$ then

measurement produces q

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

“Collapse”: New state is all zeros except 1 at position q .

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.

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
- “collapses” the state.

If n qubits have state

$[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{2^n-1}]$ then

measurement produces q

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

“Collapse”: New state is all zeros except 1 at position q .

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.”

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
- “collapses” the state.

If n qubits have state

$[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{2^n-1}]$ then

measurement produces q

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

“Collapse”: New state is all zeros except 1 at position q .

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**.

Using a quantum computer

Simply look at a bit.

Simply look at the list

of numbers stored in n qubits.

Using n qubits

produces n bits and

“collapses” the state.

If qubits have state

$[a_0, \dots, a_{2^n-1}]$ then

measurement produces q

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

Example: “New state is all zeros

at position q .”

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
 $[3, 1, 4, 1]$

Quantum computer

is not a bit.

Think at the list

of states in n qubits.

bits

and

state.

state

then

produces q

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

state is all zeros

on q .

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
[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6]

uter

e.g.: Say 3 qubits have state
[1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1].

st

ts.

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.

$|r|^2$.

zeros

“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
[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
[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].

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
[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].

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.

y 3 qubits have state
[1, 1, 1, 1].

Measurement produces

000 with probability $1/8$;

001 with probability $1/8$;

010 with probability $1/8$;

011 with probability $1/8$;

100 with probability $1/8$;

101 with probability $1/8$;

110 with probability $1/8$;

111 with probability $1/8$.

um RNG.”

: Quantum RNGs sold
e **measurably biased**.

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
[0, 0, 0, 0]

have state

duces

probability $1/8$;

probability $1/8$.

m RNGs sold

bly biased.

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
[0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0]

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
[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
[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].

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
[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].

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.

y 3 qubits have state
 ..., 5, 9, 2, 6].

ment produces

- with probability $9/173$;
- with probability $1/173$;
- with probability $16/173$;
- with probability $1/173$;
- with probability $25/173$;
- with probability $81/173$;
- with probability $4/173$;
- with probability $36/173$.

t likely outcome.

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 ga

NOT₀ g

[3, 1, 4, 1

[1, 3, 1, 4

have state

duces

probability $9/173$;

probability $1/173$;

probability $16/173$;

probability $1/173$;

probability $25/173$;

probability $81/173$;

probability $4/173$;

probability $36/173$.

outcome.

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

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6]$

$[1, 3, 1, 4, 9, 5, 6, 2]$

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:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[1, 3, 1, 4, 9, 5, 6, 2]$.

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

NOT_0 gate on 3 qubits:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[1, 3, 1, 4, 9, 5, 6, 2]$.

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

NOT_0 gate on 3 qubits:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[1, 3, 1, 4, 9, 5, 6, 2]$.

NOT_0 gate on 4 qubits:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6, 5, 3, 5, 8, 9, 7, 9, 3] \mapsto$

$[1, 3, 1, 4, 9, 5, 6, 2, 3, 5, 8, 5, 7, 9, 3, 9]$.

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

NOT_0 gate on 3 qubits:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[1, 3, 1, 4, 9, 5, 6, 2]$.

NOT_0 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_1 gate on 3 qubits:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[4, 1, 3, 1, 2, 6, 5, 9]$.

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:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[1, 3, 1, 4, 9, 5, 6, 2]$.

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:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[5, 9, 2, 6, 3, 1, 4, 1]$.

y 3 qubits have state
 $[0, 0, 1, 0, 0]$.

ment produces

with probability 0;

with probability 1;

with probability 0;

with probability 0.

ranted outcome.

NOT gates

NOT₀ gate on 3 qubits:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[1, 3, 1, 4, 9, 5, 6, 2]$.

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:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[5, 9, 2, 6, 3, 1, 4, 1]$.

$[1, 0, 0,$

$[0, 1, 0,$

$[0, 0, 1,$

$[0, 0, 0,$

$[0, 0, 0,$

$[0, 0, 0,$

$[0, 0, 0,$

$[0, 0, 0,$

Operatio

NOT₀, s

Operatio

flipping

Flip: ou

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

[1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0]

[0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0]

[0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0]

[0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0]

[0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0]

[0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0]

[0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0]

[0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1]

Operation on quantum state

NOT₀, swapping pairs

Operation after measurement

flipping bit 0 of register

Flip: output is not

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	measure
[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

NOT₀, swapping pairs.

Operation after measurement

flipping bit 0 of result.

Flip: output is not input.

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:

NOT₀, swapping pairs.

Operation after measurement:

flipping bit 0 of result.

Flip: output is not input.

tes

ate on 3 qubits:

[1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto

[4, 9, 5, 6, 2].

ate on 4 qubits:

[5, 9, 2, 6, 5, 3, 5, 8, 9, 7, 9, 3] \mapsto

[9, 5, 6, 2, 3, 5, 8, 5, 7, 9, 3, 9].

ate on 3 qubits:

[1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto

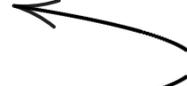
[1, 2, 6, 5, 9].

ate on 3 qubits:

[1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto

[5, 3, 1, 4, 1].

Controllo

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.

e.g. C_1M

[3, 1, 4, 1]

[3, 1, 1, 4]

qubits:

→

.

qubits:

[3,5,8,9,7,9,3] →

[5,8,5,7,9,3,9].

qubits:

→

.

qubits:

→

.

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)

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

[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6]

[3, 1, 1, 4, 5, 9, 6, 2]

[3] →
[9].

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) gate

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

[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] →

[3, 1, 1, 4, 5, 9, 6, 2].

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. $C_1\text{NOT}_0$:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 1, 1, 4, 5, 9, 6, 2]$.

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].

Operation after measurement:

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

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

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. $C_1\text{NOT}_0$:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 1, 1, 4, 5, 9, 6, 2]$.

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. $C_2\text{NOT}_0$:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 9, 5, 6, 2]$.

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].

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].

state	measurement
[0, 0, 0, 0, 0]	000
[0, 0, 0, 0, 0]	001
[0, 0, 0, 0, 0]	010
[1, 0, 0, 0, 0]	011
[0, 1, 0, 0, 0]	100
[0, 0, 1, 0, 0]	101
[0, 0, 0, 1, 0]	110
[0, 0, 0, 0, 1]	111

on on quantum state:

swapping pairs.

on after measurement:

bit 0 of result.

output is not input.

Controlled-NOT (CNOT) gates

e.g. C_1NOT_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_2NOT_0 :

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 9, 5, 6, 2]$.

e.g. C_0NOT_2 :

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 9, 4, 6, 5, 1, 2, 1]$.

Toffoli g

Also kno

controlle

e.g. C_2C

$[3, 1, 4, 1$

$[3, 1, 4, 1$

Controlled-NOT (CNOT) gates

e.g. C_1NOT_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_2NOT_0 :

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 9, 5, 6, 2]$.

e.g. C_0NOT_2 :

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 9, 4, 6, 5, 1, 2, 1]$.

Toffoli gates

Also known as CC

controlled-controlled

e.g. $C_2C_1NOT_0$:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6]$

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 6, 2]$

measurement

000

001

010

011

100

101

110

111

ntum state:

pairs.

measurement:

sult.

t input.

Controlled-NOT (CNOT) gates

e.g. C_1NOT_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_2NOT_0 :

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 9, 5, 6, 2]$.

e.g. C_0NOT_2 :

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 9, 4, 6, 5, 1, 2, 1]$.

Toffoli gates

Also known as CCNOT gate

controlled-controlled-NOT gate

e.g. $C_2C_1NOT_0$:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 6, 2]$.

Controlled-NOT (CNOT) gates

e.g. C_1NOT_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_2NOT_0 :

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 9, 5, 6, 2]$.

e.g. C_0NOT_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. $C_2C_1NOT_0$:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 6, 2]$.

Controlled-NOT (CNOT) gates

e.g. C_1NOT_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_2NOT_0 :

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 9, 5, 6, 2]$.

e.g. C_0NOT_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. $C_2C_1NOT_0$:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 6, 2]$.

Operation after measurement:

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

Controlled-NOT (CNOT) gates

e.g. C_1NOT_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_2NOT_0 :

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 9, 5, 6, 2]$.

e.g. C_0NOT_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. $C_2C_1NOT_0$:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 6, 2]$.

Operation after measurement:

$(q_2, q_1, q_0) \mapsto (q_2, q_1, q_0 \oplus q_1q_2)$.

e.g. $C_0C_1NOT_2$:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 1, 4, 6, 5, 9, 2, 1]$.

Controlled-NOT (CNOT) gatesCNOT₀:[3, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto

[3, 5, 9, 6, 2].

Operation after measurement:

bit 0 *if* bit 1 is set; i.e., $(q_2, q_1, q_0) \mapsto (q_2, q_1, q_0 \oplus q_1)$.CNOT₁:[3, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto

[3, 9, 5, 6, 2].

CNOT₂:[3, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto

[5, 5, 1, 2, 1].

Toffoli gates

Also known as CCNOT gates:

controlled-controlled-NOT gates.

e.g. C₂C₁NOT₀:[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. C₀C₁NOT₂:[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto

[3, 1, 4, 6, 5, 9, 2, 1].

More sh

Combined

to build

CNOT) gates

→

measurement:

bit 1 is set; i.e.,

$(q_1, q_0 \oplus q_1)$.

→

→

Toffoli gates

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

e.g. $C_2C_1NOT_0$:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 6, 2]$.

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, and Toffoli gates to build other permutations.

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. $C_0C_1NOT_2$:

$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 1, 4, 6, 5, 9, 2, 1]$.

nt:

i.e.,

 q_1).More shuffling

Combine NOT, CNOT, Toffoli
to build other permutations.

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.

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. $C_0C_1NOT_2$:

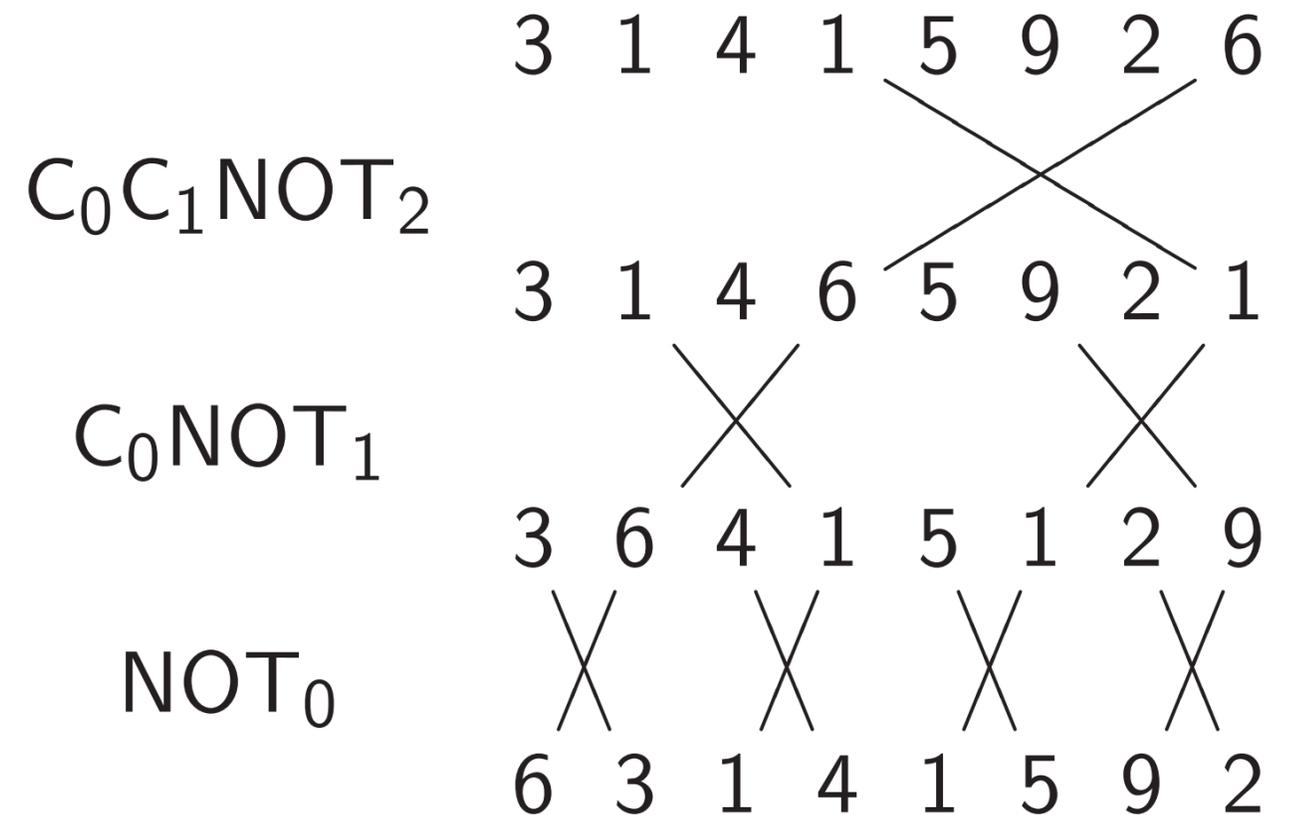
$[3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[3, 1, 4, 6, 5, 9, 2, 1]$.

More shuffling

Combine NOT, CNOT, Toffoli
to build other permutations.

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



gates

own as CCNOT gates:

ed-controlled-NOT gates.

C_1NOT_0 :

$[1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

$[1, 5, 9, 6, 2]$.

on after measurement:

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

C_1NOT_2 :

$[1, 5, 9, 2, 6] \mapsto$

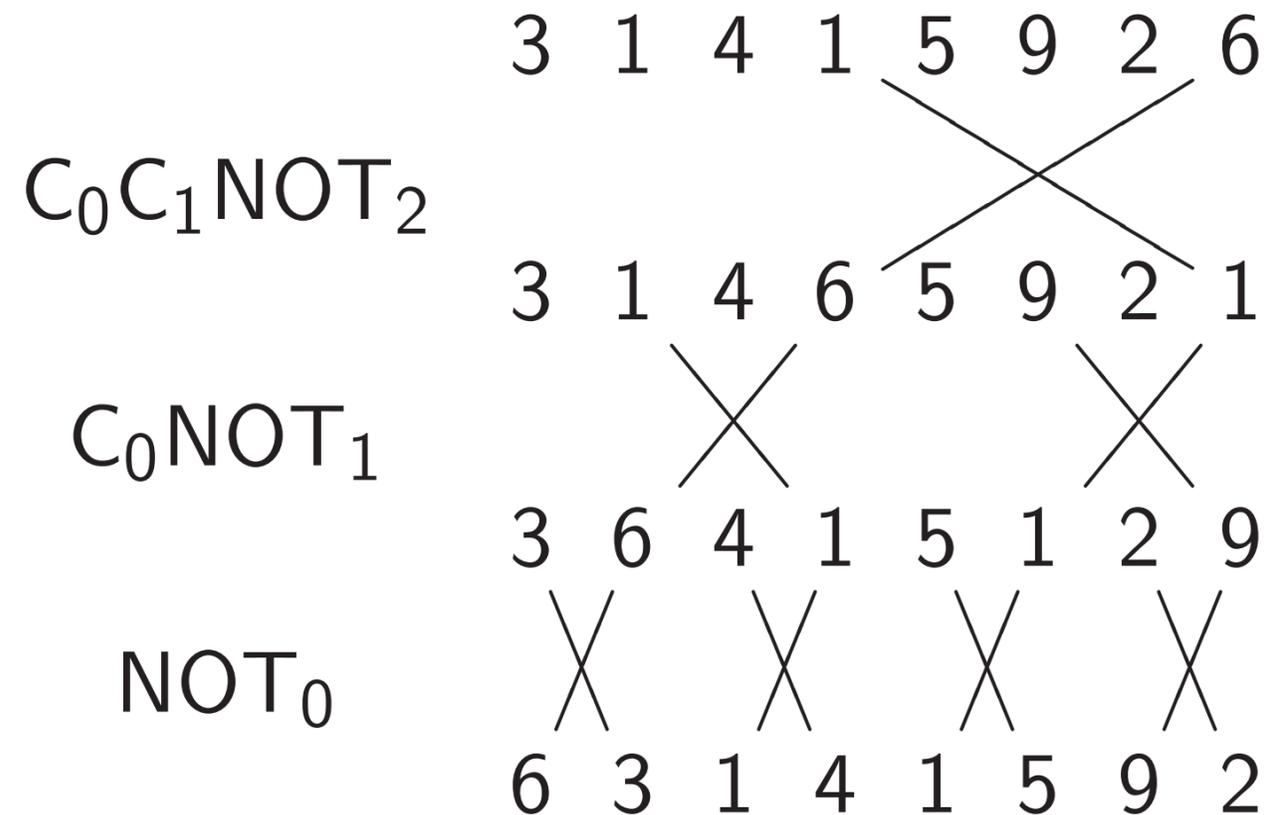
$[5, 5, 9, 2, 1]$.

More shuffling

Combine NOT, CNOT, Toffoli to build other permutations.

e.g. series of gates to

rotate 8 positions by distance 1:

Hadama

Hadama

$[a, b] \mapsto$

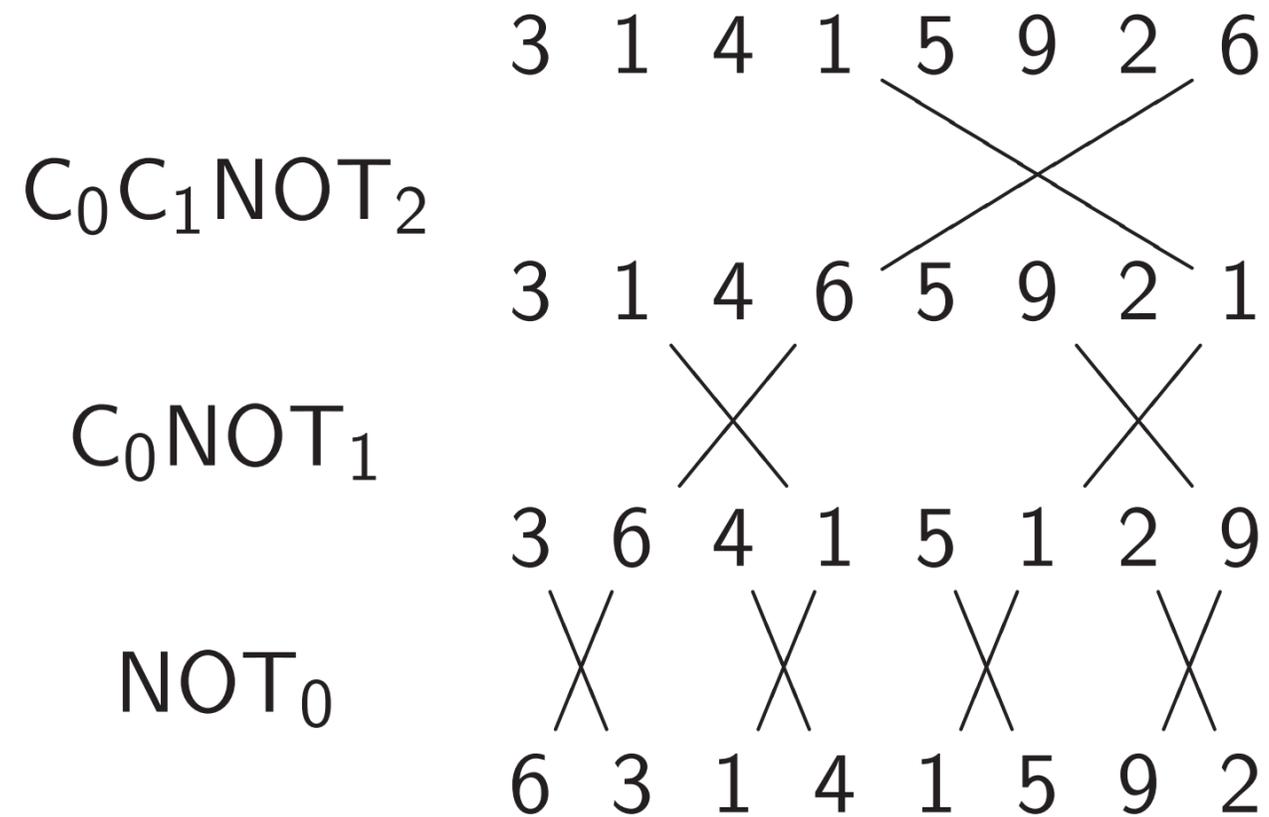


More shuffling

Combine NOT, CNOT, Toffoli to build other permutations.

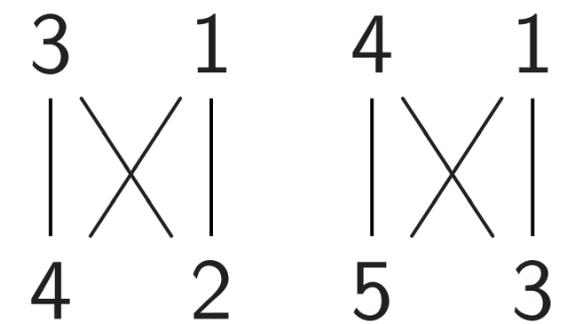
e.g. series of gates to

rotate 8 positions by distance 1:

Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀:

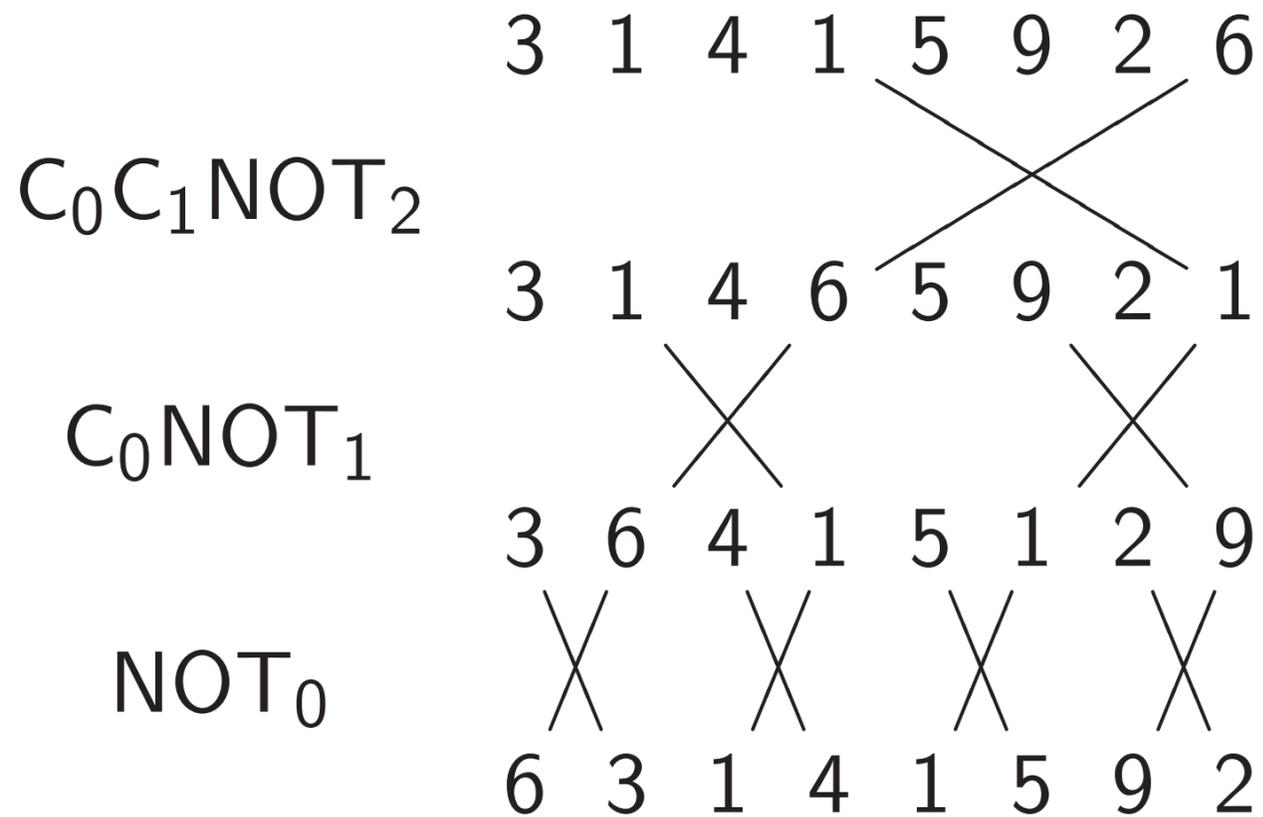
$$[a, b] \mapsto [a + b, a - b]$$



More shuffling

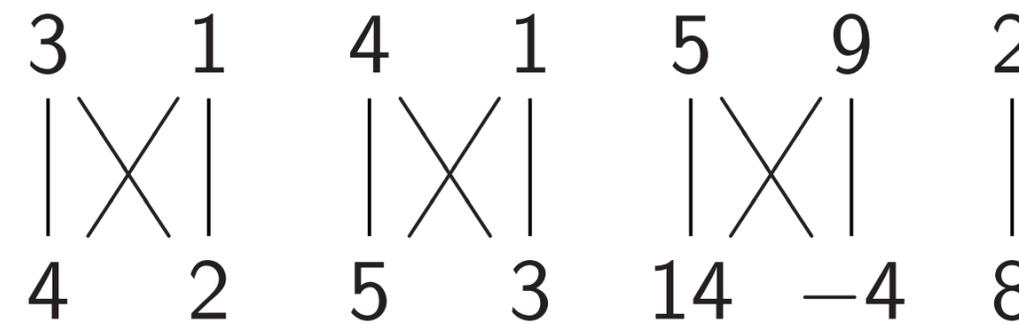
Combine NOT, CNOT, Toffoli
to build other permutations.

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

Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀:

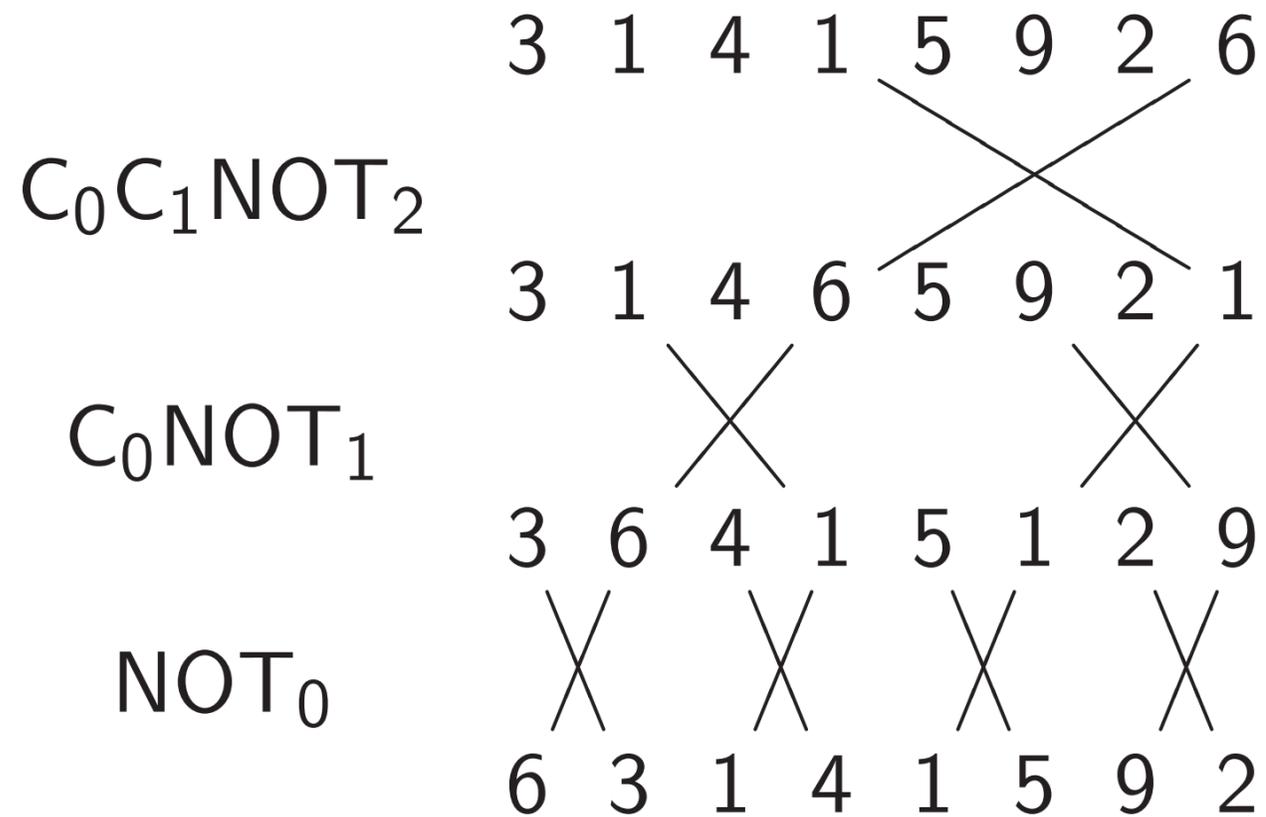
$$[a, b] \mapsto [a + b, a - b].$$



More shuffling

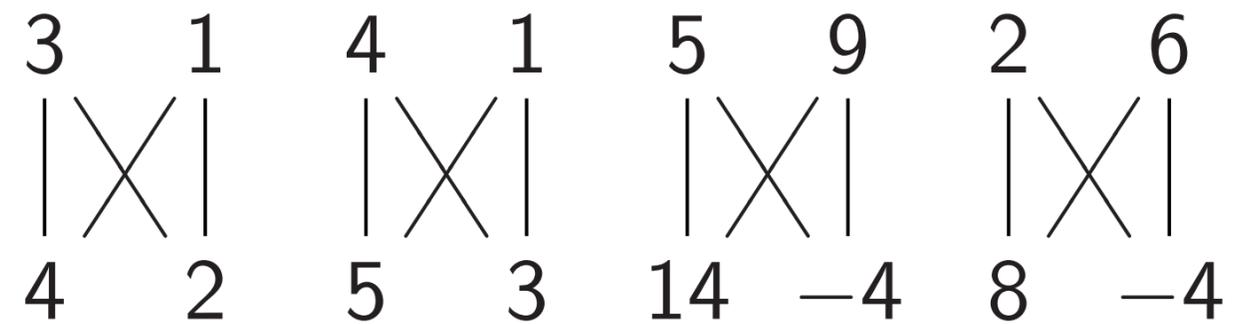
Combine NOT, CNOT, Toffoli to build other permutations.

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

Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀:

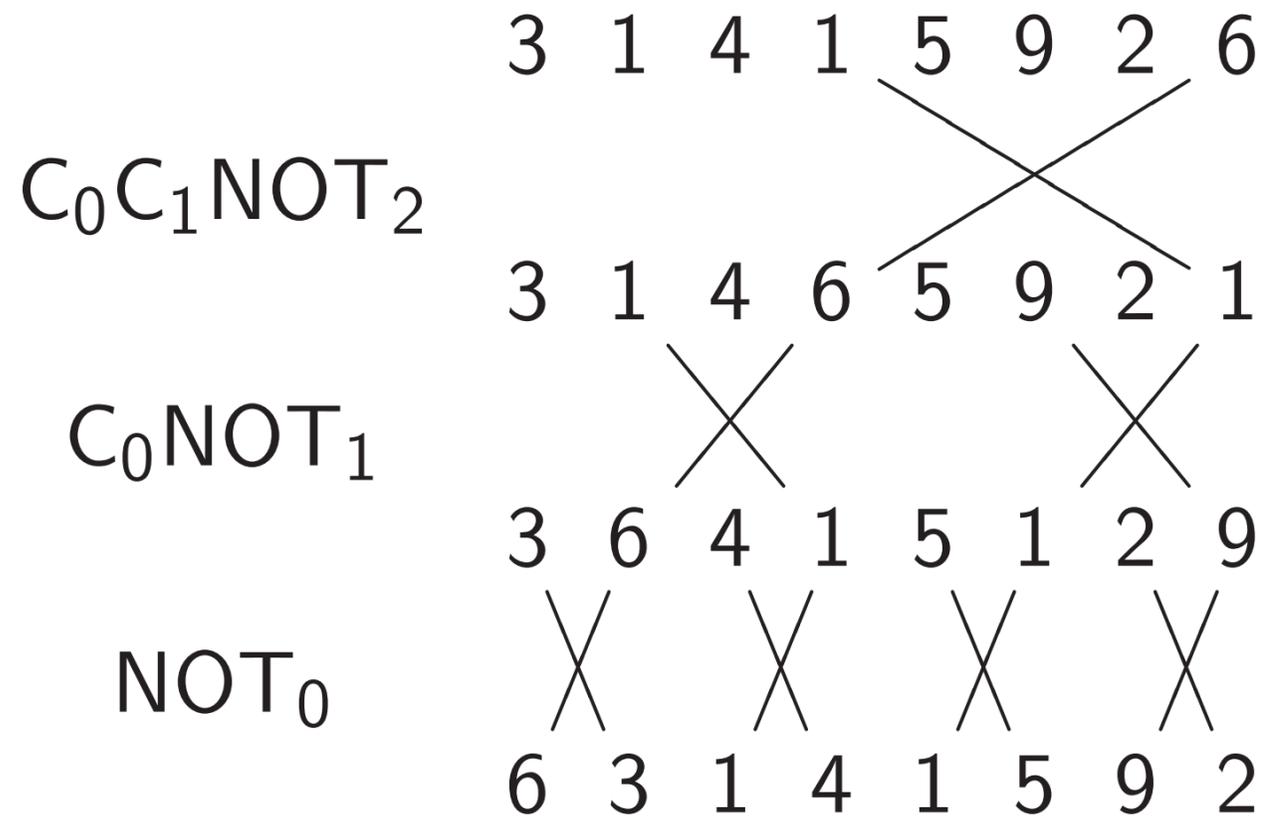
$$[a, b] \mapsto [a + b, a - b].$$



More shuffling

Combine NOT, CNOT, Toffoli to build other permutations.

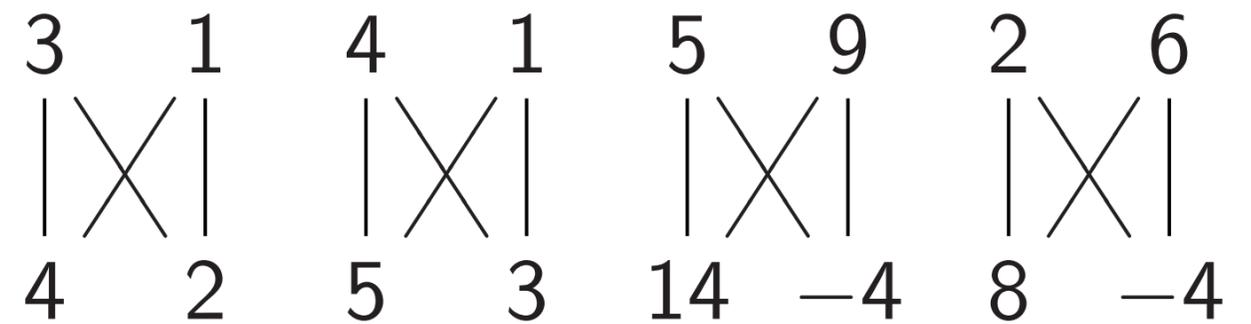
e.g. series of gates to rotate 8 positions by distance 1:



Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀:

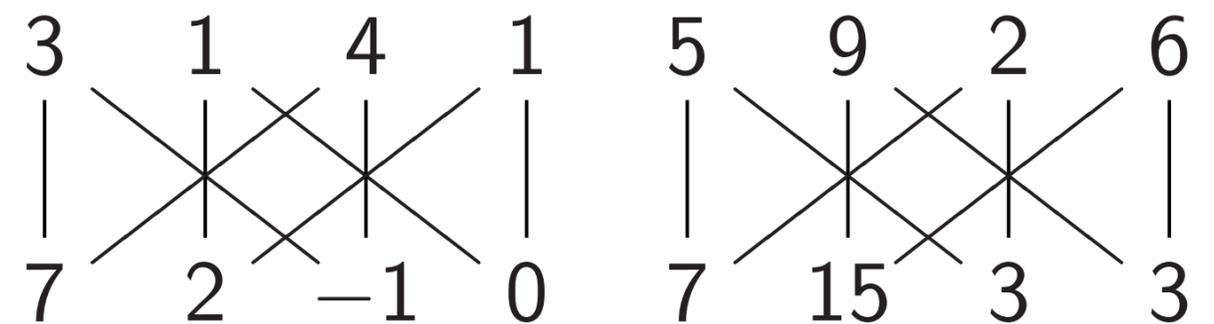
$$[a, b] \mapsto [a + b, a - b].$$



Hadamard₁:

$$[a, b, c, d] \mapsto$$

$$[a + c, b + d, a - c, b - d].$$



uffling

the NOT, CNOT, Toffoli
other permutations.

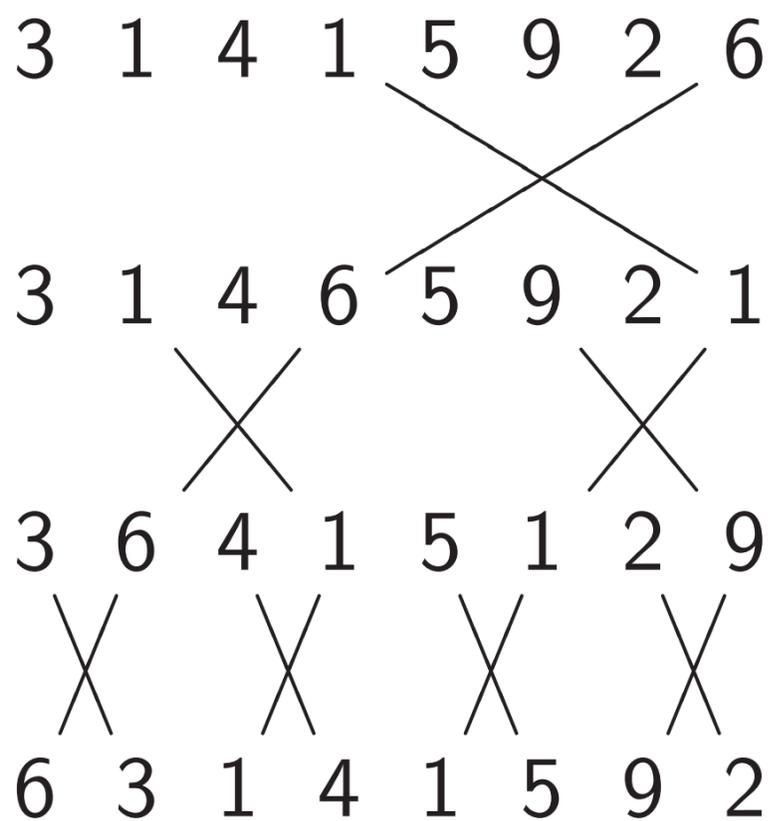
es of gates to

positions by distance 1:

OT₂

T₁

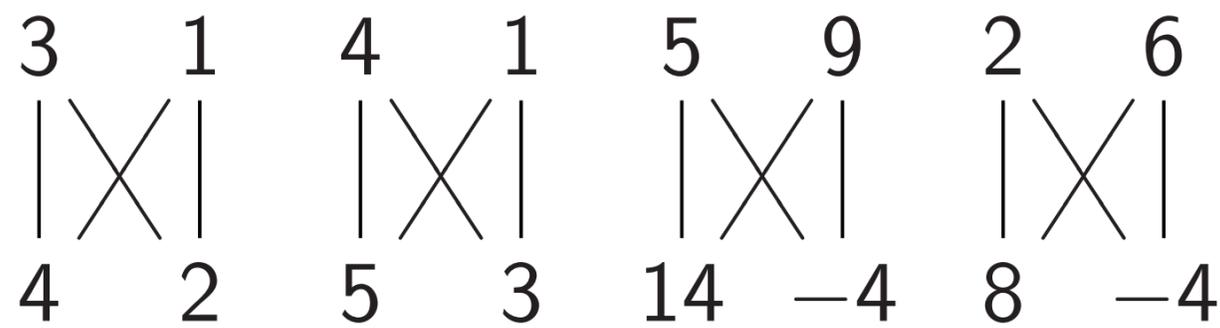
0



Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀:

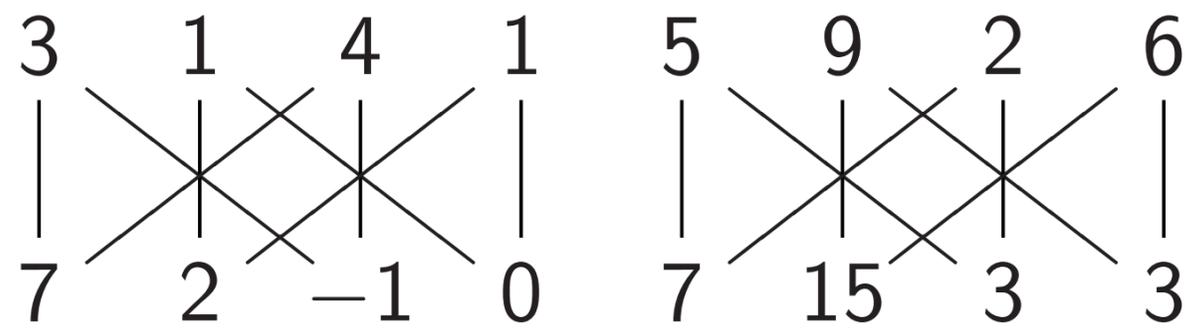
$$[a, b] \mapsto [a + b, a - b].$$



Hadamard₁:

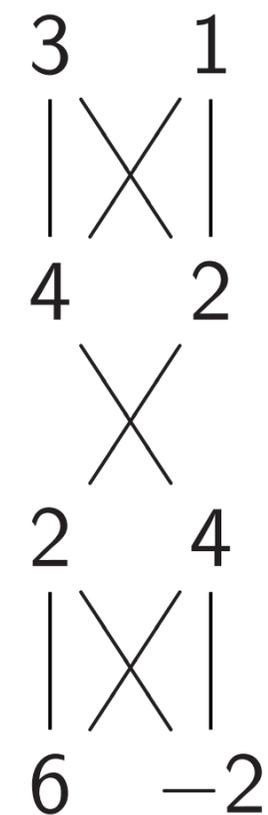
$$[a, b, c, d] \mapsto$$

$$[a + c, b + d, a - c, b - d].$$



Some us

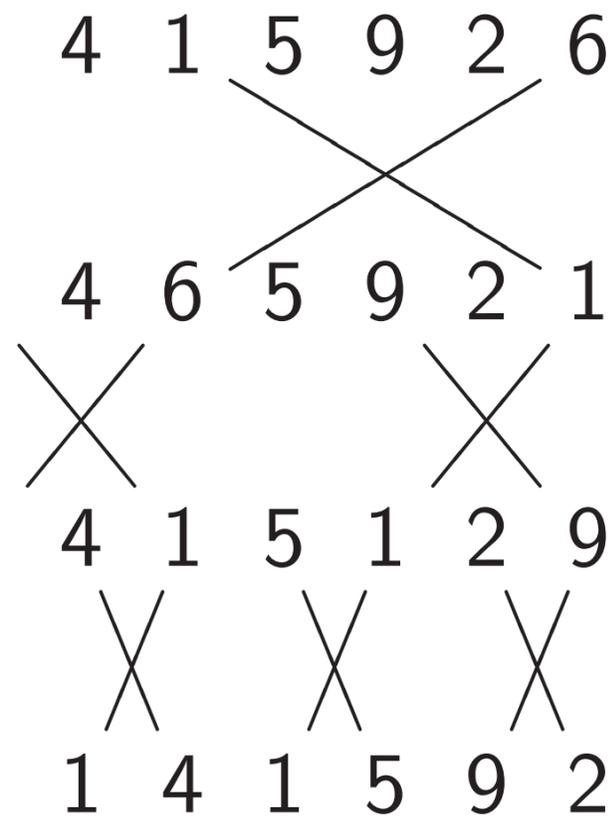
Hadama



NOT, Toffoli
 permutations.

s to

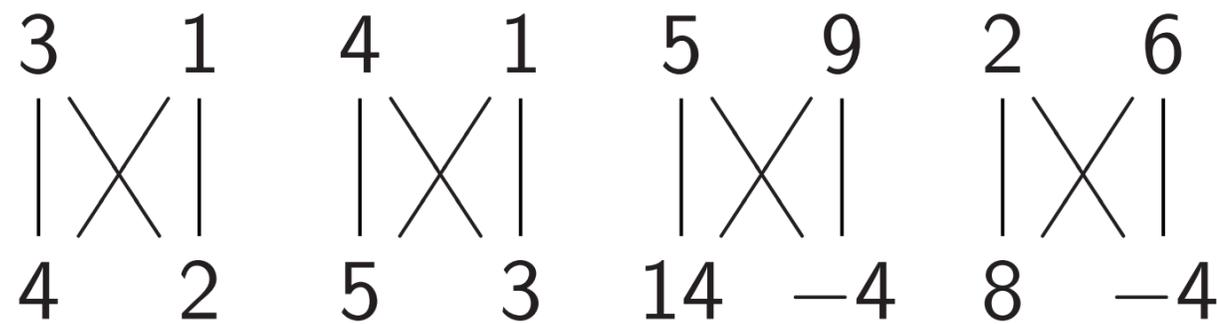
by distance 1:



Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀:

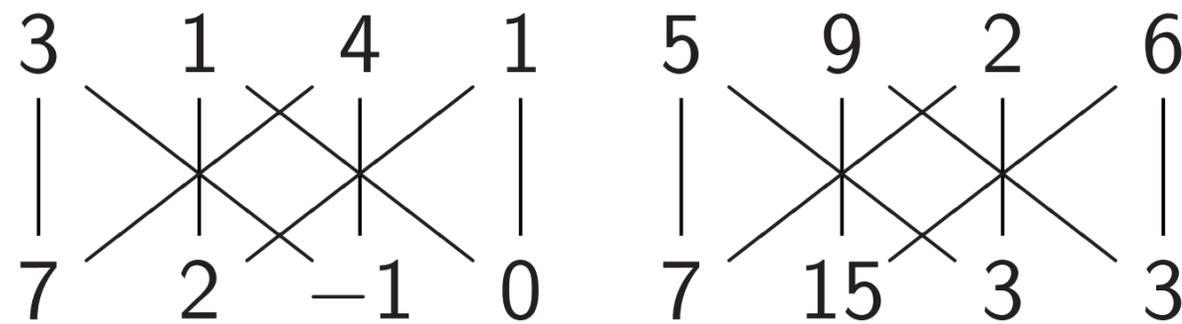
$$[a, b] \mapsto [a + b, a - b].$$



Hadamard₁:

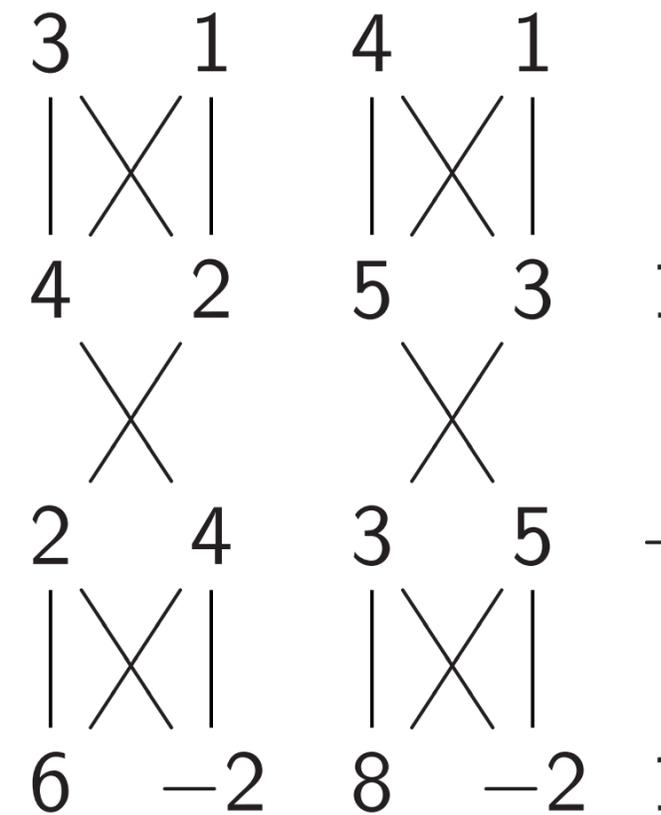
$$[a, b, c, d] \mapsto$$

$$[a + c, b + d, a - c, b - d].$$



Some uses of Had

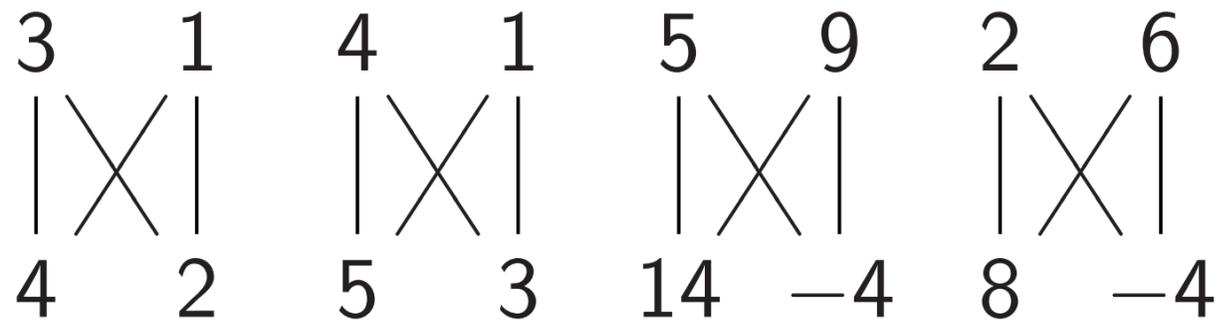
Hadamard₀, NOT



Hadamard gates

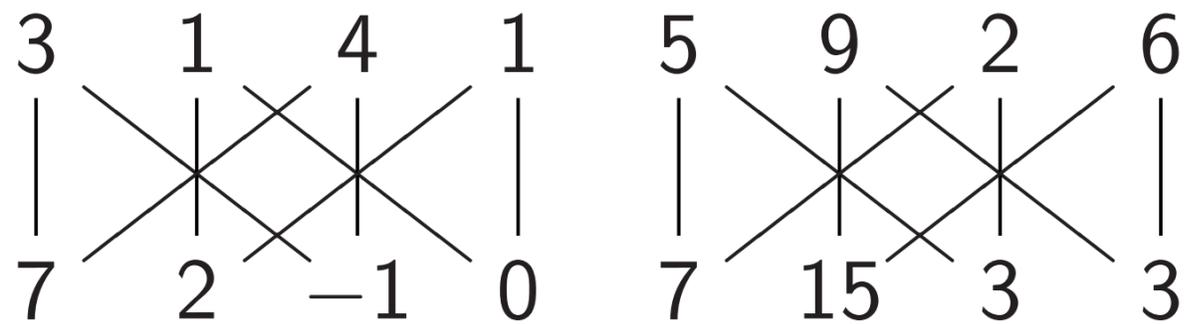
Hadamard₀:

$$[a, b] \mapsto [a + b, a - b].$$



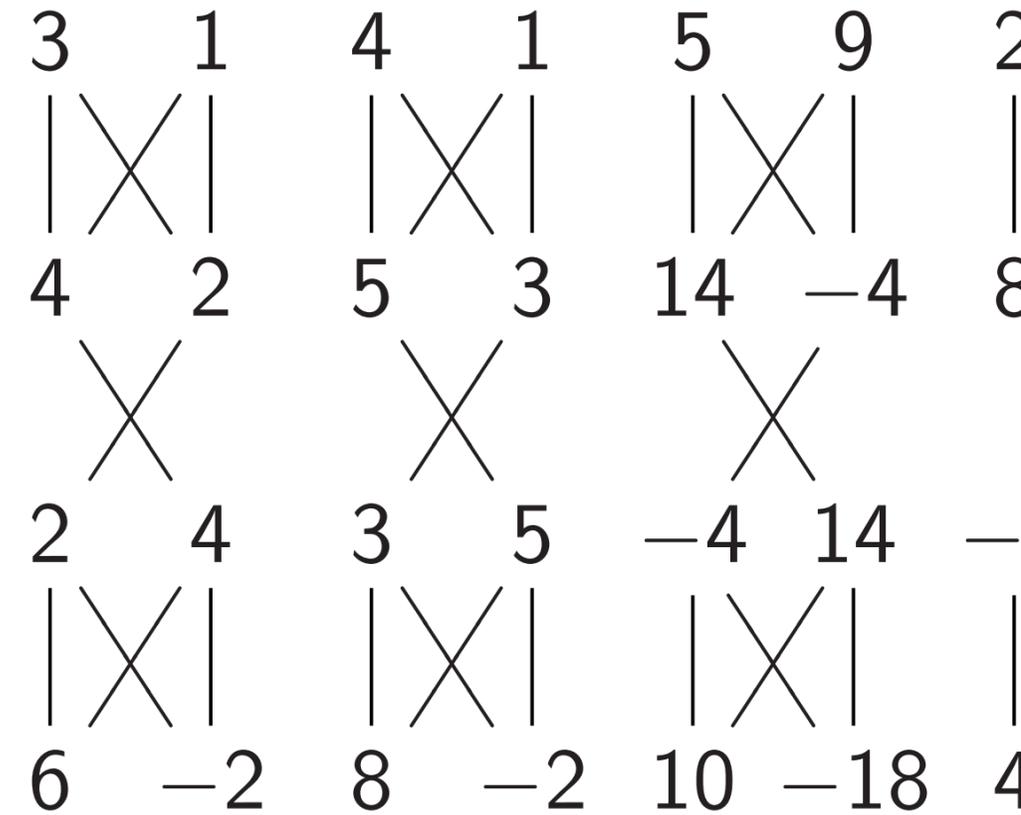
Hadamard₁:

$$[a, b, c, d] \mapsto [a + c, b + d, a - c, b - d].$$



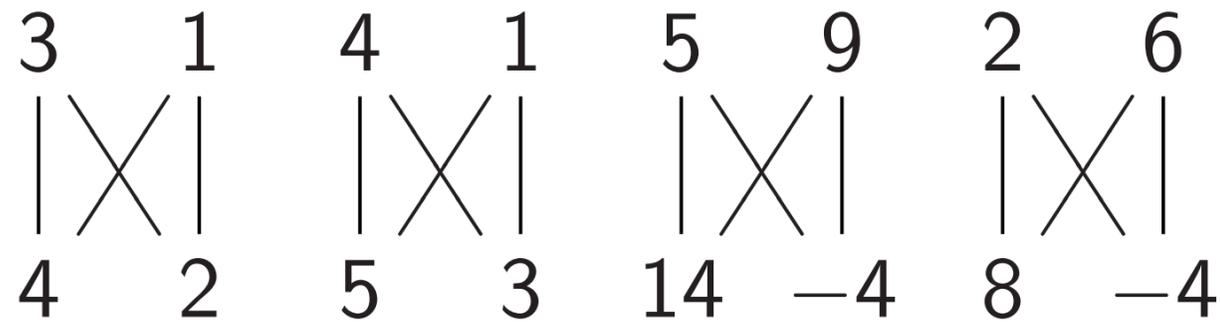
Some uses of Hadamard gate

Hadamard₀, NOT₀, Hadamard₀



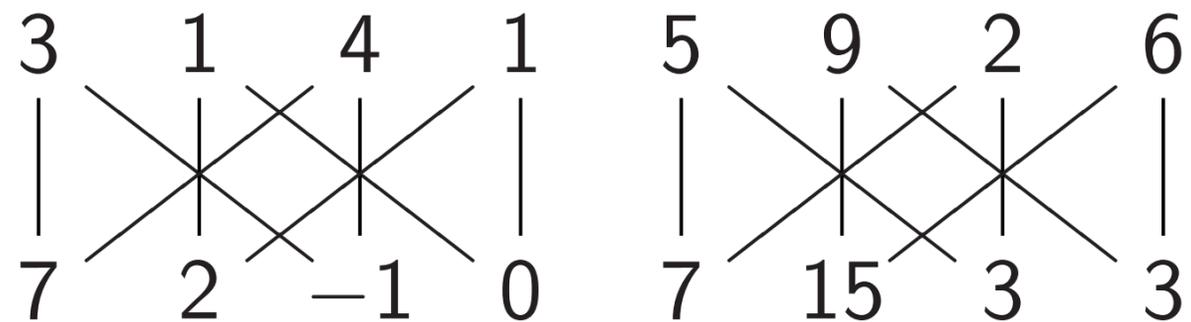
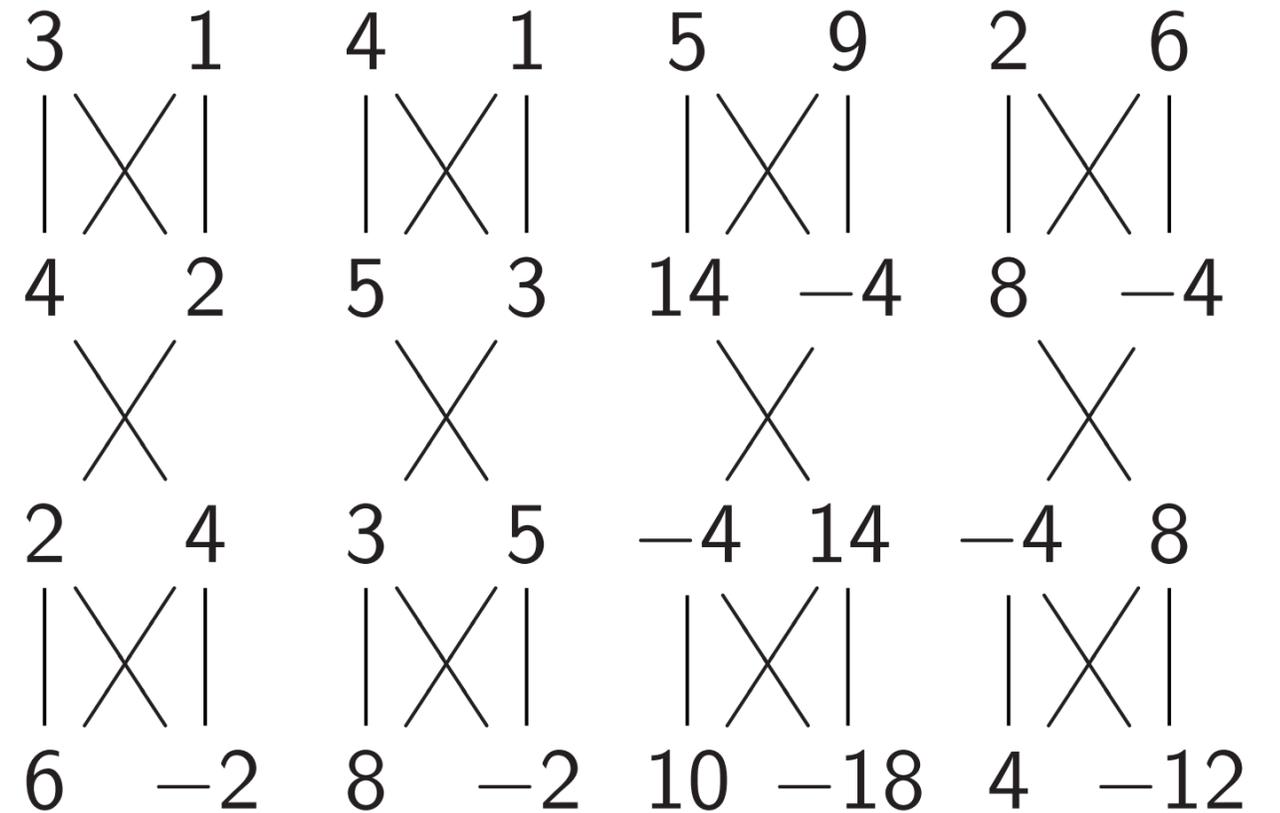
Hadamard gatesHadamard₀:

$$[a, b] \mapsto [a + b, a - b].$$

Hadamard₁:

$$[a, b, c, d] \mapsto$$

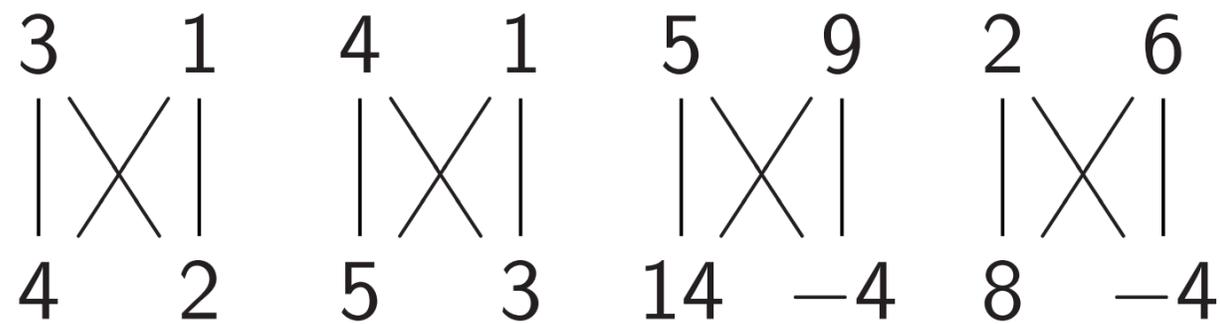
$$[a + c, b + d, a - c, b - d].$$

Some uses of Hadamard gatesHadamard₀, NOT₀, Hadamard₀:

Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀:

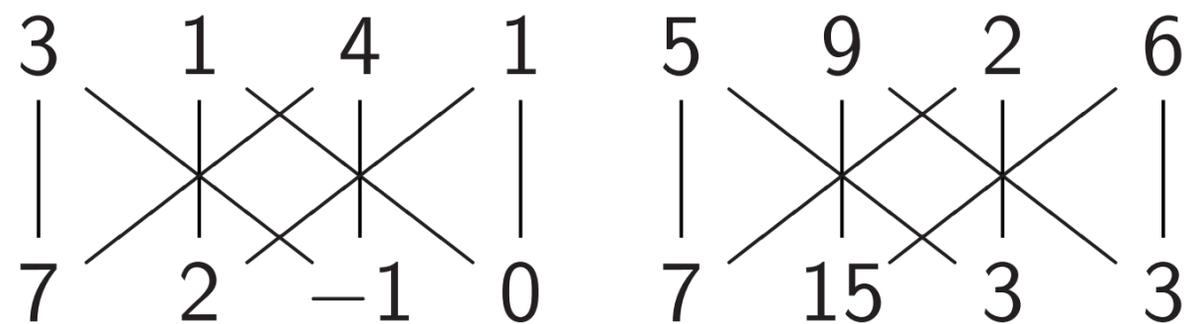
$$[a, b] \mapsto [a + b, a - b].$$



Hadamard₁:

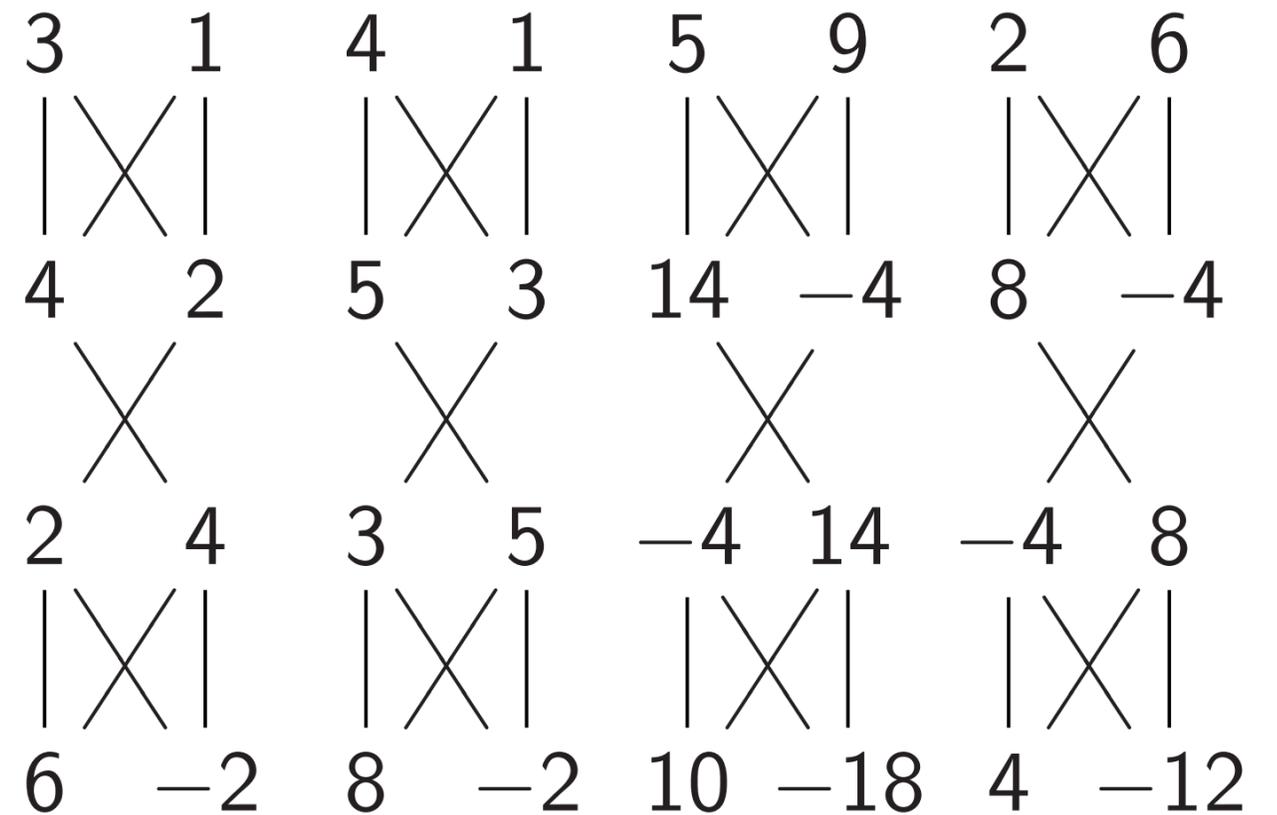
$$[a, b, c, d] \mapsto$$

$$[a + c, b + d, a - c, b - d].$$



Some uses of Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀, NOT₀, Hadamard₀:

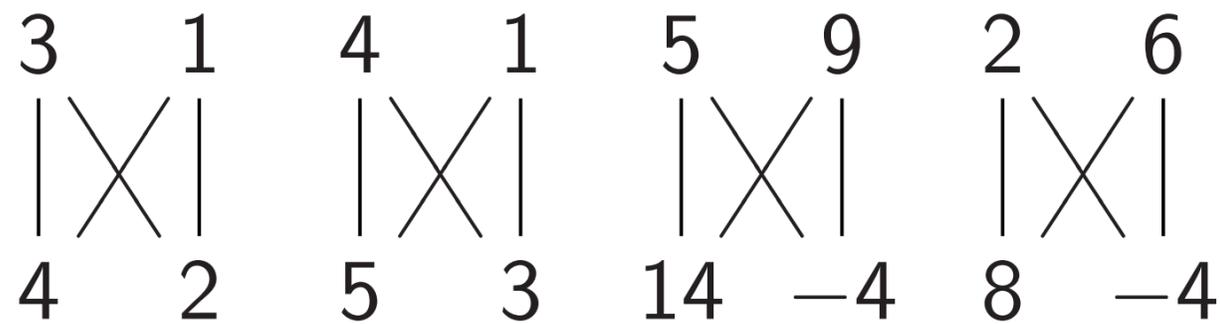


“Multiplied each amplitude by 2.”
This is not physically observable.

Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀:

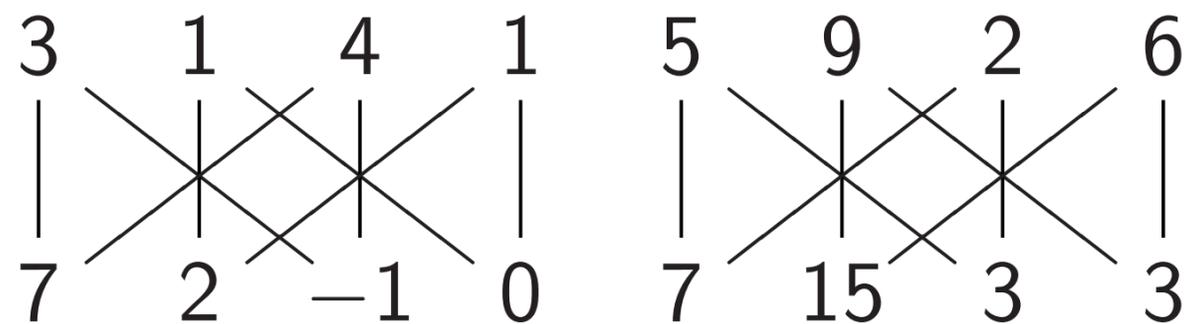
$$[a, b] \mapsto [a + b, a - b].$$



Hadamard₁:

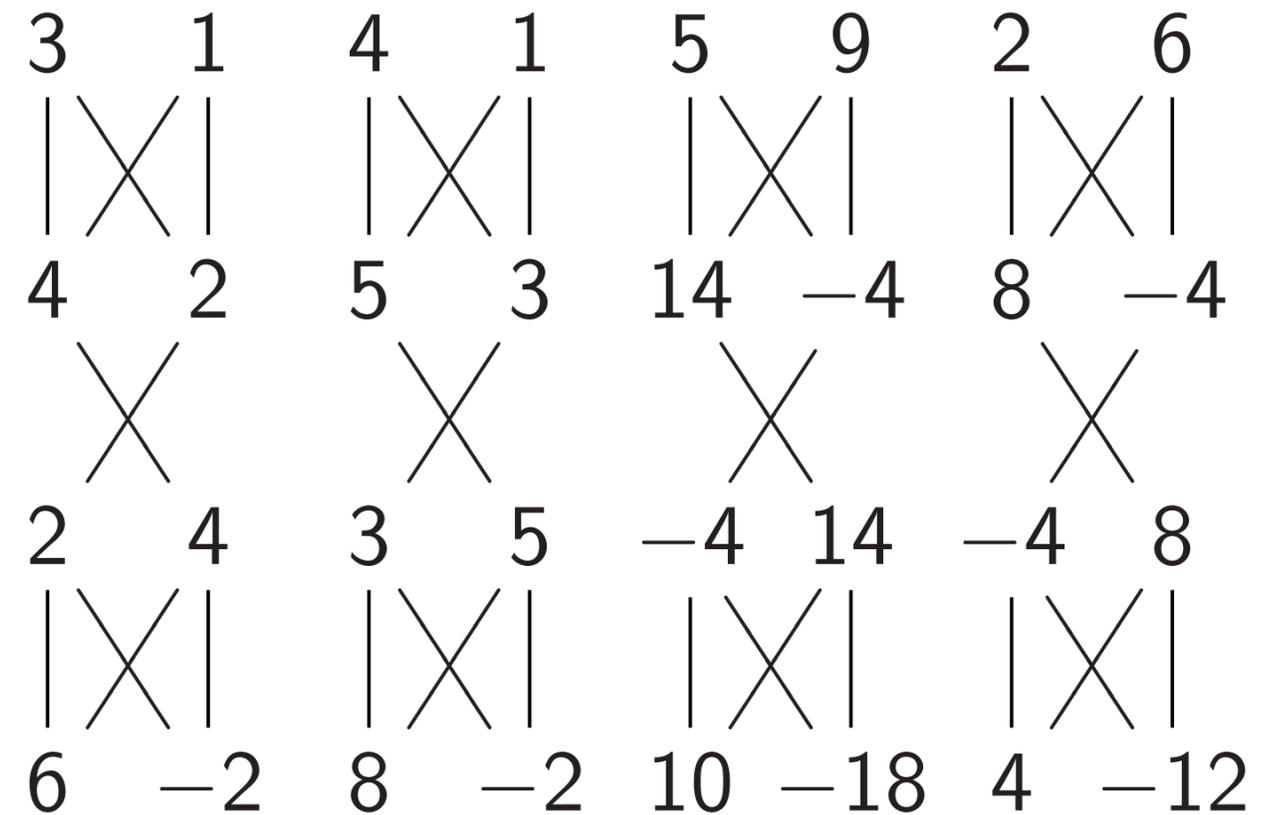
$$[a, b, c, d] \mapsto$$

$$[a + c, b + d, a - c, b - d].$$



Some uses of Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀, NOT₀, Hadamard₀:



“Multiplied each amplitude by 2.”

This is not physically observable.

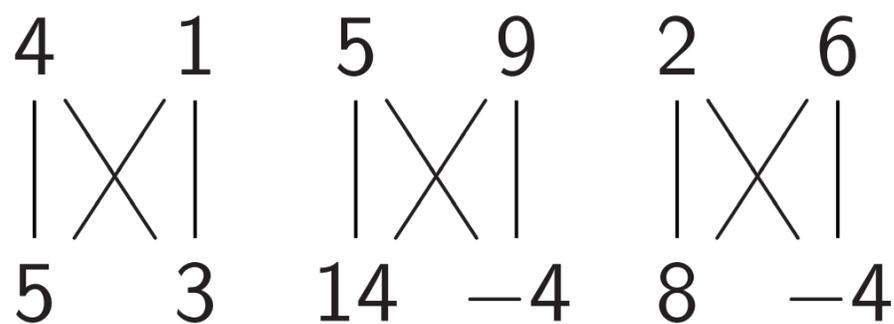
“Negated amplitude if q_0 is set.”

No effect on measuring *now*.

rd gates

rd₀:

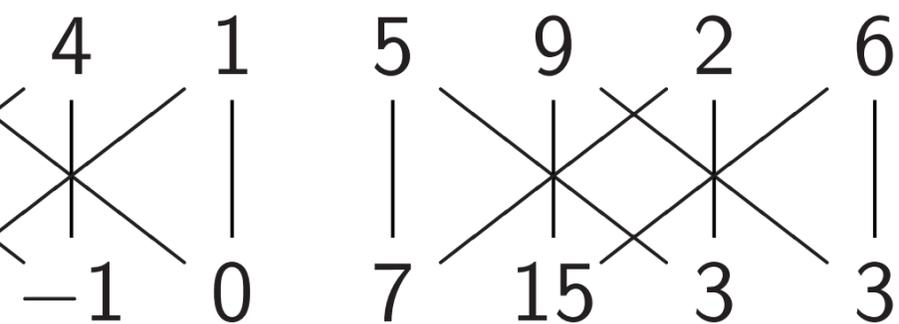
$[a + b, a - b].$



rd₁:

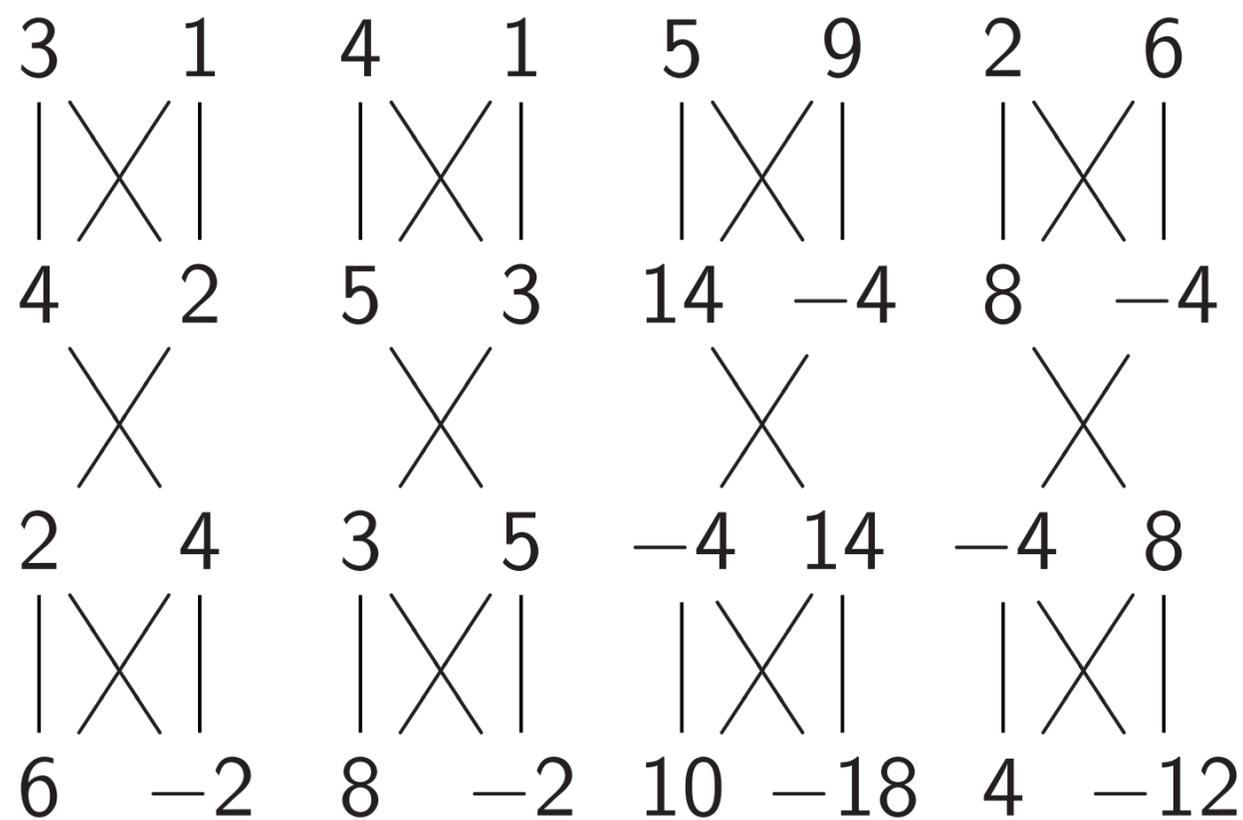
$d] \mapsto$

$[a + d, a - c, b - d].$



Some uses of Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀, NOT₀, Hadamard₀:



“Multiplied each amplitude by 2.”

This is not physically observable.

“Negated amplitude if q_0 is set.”

No effect on measuring *now*.

Fancier

“Negate

Assumes

C_0C_1NO

Hadama

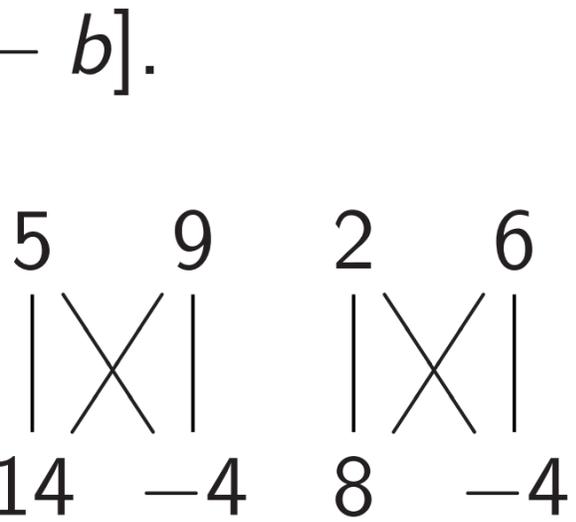
NOT

Hadama

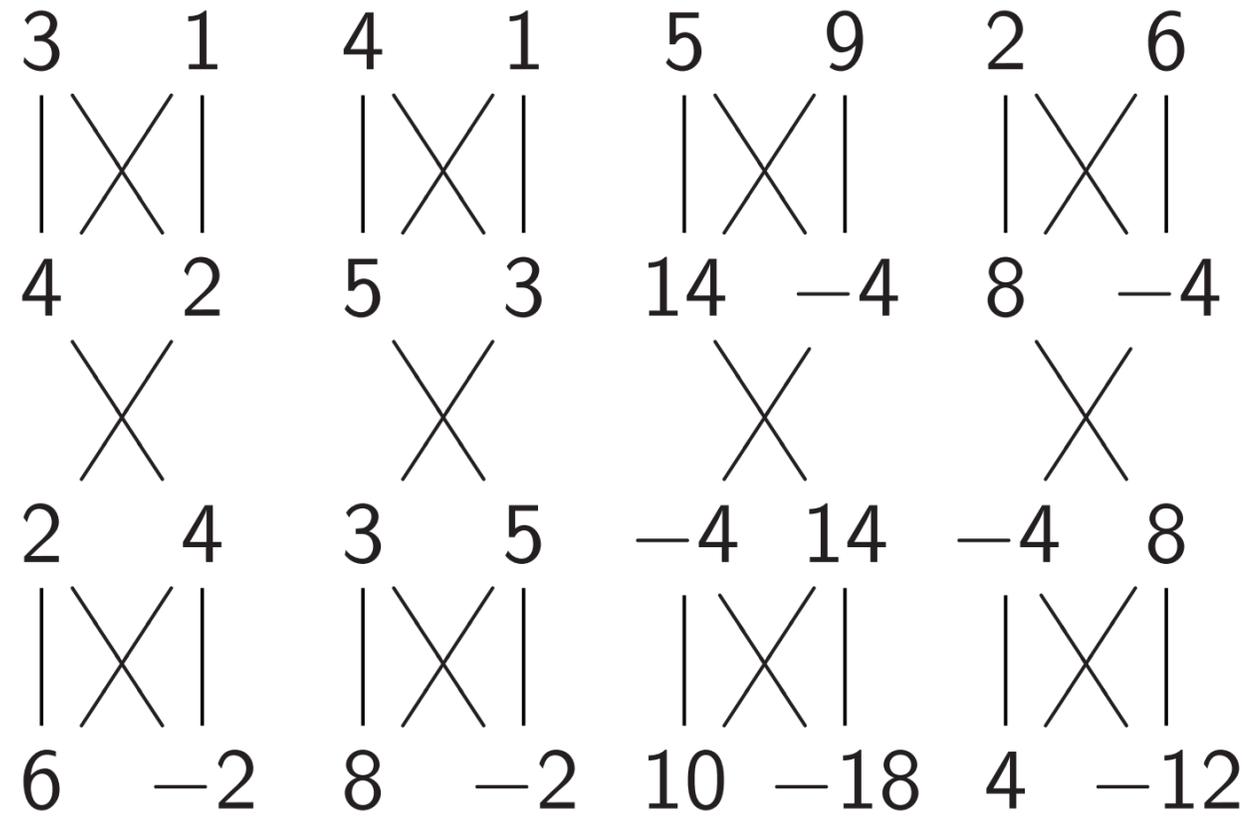
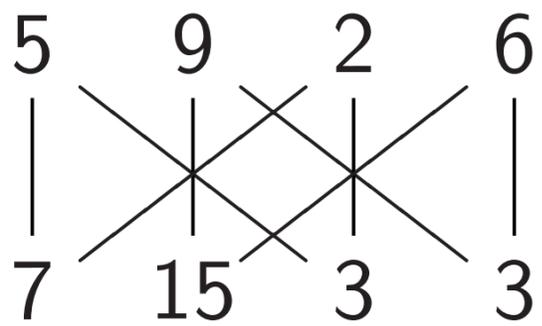
C_0C_1NO

Some uses of Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀, NOT₀, Hadamard₀:



$c, b - d]$.



“Multiplied each amplitude by 2.”

This is not physically observable.

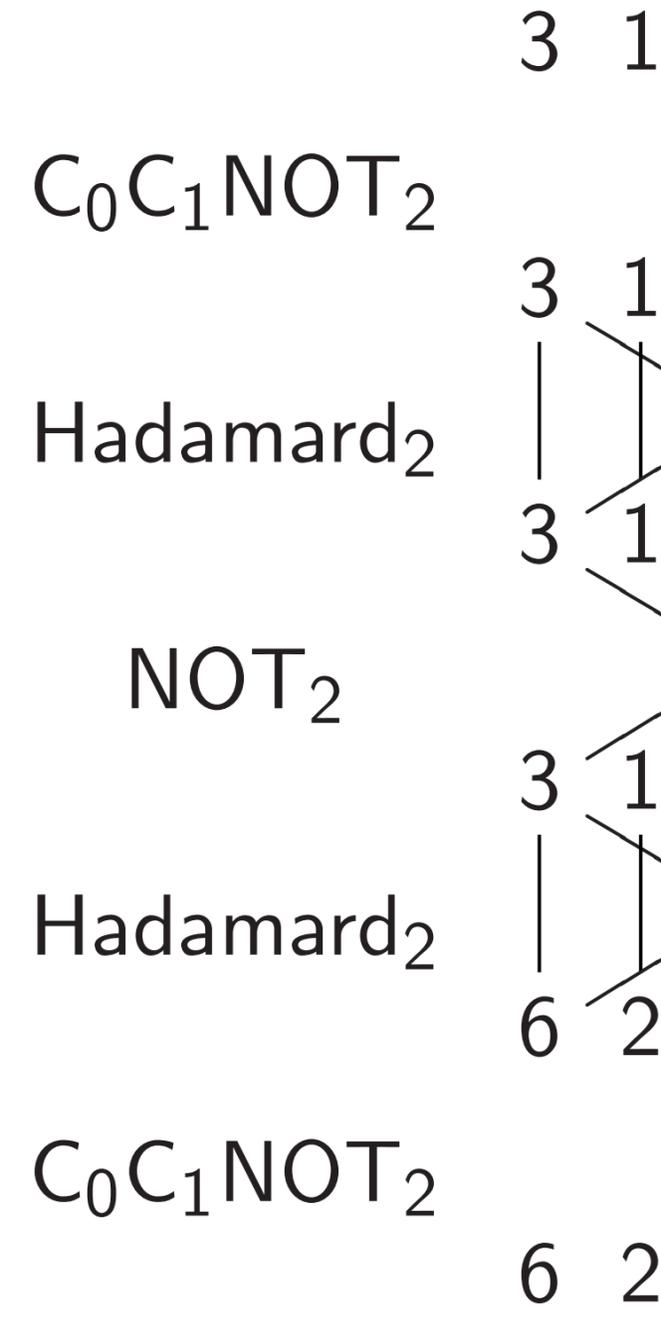
“Negated amplitude if q_0 is set.”

No effect on measuring *now*.

Fancier example:

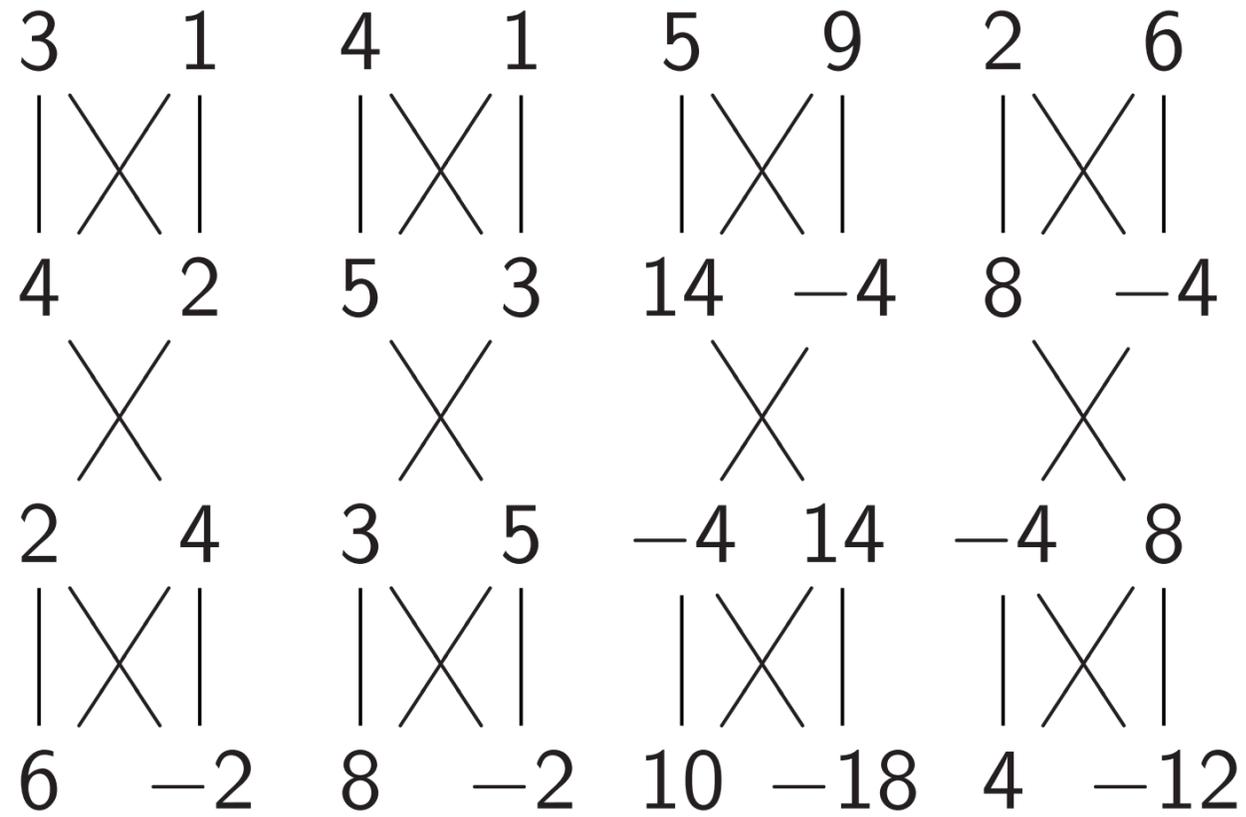
“Negate amplitude

Assumes $q_2 = 0$:



Some uses of Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀, NOT₀, Hadamard₀:

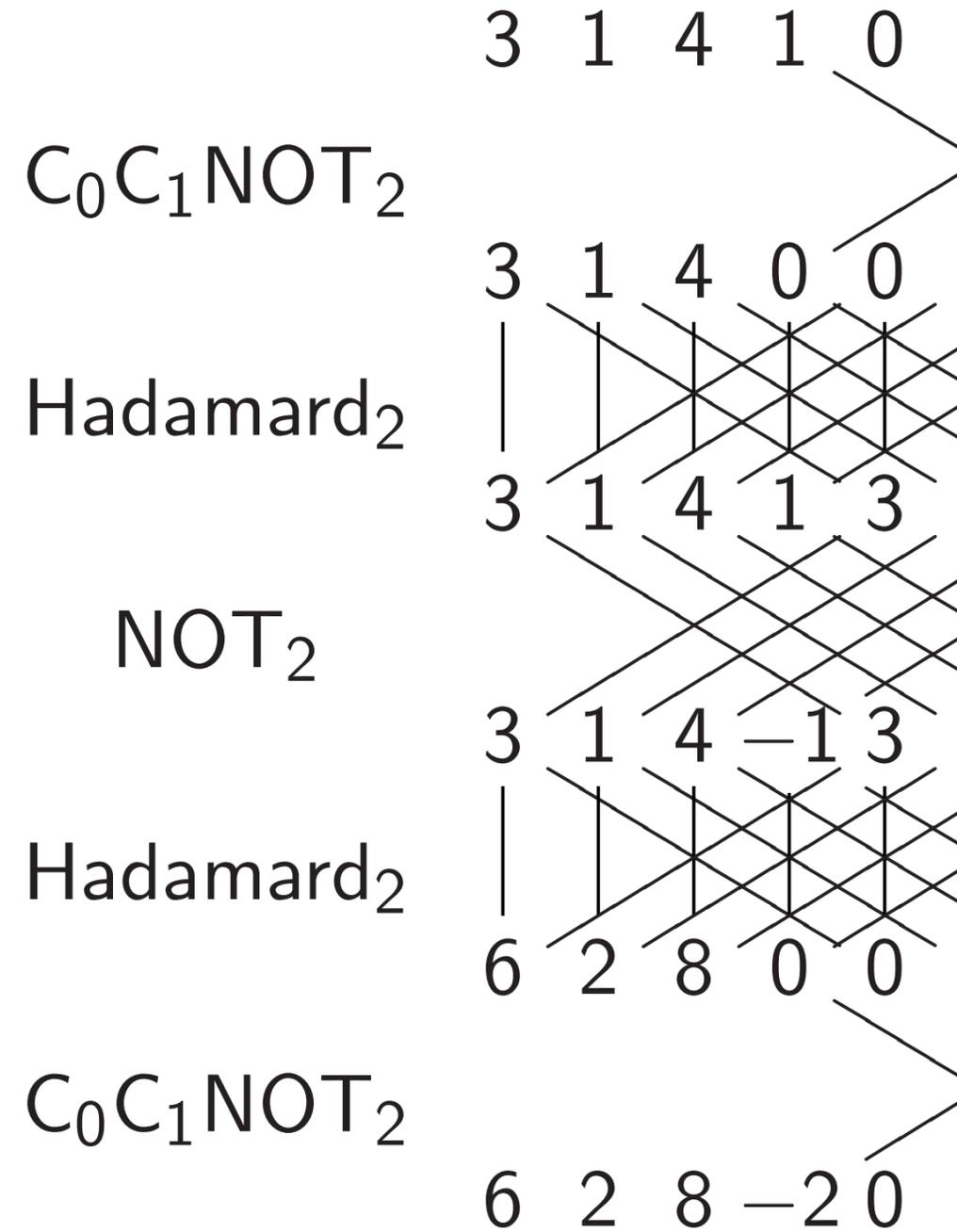


“Multiplied each amplitude by 2.”
This is not physically observable.

“Negated amplitude if q_0 is set.”
No effect on measuring *now*.

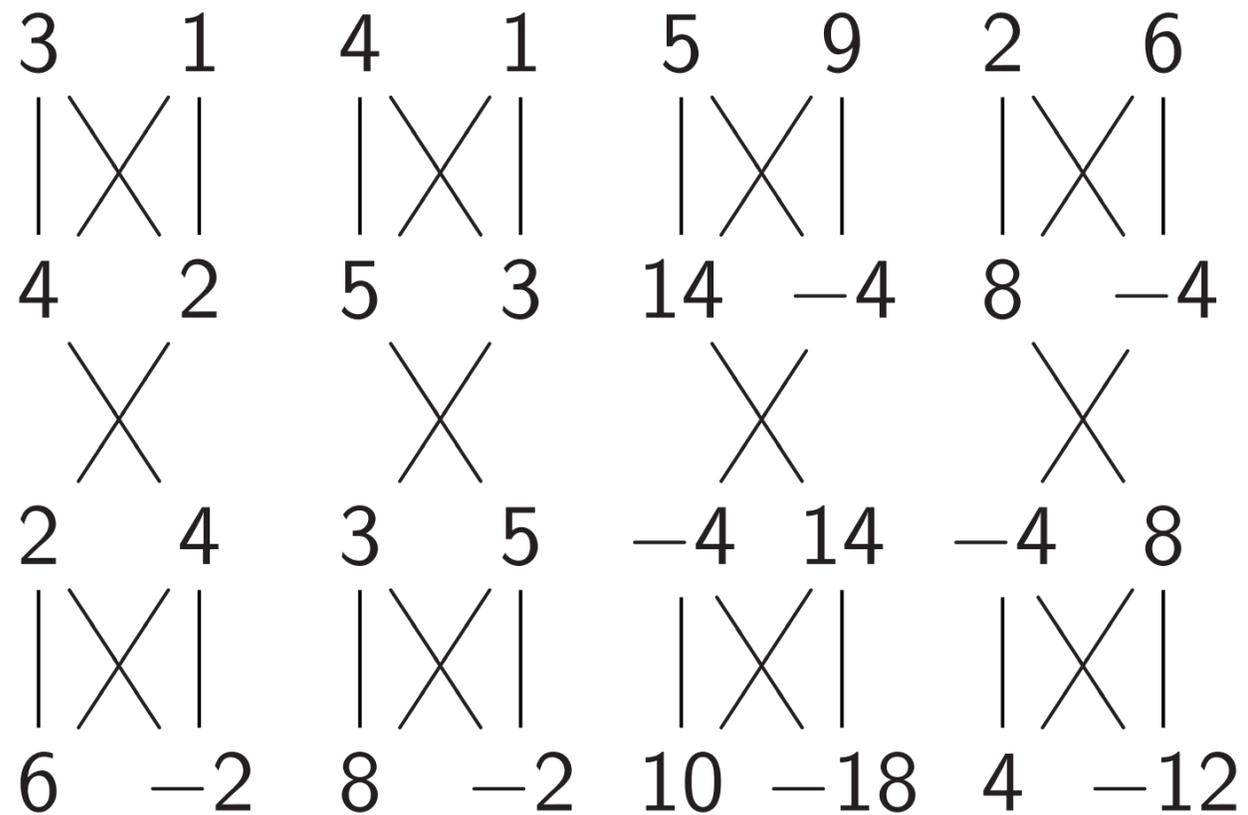
Fancier example:

“Negate amplitude if $q_0 q_1$ is set.”
Assumes $q_2 = 0$: “ancilla”



Some uses of Hadamard gates

Hadamard₀, NOT₀, Hadamard₀:



“Multiplied each amplitude by 2.”

This is not physically observable.

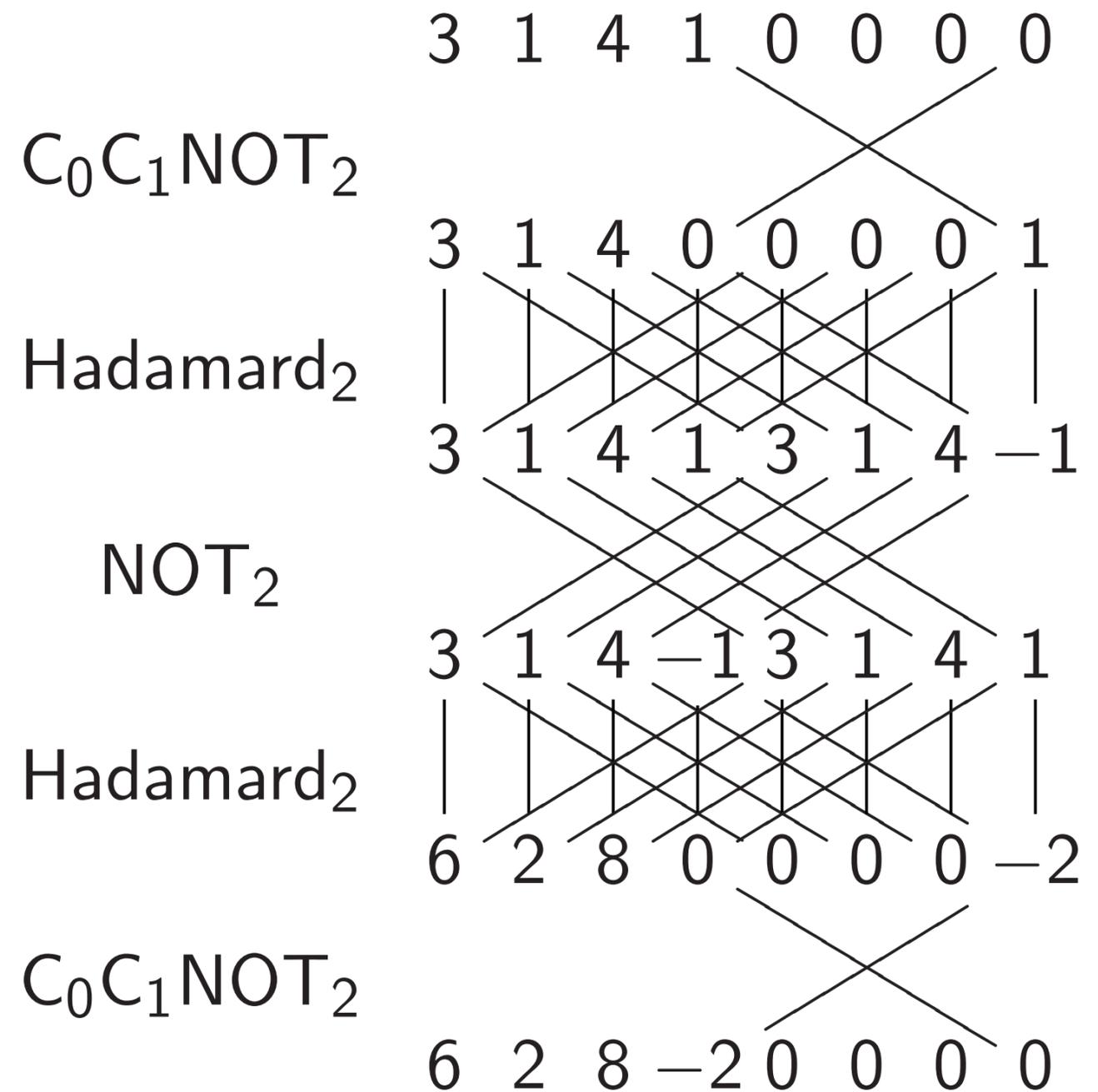
“Negated amplitude if q_0 is set.”

No effect on measuring *now*.

Fancier example:

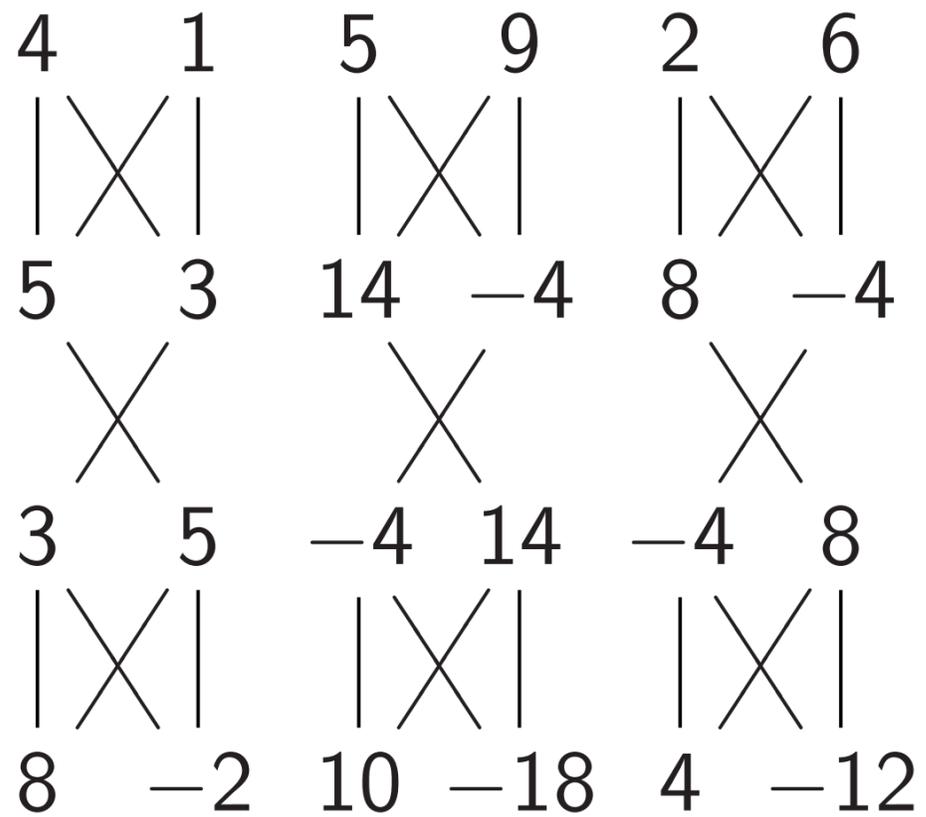
“Negate amplitude if q_0q_1 is set.”

Assumes $q_2 = 0$: “ancilla” qubit.



Uses of Hadamard gates

NOT_0 , NOT_1 , Hadamard_0 :



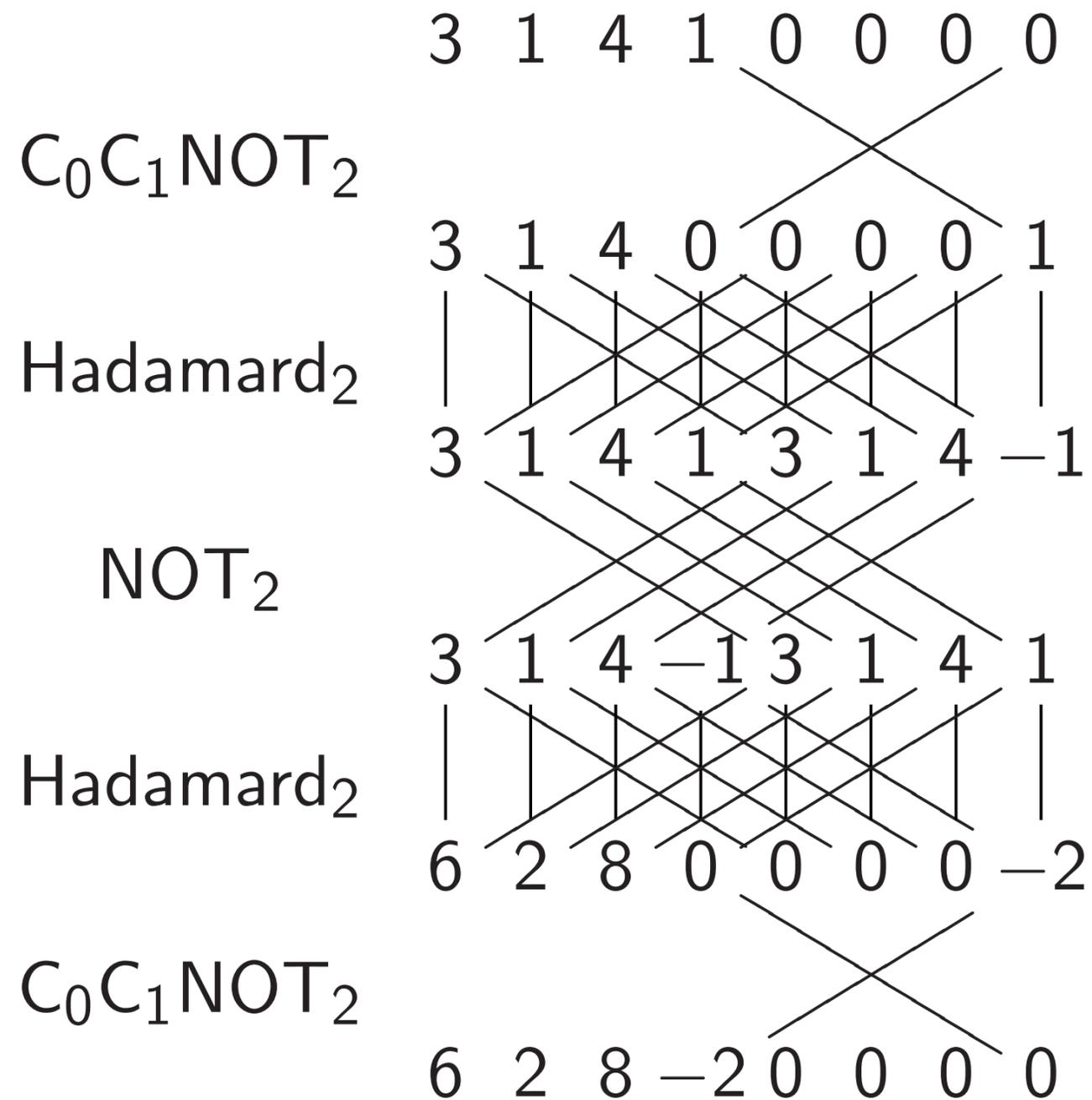
“Negate each amplitude by 2.”
 “Not physically observable.”

“Negate amplitude if q_0 is set.”
 “Not on measuring *now*.”

Fancier example:

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

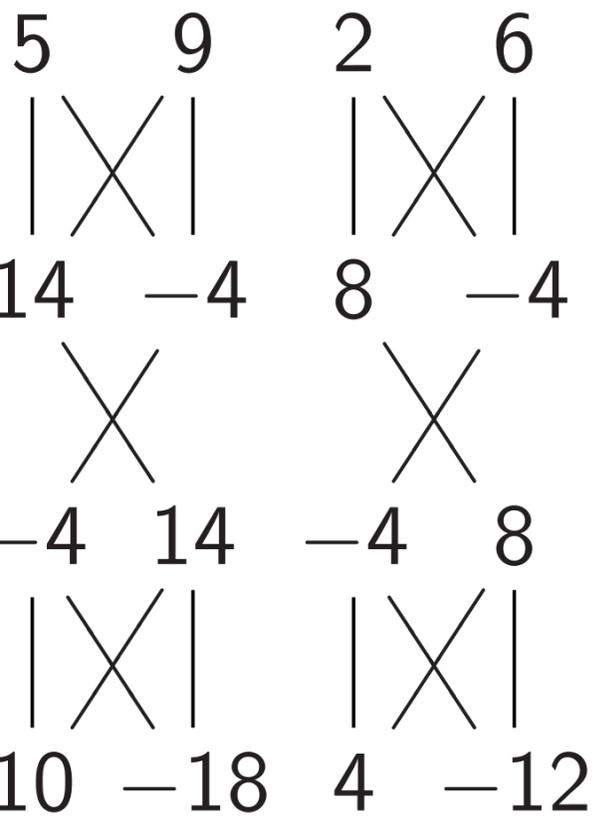
Assumes $q_2 = 0$: “ancilla” qubit.



Affects
 amplitude
 $[3, 1, 4, 1]$

Hadamard gates

C_0 , Hadamard₀:



“Amplitude by 2.”

“Locally observable.”

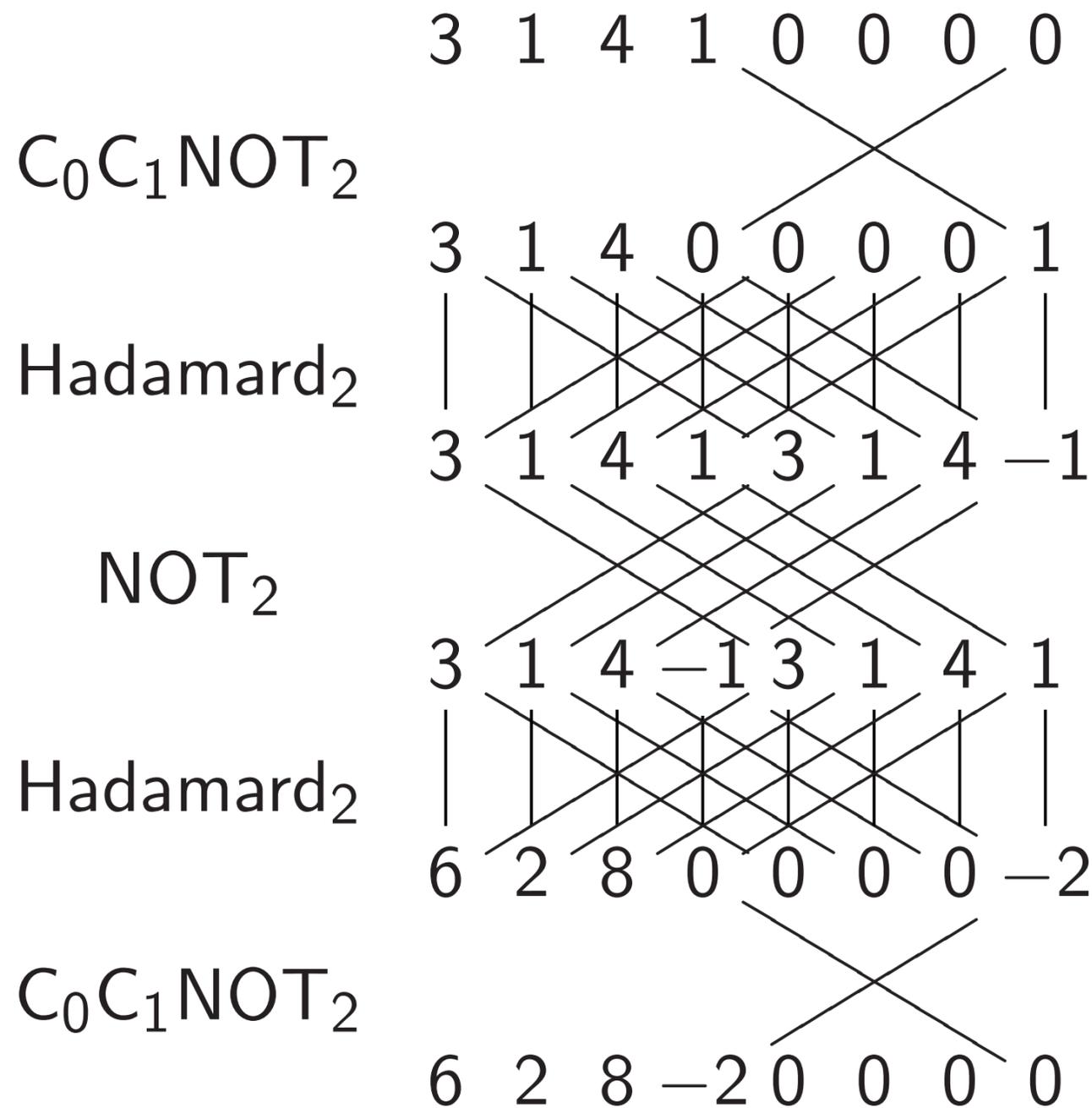
“Negate if q_0 is set.”

“Measuring *now*.”

Fancier example:

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

Assumes $q_2 = 0$: “ancilla” qubit.



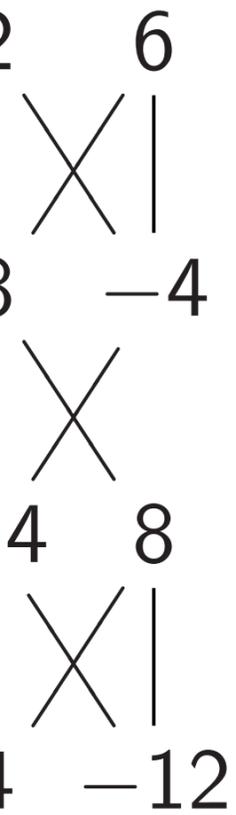
Affects measurement

amplitude around

$[3, 1, 4, 1] \mapsto [1.5, \dots]$

es

ard₀:



by 2."

able.

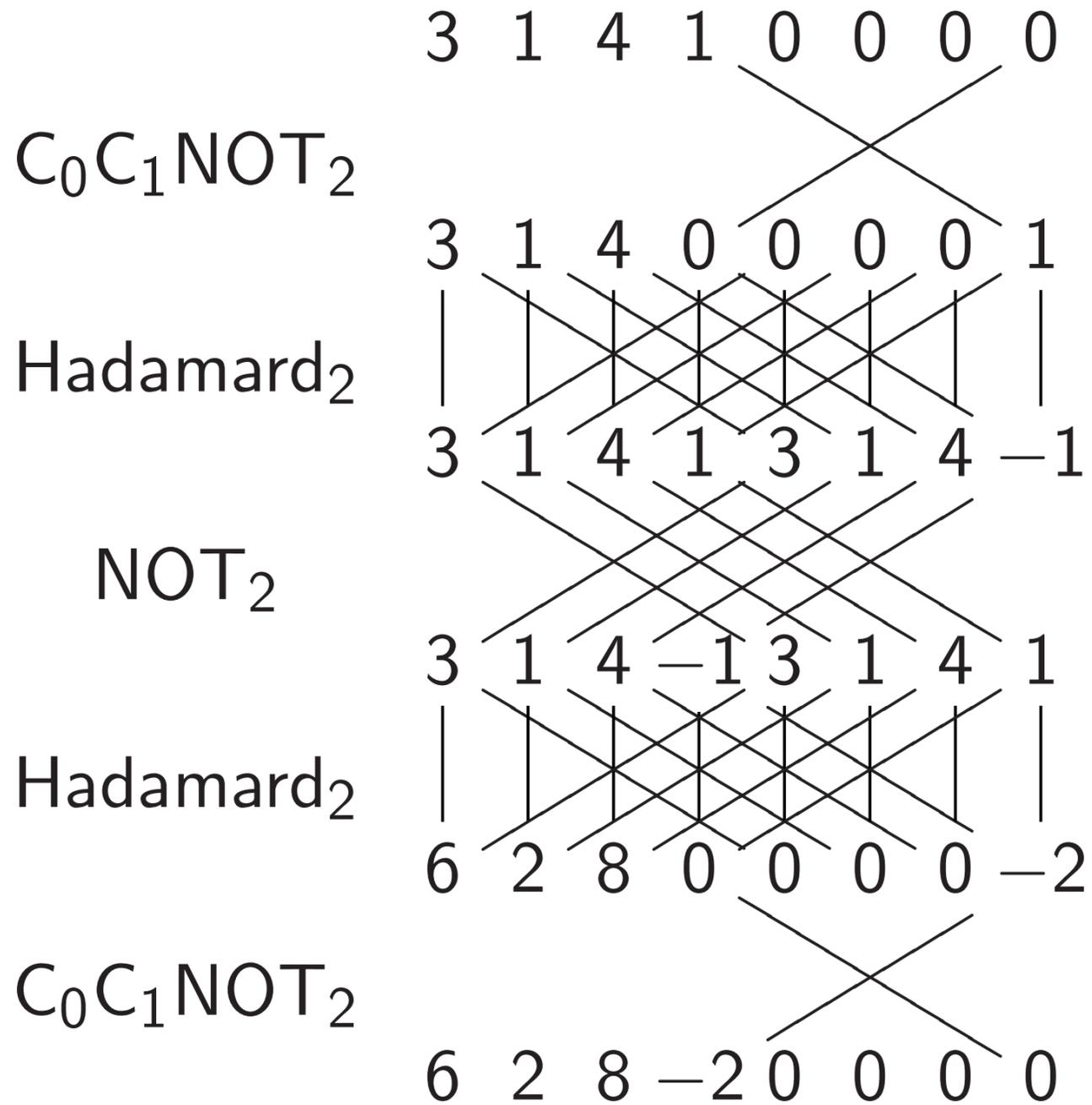
set."

.

Fancier example:

"Negate amplitude if q_0q_1 is set."

Assumes $q_2 = 0$: "ancilla" qubit.



Affects measurements: "Negate

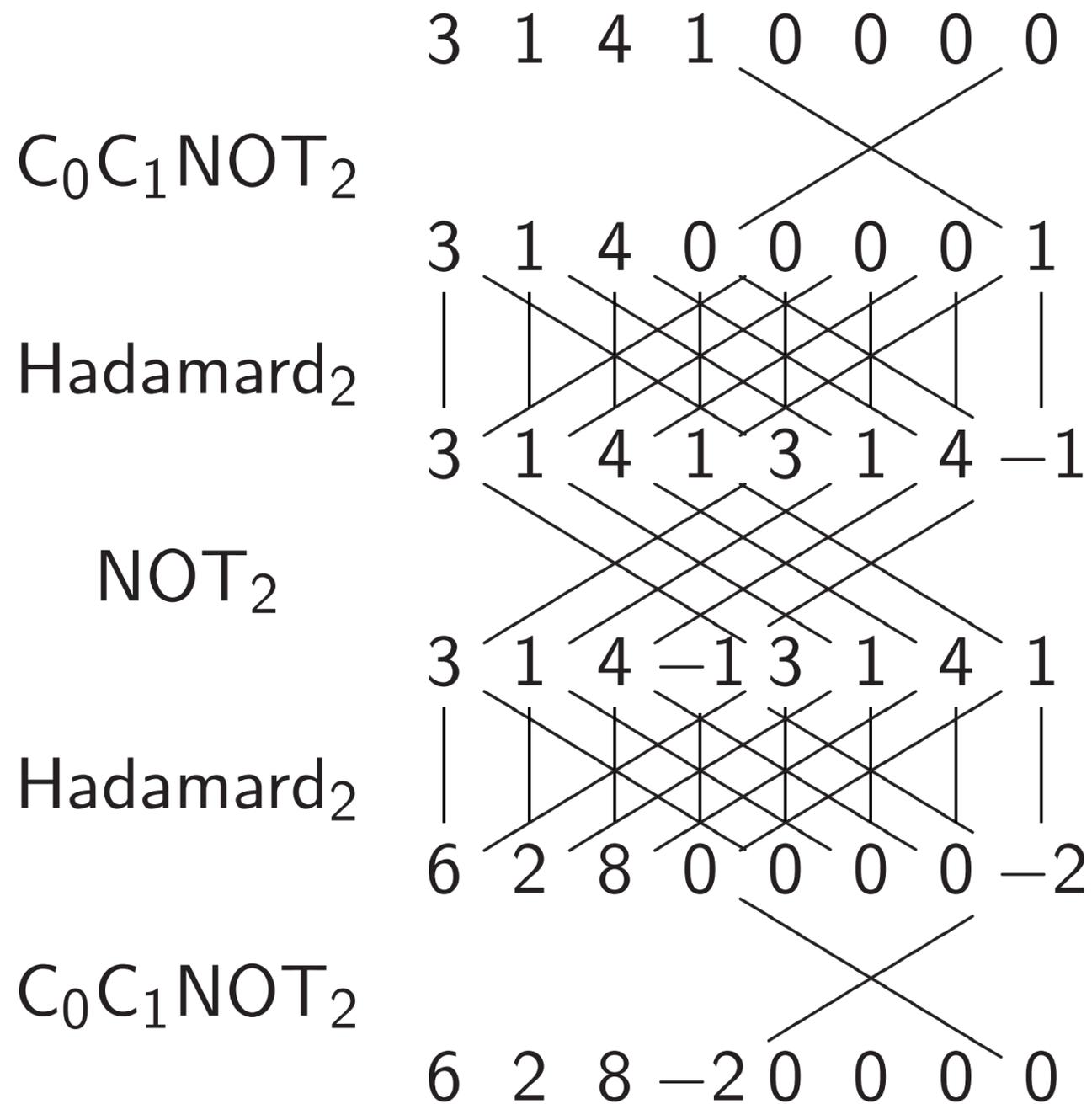
amplitude around its average

$[3, 1, 4, 1] \mapsto [1.5, 3.5, 0.5, 3.5]$

Fancier example:

“Negate amplitude if q_0q_1 is set.”

Assumes $q_2 = 0$: “ancilla” qubit.



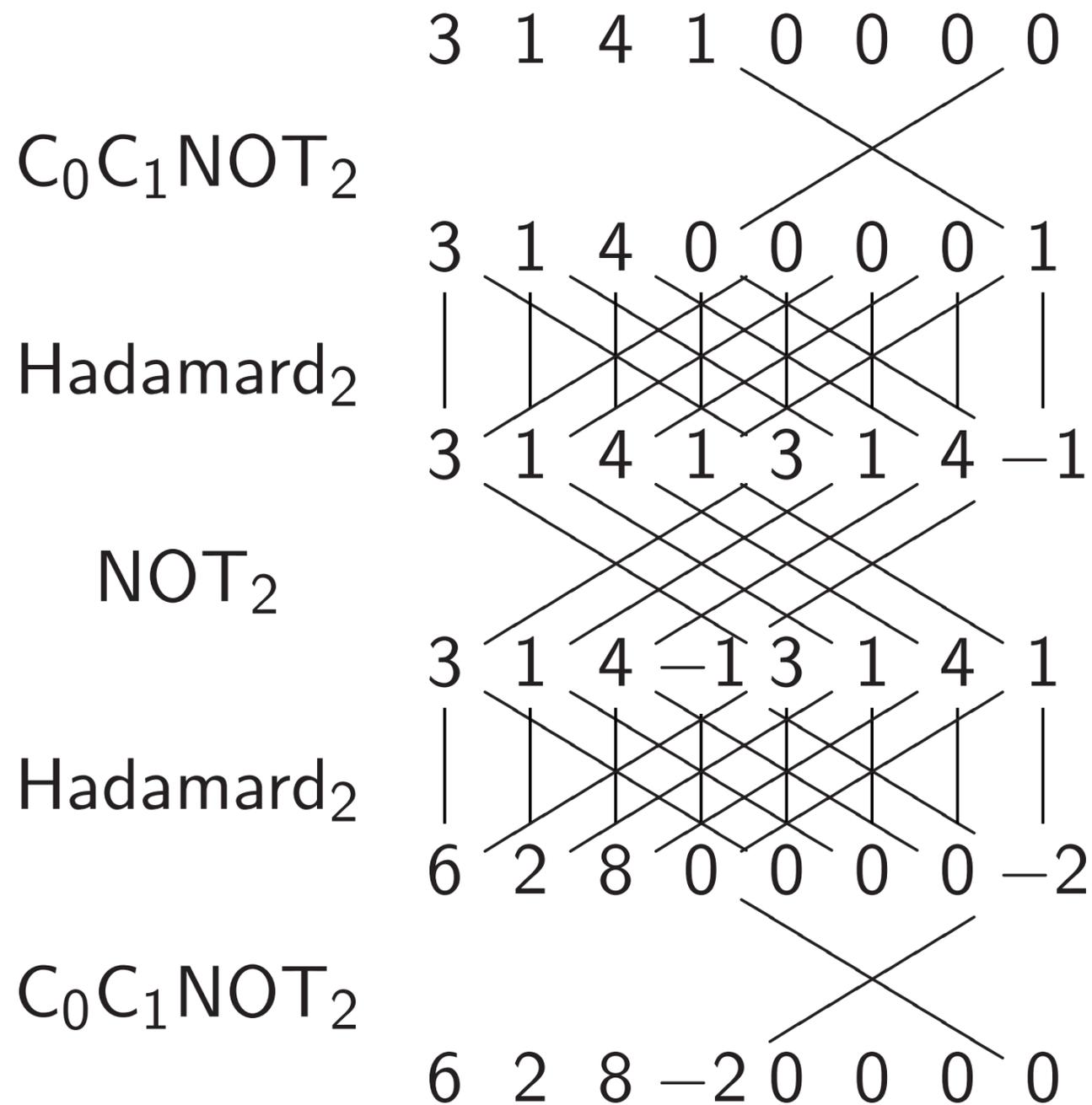
Affects measurements: “Negate amplitude around its average.”

$[3, 1, 4, 1] \mapsto [1.5, 3.5, 0.5, 3.5]$.

Fancier example:

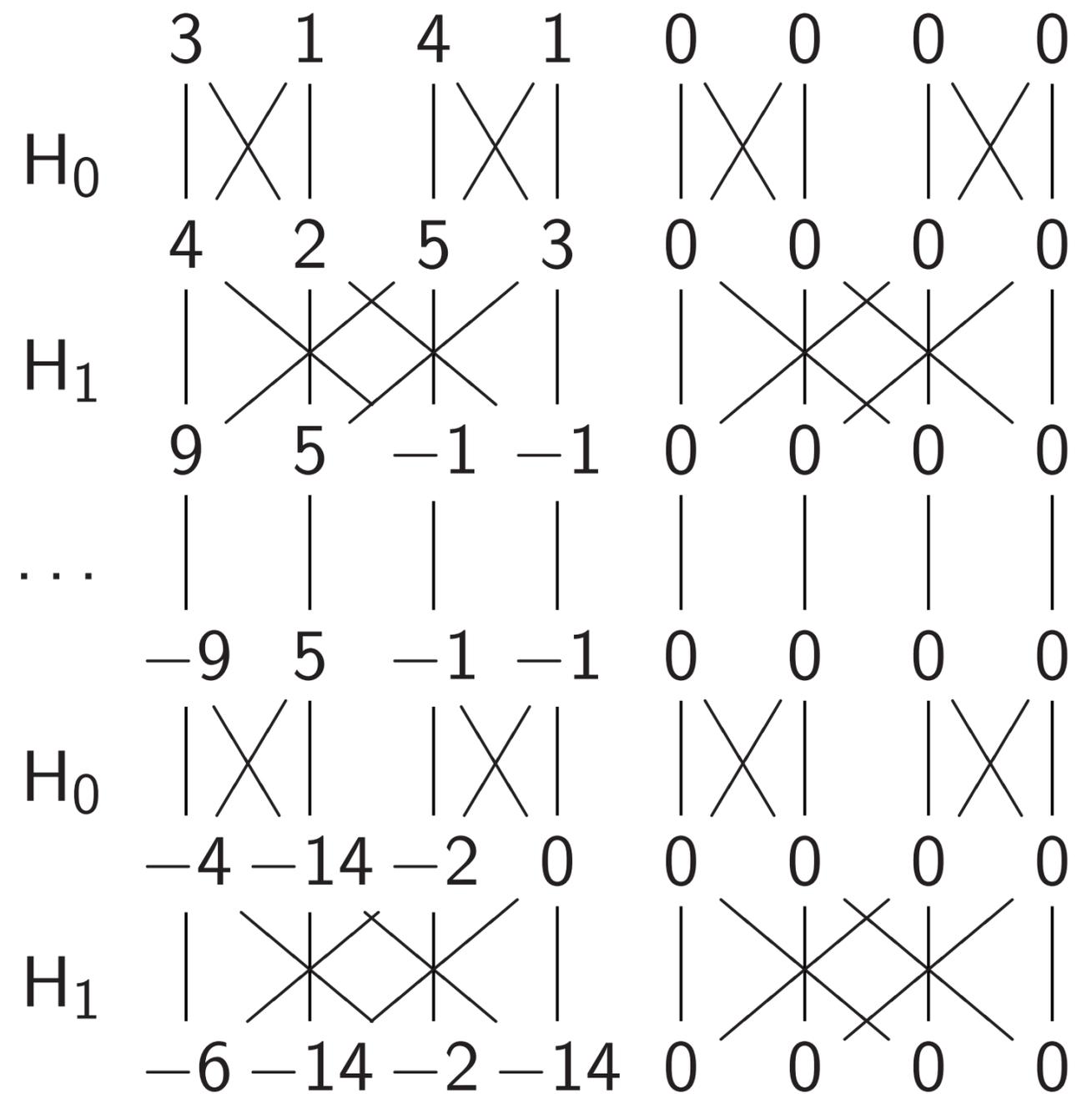
“Negate amplitude if q_0q_1 is set.”

Assumes $q_2 = 0$: “ancilla” qubit.



Affects measurements: “Negate amplitude around its average.”

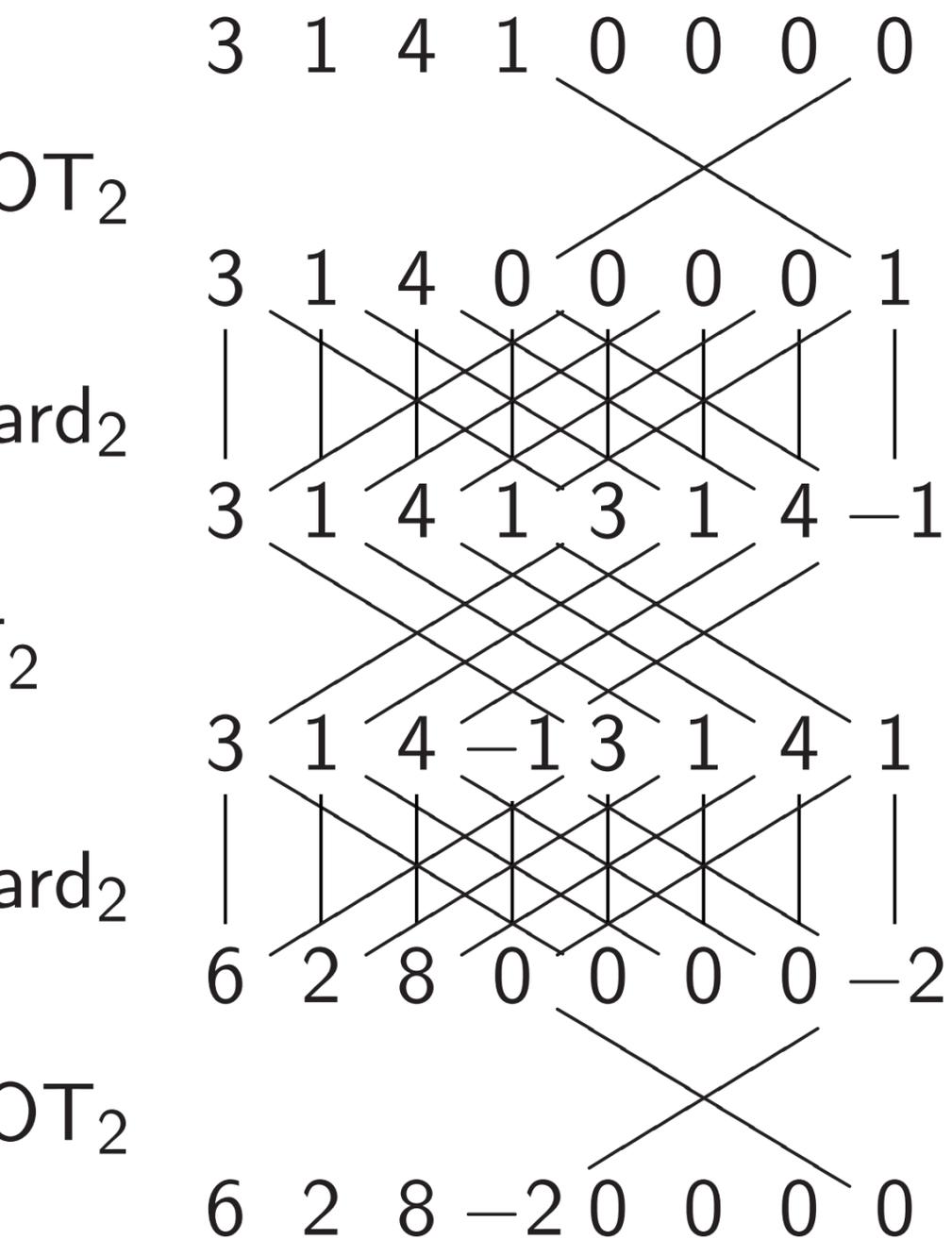
$[3, 1, 4, 1] \mapsto [1.5, 3.5, 0.5, 3.5]$.



example:

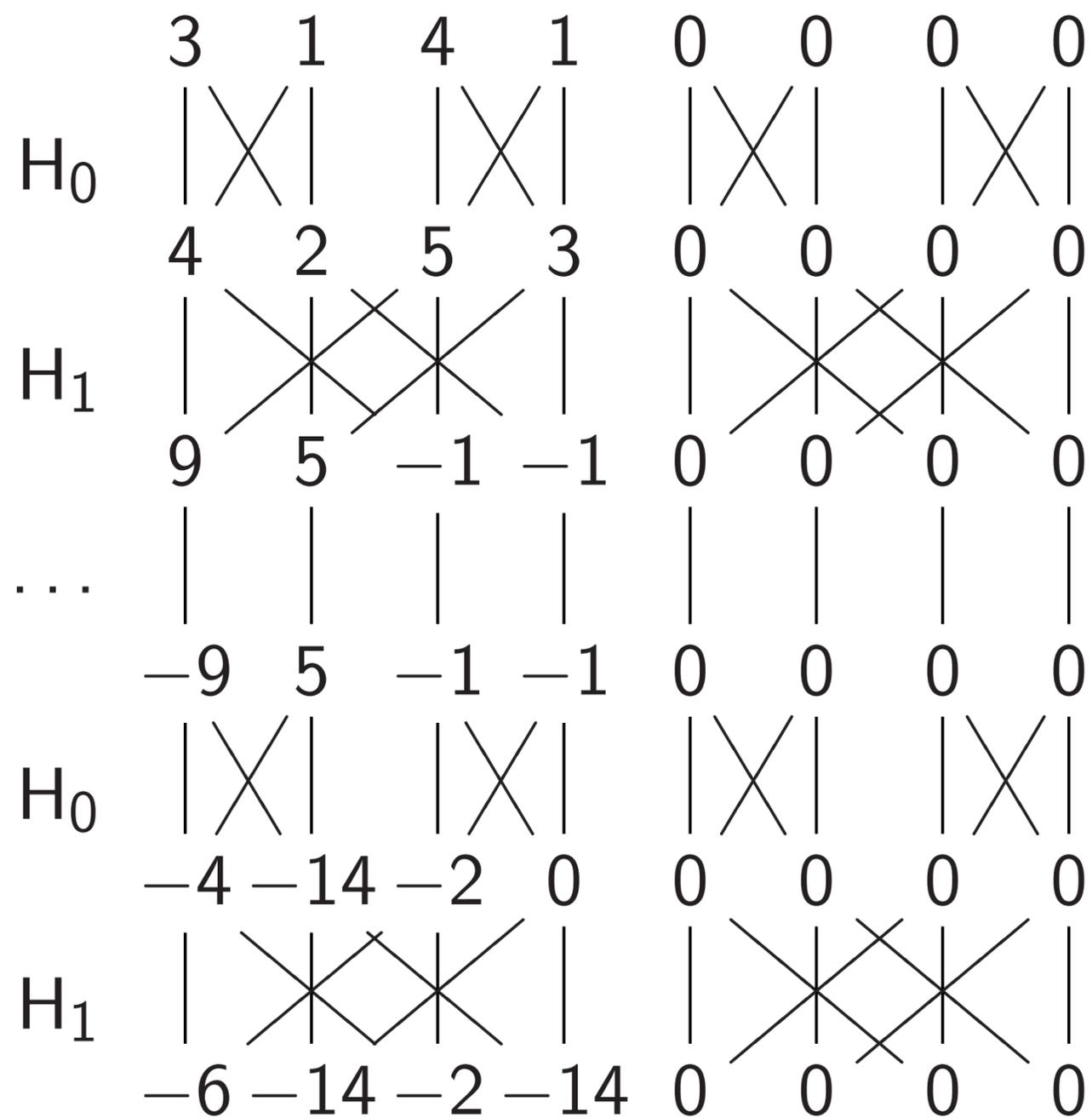
amplitude if q_0q_1 is set."

$q_2 = 0$: "ancilla" qubit.



Affects measurements: "Negate amplitude around its average."

$[3, 1, 4, 1] \mapsto [1.5, 3.5, 0.5, 3.5]$.



Simon's

Assumpt

- Given

can ef

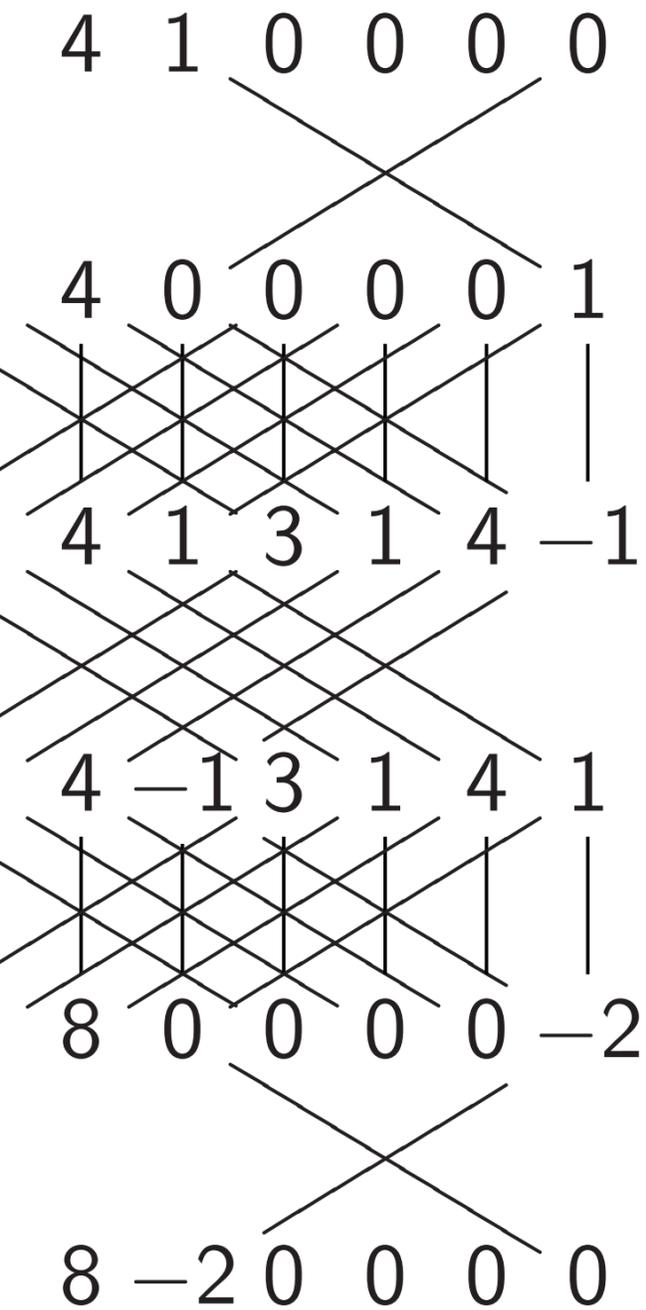
- Nonze

- $f(u) =$

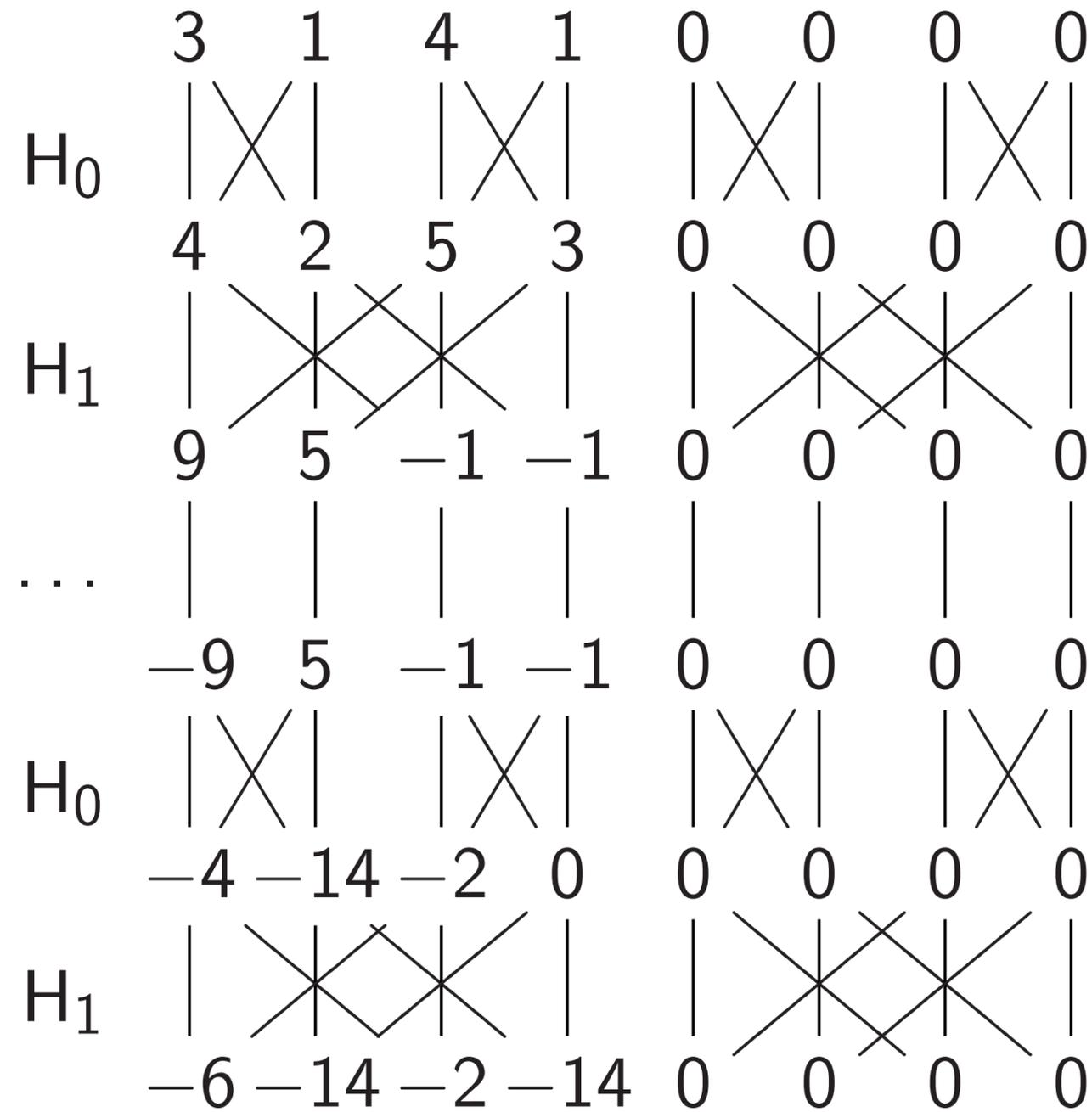
- f has

Goal: Fi

if $q_0 q_1$ is set.”
 “ancilla” qubit.



Affects measurements: “Negate
 amplitude around its average.”
 $[3, 1, 4, 1] \mapsto [1.5, 3.5, 0.5, 3.5]$.



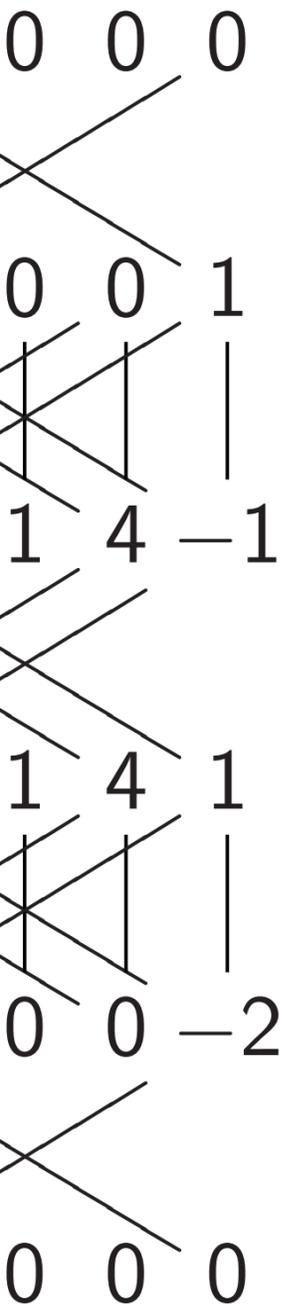
Simon's algorithm

Assumptions:

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

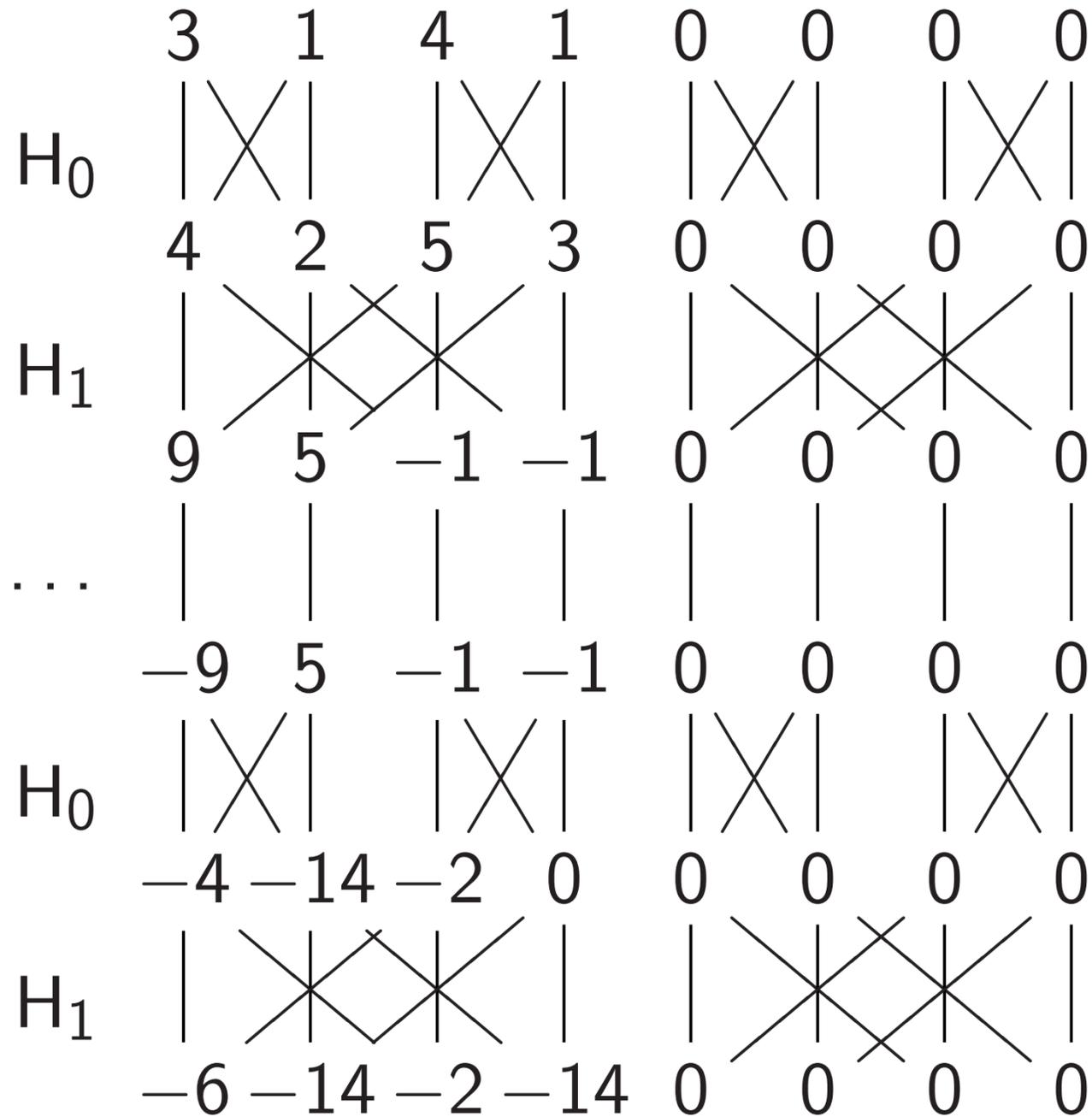
Goal: Figure out s

s set.”
qubit.



Affects measurements: “Negate
amplitude around its average.”

$$[3, 1, 4, 1] \mapsto [1.5, 3.5, 0.5, 3.5].$$



Simon's algorithm

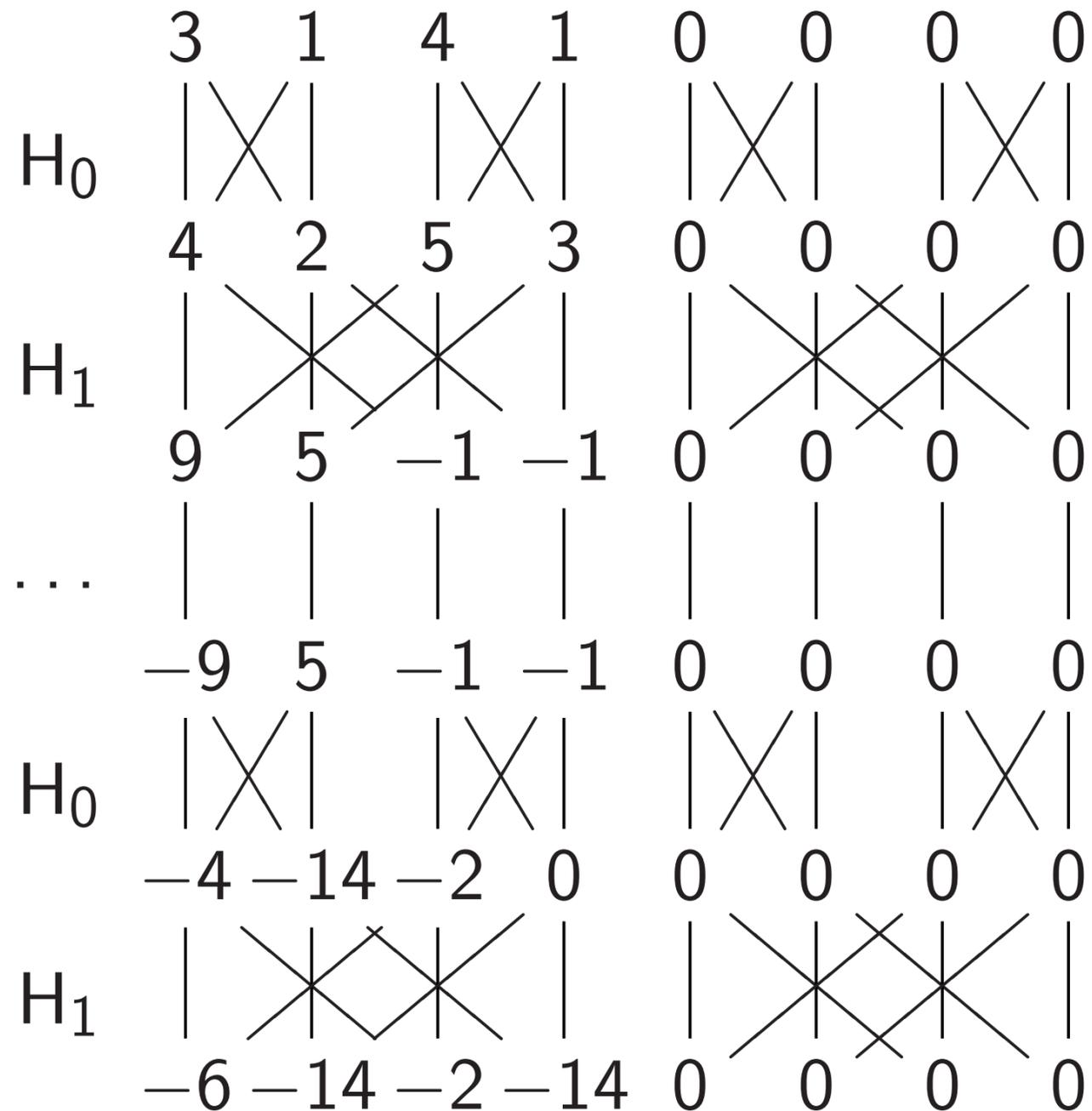
Assumptions:

- 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 .

Affects measurements: “Negate amplitude around its average.”

$$[3, 1, 4, 1] \mapsto [1.5, 3.5, 0.5, 3.5].$$



Simon's algorithm

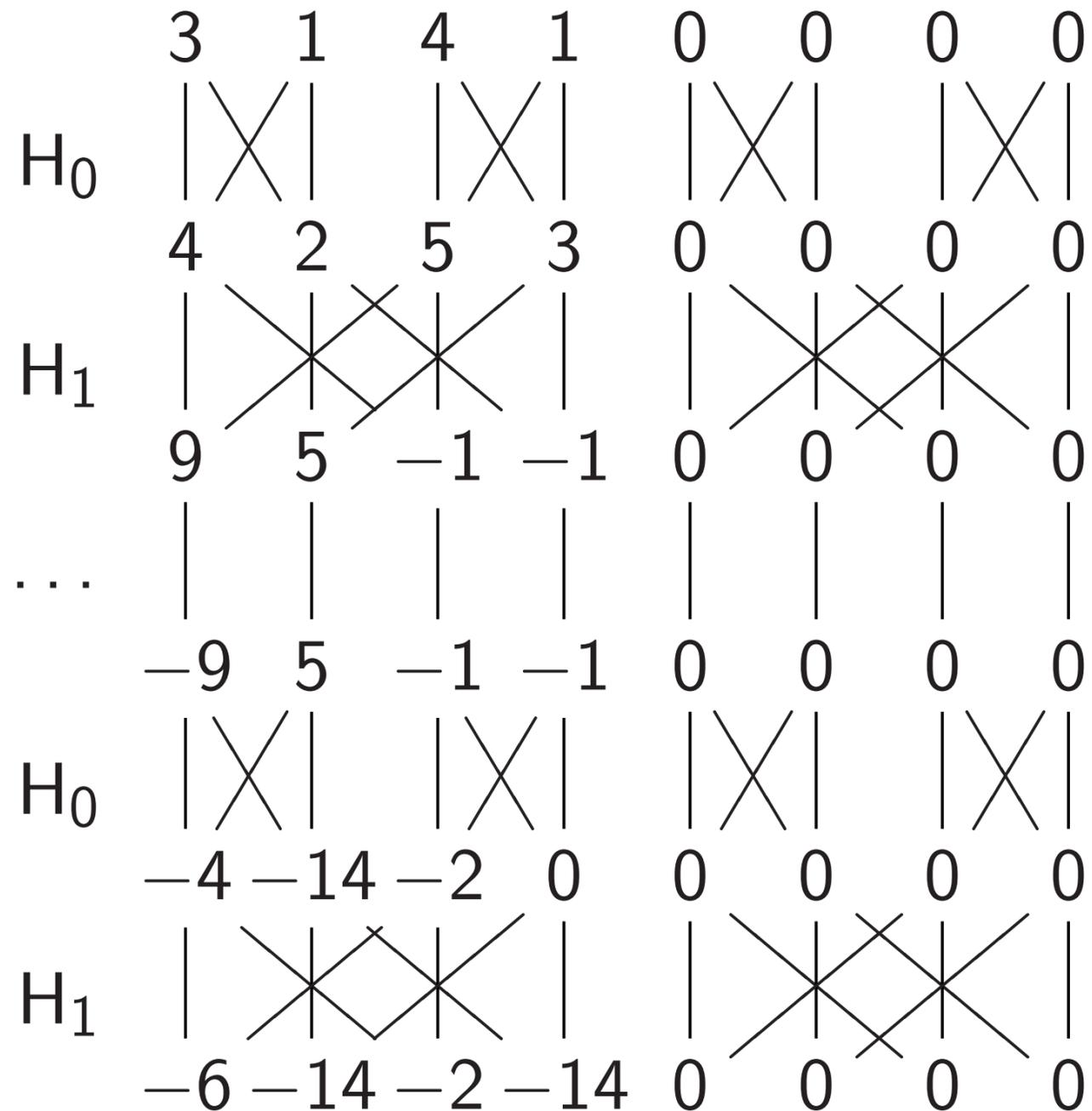
Assumptions:

- 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 .

Affects measurements: “Negate amplitude around its average.”

$$[3, 1, 4, 1] \mapsto [1.5, 3.5, 0.5, 3.5].$$



Simon's algorithm

Assumptions:

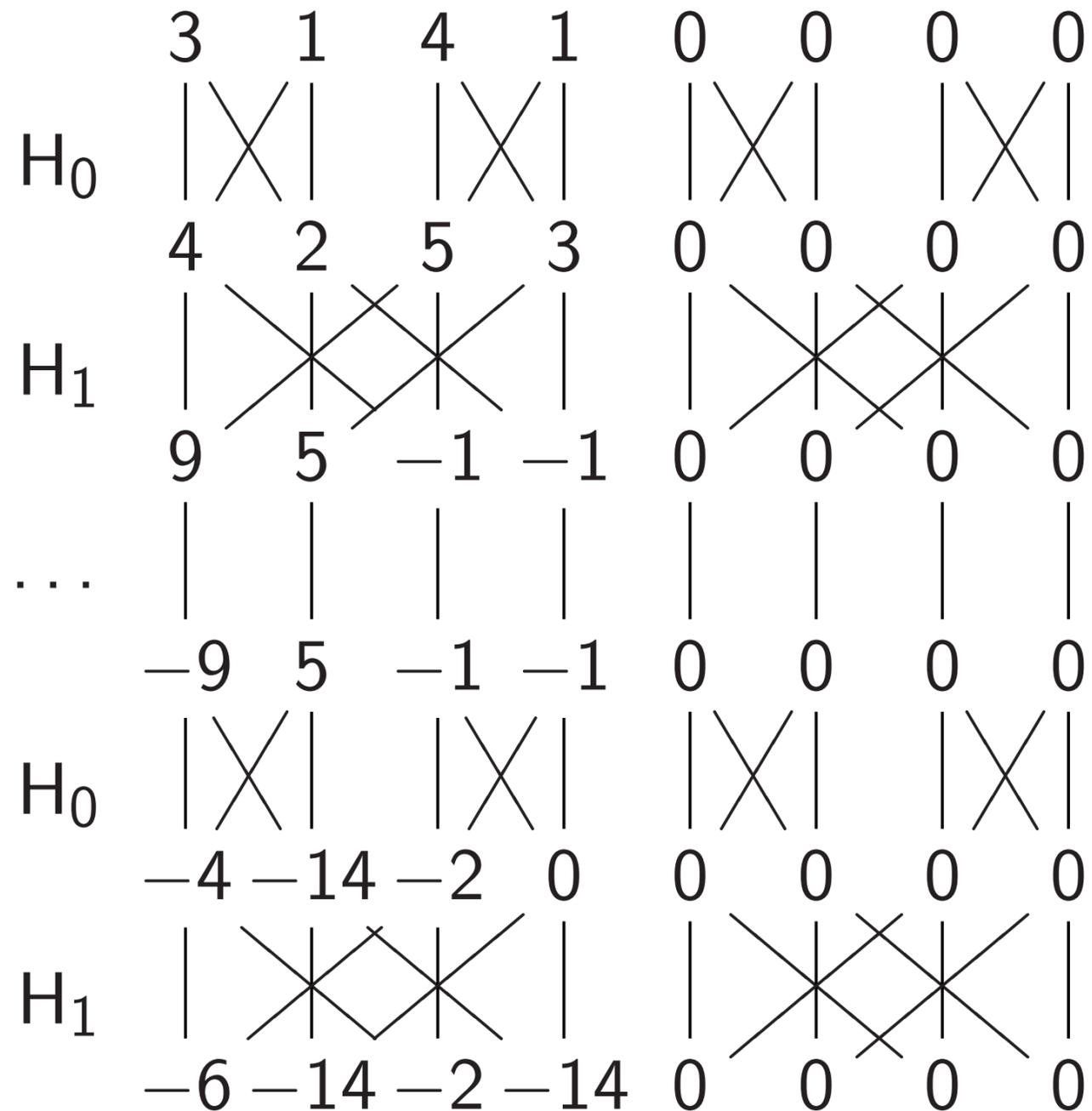
- Given any $u \in \{0, 1\}^n$, can efficiently compute $f(u)$.
- Nonzero $s \in \{0, 1\}^n$.
- $f(u) = f(u \oplus s)$ for all u .
- f has no other collisions.

Goal: Figure out s .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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.

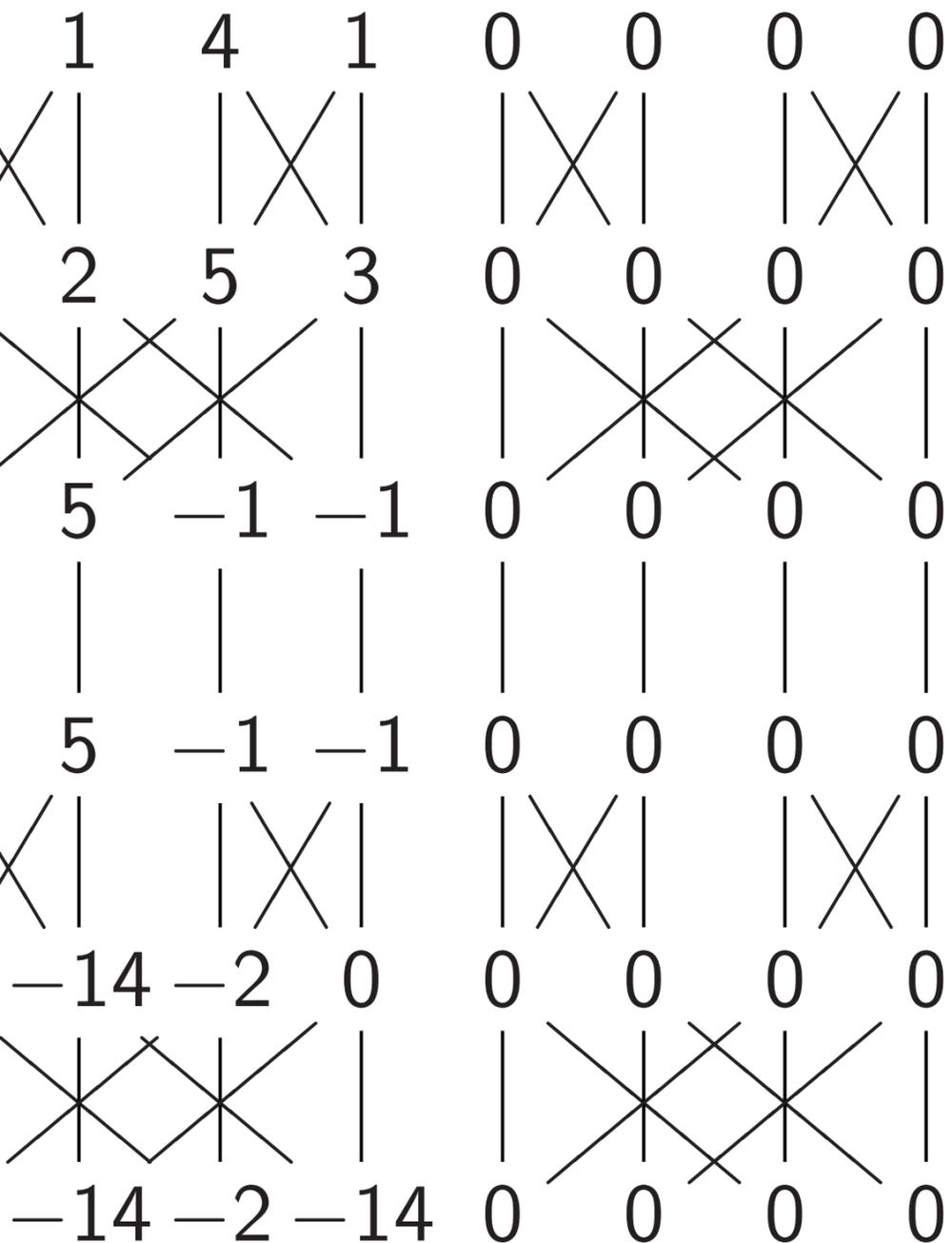
Goal: Figure out s .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s : compute f for many inputs, hope to find collision.

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

measurements: “Negate
around its average.”

$$[-] \mapsto [1.5, 3.5, 0.5, 3.5].$$



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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

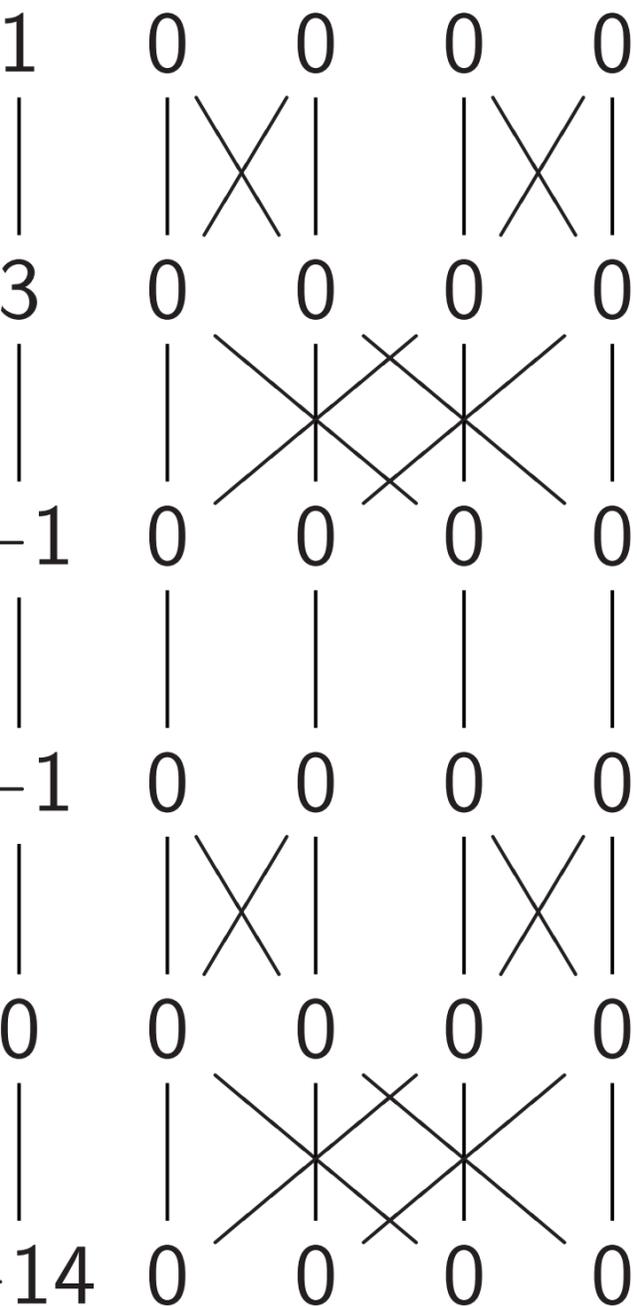
Example

Step 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,

This exa
with 3-b

ents: “Negate
its average.”
[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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

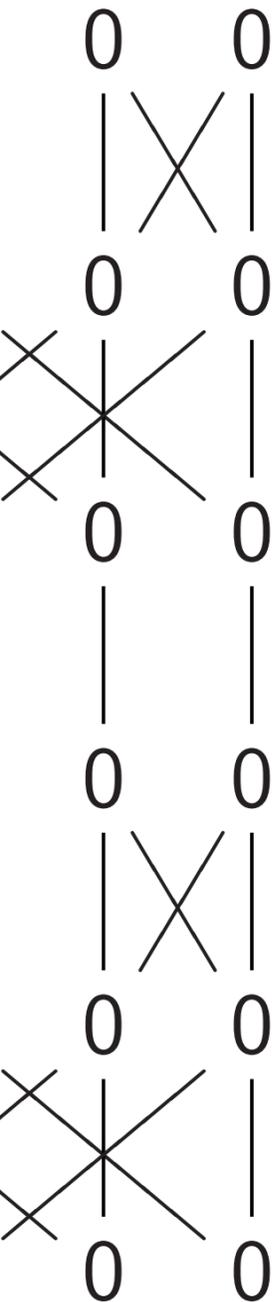
Example of Simon

Step 1. Set up pu

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

This example is fo
with 3-bit input an

gate
e.”
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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

Simon's algorithm finds s with
 $\approx n$ quantum evaluations 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,
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0.

This example is for a function
with 3-bit input and 3-bit output.

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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

Simon's algorithm finds s with
 $\approx n$ quantum evaluations 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.

This example is for a function f
with 3-bit input and 3-bit output.

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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 2.2. 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.
Step 3 will apply the function f (a
specific function in this example),
computing $f(u)$ in universe u .

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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 3a. 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,
0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0.

```

Each column is a parallel universe
performing its own computations.

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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 3b. More entry 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.

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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 3c. More entry 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.

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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 3d. More entry 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.

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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 3e. More entry 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.

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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 3f. More entry 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.

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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 3g. More entry 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.

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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 3h. More entry 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.

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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 3i. More entry 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.

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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 3j. Final entry 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.

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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 3j. Final entry 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.

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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 4.0. 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 .

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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 4.1. 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,	$\bar{1}$.

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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 4.2. 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.

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 .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find collision.

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

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 4.2. 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 5: Measure. Obtain some
information about the surprise: a
random vector orthogonal to 101.

algorithm

tions:

any $u \in \{0, 1\}^n$,

efficiently compute $f(u)$.

for $s \in \{0, 1\}^n$.

$f(u \oplus s) = f(u)$ for all u .

no other collisions.

figure out s .

quantum algorithm to find s :

evaluate f for many inputs,

find collision.

algorithm finds s with

quantum evaluations of f .

Example of Simon's algorithm

Repeat t

Step 4.2. 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 5: Measure. Obtain some information about the surprise: a random vector orthogonal to 101.

$\{0, 1\}^n$,

compute $f(u)$.

$\{0, 1\}^n$.

for all u .

collisions.

5.

Algorithm to find s :

any inputs,

ion.

finds s with

equations of f .

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 4.2. 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 5: Measure. Obtain some information about the surprise: a random vector orthogonal to 101.

Repeat to figure o

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 4.2. 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 5: Measure. Obtain some information about the surprise: a random vector orthogonal to 101.

Repeat to figure out 101.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 4.2. 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 5: Measure. Obtain some information about the surprise: a random vector orthogonal to 101.

Repeat to figure out 101.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 4.2. 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 5: Measure. Obtain some information about the surprise: a random vector orthogonal to 101.

Repeat to figure out 101.

Generalize Step 3 to any function $u \mapsto f(u)$ with $f(u) = f(u \oplus s)$.

“Usually” algorithm figures out s .

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 4.2. 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 5: Measure. Obtain some information about the surprise: a random vector orthogonal to 101.

Repeat to figure out 101.

Generalize Step 3 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.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 4.2. 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 5: Measure. Obtain some information about the surprise: a random vector orthogonal to 101.

Repeat to figure out 101.

Generalize Step 3 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.

Example of Simon's algorithm

Step 4.2. 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 5: Measure. Obtain some information about the surprise: a random vector orthogonal to 101.

Repeat to figure out 101.

Generalize Step 3 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.

of Simon's algorithm

1. Hadamard₂:

0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

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

0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

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

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

0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 0, 0, 0,

0, 0, 2, 0, 2.

Measure. Obtain some

information about the surprise: a

vector orthogonal to 101.

Grover's

Assume:

has $f(s)$

Goal: Find

Non-quantum

computation

hope to

Success

until $\#t$

Repeat to figure out 101.

Generalize Step 3 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.

's algorithmrd₂:

0, 0,

0, 2,

0, 0,

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

0, 0,

0, 0,

0, 2.

Obtain some
the surprise: a
hogonal to 101.

Repeat to figure out 101.

Generalize Step 3 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
has $f(s) = 0$.

Goal: Figure out s

Non-quantum algo
compute f for ma

hope to find output

Success probability

until #tries approx

Repeat to figure out 101.

Generalize Step 3 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 $f(s) = 0$.

Goal: Figure out s .

Non-quantum algorithm to f compute f for many inputs, hope to find output 0.

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

Repeat to figure out 101.

Generalize Step 3 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 $f(s) = 0$.

Goal: Figure out s .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find output 0.

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

Repeat to figure out 101.

Generalize Step 3 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 $f(s) = 0$.

Goal: Figure out s .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find output 0.

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

Grover’s algorithm takes only $2^{n/2}$
quantum evaluations of f .

e.g. 2^{64} instead of 2^{128} .

to figure out 101.

ize Step 3 to any function
 $f(u)$ with $f(u) = f(u \oplus s)$.

" algorithm figures out s .

Algorithm replaces \oplus

re general $+$ operation.

pectacular applications.

r finds "random" s with

$$N = 2^{u+s} \bmod N.$$

factor N using this.

r finds "random" s, t with

$$\bmod p = 4^{u+s} 9^{v+t} \bmod p.$$

compute discrete logs.

Grover's algorithm

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

Goal: Figure out s .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
 compute f for many inputs,
 hope to find output 0.

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

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

e.g. 2^{64} instead of 2^{128} .

Start fro
 over n -b

ut 101.

to any function

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

m figures out s .

eplaces \oplus

+ operation.

applications.

andom" s with

mod N .

using this.

andom" s, t with

$$-sg^{v+t} \pmod{p}.$$

discrete logs.

Grover's algorithm

Assume: unique $s \in \{0, 1\}^n$

has $f(s) = 0$.

Goal: Figure out s .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :

compute f for many inputs,

hope to find output 0.

Success probability is very low

until #tries approaches 2^n .

Grover's algorithm takes only $2^{n/2}$

quantum evaluations of f .

e.g. 2^{64} instead of 2^{128} .

Start from uniform

over n -bit strings

Grover's algorithm

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

Goal: Figure out s .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find output 0.

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

Grover's algorithm takes only $2^{n/2}$
quantum evaluations of f .
e.g. 2^{64} instead of 2^{128} .

Start from uniform superpos
over n -bit strings u : each a_u

Grover's algorithm

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

Goal: Figure out s .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find output 0.

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

Grover's algorithm takes only $2^{n/2}$
quantum evaluations of f .
e.g. 2^{64} instead of 2^{128} .

Start from uniform superposition
over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

Grover's algorithm

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

Goal: Figure out s .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find output 0.

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

Grover's algorithm takes only $2^{n/2}$
quantum evaluations of f .
e.g. 2^{64} instead of 2^{128} .

Start from uniform superposition
over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

Step 1: Set $a \leftarrow b$ where
 $b_u = -a_u$ if $f(u) = 0$,
 $b_u = a_u$ otherwise.

This is fast if f is fast.

Grover's algorithm

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

Goal: Figure out s .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find output 0.

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

Grover's algorithm takes only $2^{n/2}$
quantum evaluations of f .
e.g. 2^{64} instead of 2^{128} .

Start from uniform superposition
over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

Step 1: Set $a \leftarrow b$ where
 $b_u = -a_u$ if $f(u) = 0$,
 $b_u = a_u$ otherwise.

This is fast if f is fast.

Step 2: "Grover diffusion".
Negate a around its average.
This is also fast.

Grover's algorithm

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

Goal: Figure out s .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find output 0.

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

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

e.g. 2^{64} instead of 2^{128} .

Start from uniform superposition
over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

Step 1: Set $a \leftarrow b$ where
 $b_u = -a_u$ if $f(u) = 0$,
 $b_u = a_u$ otherwise.

This is fast if f 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.

Grover's algorithm

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

Goal: Figure out s .

Non-quantum algorithm to find s :
compute f for many inputs,
hope to find output 0.

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

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

e.g. 2^{64} instead of 2^{128} .

Start from uniform superposition
over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

Step 1: Set $a \leftarrow b$ where
 $b_u = -a_u$ if $f(u) = 0$,
 $b_u = a_u$ otherwise.

This is fast if f 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 .

algorithm

unique $s \in \{0, 1\}^n$
 $= 0$.

figure out s .

quantum algorithm to find s :

evaluate f for many inputs,

find output 0.

probability is very low

tries approaches 2^n .

algorithm takes only $2^{n/2}$

evaluations of f .

instead of 2^{128} .

Start from uniform superposition
 over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

Step 1: Set $a \leftarrow b$ where

$b_u = -a_u$ if $f(u) = 0$,

$b_u = a_u$ otherwise.

This is fast if f 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.

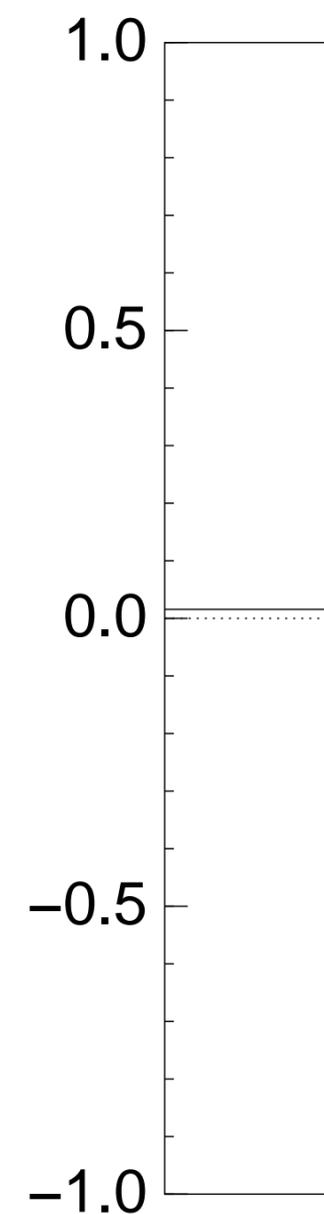
Measure the n qubits.

With high probability this finds s .

Normalized

for an ex

after 0 s



$\in \{0, 1\}^n$

5.

Algorithm to find s :

any inputs,

at 0.

y is very low

reaches 2^n .

It takes only $2^{n/2}$

evaluations of f .

2^{128} .

Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

Step 1: Set $a \leftarrow b$ where

$b_u = -a_u$ if $f(u) = 0$,

$b_u = a_u$ otherwise.

This is fast if f is fast.

Step 2: "Grover diffusion".

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

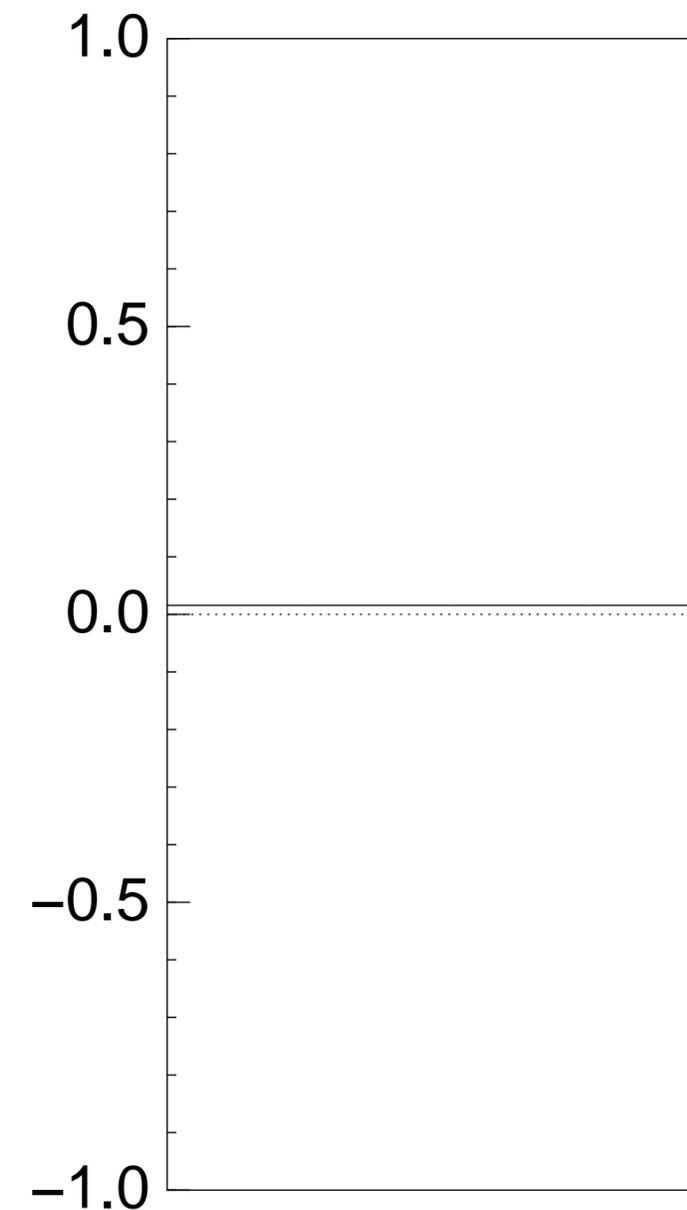
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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

Measure the n qubits.

With high probability this finds s .

Normalized graph for an example with after 0 steps:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: "Grover diffusion".

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

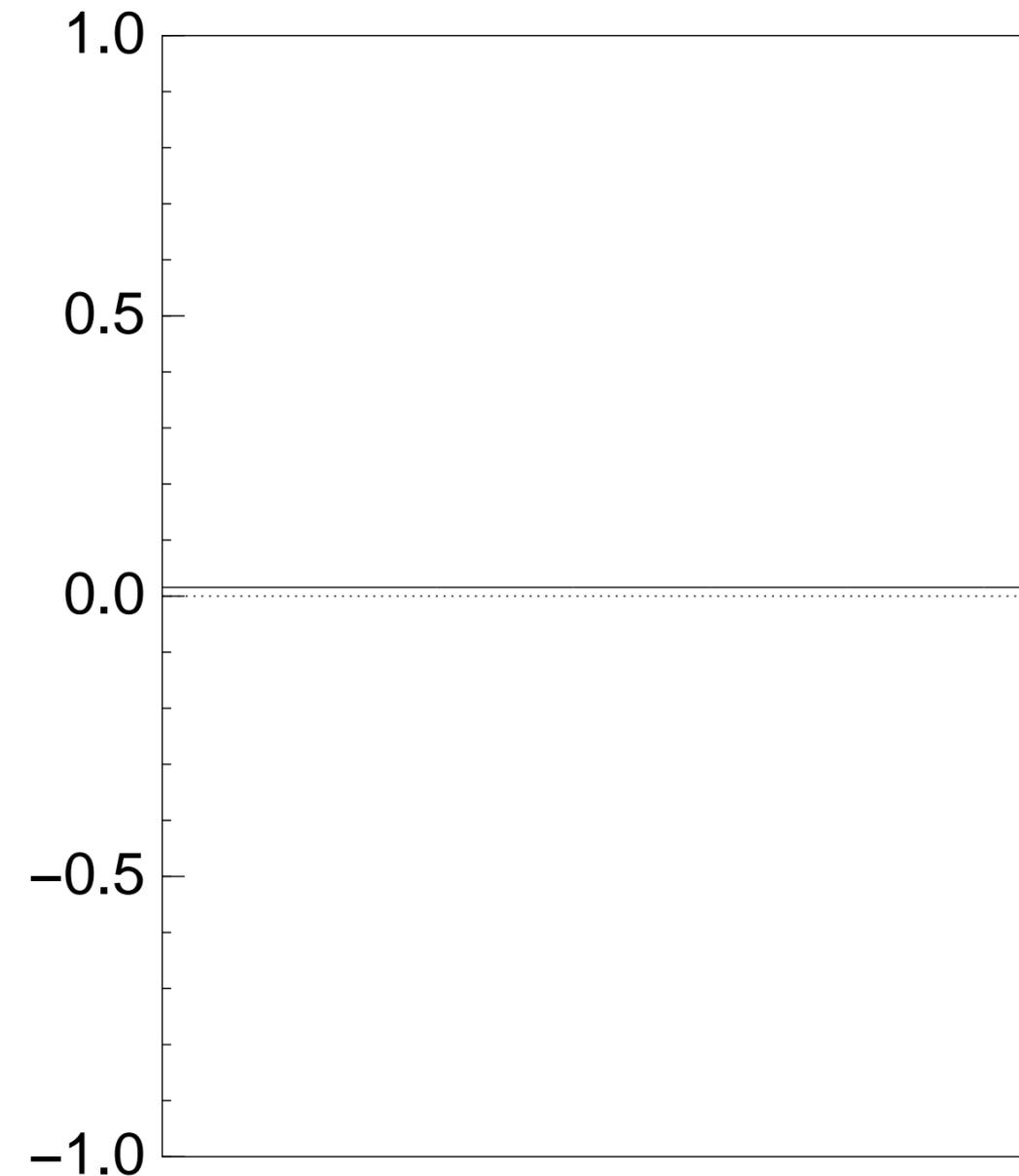
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

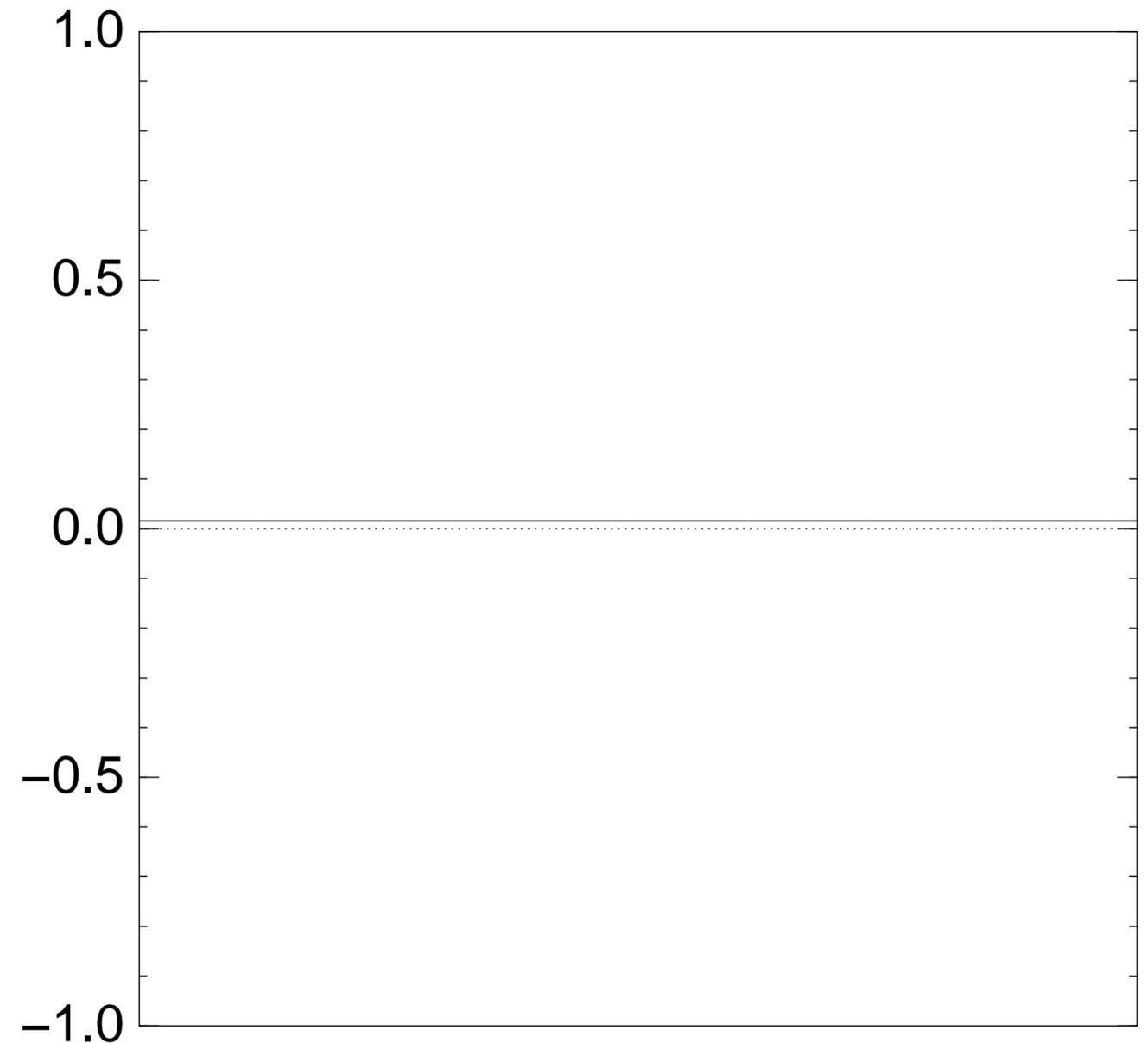
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

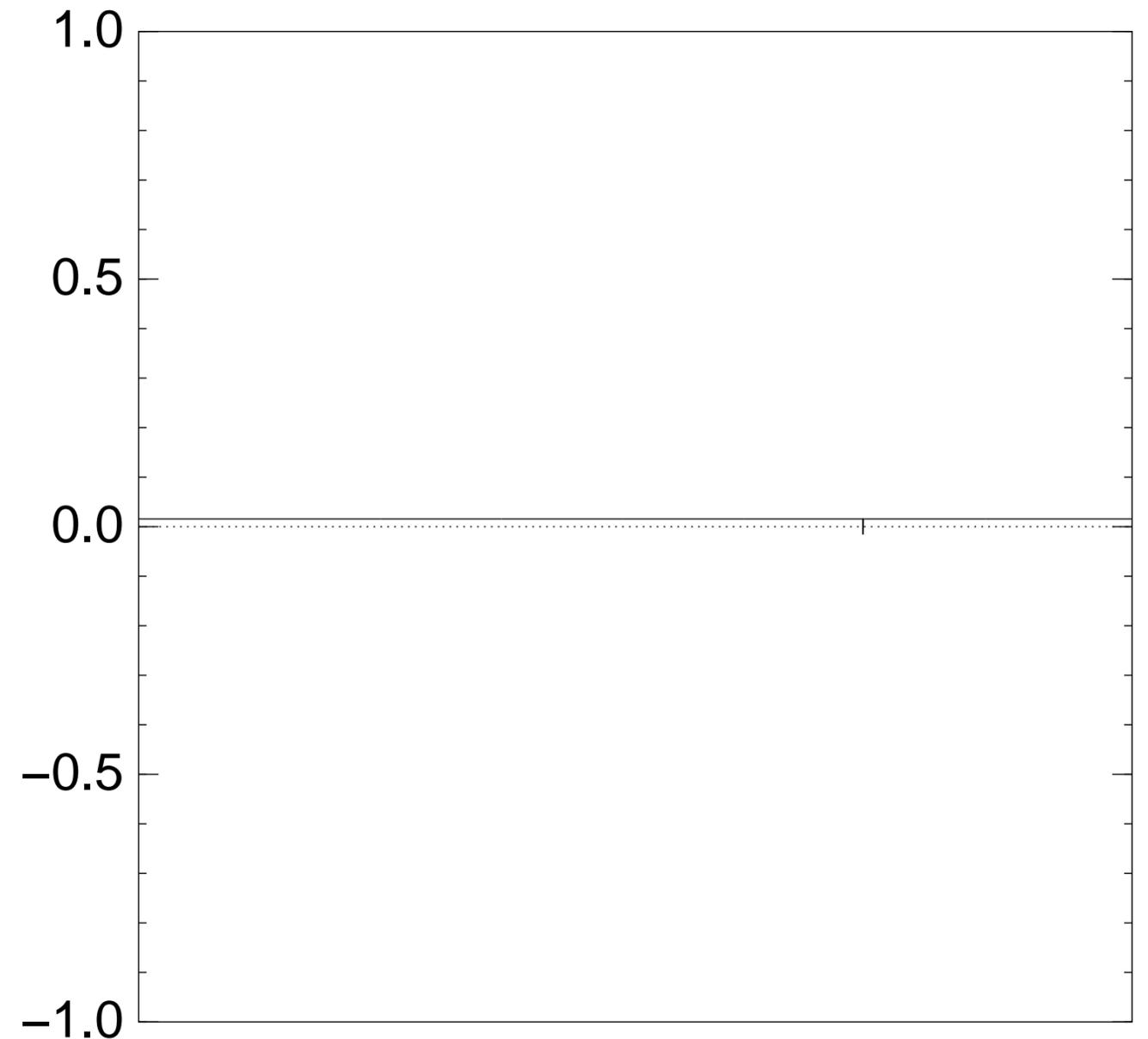
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 Step 1:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

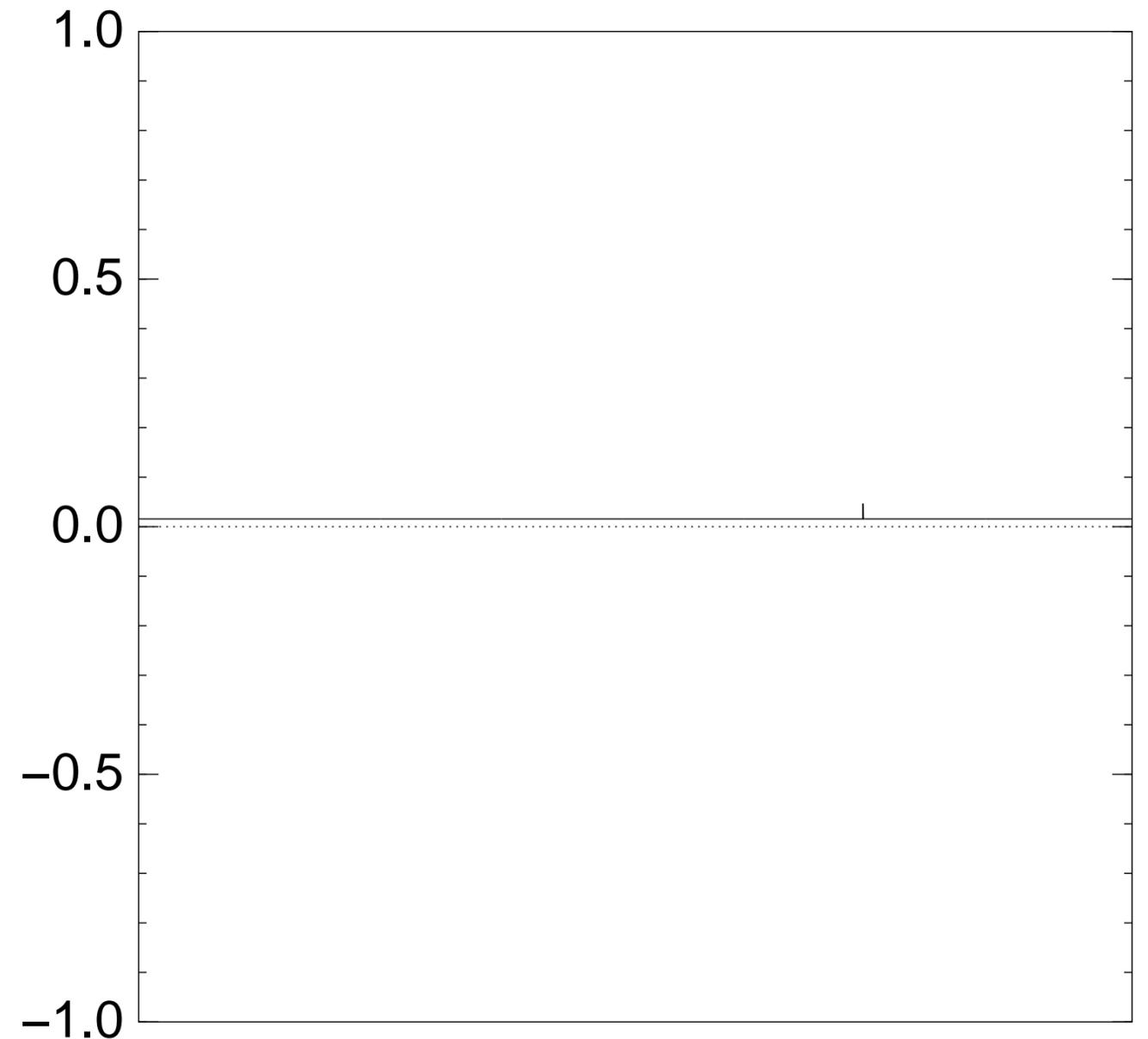
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 Step 1 + Step 2:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

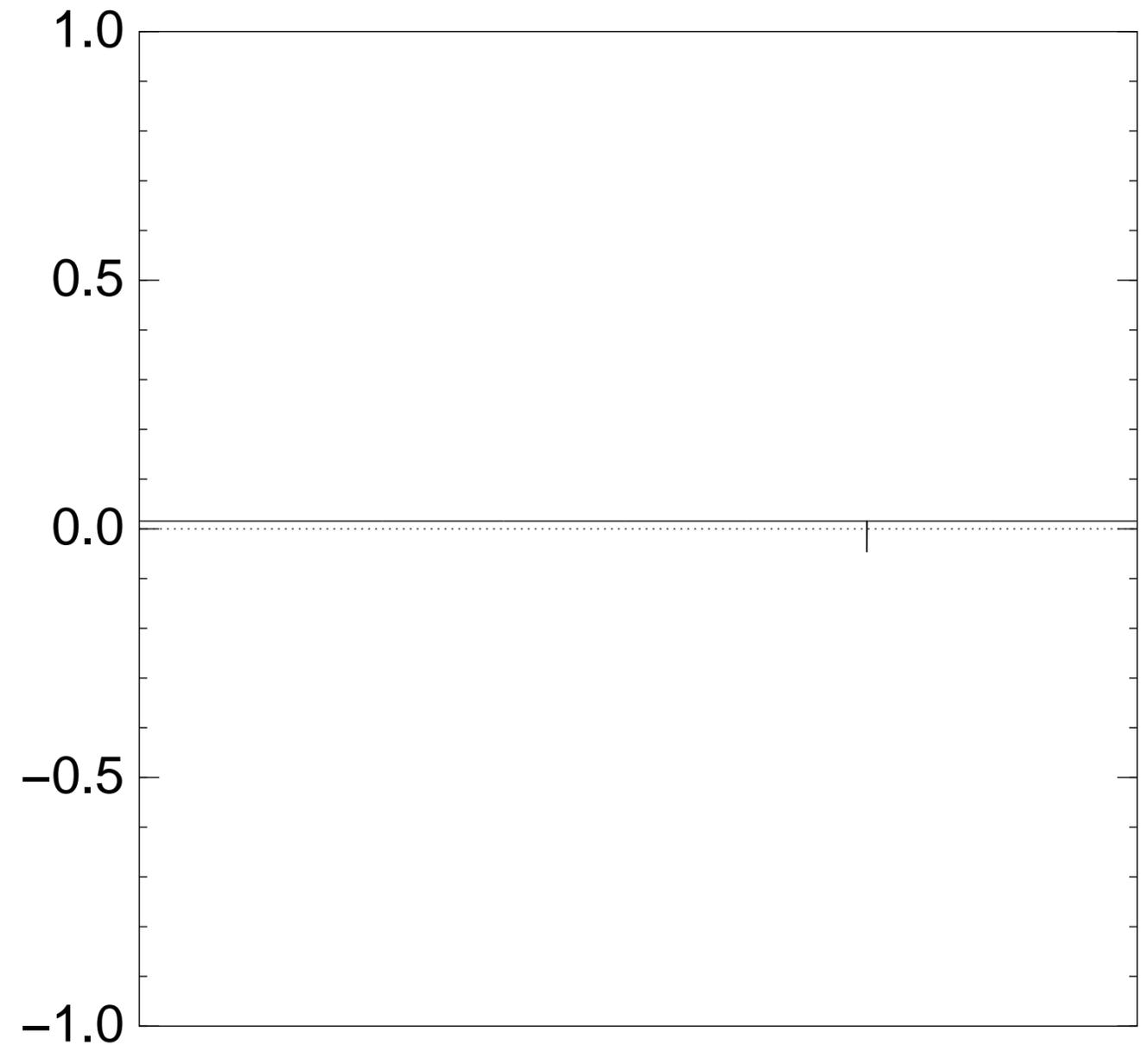
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 Step 1 + Step 2 + Step 1:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

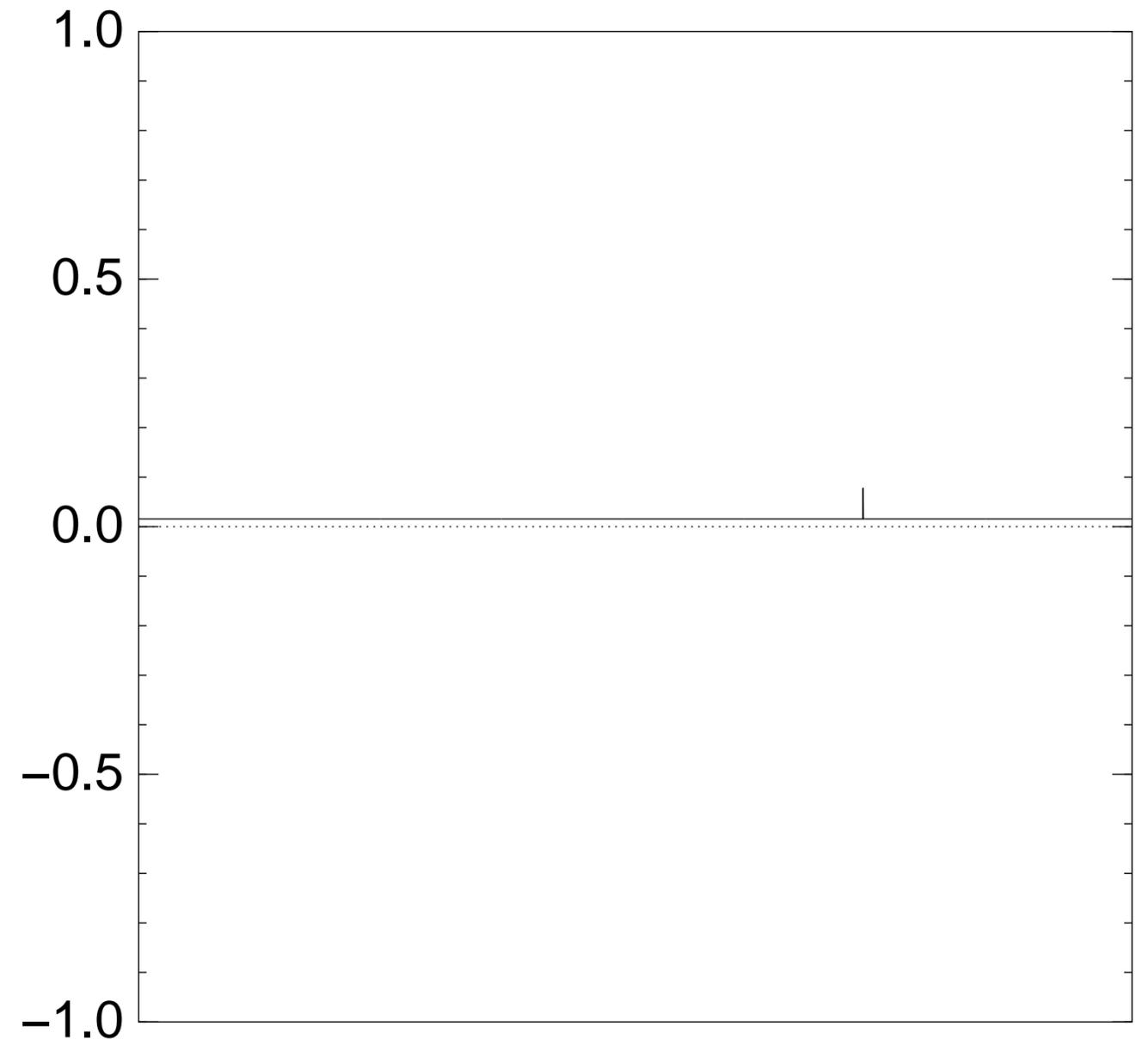
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $2 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

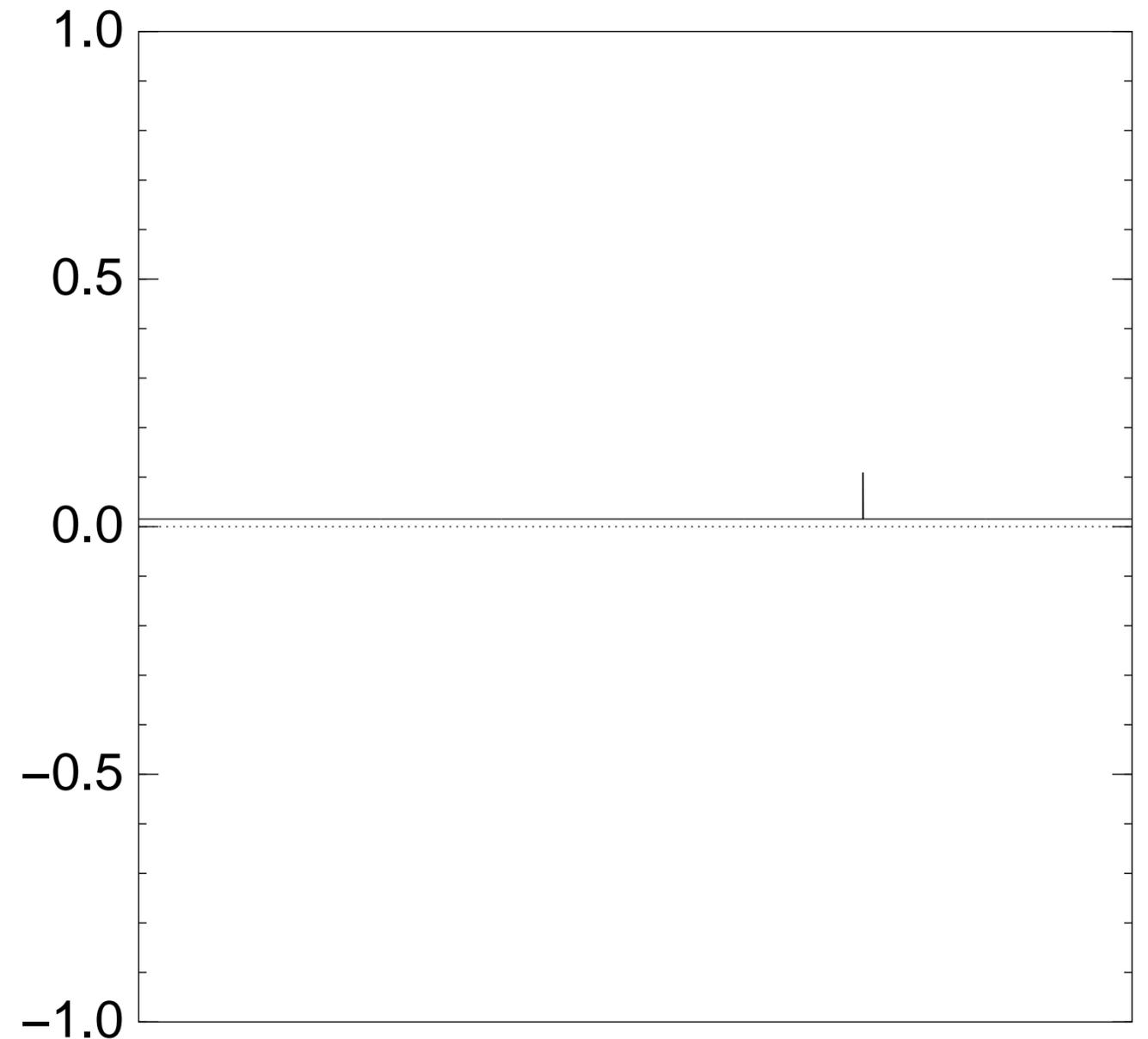
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $3 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

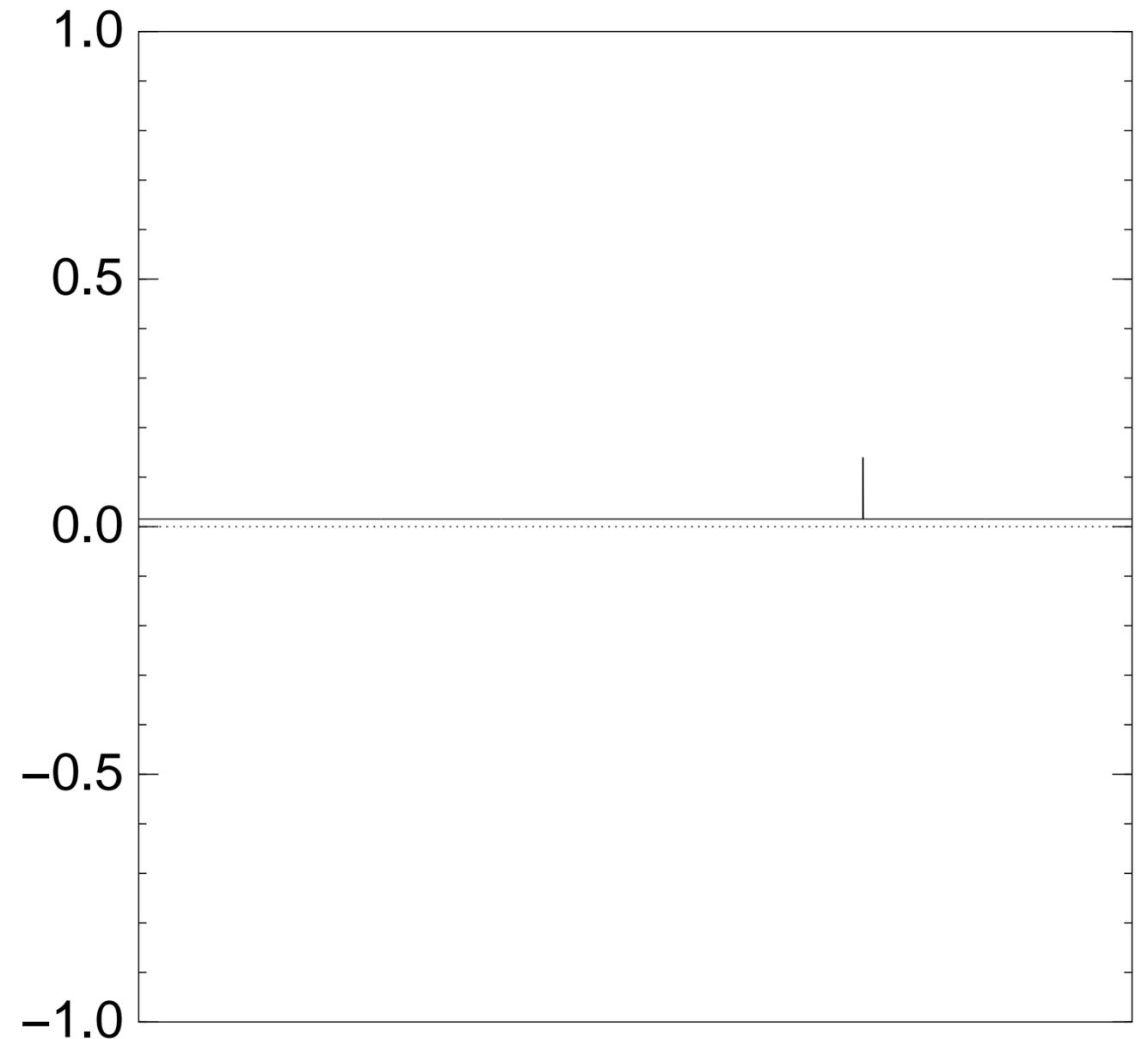
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $4 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

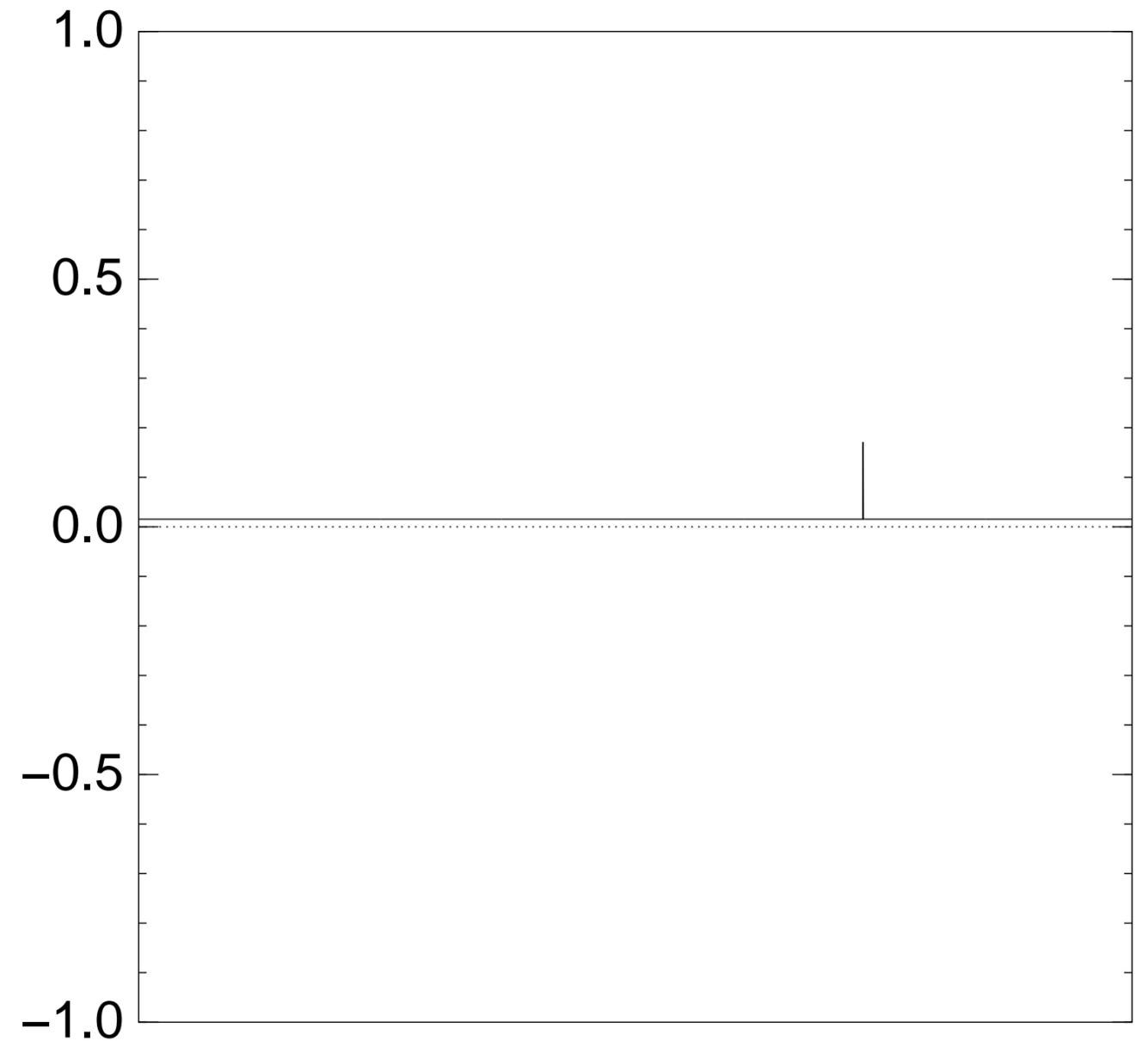
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $5 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

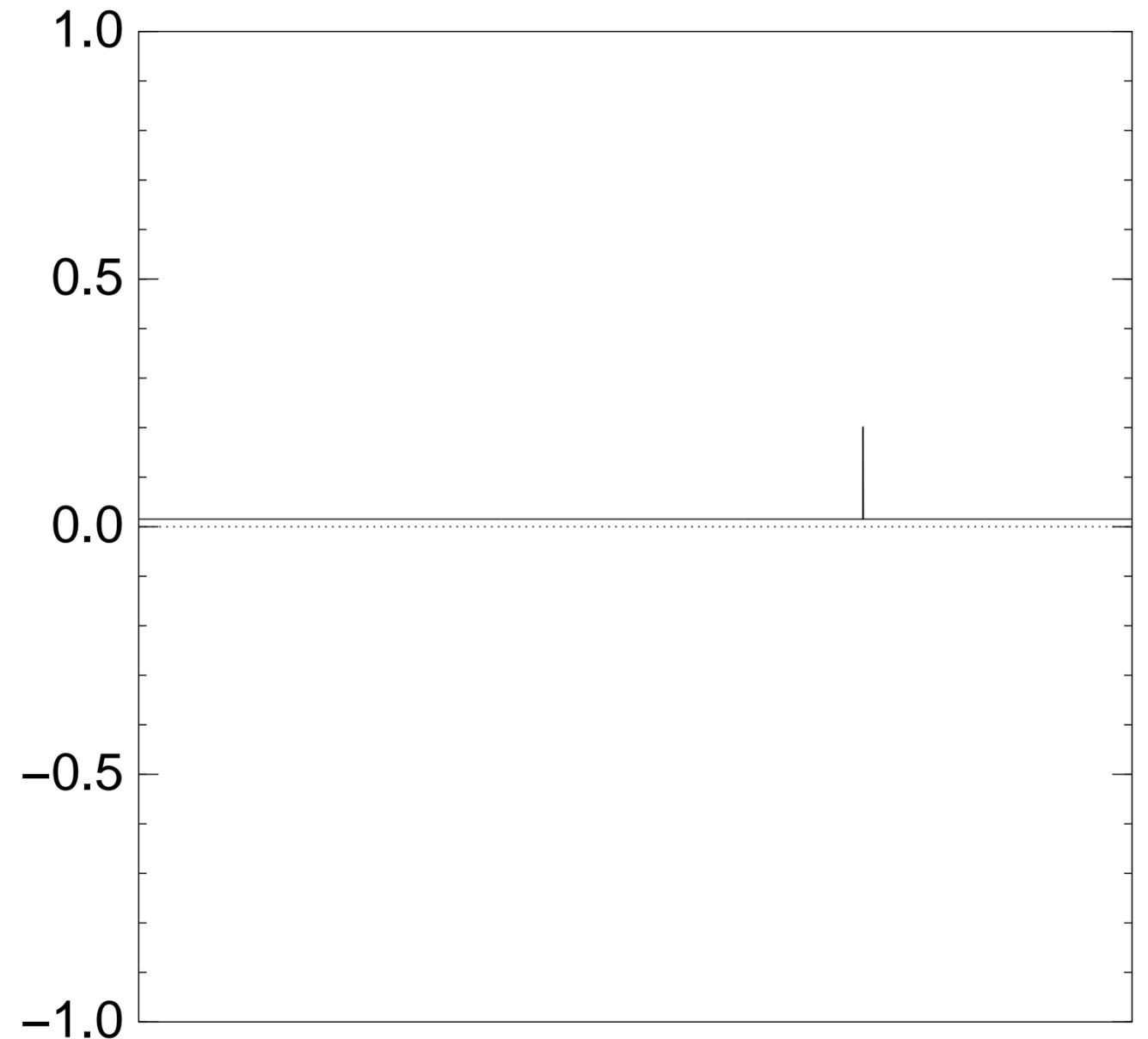
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $6 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

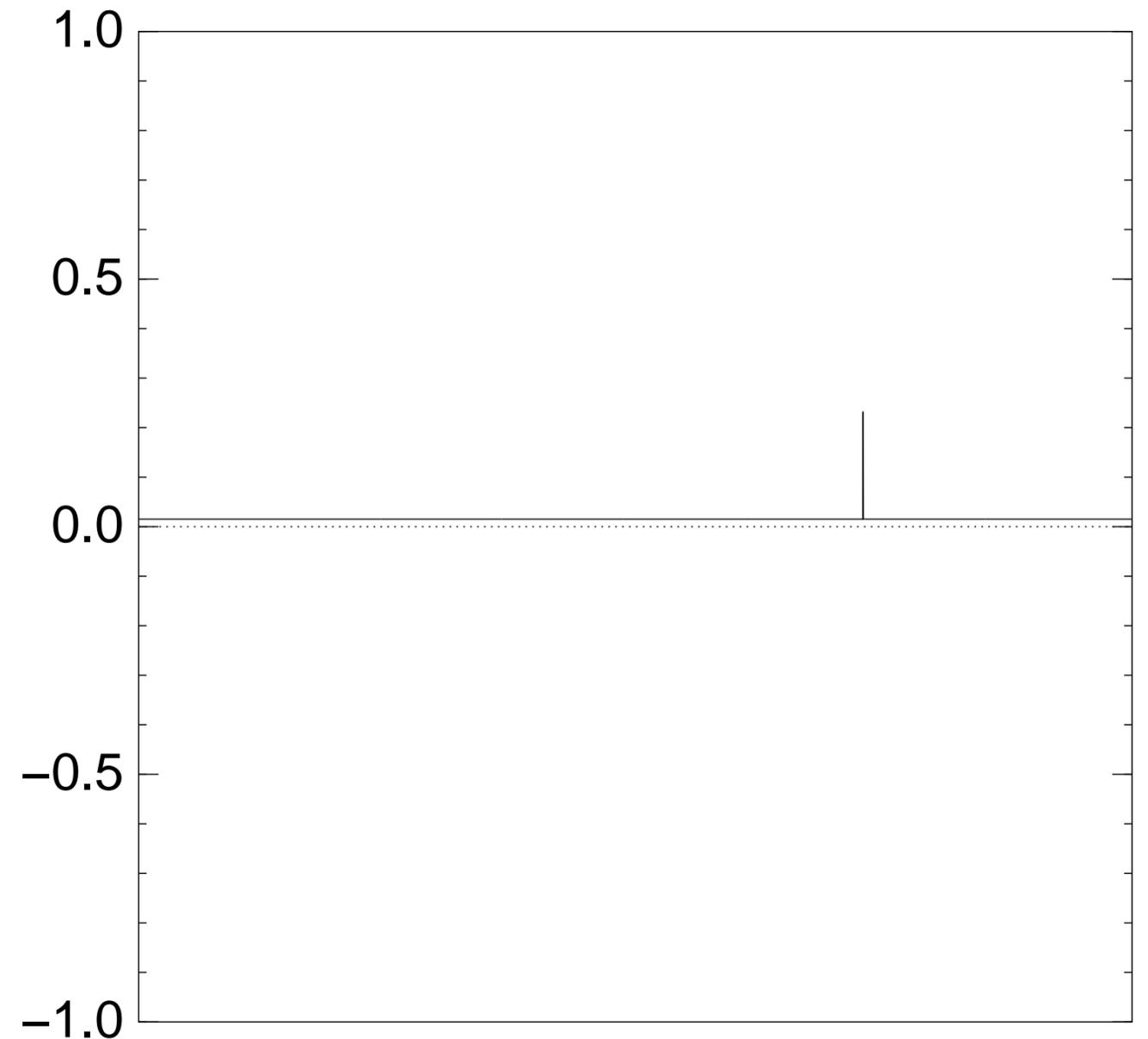
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $7 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

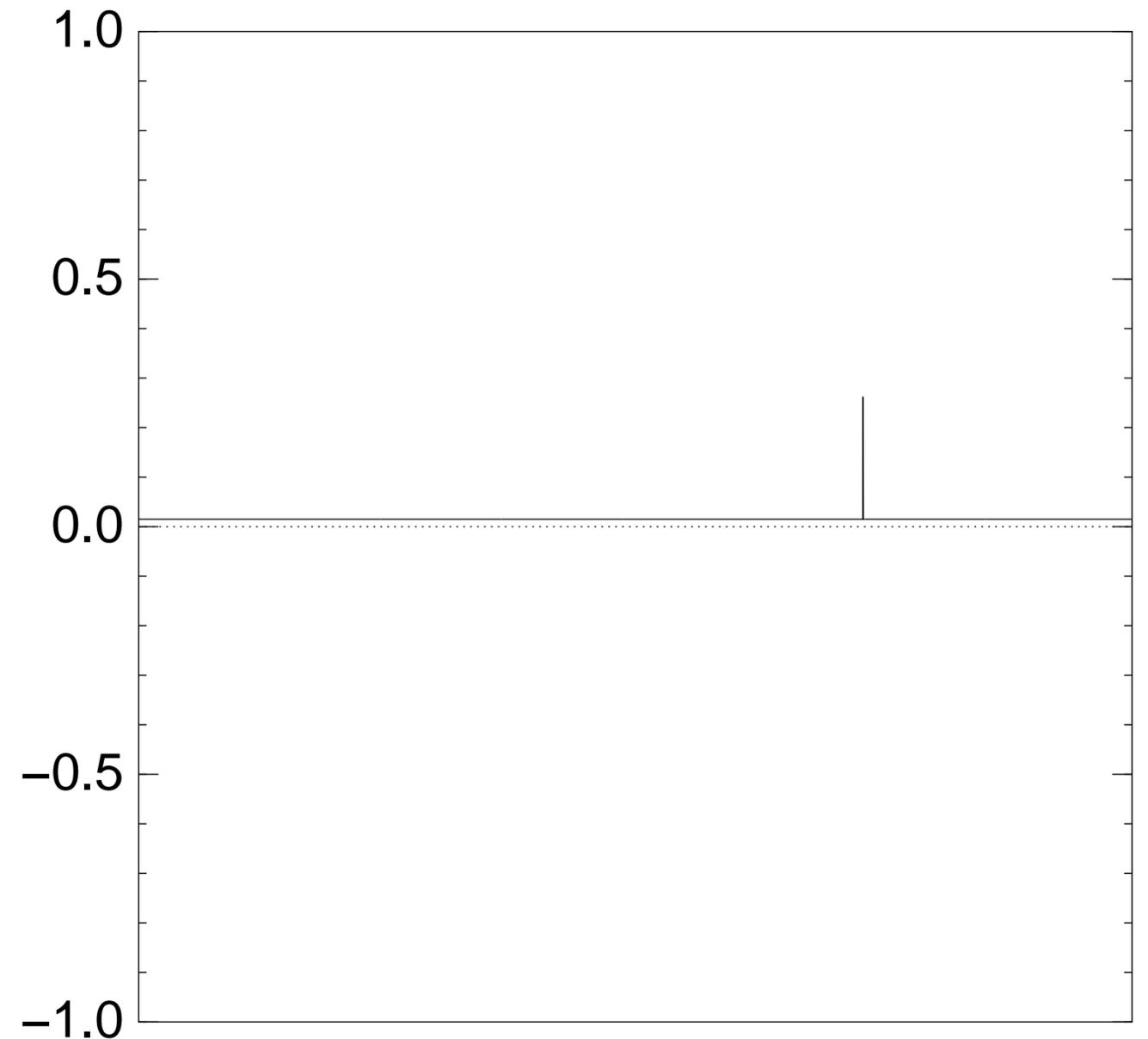
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $8 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

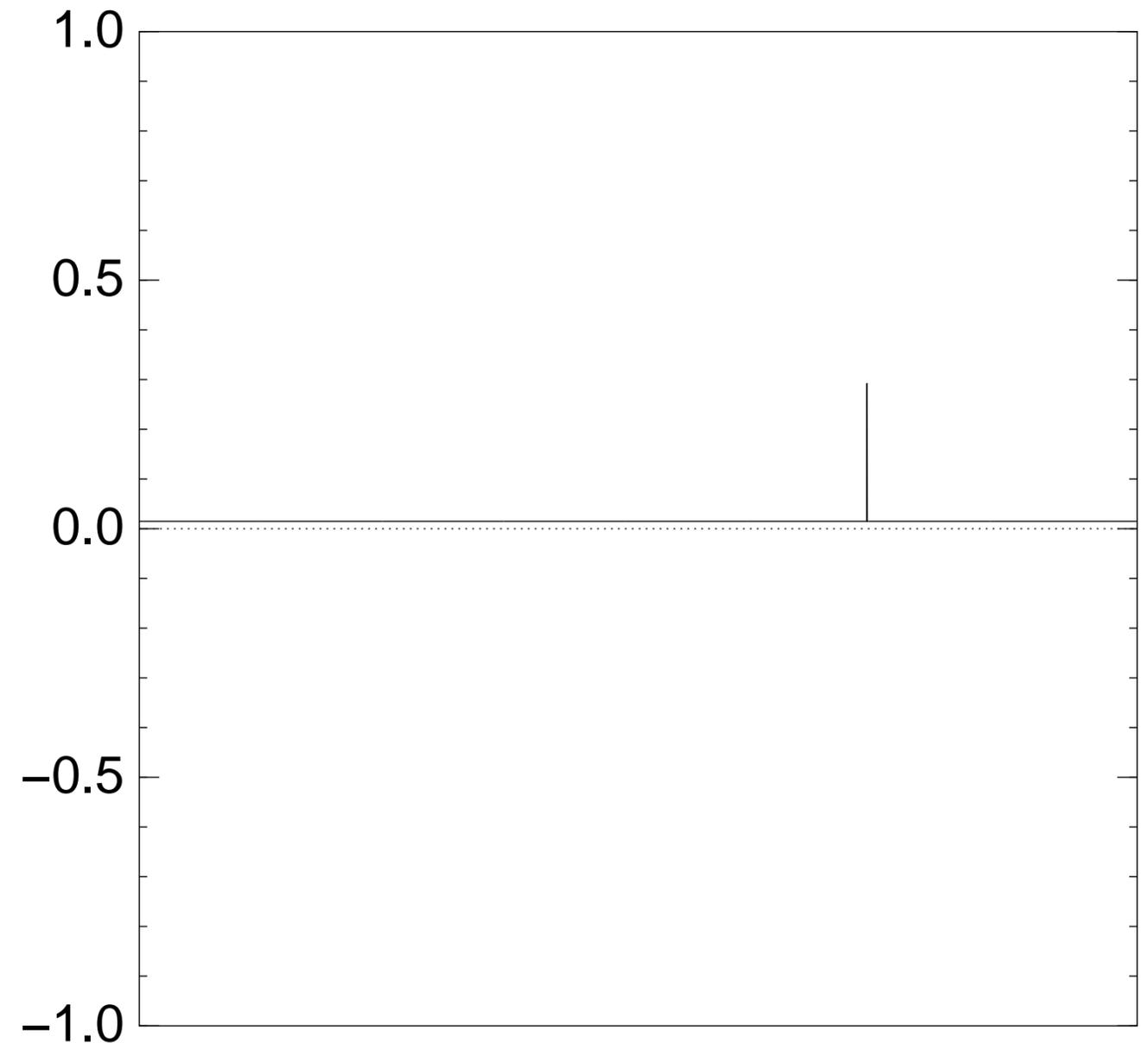
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $9 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

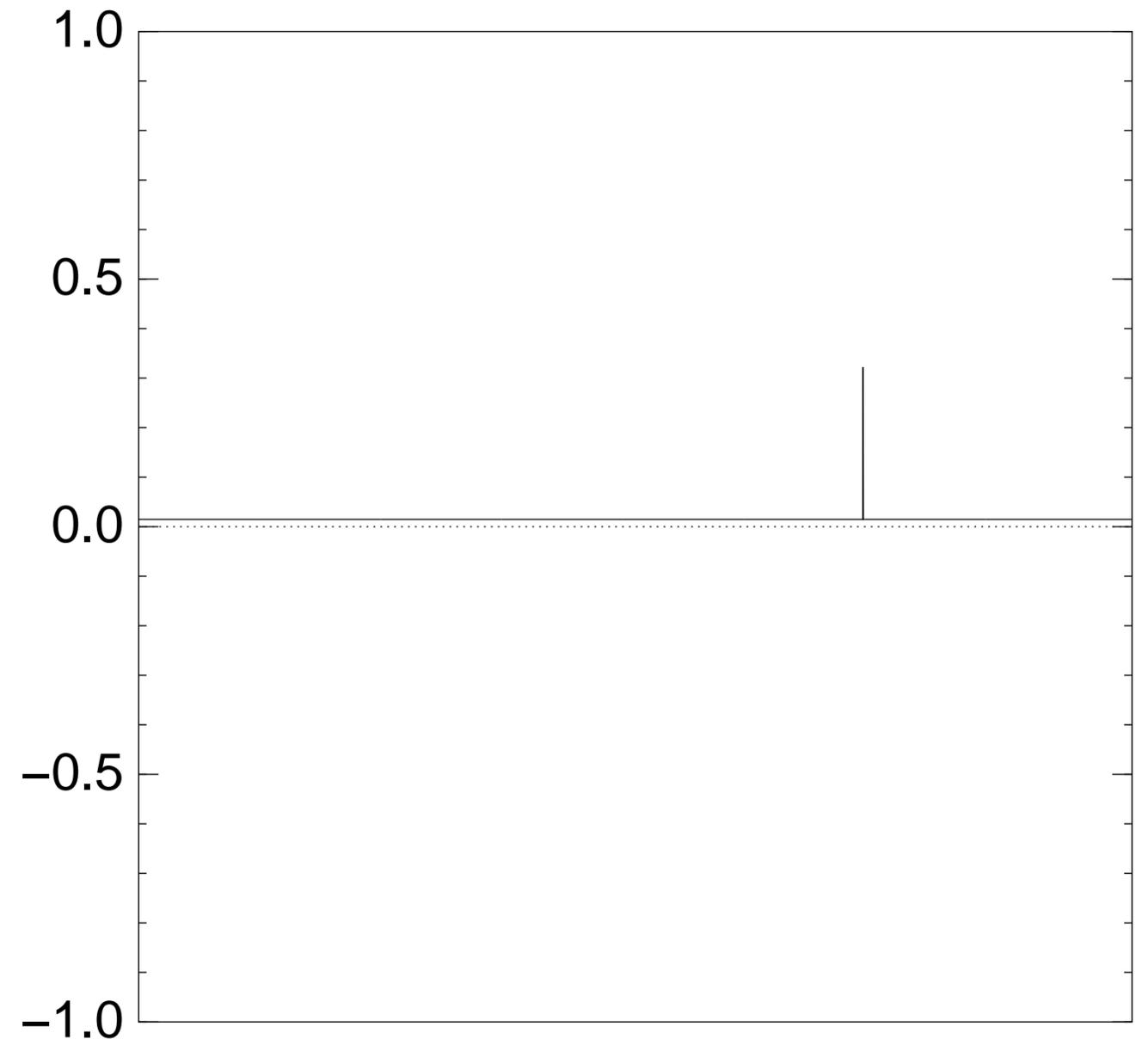
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $10 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

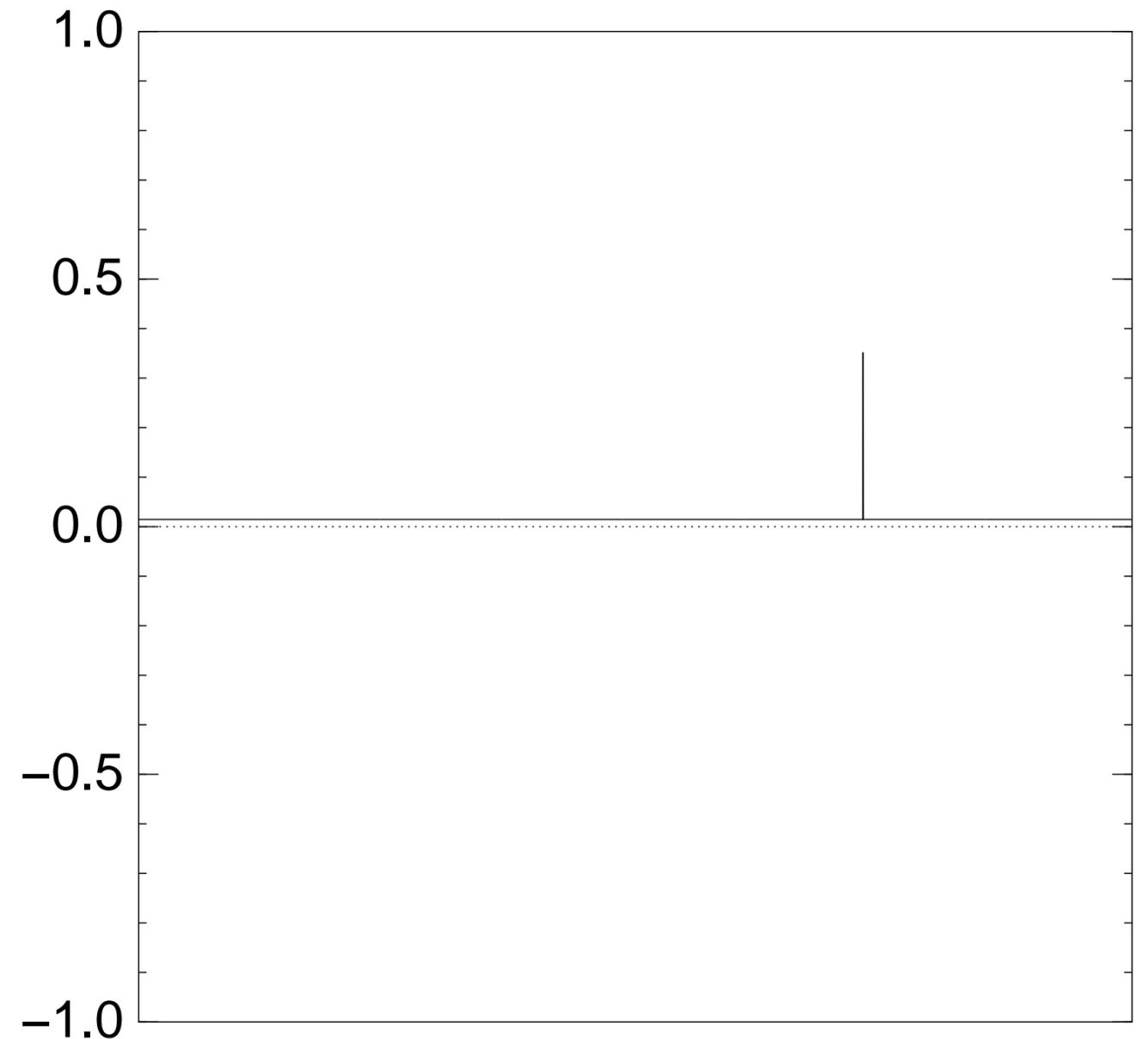
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $11 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

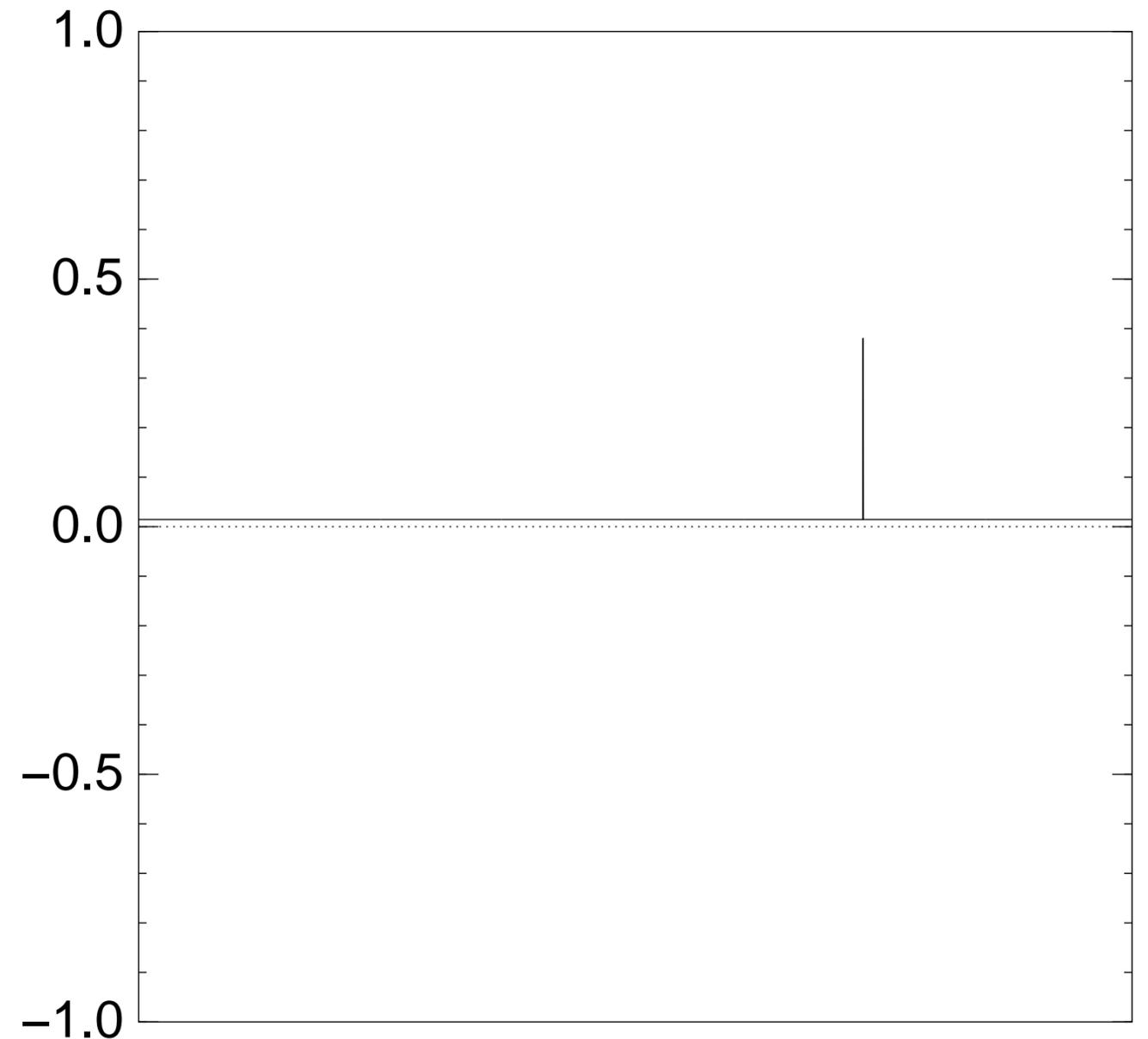
This is also fast.

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 $12 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

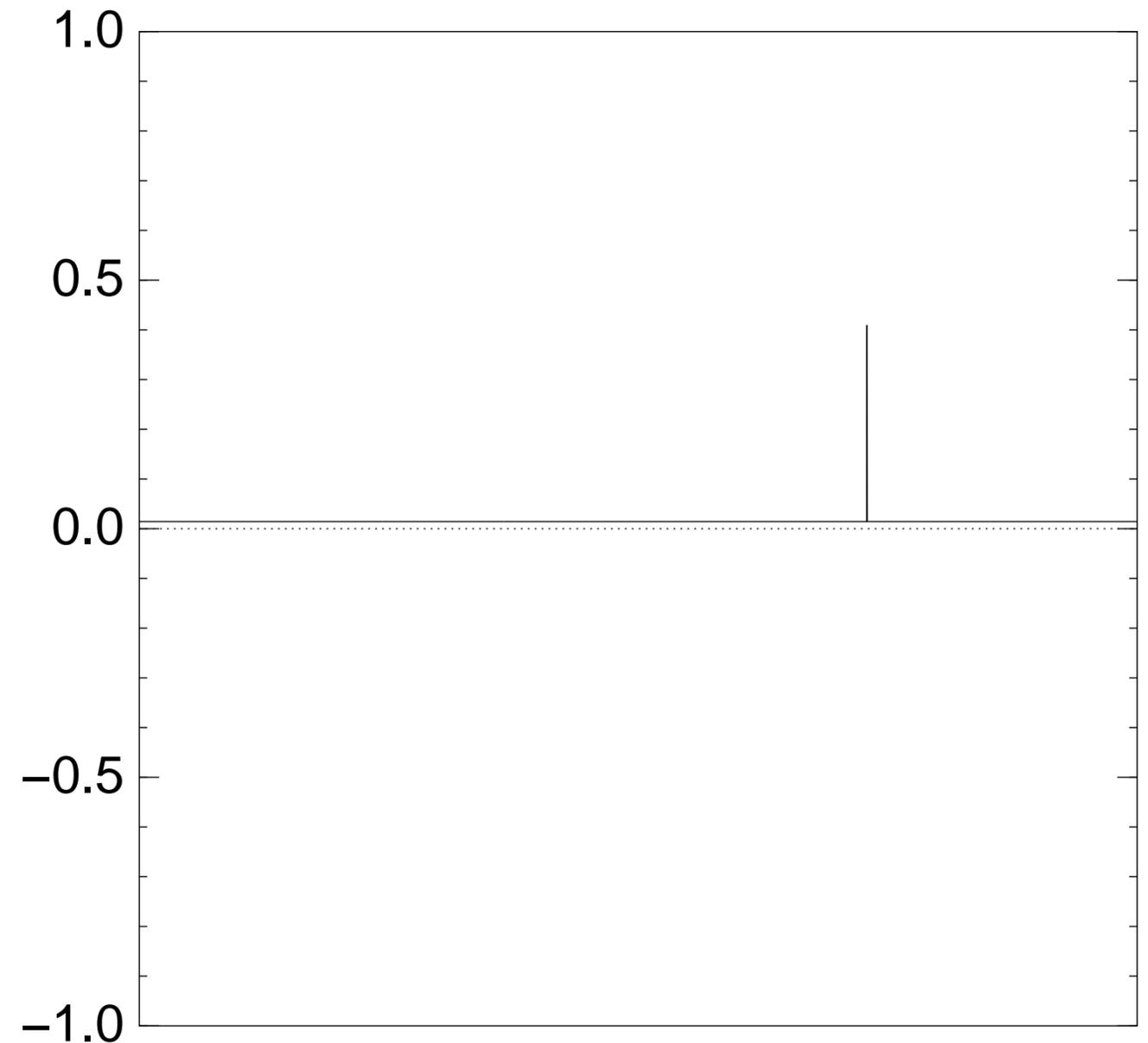
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $13 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

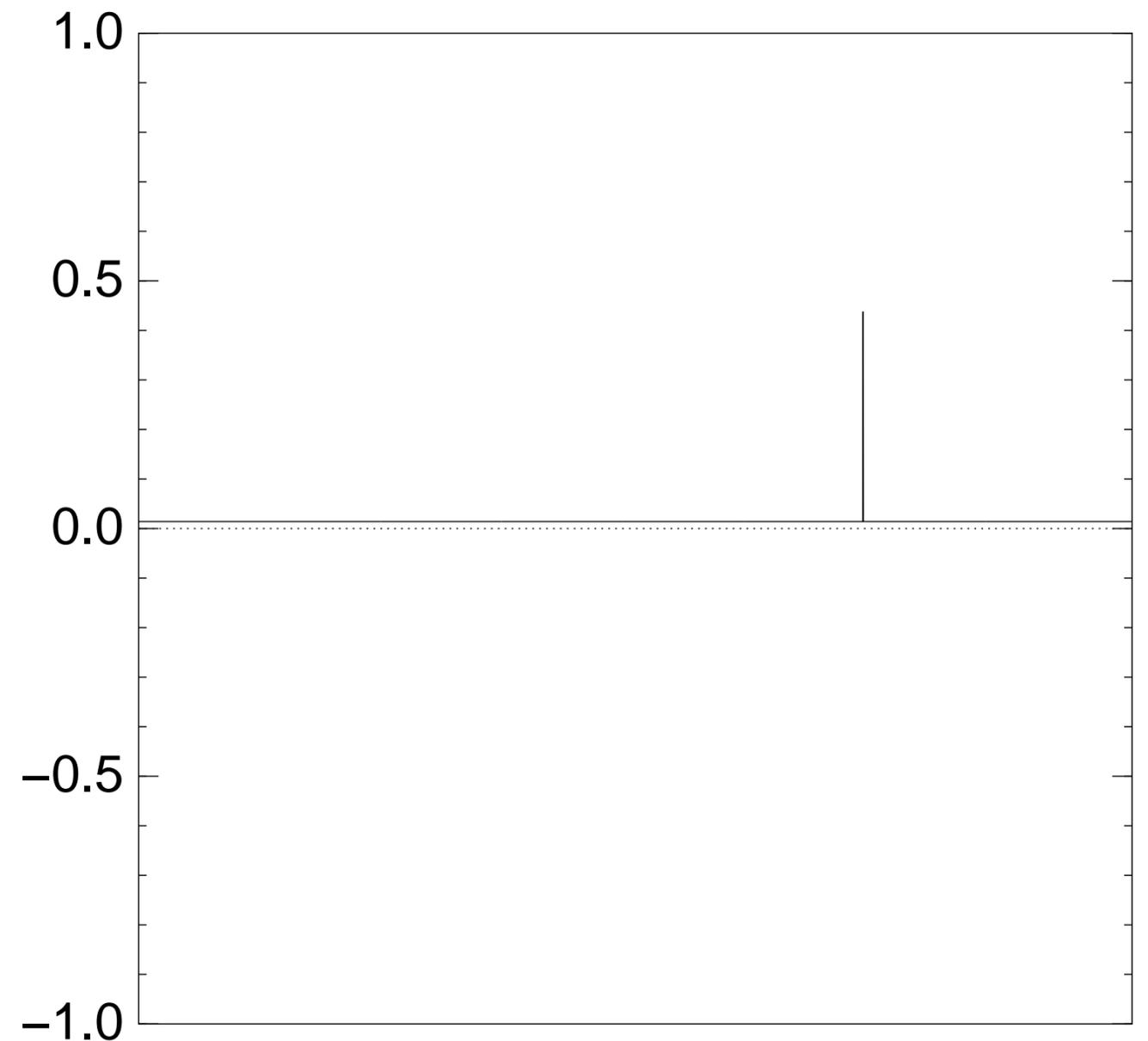
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $14 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

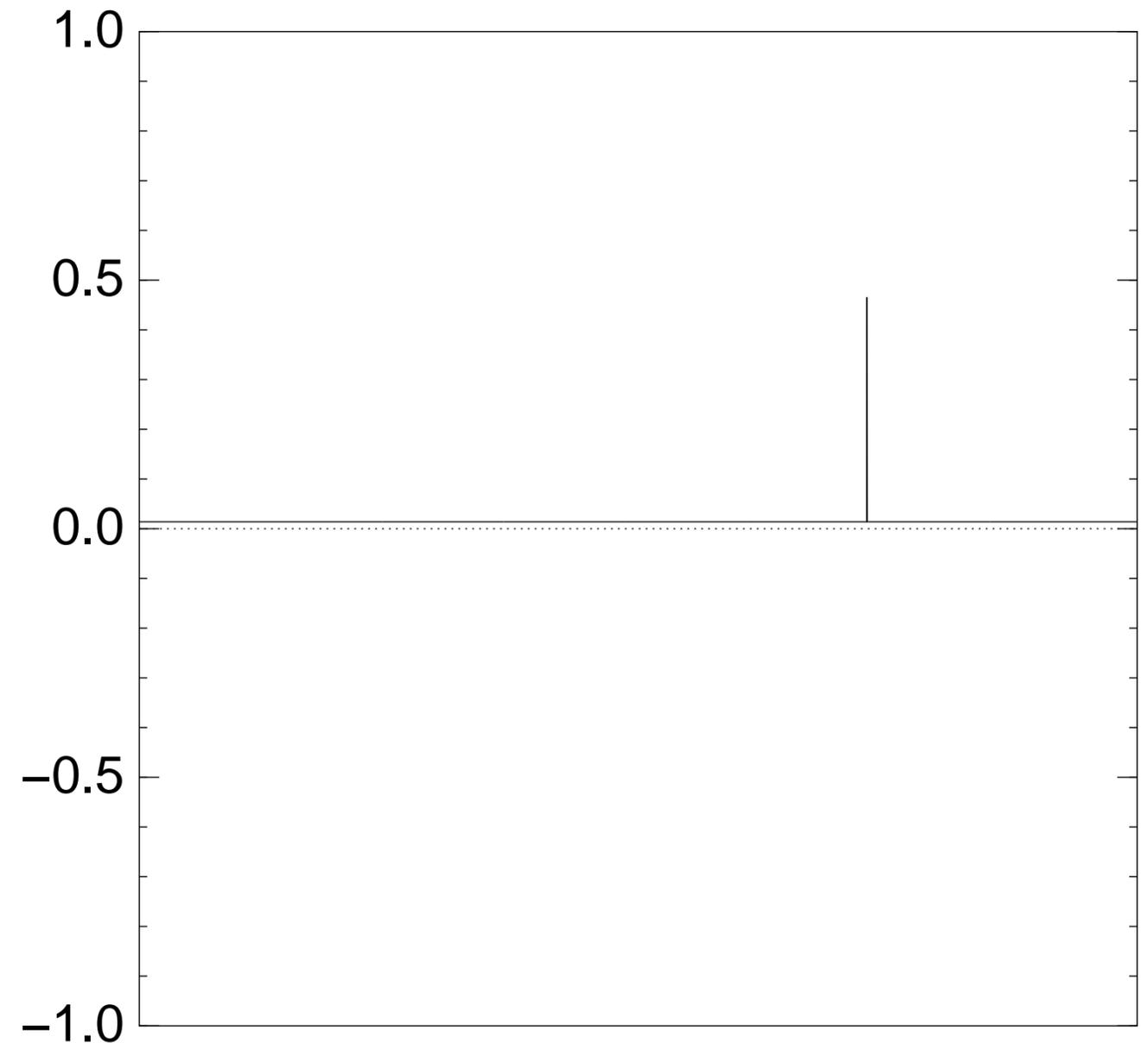
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $15 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

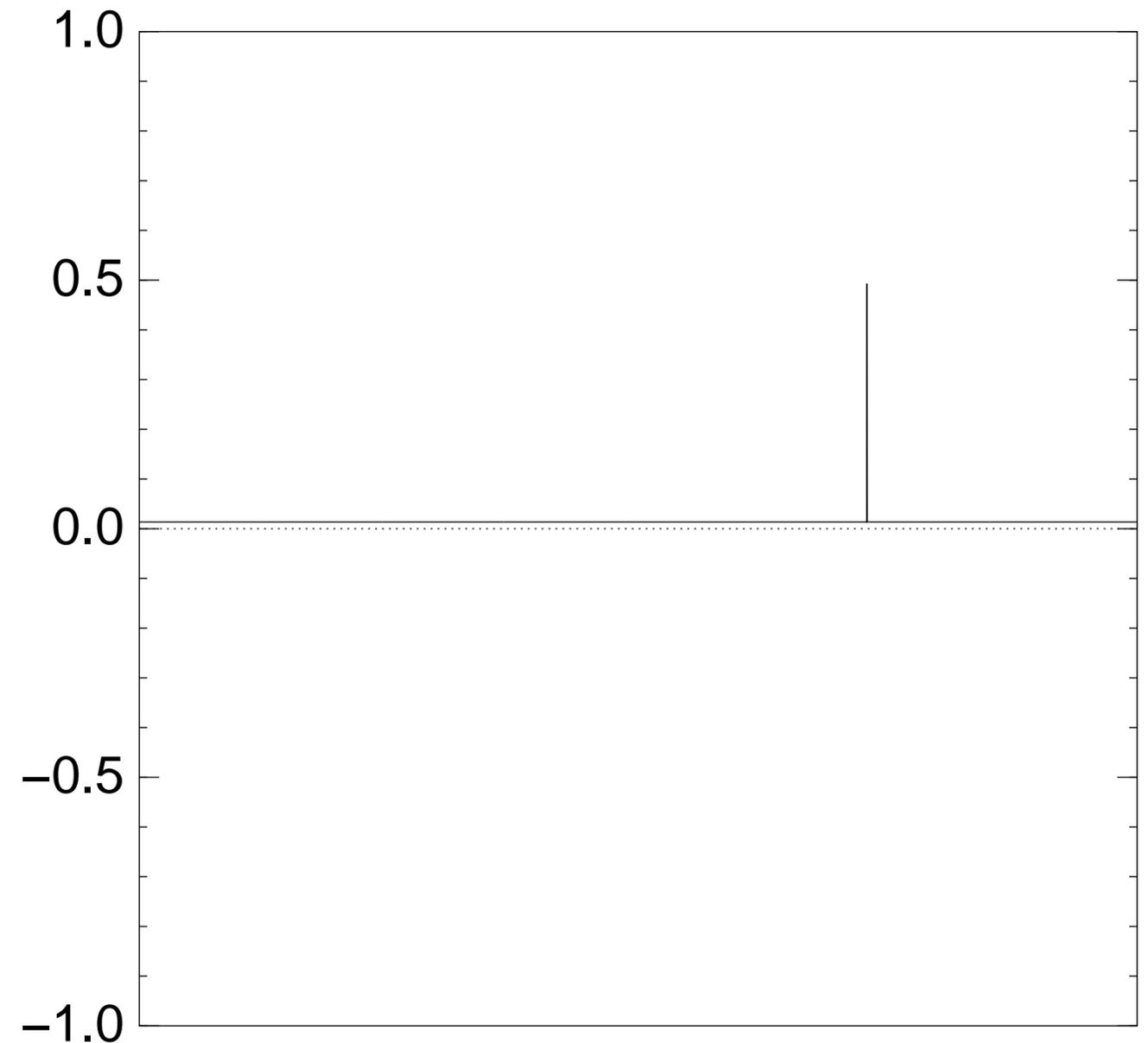
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $16 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

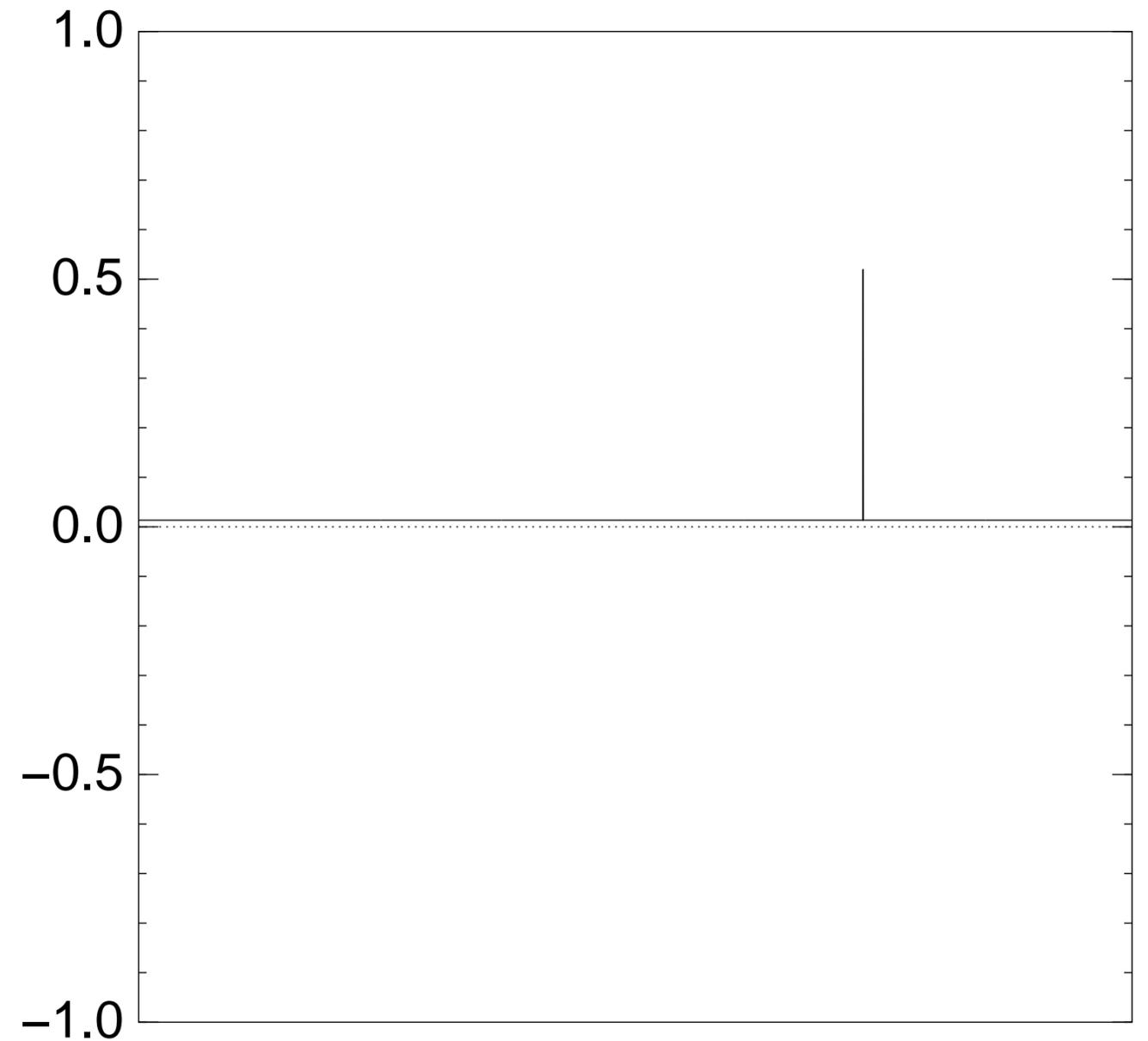
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $17 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

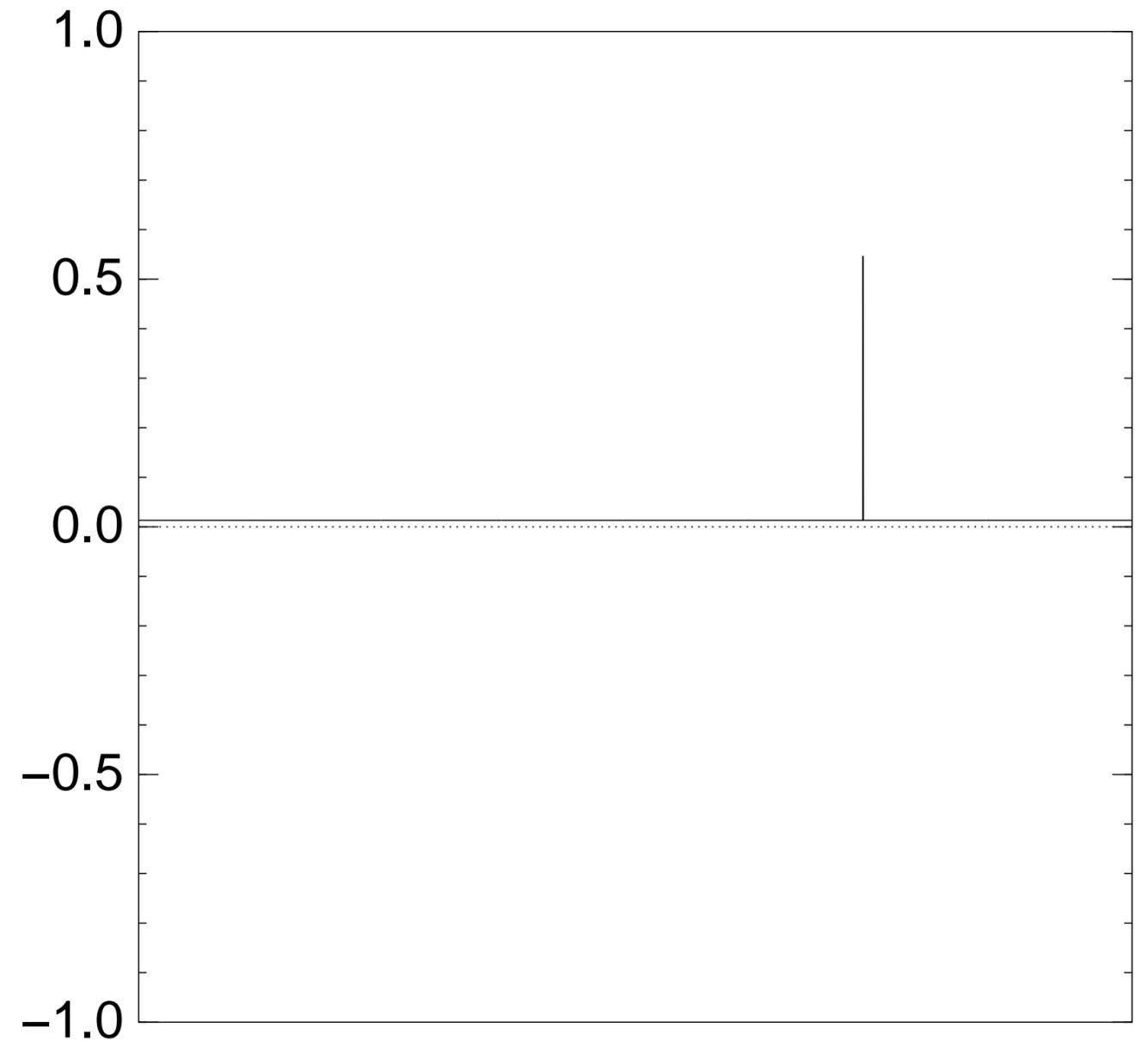
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $18 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

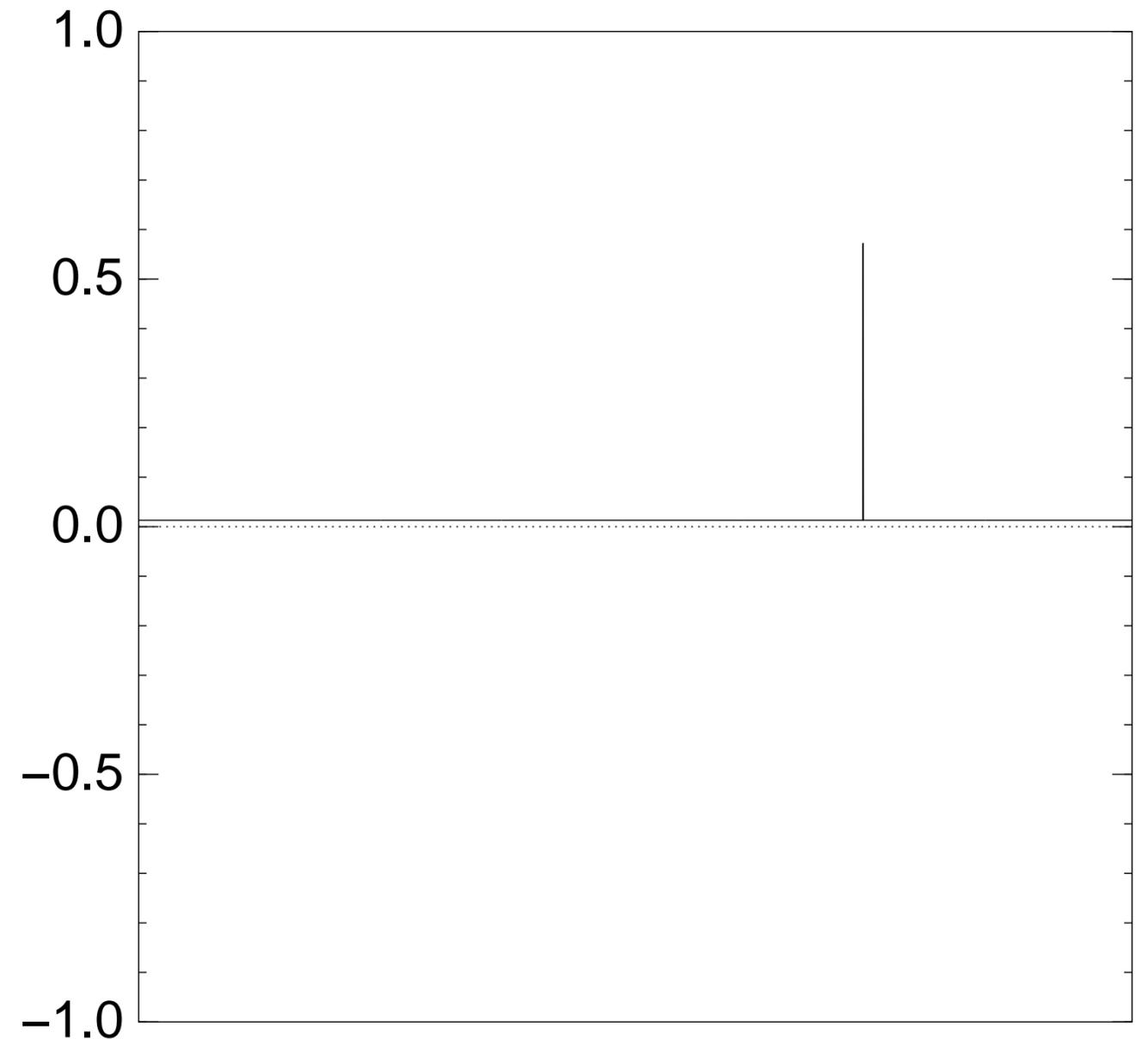
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $19 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

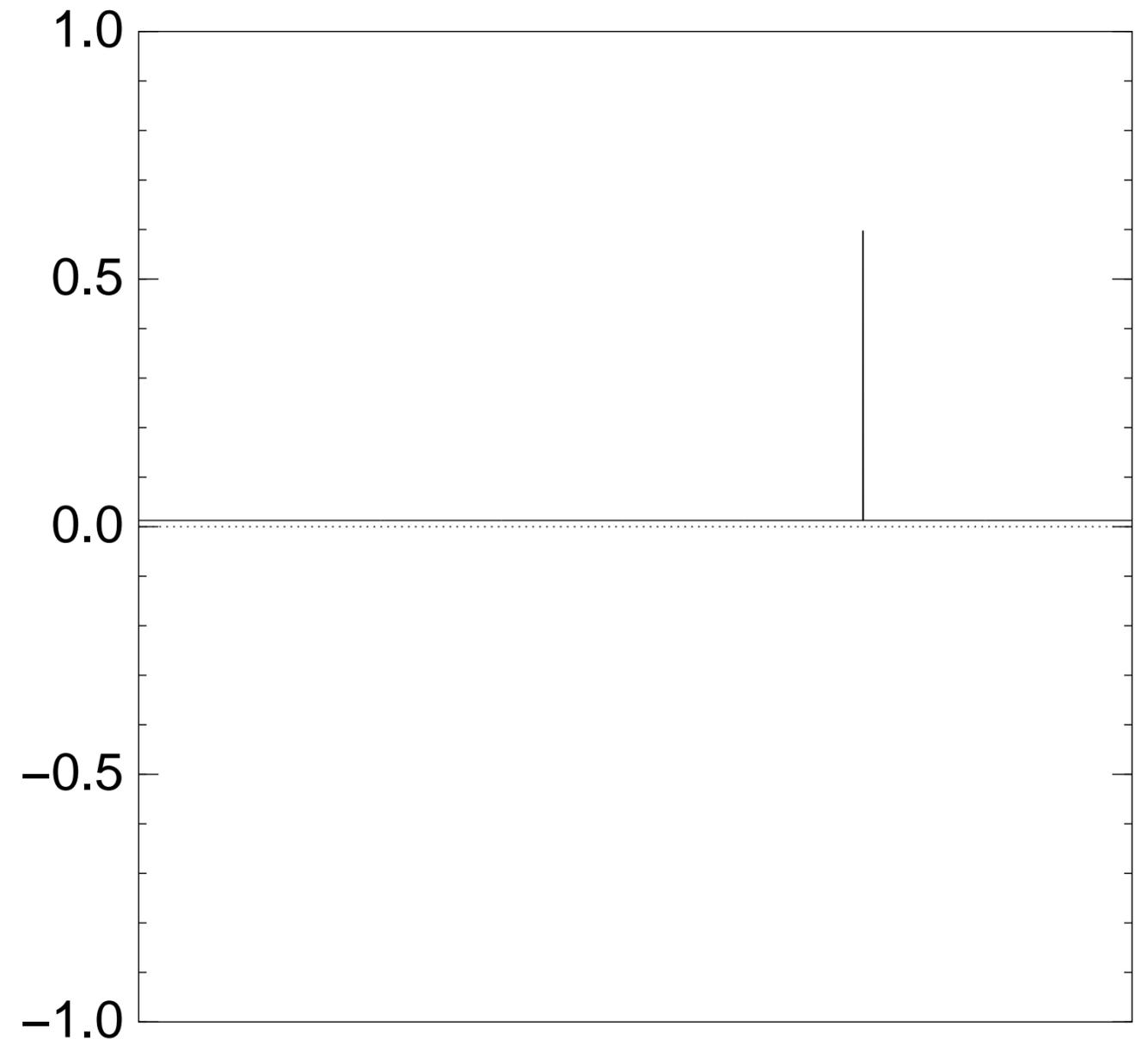
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $20 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

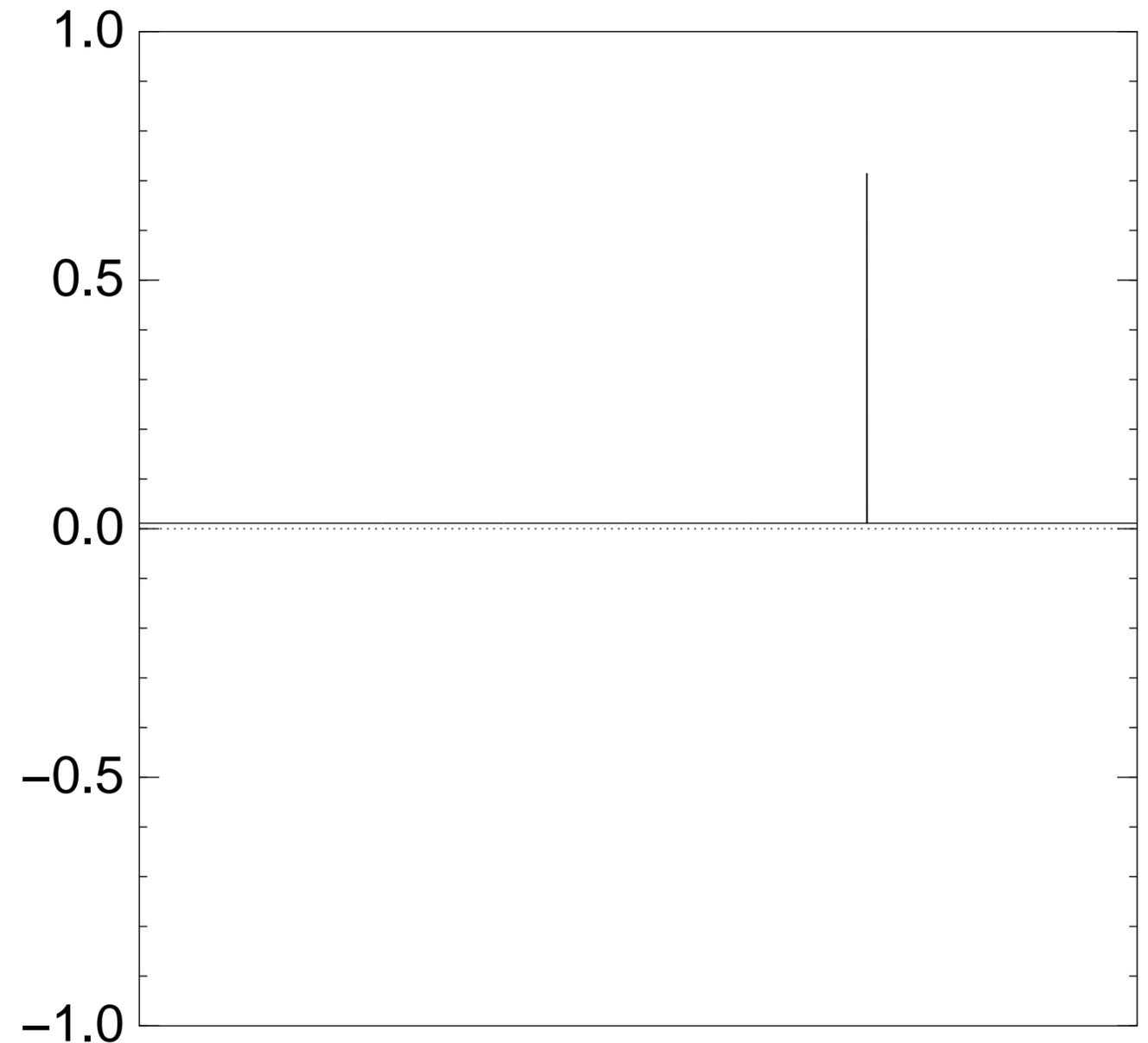
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $25 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

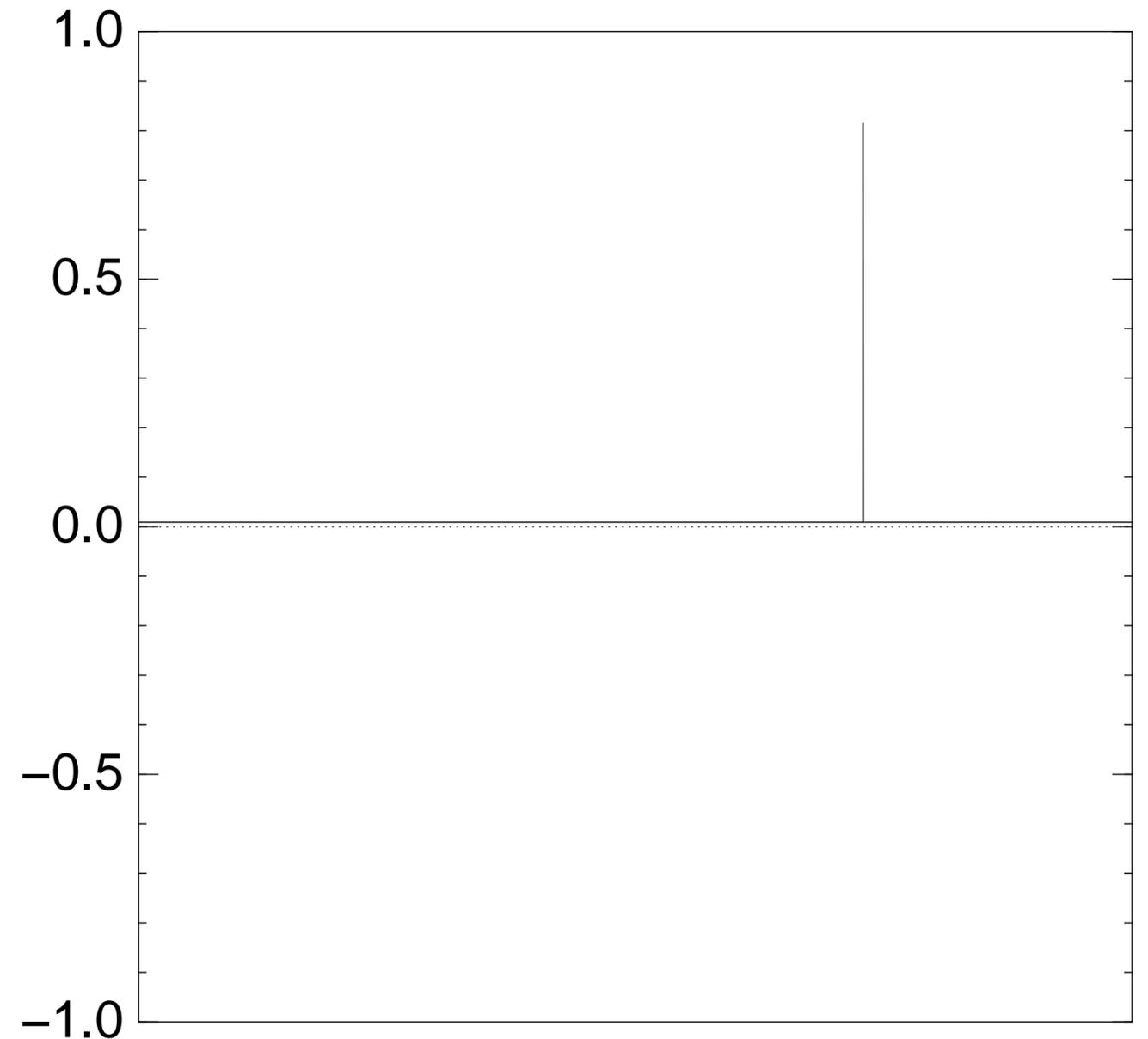
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $30 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

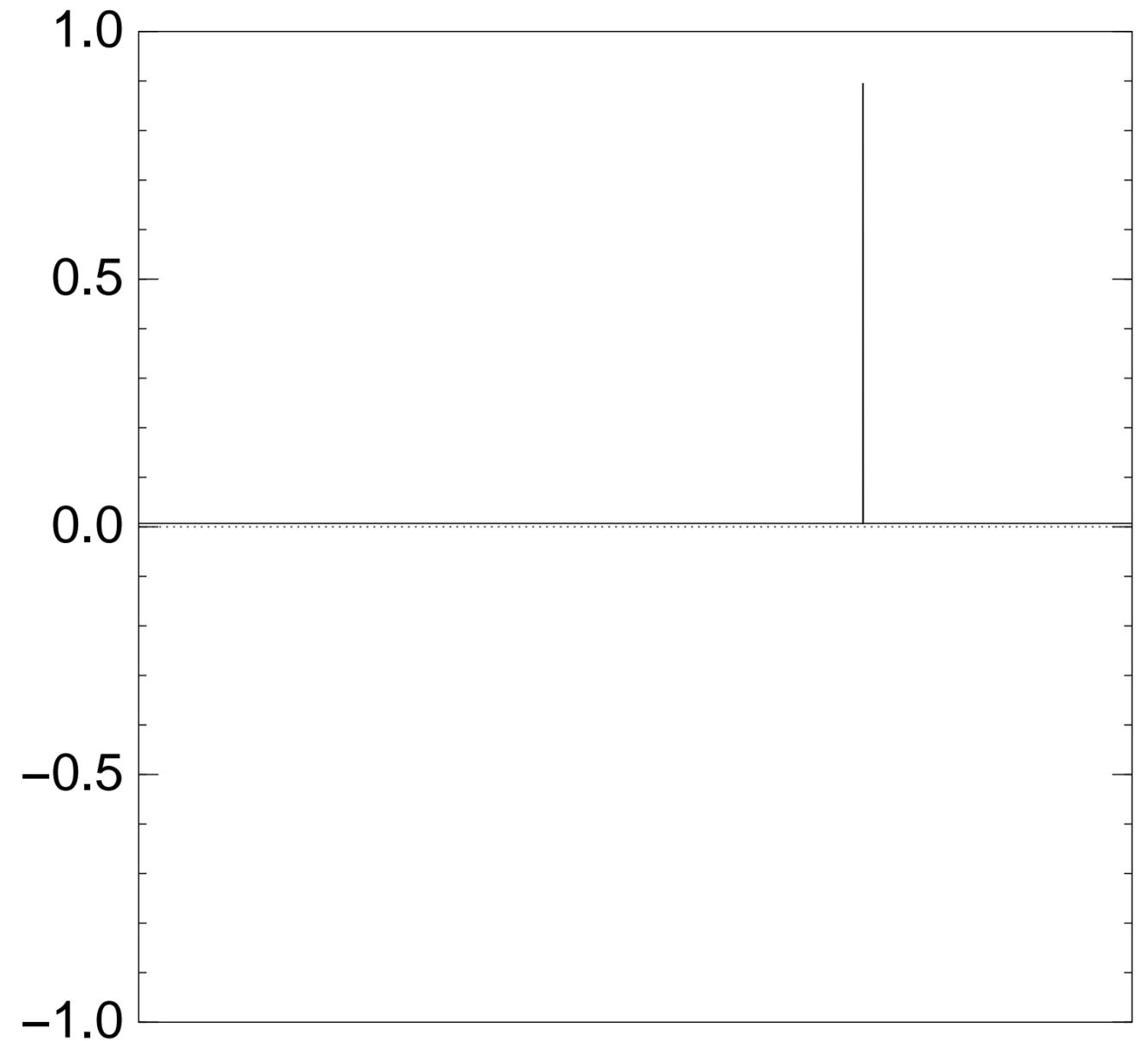
This is also fast.

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 $35 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



Good moment to stop, measure.

Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

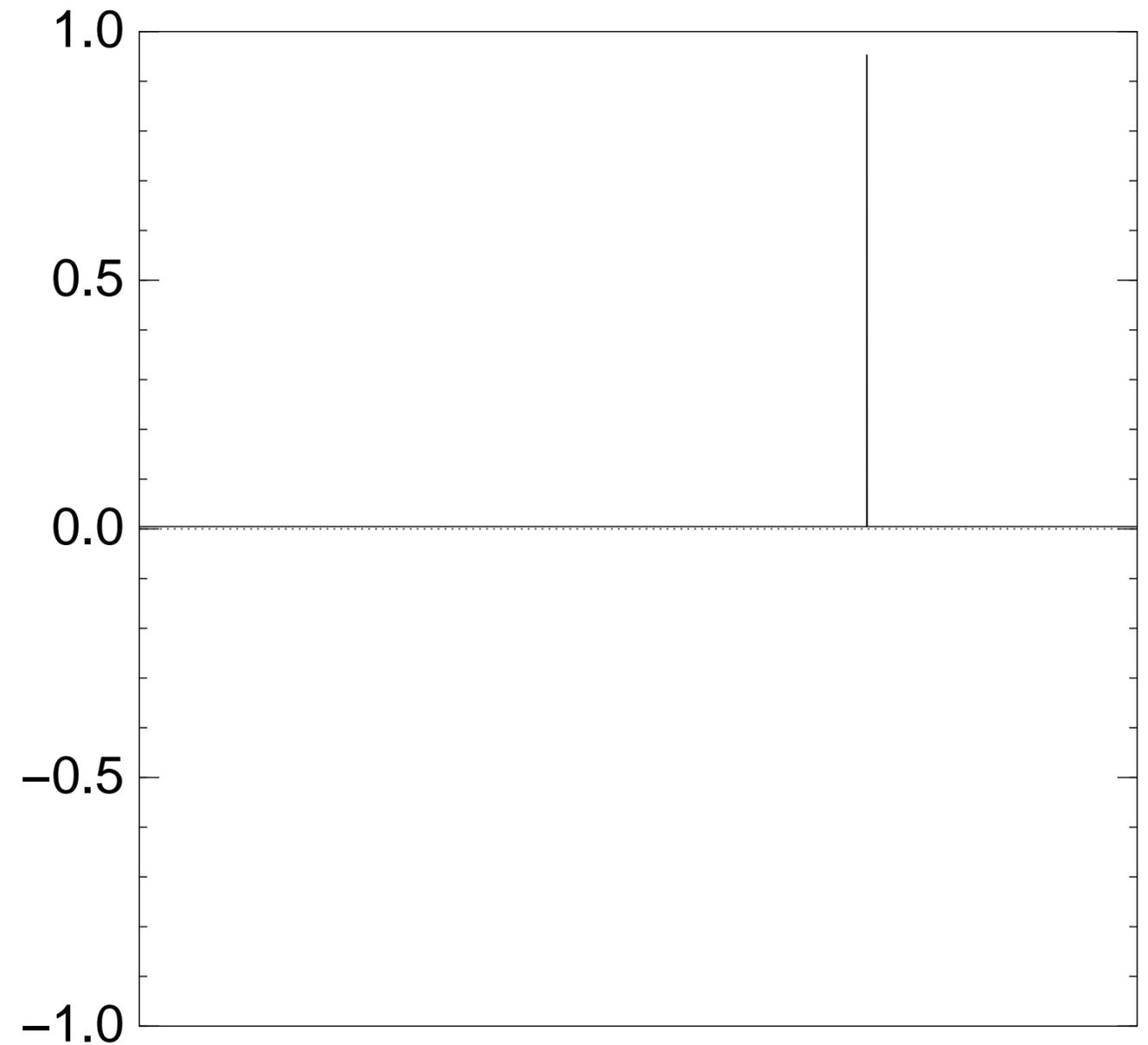
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $40 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

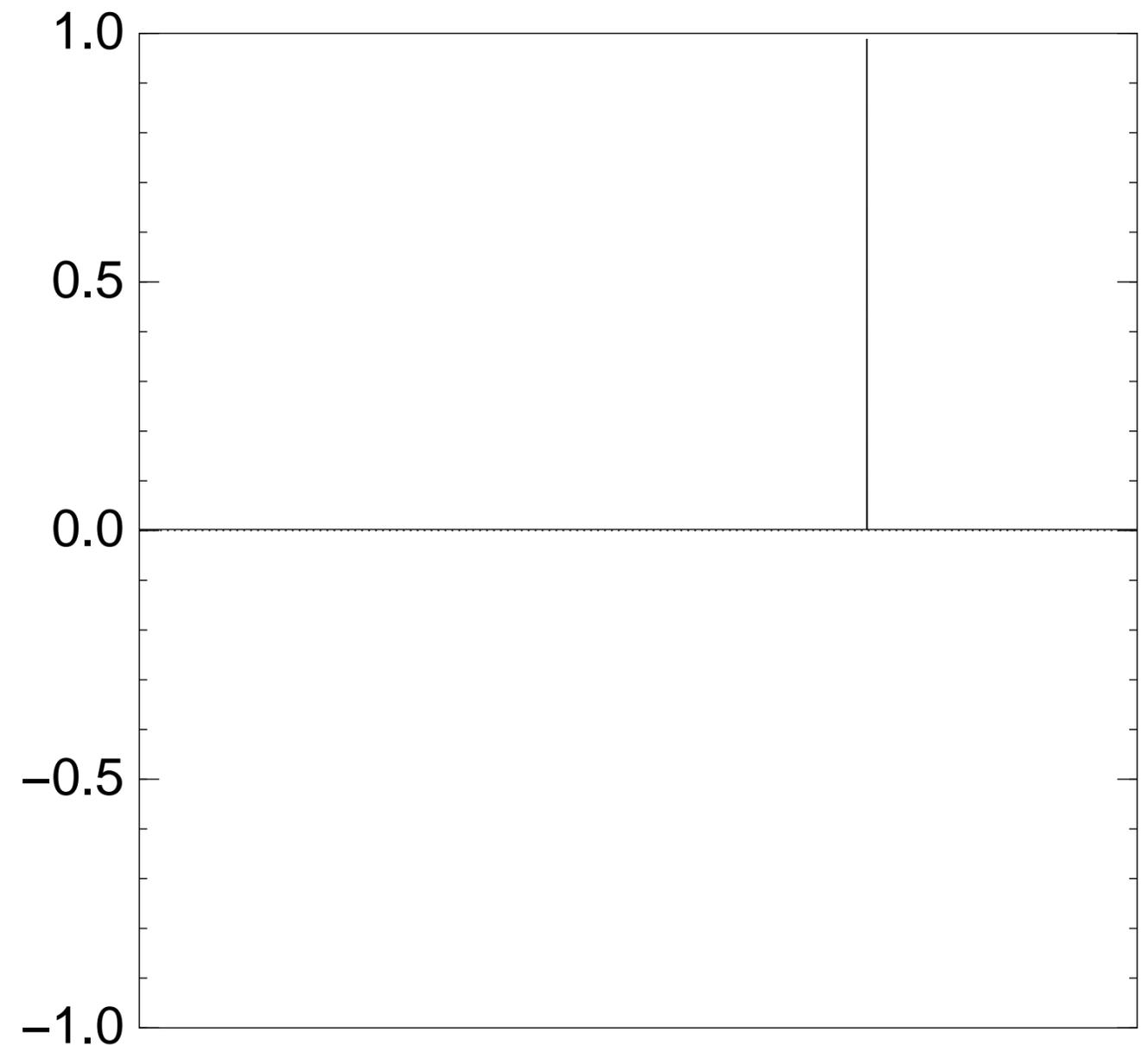
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $45 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

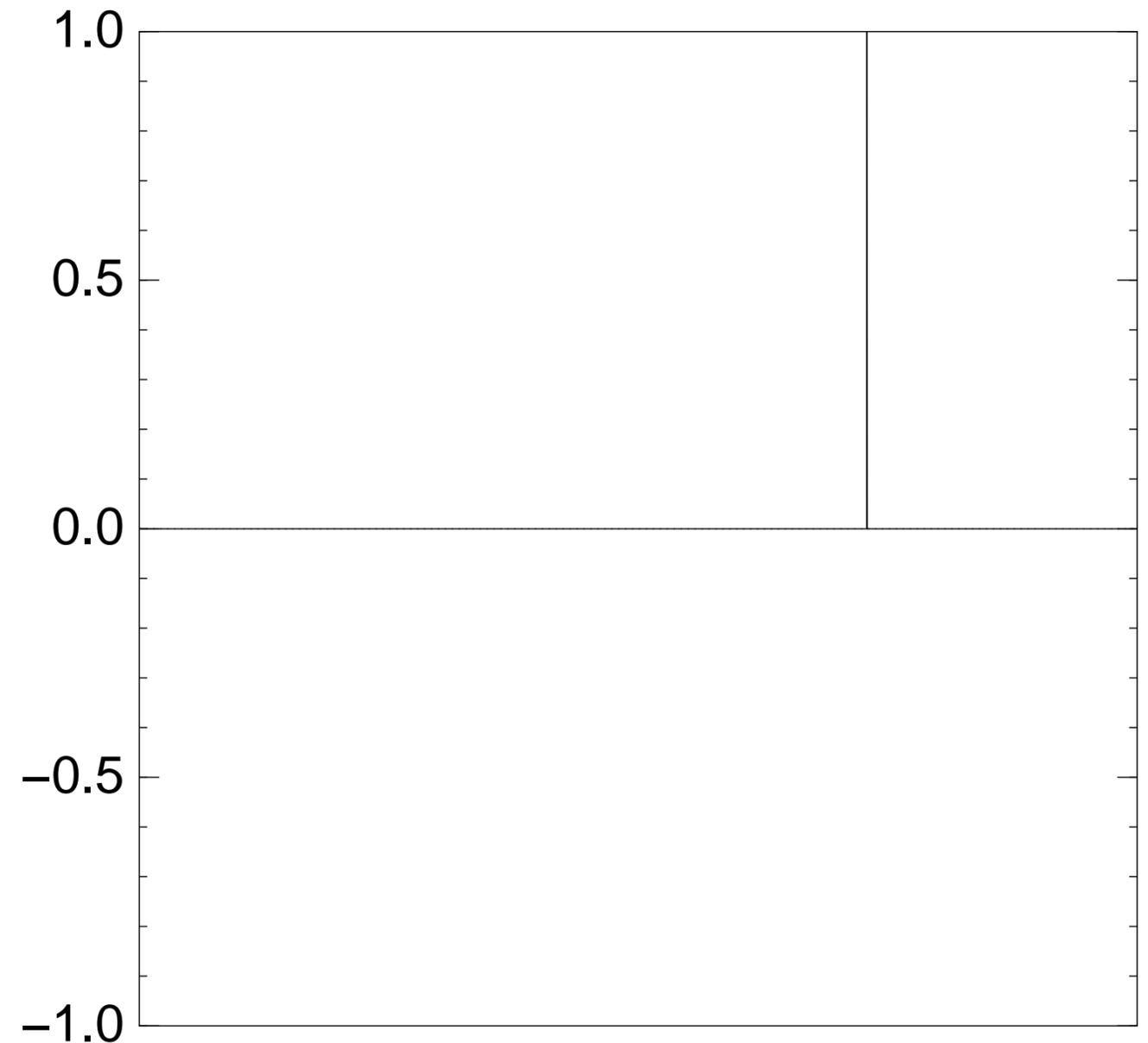
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $50 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Traditional stopping point.

Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

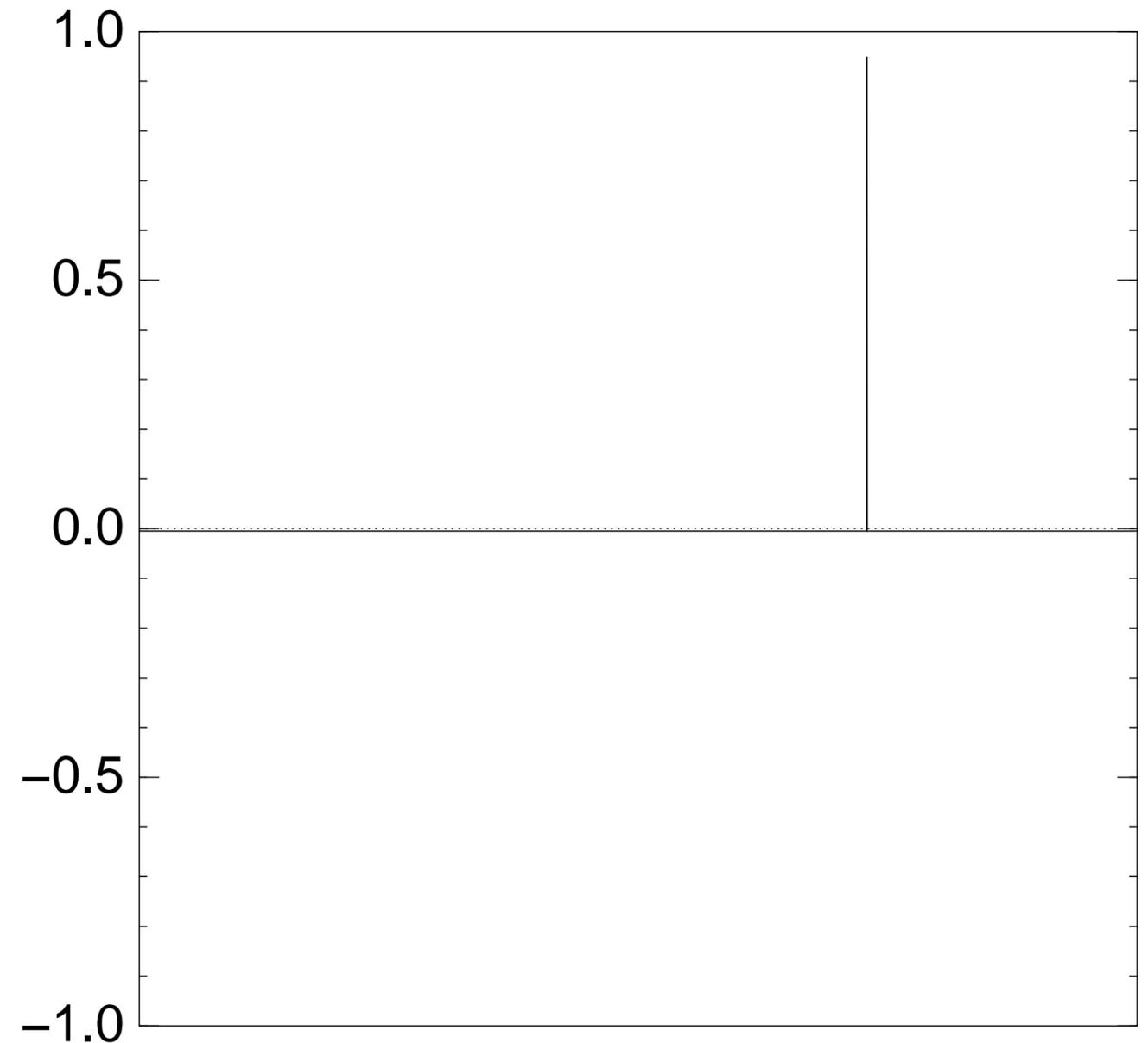
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $60 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

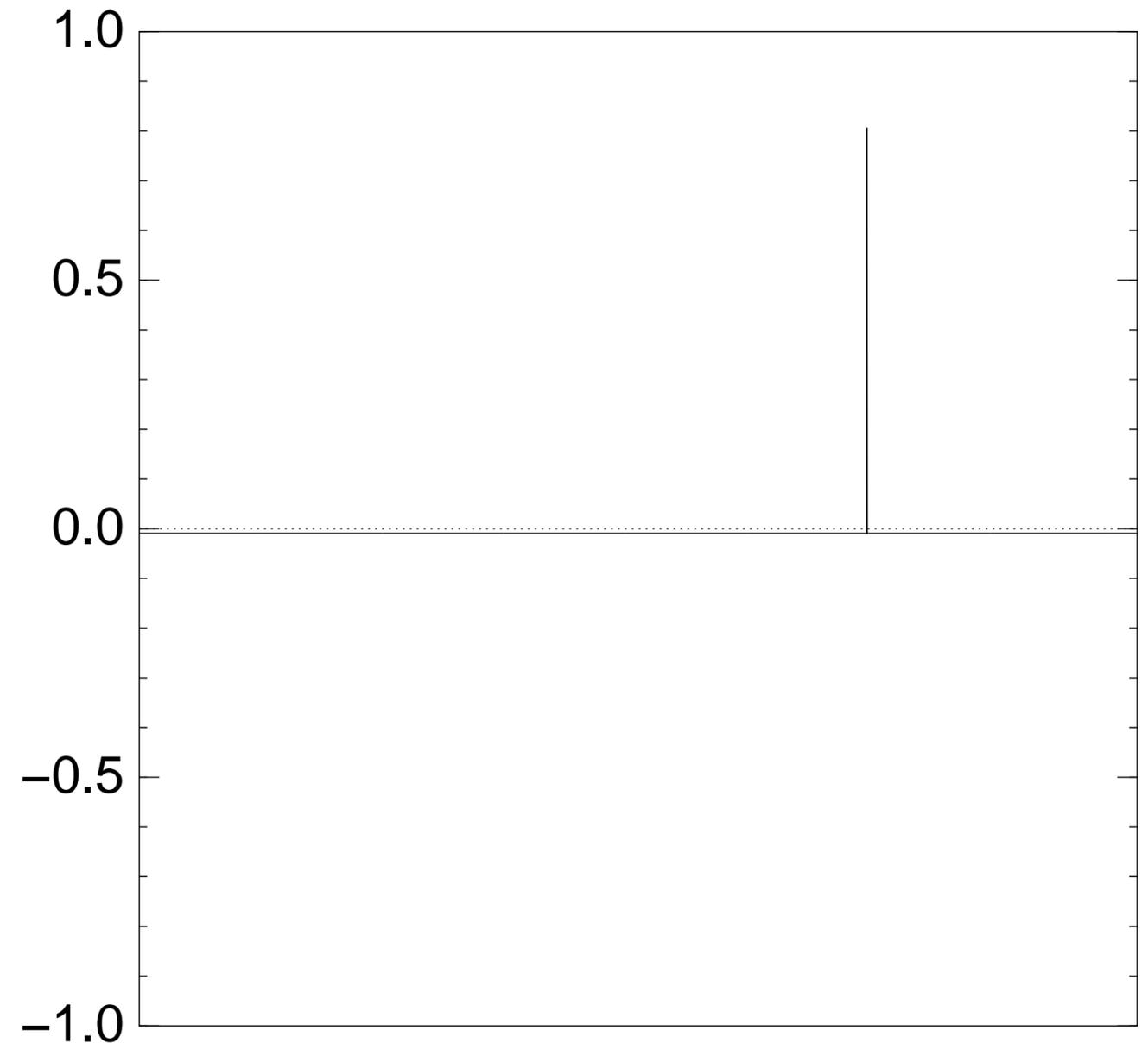
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $70 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

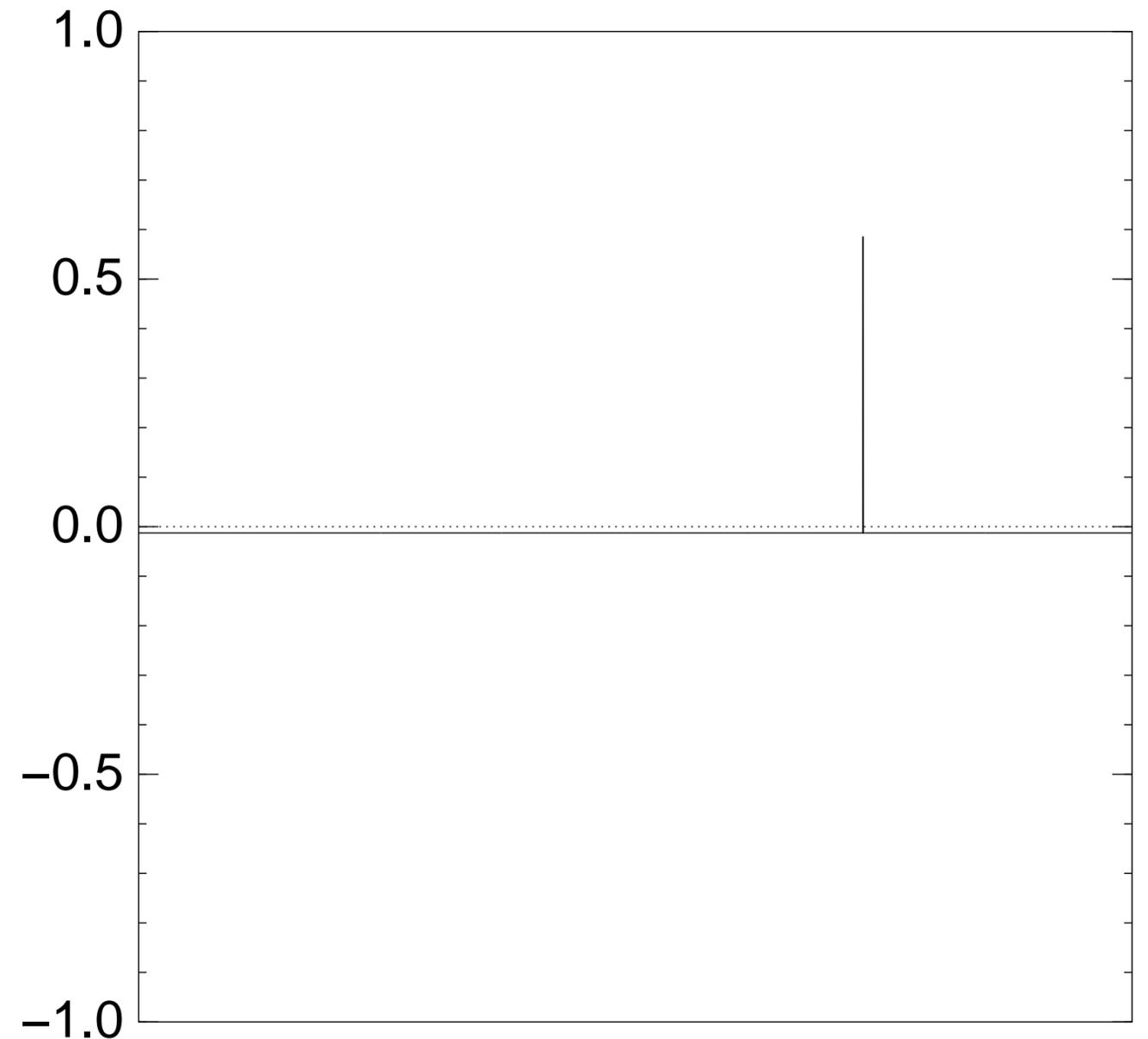
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $80 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

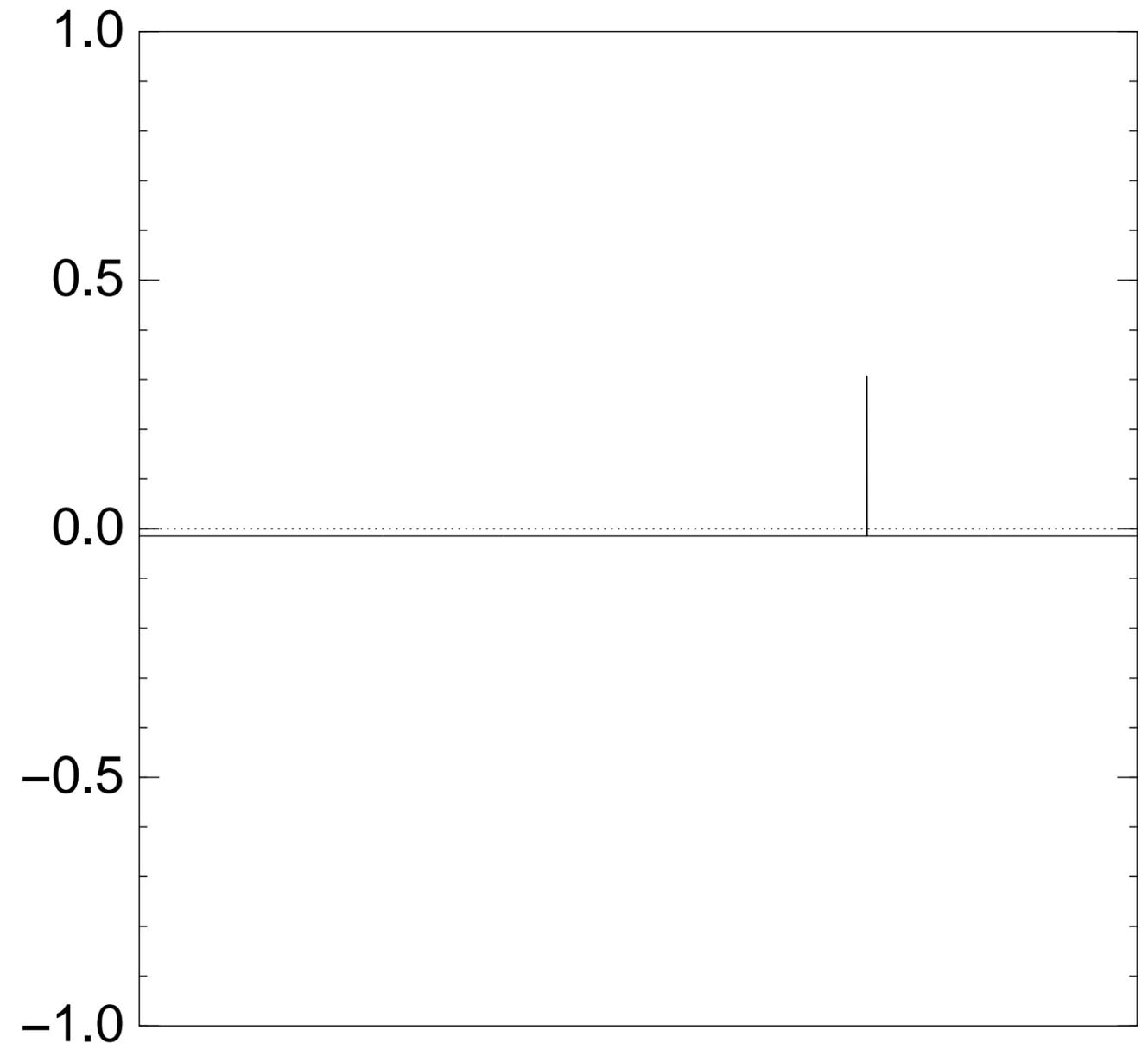
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $90 \times (\text{Step 1} + \text{Step 2})$:



Start from uniform superposition over n -bit strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

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 if f is fast.

Step 2: “Grover diffusion”.

Negate a around its average.

This is also fast.

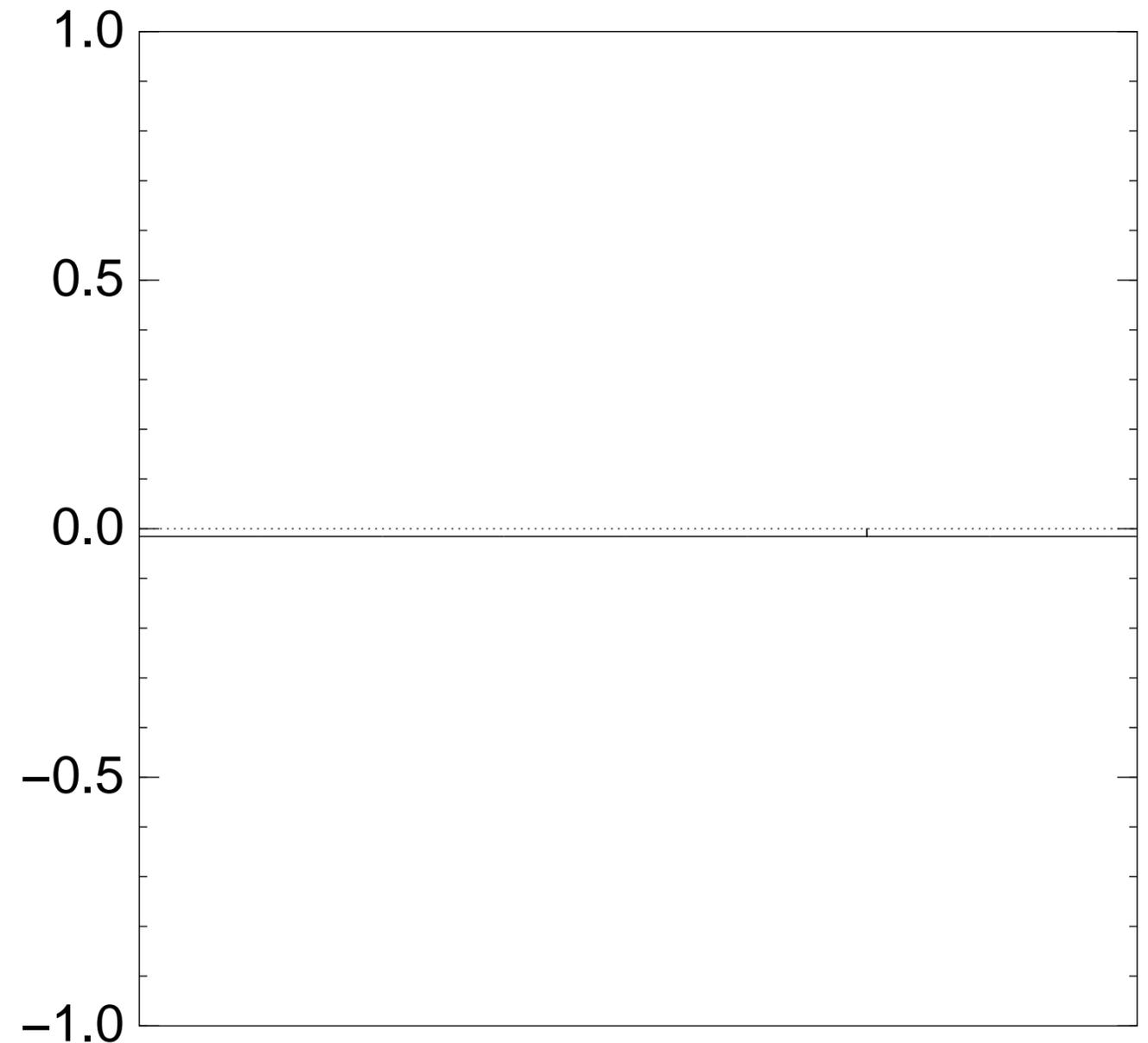
Repeat Step 1 + Step 2

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 $100 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



Very bad stopping point.

from uniform superposition
 of all strings u : each $a_u = 1$.

Set $a \leftarrow b$ where

a_u if $f(u) = 0$,

otherwise.

fast if f is fast.

“Grover diffusion”.

a around its average.

also fast.

Step 1 + Step 2

$58 \cdot 2^{0.5n}$ times.

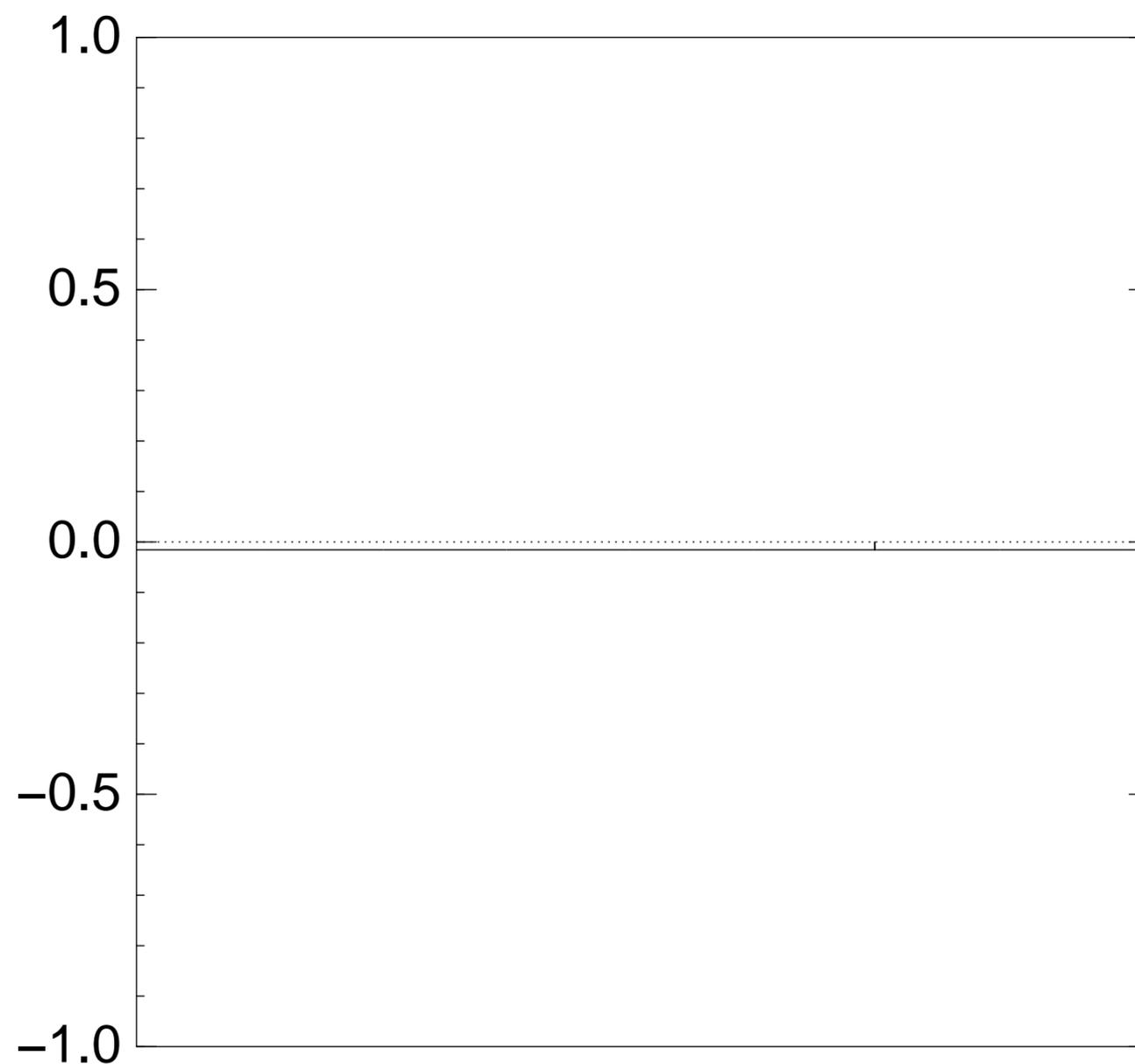
the n qubits.

with high probability this finds s .

Normalized graph of $u \mapsto a_u$

for an example with $n = 12$

after $100 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



Very bad stopping point.

$u \mapsto a_u$

by a vec

(with fix

(1) a_u fo

(2) a_u fo

n superposition
 u : each $a_u = 1$.

where

$= 0$,

fast.

"diffusion".

its average.

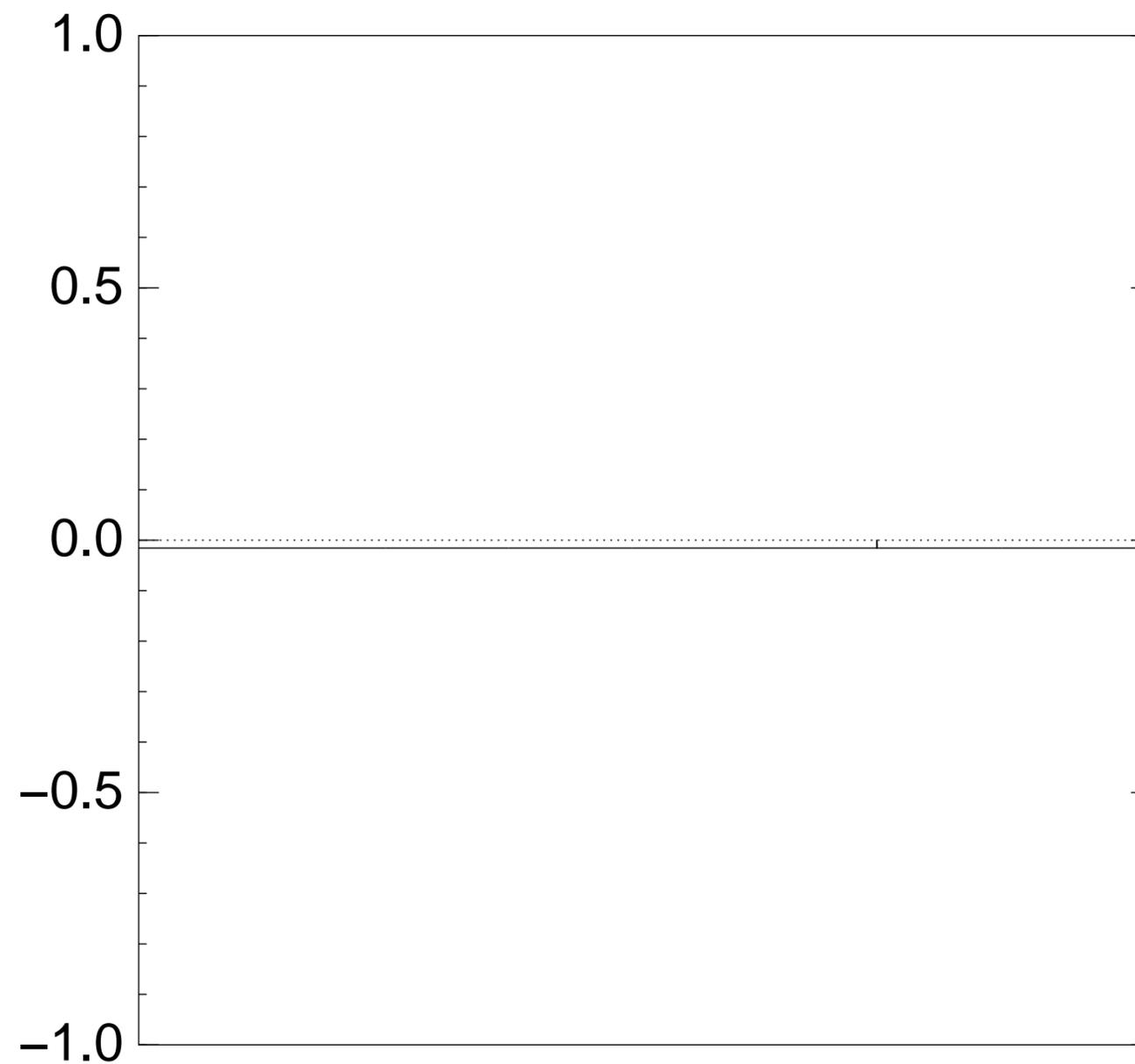
Step 2

times.

bits.

ality this finds s .

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

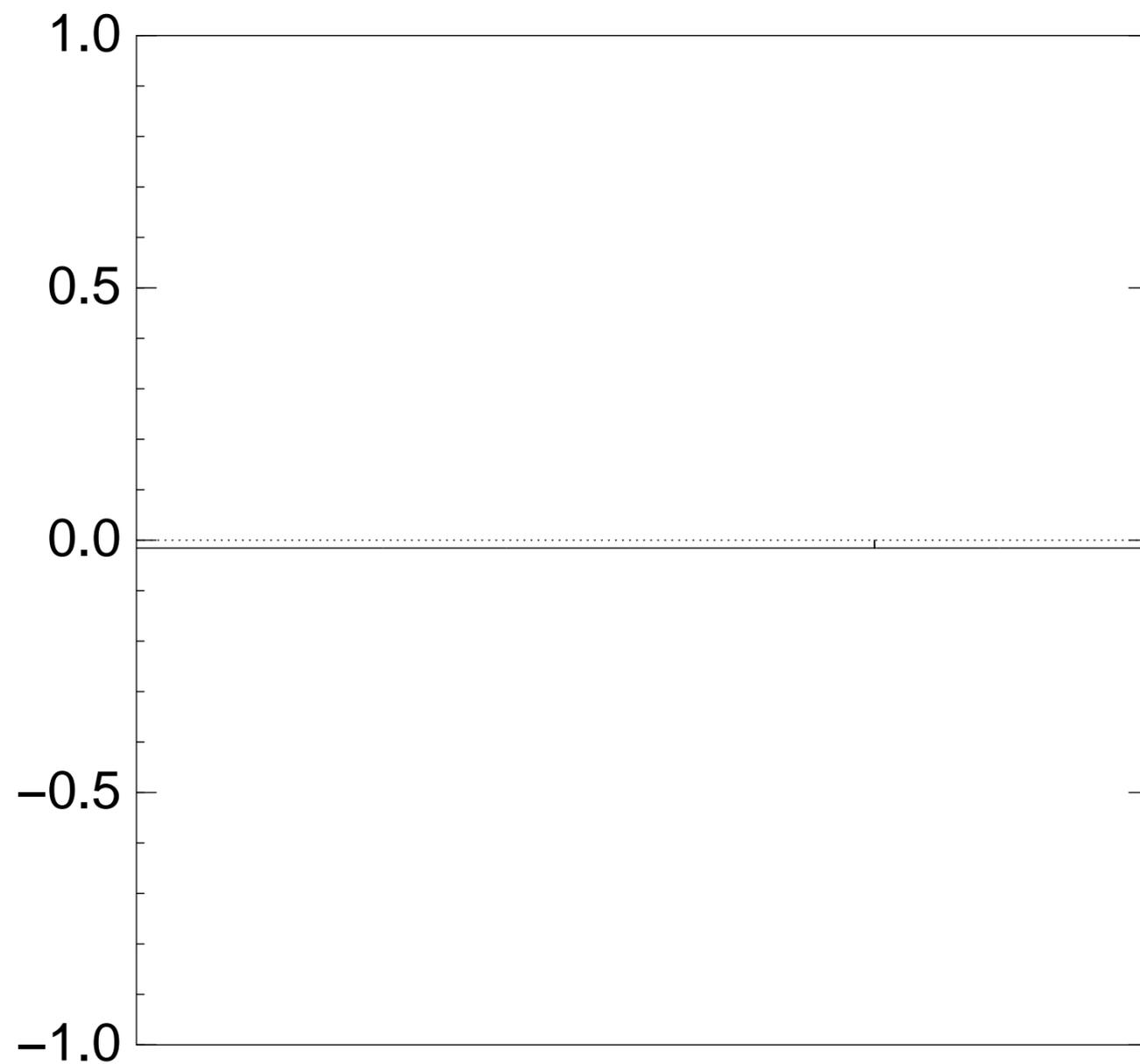


Very bad stopping point.

$u \mapsto a_u$ is complet
 by a vector of two
 (with fixed multipl
 (1) a_u for roots u ;
 (2) a_u for non-roo

sition
 $a_u = 1$.

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

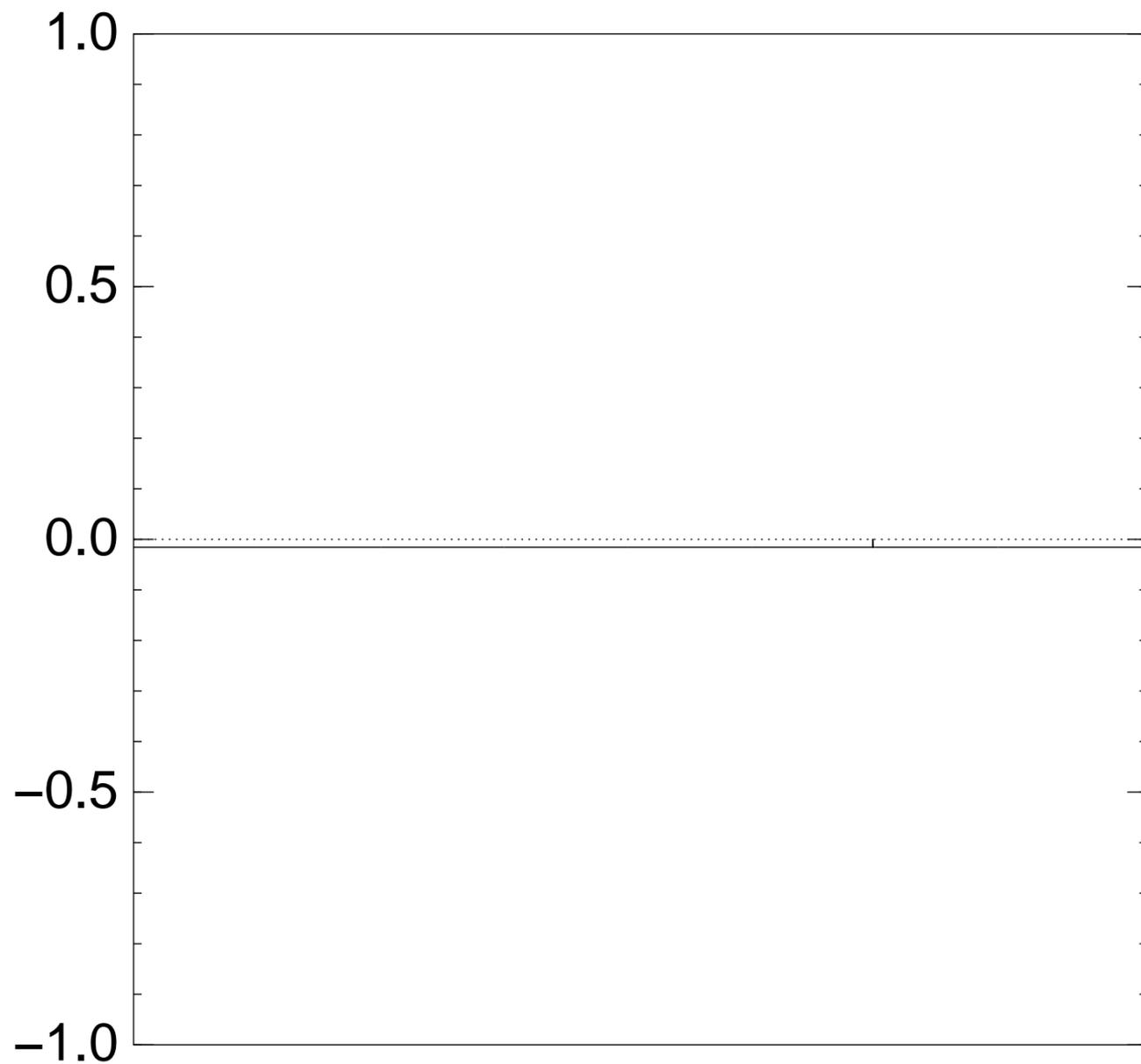


Very bad stopping point.

$u \mapsto a_u$ 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 .

nds s .

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

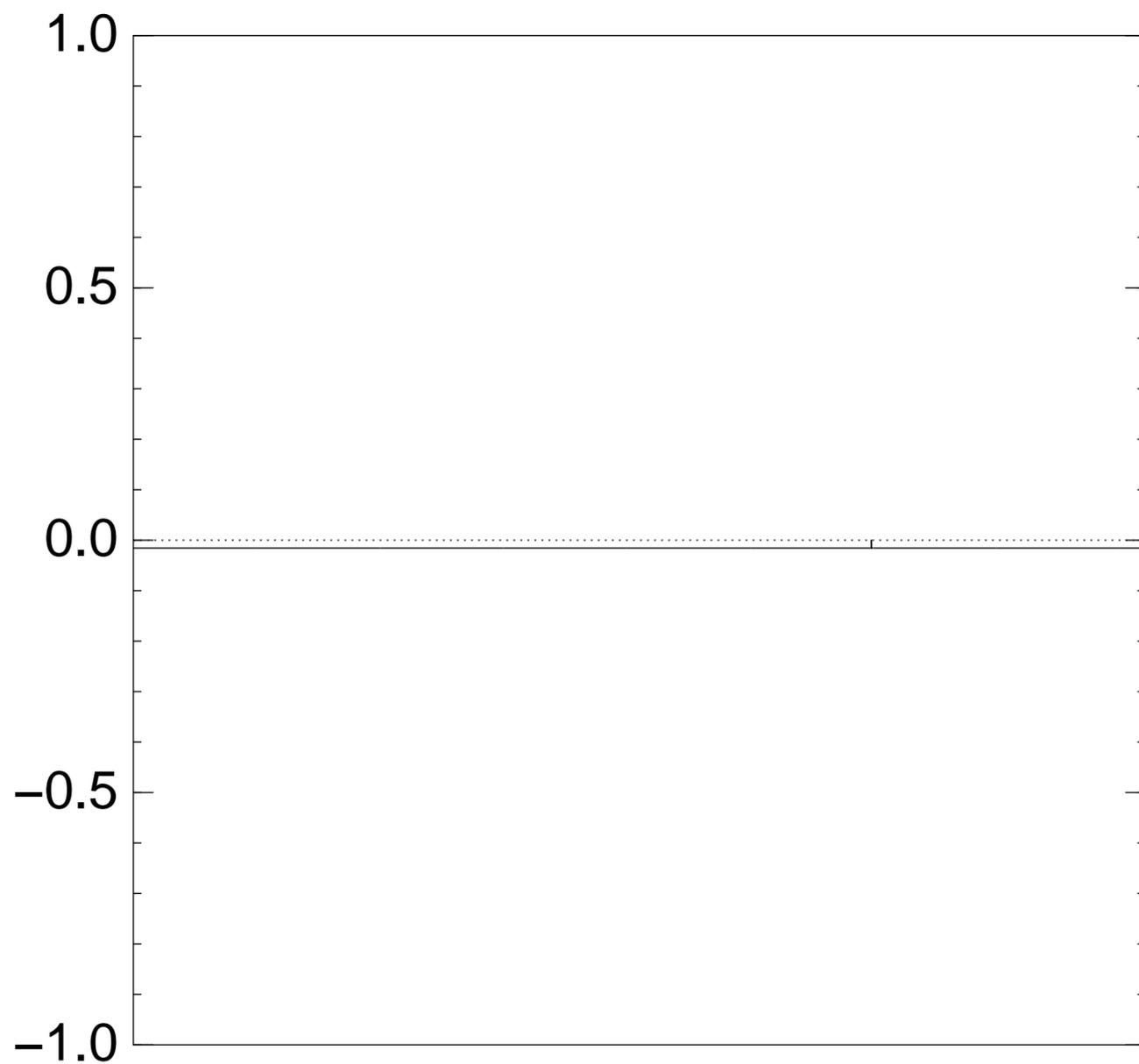


Very bad stopping point.

$u \mapsto a_u$ 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 .

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



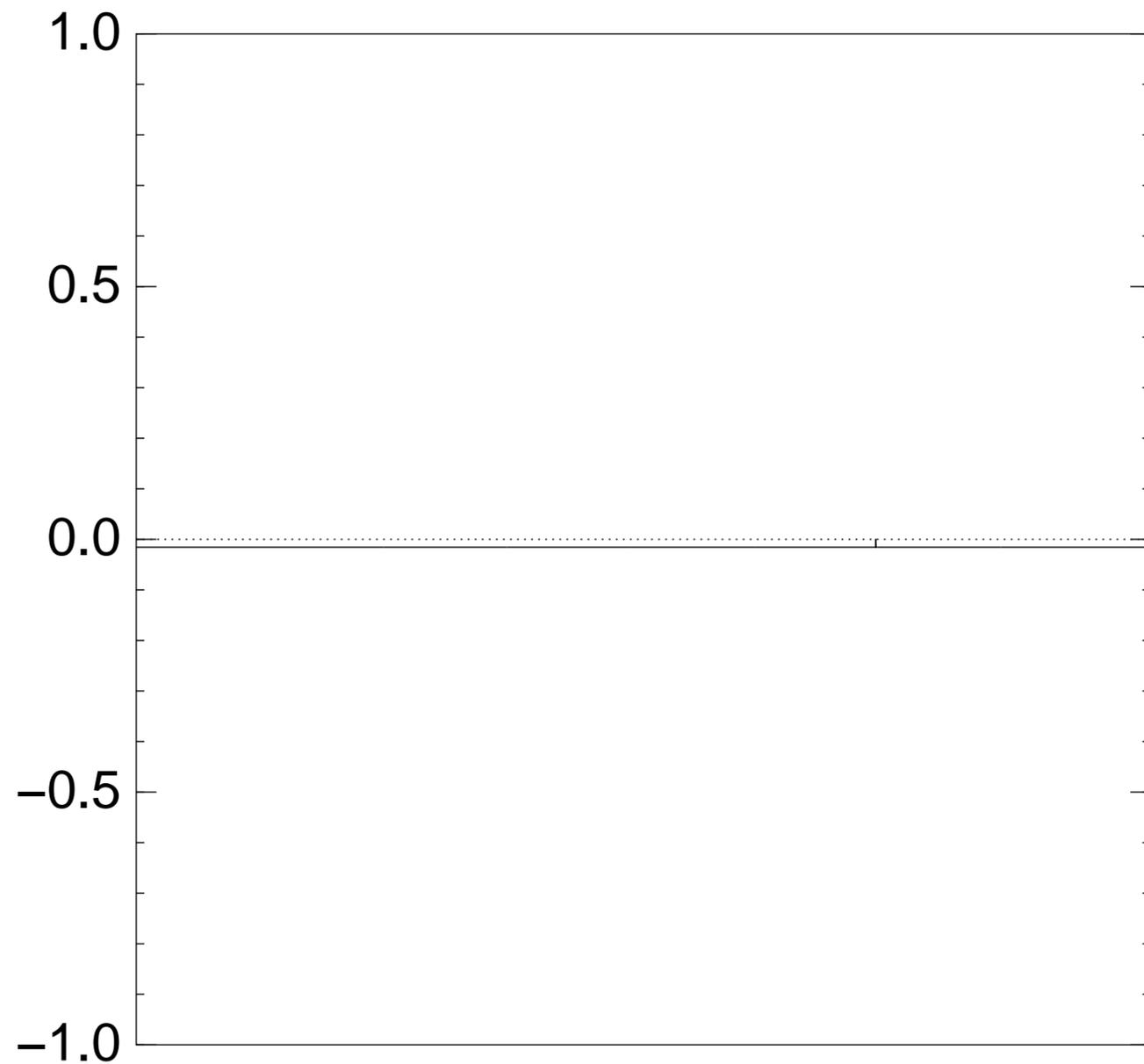
Very bad stopping point.

$u \mapsto a_u$ 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 .

Step 1 + Step 2
 act linearly on this vector.

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 .

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.

zed graph of $u \mapsto a_u$
 xample with $n = 12$
 $0 \times$ (Step 1 + Step 2):



d 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 .

Step 1 + Step 2
 act linearly on this vector.

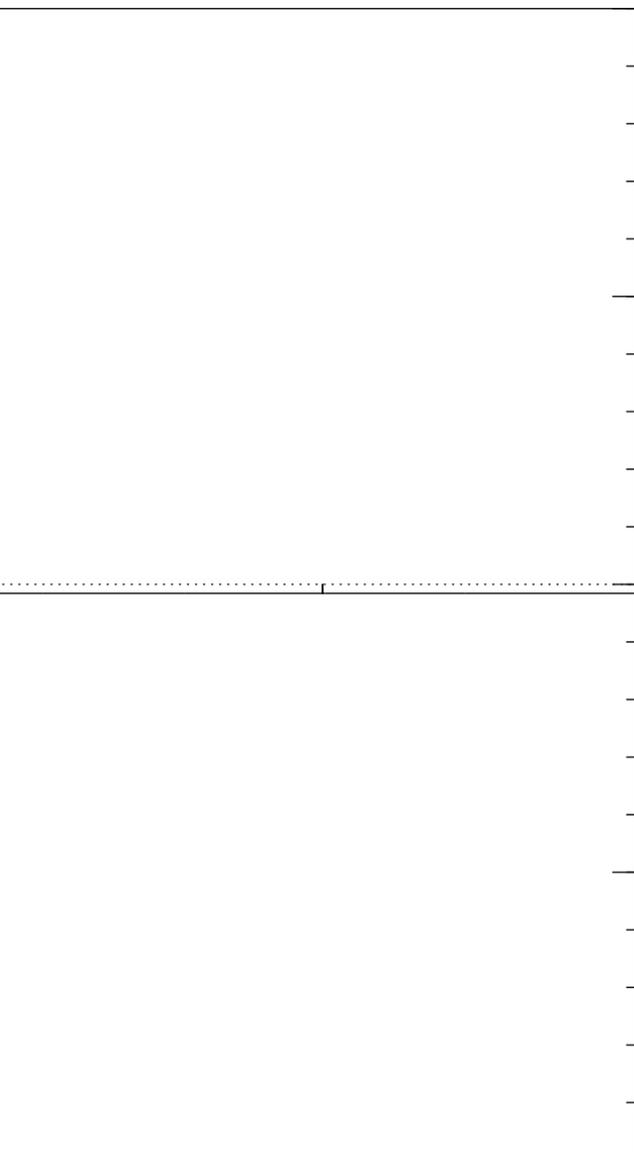
Easily compute eigenvalues
 and powers of this linear map
 to understand evolution
 of state of Grover's algorithm.
 \Rightarrow Probability is ≈ 1
 after $\approx (\pi/4)2^{0.5n}$ iterations.

Many m

2021: Y
 transisto

Can thin
 running
 as a seq

of $u \mapsto a_u$
 with $n = 12$
 (Step 1 + Step 2):



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 .

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 quant

2021: Your CPU of
 transistors perform

Can think of any a
 running on that C
 as a sequence of b

$u \mapsto a_u$ 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 quantum algorit

2021: Your CPU consists of
transistors performing bit op

Can think of any algorithm
running on that CPU
as a sequence of bit operatio

$u \mapsto a_u$ 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 quantum algorithms

2021: Your CPU consists of transistors performing bit ops.

Can think of any algorithm running on that CPU as a sequence of bit operations.

$u \mapsto a_u$ 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 quantum algorithms

2021: Your CPU consists of transistors performing bit ops.

Can think of any algorithm running on that CPU as a sequence of bit operations.

Can simulate these bit operations and output using NOT, CNOT, CCNOT, and measurement on a quantum computer.

$u \mapsto a_u$ 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 quantum algorithms

2021: Your CPU consists of transistors performing bit ops.

Can think of any algorithm running on that CPU as a sequence of bit operations.

Can simulate these bit operations and output using NOT, CNOT, CCNOT, and measurement on a quantum computer.

So {non-quantum algorithms} can be viewed as a subset of {quantum algorithms}.

is completely described
 tor of two numbers
 (ed multiplicities):

or roots u ;

or non-roots u .

Step 2

arly on this vector.

compute eigenvalues
 vers of this linear map
 rstand evolution
 of Grover's algorithm.

ability is ≈ 1

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

Many more quantum algorithms

2021: Your CPU consists of
 transistors performing bit ops.

Can think of any algorithm
 running on that CPU
 as a sequence of bit operations.

Can simulate these bit operations
 and output using NOT, CNOT,
 CCNOT, and measurement
 on a quantum computer.

So {non-quantum algorithms}
 can be viewed as a subset of
 {quantum algorithms}.

This sub
 algorithm
 computa
 design n

ely described

numbers

licities):

ts u .

s vector.

genvalues

s linear map

lution

s algorithm.

$\in 1$

iterations.

Many more quantum algorithms

2021: Your CPU consists of transistors performing bit ops.

Can think of any algorithm running on that CPU as a sequence of bit operations.

Can simulate these bit operations and output using NOT, CNOT, CCNOT, and measurement on a quantum computer.

So {non-quantum algorithms} can be viewed as a subset of {quantum algorithms}.

This subset includes algorithms known as classical computations. Let's design non-quantum

Many more quantum algorithms

2021: Your CPU consists of transistors performing bit ops.

Can think of any algorithm running on that CPU as a sequence of bit operations.

Can simulate these bit operations and output using NOT, CNOT, CCNOT, and measurement on a quantum computer.

So {non-quantum algorithms} can be viewed as a subset of {quantum algorithms}.

This subset includes the fast algorithms known for many computations. Learn how to design non-quantum algorithms.

Many more quantum algorithms

2021: Your CPU consists of transistors performing bit ops.

Can think of any algorithm running on that CPU as a sequence of bit operations.

Can simulate these bit operations and output using NOT, CNOT, CCNOT, and measurement on a quantum computer.

So {non-quantum algorithms} can be viewed as a subset of {quantum algorithms}.

This subset includes the fastest algorithms known for many computations. Learn how to design non-quantum algorithms!

Many more quantum algorithms

2021: Your CPU consists of transistors performing bit ops.

Can think of any algorithm running on that CPU as a sequence of bit operations.

Can simulate these bit operations and output using NOT, CNOT, CCNOT, and measurement on a quantum computer.

So {non-quantum algorithms} can be viewed as a subset of {quantum algorithms}.

This subset includes the fastest algorithms known for many computations. Learn how to design non-quantum algorithms!

Assuming quantum computers: Fastest known quantum-physics simulators, fastest algorithms to factor “hard” integers, etc. are outside this subset. Learn how to design quantum algorithms!

Many more quantum algorithms

2021: Your CPU consists of transistors performing bit ops.

Can think of any algorithm running on that CPU as a sequence of bit operations.

Can simulate these bit operations and output using NOT, CNOT, CCNOT, and measurement on a quantum computer.

So {non-quantum algorithms} can be viewed as a subset of {quantum algorithms}.

This subset includes the fastest algorithms known for many computations. Learn how to design non-quantum algorithms!

Assuming quantum computers: Fastest known quantum-physics simulators, fastest algorithms to factor “hard” integers, etc. are outside this subset. Learn how to design quantum algorithms!

Often techniques for designing non-quantum algorithms are combined with techniques specific to quantum algorithms.

More quantum algorithms

our CPU consists of
processors performing bit ops.

Think of any algorithm
as a sequence of bit operations
on that CPU.

Simulate these bit operations
without using NOT, CNOT,
Hadamard, and measurement
on a quantum computer.

{non-quantum algorithms}
viewed as a subset of
{all algorithms}.

This subset includes the fastest
algorithms known for many
computations. Learn how to
design non-quantum algorithms!

Assuming quantum computers:
Fastest known quantum-physics
simulators, fastest algorithms to
factor “hard” integers, etc. are
outside this subset. Learn how to
design quantum algorithms!

Often techniques for designing
non-quantum algorithms
are combined with techniques
specific to quantum algorithms.

[2001 Shor](#)

Shor and
technique
algorithm
on quantum
only two
have been

um algorithms

consists of
ning bit ops.

algorithm

PU

bit operations.

e bit operations

NOT, CNOT,

surement

nputer.

algorithms}

a subset of

ms}.

This subset includes the fastest algorithms known for many computations. Learn how to design non-quantum algorithms!

Assuming quantum computers: Fastest known quantum-physics simulators, fastest algorithms to factor “hard” integers, etc. are outside this subset. Learn how to design quantum algorithms!

Often techniques for designing non-quantum algorithms are combined with techniques specific to quantum algorithms.

[2001 Shor survey](#)

Shor and 1996 Gro
techniques for con
algorithms for clas
on quantum comp
only two significant
have been discove

This subset includes the fastest algorithms known for many computations. Learn how to design non-quantum algorithms!

Assuming quantum computers: Fastest known quantum-physics simulators, fastest algorithms to factor “hard” integers, etc. are outside this subset. Learn how to design quantum algorithms!

Often techniques for designing non-quantum algorithms are combined with techniques specific to quantum algorithms.

[2001 Shor survey](#) regarding Shor and 1996 Grover: “The techniques for constructing algorithms for classical problems on quantum computers are to only two significant ones which have been discovered so far.

This subset includes the fastest algorithms known for many computations. Learn how to design non-quantum algorithms!

Assuming quantum computers: Fastest known quantum-physics simulators, fastest algorithms to factor “hard” integers, etc. are outside this subset. Learn how to design quantum algorithms!

Often techniques for designing non-quantum algorithms are combined with techniques specific to quantum algorithms.

[2001 Shor survey](#) regarding 1994 Shor and 1996 Grover: “These techniques for constructing faster algorithms for classical problems on quantum computers are the only two significant ones which have been discovered so far.”

This subset includes the fastest algorithms known for many computations. Learn how to design non-quantum algorithms!

Assuming quantum computers: Fastest known quantum-physics simulators, fastest algorithms to factor “hard” integers, etc. are outside this subset. Learn how to design quantum algorithms!

Often techniques for designing non-quantum algorithms are combined with techniques specific to quantum algorithms.

[2001 Shor survey](#) regarding 1994 Shor and 1996 Grover: “These techniques for constructing faster algorithms for classical problems on quantum computers are the only two significant ones which have been discovered so far.”

2021: Shor’s algorithm and Grover’s algorithm continue to play critical roles. There are also several useful generalizations and further ideas adding to the landscape of quantum speedups.

subset includes the fastest algorithms known for many problems. Learn how to design non-quantum algorithms!

Designing quantum computers: Known quantum-physics algorithms, fastest algorithms to "shard" integers, etc. are in this subset. Learn how to design quantum algorithms!

Techniques for designing quantum algorithms combined with techniques to quantum algorithms.

[2001 Shor survey](#) regarding 1994 Shor and 1996 Grover: "These techniques for constructing faster algorithms for classical problems on quantum computers are the only two significant ones which have been discovered so far."

2021: Shor's algorithm and Grover's algorithm continue to play critical roles. There are also several useful generalizations and further ideas adding to the landscape of quantum speedups.

Some co

What if

Can try

Analysis

depend o

Non-qua

evaluatio

Quantum

quantum

es the fastest
 for many
 arn how to
 m algorithms!
 m computers:
 antum-physics
 algorithms to
 gers, etc. are
 t. Learn how to
 algorithms!
 for designing
 rithms
 techniques
 m algorithms.

[2001 Shor survey](#) regarding 1994 Shor and 1996 Grover: “These techniques for constructing faster algorithms for classical problems on quantum computers are the only two significant ones which have been discovered so far.”

2021: Shor’s algorithm and Grover’s algorithm continue to play critical roles. There are also several useful generalizations and further ideas adding to the landscape of quantum speedups.

Some common Grover

What if f has many solutions?
 Can try same algorithm
 Analysis and optimization
 depend on $R = \frac{1}{\sin^2(\theta)}$
 Non-quantum search
 evaluations of f .
 Quantum search:
 quantum evaluations

[2001 Shor survey](#) regarding 1994 Shor and 1996 Grover: “These techniques for constructing faster algorithms for classical problems on quantum computers are the only two significant ones which have been discovered so far.”

2021: Shor’s algorithm and Grover’s algorithm continue to play critical roles. There are also several useful generalizations and further ideas adding to the landscape of quantum speedups.

Some common Grover variations

What if f has many roots?

Can try same algorithm.

Analysis and optimization depend on $R = \#\{\text{roots of } f\}$

Non-quantum search: $\approx 2^n / R$ evaluations of f .

Quantum search: $\approx (2^n / R)^{1/2}$ quantum evaluations of f .

[2001 Shor survey](#) regarding 1994 Shor and 1996 Grover: “These techniques for constructing faster algorithms for classical problems on quantum computers are the only two significant ones which have been discovered so far.”

2021: Shor’s algorithm and Grover’s algorithm continue to play critical roles. There are also several useful generalizations and further ideas adding to the landscape of quantum speedups.

Some common Grover variants

What if f has many roots?

Can try same algorithm.

Analysis and optimization depend on $R = \#\{\text{roots of } f\}$.

Non-quantum search: $\approx 2^n / R$ evaluations of f .

Quantum search: $\approx (2^n / R)^{1/2}$ quantum evaluations of f .

[2001 Shor survey](#) regarding 1994 Shor and 1996 Grover: “These techniques for constructing faster algorithms for classical problems on quantum computers are the only two significant ones which have been discovered so far.”

2021: Shor’s algorithm and Grover’s algorithm continue to play critical roles. There are also several useful generalizations and further ideas adding to the landscape of quantum speedups.

Some common Grover variants

What if f has many roots?

Can try same algorithm.

Analysis and optimization depend on $R = \#\{\text{roots of } f\}$.

Non-quantum search: $\approx 2^n / R$ evaluations of f .

Quantum search: $\approx (2^n / R)^{1/2}$ quantum evaluations of f .

Alternative approach, instead of redoing analysis and optimization: restrict f to a (pseudo)random input set; use unique-root Grover.

or survey regarding 1994
 and 1996 Grover: “These
 ideas for constructing faster
 algorithms for classical problems
 on quantum computers are the
 most significant ones which
 have been discovered so far.”

Author’s algorithm and
 other algorithms continue to
 play important roles. There are also
 many useful generalizations
 and other ideas adding to the
 understanding of quantum speedups.

Some common Grover variants

What if f has many roots?

Can try same algorithm.

Analysis and optimization
 depend on $R = \#\{\text{roots of } f\}$.

Non-quantum search: $\approx 2^n / R$
 evaluations of f .

Quantum search: $\approx (2^n / R)^{1/2}$
 quantum evaluations of f .

Alternative approach, instead of
 redoing analysis and optimization:
 restrict f to a (pseudo)random
 input set; use unique-root Grover.

What if
 values of

Can modify
 negating
 negate v

regarding 1994
 Grover: "These
 constructing faster
 classical problems
 computers are the
 at ones which
 red so far."

algorithm and
 continue to
 There are also
 generalizations
 adding to the
 quantum speedups.

Some common Grover variants

What if f has many roots?

Can try same algorithm.

Analysis and optimization
 depend on $R = \#\{\text{roots of } f\}$.

Non-quantum search: $\approx 2^n / R$
 evaluations of f .

Quantum search: $\approx (2^n / R)^{1/2}$
 quantum evaluations of f .

Alternative approach, instead of
 redoing analysis and optimization:
 restrict f to a (pseudo)random
 input set; use unique-root Grover.

What if there are
 values of f , not ju

Can modify algorithm
 negating when $f(x)$
 negate when $g(f(x))$

Some common Grover variants

What if f has many roots?

Can try same algorithm.

Analysis and optimization depend on $R = \#\{\text{roots of } f\}$.

Non-quantum search: $\approx 2^n / R$ evaluations of f .

Quantum search: $\approx (2^n / R)^{1/2}$ quantum evaluations of f .

Alternative approach, instead of redoing analysis and optimization: restrict f to a (pseudo)random input set; use unique-root Grover.

What if there are many “good” values of f , not just value 0?

Can modify algorithm: instead of negating when $f(q) = 0$, negate when $g(f(q)) = 0$.

Some common Grover variants

What if f has many roots?

Can try same algorithm.

Analysis and optimization depend on $R = \#\{\text{roots of } f\}$.

Non-quantum search: $\approx 2^n / R$ evaluations of f .

Quantum search: $\approx (2^n / R)^{1/2}$ quantum evaluations of f .

Alternative approach, instead of redoing analysis and optimization: restrict f to a (pseudo)random input set; use unique-root Grover.

What if there are many “good” values of f , not just value 0?

Can modify algorithm: instead of negating when $f(q) = 0$, negate when $g(f(q)) = 0$.

Some common Grover variants

What if f has many roots?

Can try same algorithm.

Analysis and optimization depend on $R = \#\{\text{roots of } f\}$.

Non-quantum search: $\approx 2^n / R$ evaluations of f .

Quantum search: $\approx (2^n / R)^{1/2}$ quantum evaluations of f .

Alternative approach, instead of redoing analysis and optimization: restrict f to a (pseudo)random input set; use unique-root Grover.

What if there are many “good” values of f , not just value 0?

Can modify algorithm: instead of negating when $f(q) = 0$, negate when $g(f(q)) = 0$.

Or simply apply original Grover to the composition $q \mapsto g(f(q))$.

Some common Grover variants

What if f has many roots?

Can try same algorithm.

Analysis and optimization depend on $R = \#\{\text{roots of } f\}$.

Non-quantum search: $\approx 2^n / R$ evaluations of f .

Quantum search: $\approx (2^n / R)^{1/2}$ quantum evaluations of f .

Alternative approach, instead of redoing analysis and optimization: restrict f to a (pseudo)random input set; use unique-root Grover.

What if there are many “good” values of f , not just value 0?

Can modify algorithm: instead of negating when $f(q) = 0$, negate when $g(f(q)) = 0$.

Or simply apply original Grover to the composition $q \mapsto g(f(q))$.

What if one doesn't know R ?

Can modify algorithm. Or repeat original algorithm with sequence of guesses for R , starting with 2^n and decreasing exponentially. Approximation of R suffices.

Common Grover variants

f has many roots?

same algorithm.

and optimization

on $R = \#\{\text{roots of } f\}$.

Quantum search: $\approx 2^n / R$

evaluations of f .

Quantum search: $\approx (2^n / R)^{1/2}$

evaluations of f .

Heuristic approach, instead of

analysis and optimization:

map f to a (pseudo)random

function; use unique-root Grover.

What if there are many “good” values of f , not just value 0?

Can modify algorithm: instead of negating when $f(q) = 0$, negate when $g(f(q)) = 0$.

Or simply apply original Grover to the composition $q \mapsto g(f(q))$.

What if one doesn't know R ?

Can modify algorithm. Or repeat original algorithm with sequence of guesses for R , starting with 2^n and decreasing exponentially. Approximation of R suffices.

More interesting quantum algorithms: powerful

Say $u \mapsto f(u)$ but have

$u, u', f(u)$ specified

Want to

Non-quantum

Start with

Replace

repeat e

check if

Quantum

over variants

any roots?

algorithm.

minimization

{roots of f }.

search: $\approx 2^n / R$

$\approx (2^n / R)^{1/2}$

roots of f .

search, instead of

and optimization:

(pseudo)random

square-root Grover.

What if there are many “good” values of f , not just value 0?

Can modify algorithm: instead of negating when $f(q) = 0$, negate when $g(f(q)) = 0$.

Or simply apply original Grover to the composition $q \mapsto g(f(q))$.

What if one doesn't know R ?

Can modify algorithm. Or repeat original algorithm with sequence of guesses for R , starting with 2^n and decreasing exponentially. Approximation of R suffices.

More interesting generalization of quantum walks. Some are more powerful than original.

Say $u \mapsto f(u)$ isn't a bijection but have a very fast way to find $u, u', f(u) \mapsto f(u')$ for a specified set of “non-zero” values. Want to find “good” values.

Non-quantum random search: Start with one u ; choose a random u' . Replace u by random u' and repeat enough times until you find a “good” value; check if good; keep it.

Quantum walk: (random walk with quantum superposition)

What if there are many “good” values of f , not just value 0?

Can modify algorithm: instead of negating when $f(q) = 0$, negate when $g(f(q)) = 0$.

Or simply apply original Grover to the composition $q \mapsto g(f(q))$.

What if one doesn't know R ?

Can modify algorithm. Or repeat original algorithm with sequence of guesses for R , starting with 2^n and decreasing exponentially.

Approximation of R suffices.

More interesting generalizations of quantum walks. Seems more powerful than original Grover.

Say $u \mapsto f(u)$ isn't very fast but have a very fast algorithm $u, u' \mapsto f(u')$ for u' in specified set of “neighbors”. Want to find “good” $f(u)$.

Non-quantum random walk: Start with one u ; compute $f(u)$. Replace u by random neighbor; repeat enough times for mixing; check if good; keep repeating.

Quantum walk: (repetitions)

What if there are many “good” values of f , not just value 0?

Can modify algorithm: instead of negating when $f(q) = 0$, negate when $g(f(q)) = 0$.

Or simply apply original Grover to the composition $q \mapsto g(f(q))$.

What if one doesn't know R ?

Can modify algorithm. Or repeat original algorithm with sequence of guesses for R , starting with 2^n and decreasing exponentially.

Approximation of R suffices.

More interesting generalization: quantum walks. Seems more powerful than original Grover.

Say $u \mapsto f(u)$ isn't very fast but have a very fast algorithm $u, u', f(u) \mapsto f(u')$ for u' in a specified set of “neighbors” of u . Want to find “good” $f(u)$.

Non-quantum random walk:

Start with one u ; compute $f(u)$. Replace u by random neighbor; repeat enough times for mixing; check if good; keep repeating.

Quantum walk: (repetitions)^{1/2}.

there are many “good”
 f , not just value 0?

Modify algorithm: instead of
 finding q when $f(q) = 0$,
 find q when $g(f(q)) = 0$.

Simply apply original Grover to
 position $q \mapsto g(f(q))$.

What if one doesn't know R ?

Modify algorithm. Or repeat
 algorithm with sequence
 lengths R_i for R , starting with
 R_1 decreasing exponentially.
 Knowledge of R suffices.

More interesting generalization:
 quantum walks. Seems more
 powerful than original Grover.

Say $u \mapsto f(u)$ isn't very fast
 but have a very fast algorithm
 $u, u', f(u) \mapsto f(u')$ for u' in a
 specified set of “neighbors” of u .
 Want to find “good” $f(u)$.

Non-quantum random walk:

Start with one u ; compute $f(u)$.
 Replace u by random neighbor;
 repeat enough times for mixing;
 check if good; keep repeating.

Quantum walk: $(\text{repetitions})^{1/2}$.

Extreme
 Completeness
 Re-computation
 Mixes in

many “good”

st value 0?

thm: instead of

$f(q) = 0$,

$g(f(q)) = 0$.

original Grover to

$u \mapsto g(f(q))$.

don't know R ?

thm. Or repeat

with sequence

starting with

exponentially.

R suffices.

More interesting generalization:
quantum walks. Seems more
powerful than original Grover.

Say $u \mapsto f(u)$ isn't very fast
but have a very fast algorithm
 $u, u', f(u) \mapsto f(u')$ for u' in a
specified set of “neighbors” of u .
Want to find “good” $f(u)$.

Non-quantum random walk:

Start with one u ; compute $f(u)$.

Replace u by random neighbor;

repeat enough times for mixing;

check if good; keep repeating.

Quantum walk: $(\text{repetitions})^{1/2}$.

Extreme example of

Completely unrestrict

Recompute f at ea

Mixes instantly. S

More interesting generalization:
quantum walks. Seems more
powerful than original Grover.

Say $u \mapsto f(u)$ isn't very fast
but have a very fast algorithm
 $u, u', f(u) \mapsto f(u')$ for u' in a
specified set of "neighbors" of u .
Want to find "good" $f(u)$.

Non-quantum random walk:

Start with one u ; compute $f(u)$.
Replace u by random neighbor;
repeat enough times for mixing;
check if good; keep repeating.

Quantum walk: (repetitions)^{1/2}.

Extreme example of walk:
Completely unrestricted neighbor
Recompute f at each step.
Mixes instantly. Same as Grover

More interesting generalization:
quantum walks. Seems more
powerful than original Grover.

Say $u \mapsto f(u)$ isn't very fast
but have a very fast algorithm
 $u, u', f(u) \mapsto f(u')$ for u' in a
specified set of "neighbors" of u .
Want to find "good" $f(u)$.

Non-quantum random walk:
Start with one u ; compute $f(u)$.
Replace u by random neighbor;
repeat enough times for mixing;
check if good; keep repeating.

Quantum walk: (repetitions)^{1/2}.

Extreme example of walk:
Completely unrestricted neighbors.
Recompute f at each step.
Mixes instantly. Same as Grover.

More interesting generalization:
quantum walks. Seems more
powerful than original Grover.

Say $u \mapsto f(u)$ isn't very fast
but have a very fast algorithm
 $u, u', f(u) \mapsto f(u')$ for u' in a
specified set of "neighbors" of u .
Want to find "good" $f(u)$.

Non-quantum random walk:
Start with one u ; compute $f(u)$.
Replace u by random neighbor;
repeat enough times for mixing;
check if good; keep repeating.

Quantum walk: (repetitions) $^{1/2}$.

Extreme example of walk:
Completely unrestricted neighbors.
Recompute f at each step.
Mixes instantly. Same as Grover.

More interesting example:
Ambainis distinctness algorithm.

Say f has 2^n inputs,
exactly one collision $\{p, q\}$.
"Collision": $p \neq q; f(p) = f(q)$.
Problem: find this collision.

Generic non-quantum algorithm:
nearly 2^n calls to f .

Ambainis, using quantum walk:
 $\approx 2^{2n/3}$ calls to f .

Interesting generalization:

random walks. Seems more
powerful than original Grover.

→ $f(u)$ isn't very fast

use a very fast algorithm

$u \mapsto f(u')$ for u' in a

subset of "neighbors" of u .

find "good" $f(u)$.

Quantum random walk:

start with one u ; compute $f(u)$.

move to u by random neighbor;

repeat enough times for mixing;

find good; keep repeating.

Quantum walk: (repetitions)^{1/2}.

Extreme example of walk:

Completely unrestricted neighbors.

Recompute f at each step.

Mixes instantly. Same as Grover.

More interesting example:

Ambainis distinctness algorithm.

Say f has 2^n inputs,

exactly one collision $\{p, q\}$.

"Collision": $p \neq q; f(p) = f(q)$.

Problem: find this collision.

Generic non-quantum algorithm:

nearly 2^n calls to f .

Ambainis, using quantum walk:

$\approx 2^{2n/3}$ calls to f .

Sketch of

For $S \subseteq$

define φ

$\tau = \#\{t$

T is the

Define "

Chance of

To walk

delete or

Non-qua

then inn

Quantum

Take σ t

generalization:
 seems more
 inal Grover.
 t very fast
 st algorithm
) for u' in a
 eighbors" of u .
 od" $f(u)$.
 dom walk:
 compute $f(u)$.
 om neighbor;
 es for mixing;
 p repeating.
 repetitions) $^{1/2}$.

Extreme example of walk:
 Completely unrestricted neighbors.
 Recompute f at each step.
 Mixes instantly. Same as Grover.
 More interesting example:
 Ambainis distinctness algorithm.
 Say f has 2^n inputs,
 exactly one collision $\{p, q\}$.
 "Collision": $p \neq q; f(p) = f(q)$.
 Problem: find this collision.
 Generic non-quantum algorithm:
 nearly 2^n calls to f .
 Ambainis, using quantum walk:
 $\approx 2^{2n/3}$ calls to f .

Sketch of Ambainis
 For $S \subseteq \{\text{inputs}\}$
 define $\varphi(S) = (\tau, T)$
 $\tau = \#\{f(i) : i \in S\}$
 T is the *multiset* of
 Define "good" to
 Chance of good: (
 To walk from S to
 delete one elt, inse
 Non-quantum setu
 then inner · outer l
 Quantum: σ ; then
 Take σ to minimiz

Extreme example of walk:

Completely unrestricted neighbors.

Recompute f at each step.

Mixes instantly. Same as Grover.

More interesting example:

Ambainis distinctness algorithm.

Say f has 2^n inputs,

exactly one collision $\{p, q\}$.

“Collision”: $p \neq q; f(p) = f(q)$.

Problem: find this collision.

Generic non-quantum algorithm:

nearly 2^n calls to f .

Ambainis, using quantum walk:

$\approx 2^{2n/3}$ calls to f .

Sketch of Ambainis details:

For $S \subseteq \{\text{inputs}\}$ with $\#S =$

define $\varphi(S) = (\tau, T)$ where

$\tau = \#\{f(i) : i \in S\}$ and

T is the *multiset* of $f(i)$ for

Define “good” to mean $\tau <$

Chance of good: $(\sigma/2^n)^2$.

To walk from S to neighbor

delete one elt, insert one elt

Non-quantum setup cost σ ;

then inner · outer loops $\sigma \cdot (2^n)$

Quantum: σ ; then $\sigma^{1/2} \cdot (2^{n/2})$

Take σ to minimize $\sigma + 2^n /$

Extreme example of walk:

Completely unrestricted neighbors.

Recompute f at each step.

Mixes instantly. Same as Grover.

More interesting example:

Ambainis distinctness algorithm.

Say f has 2^n inputs,

exactly one collision $\{p, q\}$.

“Collision”: $p \neq q; f(p) = f(q)$.

Problem: find this collision.

Generic non-quantum algorithm:

nearly 2^n calls to f .

Ambainis, using quantum walk:

$\approx 2^{2n/3}$ calls to f .

Sketch of Ambainis details:

For $S \subseteq \{\text{inputs}\}$ with $\#S = \sigma$,
define $\varphi(S) = (\tau, T)$ where
 $\tau = \#\{f(i) : i \in S\}$ and
 T is the *multiset* of $f(i)$ for $i \in S$.

Define “good” to mean $\tau < \sigma$.

Chance of good: $(\sigma/2^n)^2$.

To walk from S to neighbor S' :
delete one elt, insert one elt.

Non-quantum setup cost σ ;

then inner · outer loops $\sigma \cdot (2^n/\sigma)^2$.

Quantum: σ ; then $\sigma^{1/2} \cdot (2^n/\sigma)$.

Take σ to minimize $\sigma + 2^n/\sigma^{1/2}$.

example of walk:
 ely unrestricted neighbors.
 ute f at each step.
 stantly. Same as Grover.
 teresting example:
 s distinctness algorithm.
 as 2^n inputs,
 one collision $\{p, q\}$.
 n": $p \neq q; f(p) = f(q)$.
 : find this collision.
 non-quantum algorithm:
 2^n calls to f .
 s, using quantum walk:
 calls to f .

Sketch of Ambainis details:

For $S \subseteq \{\text{inputs}\}$ with $\#S = \sigma$,
 define $\varphi(S) = (\tau, T)$ where
 $\tau = \#\{f(i) : i \in S\}$ and
 T is the *multiset* of $f(i)$ for $i \in S$.

Define "good" to mean $\tau < \sigma$.

Chance of good: $(\sigma/2^n)^2$.

To walk from S to neighbor S' :
 delete one elt, insert one elt.

Non-quantum setup cost σ ;
 then inner · outer loops $\sigma \cdot (2^n/\sigma)^2$.

Quantum: σ ; then $\sigma^{1/2} \cdot (2^n/\sigma)$.

Take σ to minimize $\sigma + 2^n/\sigma^{1/2}$.

Some co

Simon u

Shor use

for facto

Can use

"Continu

with car

In all of

naturally

satisfyin

Watch o

and exact

of walk:
 restricted neighbors.
 each step.
 same as Grover.
 example:
 search algorithm.
 ts,
 on $\{p, q\}$.
 $f(p) = f(q)$.
 collision.
 quantum algorithm:
 f .
 quantum walk:

Sketch of Ambainis details:

For $S \subseteq \{\text{inputs}\}$ with $\#S = \sigma$,
 define $\varphi(S) = (\tau, T)$ where
 $\tau = \#\{f(i) : i \in S\}$ and
 T is the *multiset* of $f(i)$ for $i \in S$.

Define “good” to mean $\tau < \sigma$.

Chance of good: $(\sigma/2^n)^2$.

To walk from S to neighbor S' :
 delete one elt, insert one elt.

Non-quantum setup cost σ ;
 then inner · outer loops $\sigma \cdot (2^n/\sigma)^2$.

Quantum: σ ; then $\sigma^{1/2} \cdot (2^n/\sigma)$.

Take σ to minimize $\sigma + 2^n/\sigma^{1/2}$.

Some common Sh

Simon used addition
 Shor used addition
 for factorization on
 Can use addition i
 “Continuous” vers
 with careful precis

In all of these algo
 naturally find “ran
 satisfying $f(u) = t$
 Watch out for hyp
 and exact meaning

Sketch of Ambainis details:

For $S \subseteq \{\text{inputs}\}$ with $\#S = \sigma$,
 define $\varphi(S) = (\tau, T)$ where
 $\tau = \#\{f(i) : i \in S\}$ and
 T is the *multiset* of $f(i)$ for $i \in S$.

Define “good” to mean $\tau < \sigma$.
 Chance of good: $(\sigma/2^n)^2$.

To walk from S to neighbor S' :
 delete one elt, insert one elt.

Non-quantum setup cost σ ;
 then inner · outer loops $\sigma \cdot (2^n/\sigma)^2$.

Quantum: σ ; then $\sigma^{1/2} \cdot (2^n/\sigma)$.

Take σ to minimize $\sigma + 2^n/\sigma^{1/2}$.

Some common Shor variants

Simon used addition in $(\mathbf{Z}/2)$
 Shor used addition in \mathbf{Z} or \mathbf{Z}^n
 for factorization or discrete log
 Can use addition in \mathbf{Z}^n .

“Continuous” version: \mathbf{R}^n ,
 with careful precision handling

In all of these algorithms,
 naturally find “random” s
 satisfying $f(u) = f(u + s)$.
 Watch out for hypotheses on
 and exact meaning of “random”

Sketch of Ambainis details:

For $S \subseteq \{\text{inputs}\}$ with $\#S = \sigma$,
 define $\varphi(S) = (\tau, T)$ where
 $\tau = \#\{f(i) : i \in S\}$ and
 T is the *multiset* of $f(i)$ for $i \in S$.

Define “good” to mean $\tau < \sigma$.
 Chance of good: $(\sigma/2^n)^2$.

To walk from S to neighbor S' :
 delete one elt, insert one elt.

Non-quantum setup cost σ ;
 then inner · outer loops $\sigma \cdot (2^n/\sigma)^2$.
 Quantum: σ ; then $\sigma^{1/2} \cdot (2^n/\sigma)$.
 Take σ to minimize $\sigma + 2^n/\sigma^{1/2}$.

Some common Shor variants

Simon used addition in $(\mathbf{Z}/2)^n$.
 Shor used addition in \mathbf{Z} or \mathbf{Z}^2
 for factorization or discrete logs.
 Can use addition in \mathbf{Z}^n .

“Continuous” version: \mathbf{R}^n ,
 with careful precision handling.

In all of these algorithms,
 naturally find “random” s
 satisfying $f(u) = f(u + s)$.
 Watch out for hypotheses on f
 and exact meaning of “random”.

of Ambainis details:

$\{\text{inputs}\}$ with $\#S = \sigma$,
 $(S) = (\tau, T)$ where
 $f(i) : i \in S$ and
multiset of $f(i)$ for $i \in S$.

“good” to mean $\tau < \sigma$.

of good: $(\sigma/2^n)^2$.

from S to neighbor S' :

one elt, insert one elt.

quantum setup cost σ ;

er · outer loops $\sigma \cdot (2^n/\sigma)^2$.

m: σ ; then $\sigma^{1/2} \cdot (2^n/\sigma)$.

to minimize $\sigma + 2^n/\sigma^{1/2}$.

Some common Shor variants

Simon used addition in $(\mathbf{Z}/2)^n$.

Shor used addition in \mathbf{Z} or \mathbf{Z}^2
 for factorization or discrete logs.

Can use addition in \mathbf{Z}^n .

“Continuous” version: \mathbf{R}^n ,
 with careful precision handling.

In all of these algorithms,
 naturally find “random” s
 satisfying $f(u) = f(u + s)$.

Watch out for hypotheses on f
 and exact meaning of “random”.

What if
 defined
 not nece
 Termino
 also calle
 of f und
 action.
 the “hid
 (HSP) is

is details:

with $\#S = \sigma$,

T) where

$S\}$ and

of $f(i)$ for $i \in S$.

mean $\tau < \sigma$.

$(\sigma/2^n)^2$.

neighbor S' :

ert one elt.

up cost σ ;

oops $\sigma \cdot (2^n/\sigma)^2$.

$\sigma^{1/2} \cdot (2^n/\sigma)$.

ze $\sigma + 2^n/\sigma^{1/2}$.

Some common Shor variants

Simon used addition in $(\mathbf{Z}/2)^n$.

Shor used addition in \mathbf{Z} or \mathbf{Z}^2

for factorization or discrete logs.

Can use addition in \mathbf{Z}^n .

“Continuous” version: \mathbf{R}^n ,

with careful precision handling.

In all of these algorithms,

naturally find “random” s

satisfying $f(u) = f(u + s)$.

Watch out for hypotheses on f

and exact meaning of “random”.

What if the functi

defined on a more

not necessarily con

Terminology: {per

also called the “st

of f under the nat

action. In quantum

the “hidden-subgro

(HSP) is to find th

Some common Shor variants

Simon used addition in $(\mathbf{Z}/2)^n$.
Shor used addition in \mathbf{Z} or \mathbf{Z}^2
for factorization or discrete logs.

Can use addition in \mathbf{Z}^n .

“Continuous” version: \mathbf{R}^n ,
with careful precision handling.

In all of these algorithms,
naturally find “random” s
satisfying $f(u) = f(u + s)$.
Watch out for hypotheses on f
and exact meaning of “random”.

What if the function f is
defined on a more general G
not necessarily commutative

Terminology: $\{\text{periods of } f\}$
also called the “stabilizer group”
of f under the natural group
action. In quantum algorithms
the “hidden-subgroup problem”
(HSP) is to find this group.

Some common Shor variants

Simon used addition in $(\mathbf{Z}/2)^n$.

Shor used addition in \mathbf{Z} or \mathbf{Z}^2

for factorization or discrete logs.

Can use addition in \mathbf{Z}^n .

“Continuous” version: \mathbf{R}^n ,
with careful precision handling.

In all of these algorithms,
naturally find “random” s
satisfying $f(u) = f(u + s)$.

Watch out for hypotheses on f
and exact meaning of “random”.

What if the function f is
defined on a more general group,
not necessarily commutative?

Terminology: $\{\text{periods of } f\}$ is
also called the “stabilizer group”
of f under the natural group
action. In quantum algorithms,
the “hidden-subgroup problem”
(HSP) is to find this group.

Some common Shor variants

Simon used addition in $(\mathbf{Z}/2)^n$.

Shor used addition in \mathbf{Z} or \mathbf{Z}^2

for factorization or discrete logs.

Can use addition in \mathbf{Z}^n .

“Continuous” version: \mathbf{R}^n ,
with careful precision handling.

In all of these algorithms,
naturally find “random” s
satisfying $f(u) = f(u + s)$.

Watch out for hypotheses on f
and exact meaning of “random”.

What if the function f is
defined on a more general group,
not necessarily commutative?

Terminology: $\{\text{periods of } f\}$ is
also called the “stabilizer group”
of f under the natural group
action. In quantum algorithms,
the “hidden-subgroup problem”
(HSP) is to find this group.

Shor’s idea + extra work
handles arbitrary finite groups
with $O(n)$ evaluations of f .
Massive caveat here: also need
huge f -independent computation!

Common Shor variants

used addition in $(\mathbf{Z}/2)^n$.

ed addition in \mathbf{Z} or \mathbf{Z}^2

orization or discrete logs.

addition in \mathbf{Z}^n .

uous" version: \mathbf{R}^n ,

eful precision handling.

these algorithms,

y find "random" s

g $f(u) = f(u + s)$.

out for hypotheses on f

ct meaning of "random".

What if the function f is defined on a more general group, not necessarily commutative?

Terminology: $\{\text{periods of } f\}$ is also called the "stabilizer group" of f under the natural group action. In quantum algorithms, the "hidden-subgroup problem" (HSP) is to find this group.

Shor's idea + extra work

handles arbitrary finite groups with $O(n)$ evaluations of f .

Massive caveat here: also need huge f -independent computation!

Kuperbe

reduce t

at some

Total co

but sube

evaluatio

Shor alre

subgroup

For hard

the "hid

find s in

given tw

satisfyin,

or variants

on in $(\mathbf{Z}/2)^n$.

n in \mathbf{Z} or \mathbf{Z}^2

r discrete logs.

n \mathbf{Z}^n .

ion: \mathbf{R}^n ,

ion handling.

gorithms,

andom" s

$f(u + s)$.

otheses on f

g of "random".

What if the function f is defined on a more general group, not necessarily commutative?

Terminology: $\{\text{periods of } f\}$ is also called the "stabilizer group" of f under the natural group action. In quantum algorithms, the "hidden-subgroup problem" (HSP) is to find this group.

Shor's idea + extra work handles arbitrary finite groups with $O(n)$ evaluations of f .
Massive caveat here: also need huge f -independent computation!

Kuperberg: For di
reduce the extra c
at some cost in f

Total cost is super
but subexponential
evaluations of $f +$

Shor already hand
subgroups of the c

For hard cases, Ku
the "hidden-*shift* p

find s in a commu
given *two* function
satisfying $f_1(u) =$

What if the function f is defined on a more general group, not necessarily commutative?

Terminology: $\{\text{periods of } f\}$ is also called the “stabilizer group” of f under the natural group action. In quantum algorithms, the “hidden-subgroup problem” (HSP) is to find this group.

Shor’s idea + extra work handles arbitrary finite groups with $O(n)$ evaluations of f .
Massive caveat here: also need huge f -independent computation!

Kuperberg: For dihedral groups reduce the extra computation at some cost in f evaluation. Total cost is superpolynomial but subexponential: $2^{O(\sqrt{n})}$ evaluations of f + overhead. Shor already handles some subgroups of the dihedral group. For hard cases, Kuperberg solves the “hidden-*shift* problem”: find s in a commutative group given two functions f_0, f_1 satisfying $f_1(u) = f_0(u + s)$.

What if the function f is defined on a more general group, not necessarily commutative?

Terminology: $\{\text{periods of } f\}$ is also called the “stabilizer group” of f under the natural group action. In quantum algorithms, the “hidden-subgroup problem” (HSP) is to find this group.

Shor’s idea + extra work handles arbitrary finite groups with $O(n)$ evaluations of f .
Massive caveat here: also need huge f -independent computation!

Kuperberg: For dihedral group, reduce the extra computation at some cost in f evaluations. Total cost is superpolynomial but subexponential: $2^{O(\sqrt{n})}$ evaluations of f + overhead.

Shor already handles some easy subgroups of the dihedral group. For hard cases, Kuperberg solves the “hidden-*shift* problem”: find s in a commutative group given *two* functions f_0, f_1 satisfying $f_1(u) = f_0(u + s)$.

the function f is
 on a more general group,
 necessarily commutative?

ology: $\{\text{periods of } f\}$ is
 ed the “stabilizer group”
 der the natural group
 In quantum algorithms,
 den-subgroup problem”
 s to find this group.

dea + extra work
 arbitrary finite groups
 n) evaluations of f .

caveat here: also need
 ndependent computation!

Kuperberg: For dihedral group,
 reduce the extra computation
 at some cost in f evaluations.
 Total cost is superpolynomial
 but subexponential: $2^{O(\sqrt{n})}$
 evaluations of f + overhead.

Shor already handles some easy
 subgroups of the dihedral group.
 For hard cases, Kuperberg solves
 the “hidden-*shift* problem”:
 find s in a commutative group
 given *two* functions f_0, f_1
 satisfying $f_1(u) = f_0(u + s)$.

The imp
 2021.12:
 to <https://>
 is encrypt
 by AES-
 using a
 by the X
 with the
 by an EC
 with the
 by an RS
 which in
 by an RS
 which is
 SHA-256

on f is
 general group,
 commutative?

periods of f is
 stabilizer group"

atural group

m algorithms,

oup problem"

his group.

a work

inite groups

ions of f .

re: also need

nt computation!

Kuperberg: For dihedral group,
 reduce the extra computation
 at some cost in f evaluations.

Total cost is superpolynomial
 but subexponential: $2^{O(\sqrt{n})}$
 evaluations of f + overhead.

Shor already handles some easy
 subgroups of the dihedral group.

For hard cases, Kuperberg solves
 the "hidden-*shift* problem":

find s in a commutative group

given *two* functions f_0, f_1

satisfying $f_1(u) = f_0(u + s)$.

The impact on cry

2021.12: A Firefox
 to <https://google.com>

is encrypted and a
 by AES-128-GCM,

using a key exchan

by the X25519 EC

with the key excha

by an ECDSA-NIS

with the signing ke

by an RSA-2048 k

which in turn is ce

by an RSA-4096 k

which is trusted by

SHA-256, SHA-38

Kuperberg: For dihedral group, reduce the extra computation at some cost in f evaluations. Total cost is superpolynomial but subexponential: $2^{O(\sqrt{n})}$ evaluations of f + overhead.

Shor already handles some easy subgroups of the dihedral group. For hard cases, Kuperberg solves the “hidden-*shift* problem”: find s in a commutative group given *two* functions f_0, f_1 satisfying $f_1(u) = f_0(u + s)$.

The impact on cryptography

2021.12: A Firefox connection to <https://google.com> is encrypted and authenticated by AES-128-GCM, using a key exchanged by the X25519 ECDH system with the key exchange signed by an ECDSA-NIST-P-256 key with the signing key certified by an RSA-2048 key, which in turn is certified by an RSA-4096 key, which is trusted by Firefox. SHA-256, SHA-384 also apply.

Kuperberg: For dihedral group, reduce the extra computation at some cost in f evaluations. Total cost is superpolynomial but subexponential: $2^{O(\sqrt{n})}$ evaluations of f + overhead.

Shor already handles some easy subgroups of the dihedral group. For hard cases, Kuperberg solves the “hidden-*shift* problem”: find s in a commutative group given *two* functions f_0, f_1 satisfying $f_1(u) = f_0(u + s)$.

The impact on cryptography

2021.12: A Firefox connection to <https://google.com> is encrypted and authenticated by AES-128-GCM, using a key exchanged by the X25519 ECDH system, with the key exchange signed by an ECDSA-NIST-P-256 key, with the signing key certified by an RSA-2048 key, which in turn is certified by an RSA-4096 key, which is trusted by Firefox. SHA-256, SHA-384 also appear.

erg: For dihedral group,
 the extra computation
 cost in f evaluations.
 st is superpolynomial
 exponential: $2^{O(\sqrt{n})}$
 ons of $f + \text{overhead}$.
 eady handles some easy
 ps of the dihedral group.
 cases, Kuperberg solves
 den-*shift* problem":
 a commutative group
 o functions f_0, f_1
 g $f_1(u) = f_0(u + s)$.

The impact on cryptography

2021.12: A Firefox connection
 to <https://google.com>
 is encrypted and authenticated
 by AES-128-GCM,
 using a key exchanged
 by the X25519 ECDH system,
 with the key exchange signed
 by an ECDSA-NIST-P-256 key,
 with the signing key certified
 by an RSA-2048 key,
 which in turn is certified
 by an RSA-4096 key,
 which is trusted by Firefox.
 SHA-256, SHA-384 also appear.

Shor's a
 ECC in p

drahedral group,
 omputation
 evaluations.
 rpolynomial
 l: $2^{O(\sqrt{n})}$
 - overhead.

les some easy
 dihedral group.
 uperberg solves
 problem":
 tative group
 ns f_0, f_1
 $f_0(u + s)$.

The impact on cryptography

2021.12: A Firefox connection
 to <https://google.com>
 is encrypted and authenticated
 by AES-128-GCM,
 using a key exchanged
 by the X25519 ECDH system,
 with the key exchange signed
 by an ECDSA-NIST-P-256 key,
 with the signing key certified
 by an RSA-2048 key,
 which in turn is certified
 by an RSA-4096 key,
 which is trusted by Firefox.
 SHA-256, SHA-384 also appear.

Shor's algorithm b
 ECC in polynomia

The impact on cryptography

2021.12: A Firefox connection to <https://google.com> is encrypted and authenticated by AES-128-GCM, using a key exchanged by the X25519 ECDH system, with the key exchange signed by an ECDSA-NIST-P-256 key, with the signing key certified by an RSA-2048 key, which in turn is certified by an RSA-4096 key, which is trusted by Firefox. SHA-256, SHA-384 also appear.

Shor's algorithm breaks RSA
ECC in polynomial time. Pa

The impact on cryptography

2021.12: A Firefox connection to `https://google.com` is encrypted and authenticated by AES-128-GCM, using a key exchanged by the X25519 ECDH system, with the key exchange signed by an ECDSA-NIST-P-256 key, with the signing key certified by an RSA-2048 key, which in turn is certified by an RSA-4096 key, which is trusted by Firefox. SHA-256, SHA-384 also appear.

Shor's algorithm breaks RSA and ECC in polynomial time. Panic!

The impact on cryptography

2021.12: A Firefox connection to `https://google.com` is encrypted and authenticated by AES-128-GCM, using a key exchanged by the X25519 ECDH system, with the key exchange signed by an ECDSA-NIST-P-256 key, with the signing key certified by an RSA-2048 key, which in turn is certified by an RSA-4096 key, which is trusted by Firefox. SHA-256, SHA-384 also appear.

Shor's algorithm breaks RSA and ECC in polynomial time. Panic!

“But nobody has a big enough quantum computer yet!”

The impact on cryptography

2021.12: A Firefox connection to `https://google.com` is encrypted and authenticated by AES-128-GCM, using a key exchanged by the X25519 ECDH system, with the key exchange signed by an ECDSA-NIST-P-256 key, with the signing key certified by an RSA-2048 key, which in turn is certified by an RSA-4096 key, which is trusted by Firefox. SHA-256, SHA-384 also appear.

Shor's algorithm breaks RSA and ECC in polynomial time. Panic!

“But nobody has a big enough quantum computer yet!”

— Will large-scale attackers *tell us* that they've built a big enough quantum computer?

The impact on cryptography

2021.12: A Firefox connection to `https://google.com` is encrypted and authenticated by AES-128-GCM, using a key exchanged by the X25519 ECDH system, with the key exchange signed by an ECDSA-NIST-P-256 key, with the signing key certified by an RSA-2048 key, which in turn is certified by an RSA-4096 key, which is trusted by Firefox. SHA-256, SHA-384 also appear.

Shor's algorithm breaks RSA and ECC in polynomial time. Panic!

“But nobody has a big enough quantum computer yet!”

— Will large-scale attackers *tell us* that they've built a big enough quantum computer?

Also, leaks show that they're already recording ciphertexts that they'll try to decrypt later.

The impact on cryptography

2021.12: A Firefox connection to `https://google.com` is encrypted and authenticated by AES-128-GCM, using a key exchanged by the X25519 ECDH system, with the key exchange signed by an ECDSA-NIST-P-256 key, with the signing key certified by an RSA-2048 key, which in turn is certified by an RSA-4096 key, which is trusted by Firefox. SHA-256, SHA-384 also appear.

Shor's algorithm breaks RSA and ECC in polynomial time. Panic!

“But nobody has a big enough quantum computer yet!”

— Will large-scale attackers *tell us* that they've built a big enough quantum computer?

Also, leaks show that they're already recording ciphertexts that they'll try to decrypt later.

Also, upgrading everything to post-quantum cryptography won't happen instantaneously.

Impact on cryptography

A Firefox connection

s://google.com

ected and authenticated

128-GCM,

key exchanged

X25519 ECDH system,

key exchange signed

CDSA-NIST-P-256 key,

signing key certified

SA-2048 key,

turn is certified

SA-4096 key,

trusted by Firefox.

5, SHA-384 also appear.

Shor's algorithm breaks RSA and ECC in polynomial time. Panic!

“But nobody has a big enough quantum computer yet!”

— Will large-scale attackers *tell us* that they've built a big enough quantum computer?

Also, leaks show that they're already recording ciphertexts that they'll try to decrypt later.

Also, upgrading everything to post-quantum cryptography won't happen instantaneously.

“Is the p
to be a

— 2019

“How to
integers

million n

an impro

algorithm

assumpt

supercon

Most of

correctio

qubits to

qubits in

ptography

x connection

le.com

authenticated

nged

DH system,

ange signed

T-P-256 key,

ey certified

ey,

ertified

ey,

y Firefox.

4 also appear.

Shor's algorithm breaks RSA and ECC in polynomial time. Panic!

“But nobody has a big enough quantum computer yet!”

— Will large-scale attackers *tell us* that they've built a big enough quantum computer?

Also, leaks show that they're already recording ciphertexts that they'll try to decrypt later.

Also, upgrading everything to post-quantum cryptography won't happen instantaneously.

“Is the polynomial to be a real threat

— [2019 Gidney–E](#)

“How to factor 20 integers in 8 hours

million noisy qubits

an improved versio

algorithm with “pl

assumptions for la

superconducting q

Most of the cost is

correction, using n

qubits to simulate

qubits inside Shor'

Shor's algorithm breaks RSA and ECC in polynomial time. Panic!

“But nobody has a big enough quantum computer yet!”

— Will large-scale attackers *tell us* that they've built a big enough quantum computer?

Also, leaks show that they're already recording ciphertexts that they'll try to decrypt later.

Also, upgrading everything to post-quantum cryptography won't happen instantaneously.

“Is the polynomial small enough to be a real threat?”

— [2019 Gidney–Ekerå](#)

“How to factor 2048 bit RSA integers in 8 hours using 20 million noisy qubits” combining an improved version of Shor's algorithm with “plausible physical assumptions for large-scale superconducting qubit platform”

Most of the cost is for error correction, using many imperfect qubits to simulate the perfect qubits inside Shor's algorithm

Shor's algorithm breaks RSA and ECC in polynomial time. Panic!

“But nobody has a big enough quantum computer yet!”

— Will large-scale attackers *tell us* that they've built a big enough quantum computer?

Also, leaks show that they're already recording ciphertexts that they'll try to decrypt later.

Also, upgrading everything to post-quantum cryptography won't happen instantaneously.

“Is the polynomial small enough to be a real threat?”

— [2019 Gidney–Ekerå](#)

“How to factor 2048 bit RSA integers in 8 hours using 20 million noisy qubits” combines an improved version of Shor's algorithm with “plausible physical assumptions for large-scale superconducting qubit platforms”.

Most of the cost is for error correction, using many imperfect qubits to simulate the perfect qubits inside Shor's algorithm.

Algorithm breaks RSA and polynomial time. Panic!

body has a big enough computer yet!"

large-scale attackers

that they've built

ough quantum computer?

orks show that they're

recording ciphertexts

y'll try to decrypt later.

grading everything

quantum cryptography

appen instantaneously.

"Is the polynomial small enough to be a real threat?"

— [2019 Gidney–Ekerå](#)

"How to factor 2048 bit RSA integers in 8 hours using 20 million noisy qubits" combines an improved version of Shor's algorithm with "plausible physical assumptions for large-scale superconducting qubit platforms".

Most of the cost is for error correction, using many imperfect qubits to simulate the perfect qubits inside Shor's algorithm.

Same pa

million c

log in \mathbf{F}_p

and $(p -$

([Other p](#)

256-bit e

Useful c

modular

Intel CP

Reasona

compute

overall c

will be 2

breaks RSA and
 all time. Panic!

is big enough
 or yet!”

attackers
 e built

quantum computer?

what they're
 ciphertexts
 decrypt later.

everything
 cryptography
 instantaneously.

“Is the polynomial small enough
 to be a real threat?”

— 2019 [Gidney–Ekerå](#)

“How to factor 2048 bit RSA
 integers in 8 hours using 20
 million noisy qubits” combines
 an improved version of Shor's
 algorithm with “plausible physical
 assumptions for large-scale
 superconducting qubit platforms”.

Most of the cost is for error
 correction, using many imperfect
 qubits to simulate the perfect
 qubits inside Shor's algorithm.

Same paper says 7
 million qubits for a
 log in \mathbf{F}_p^* if p is a
 and $(p - 1)/2$ is a

([Other papers](#): low
 256-bit elliptic-cur

Useful comparison
 modular exponent
 Intel CPU core is
 Reasonable estima
 computer will cost
 overall cost of qub
 will be $2^{40} \times$ cost

“Is the polynomial small enough to be a real threat?”

— 2019 [Gidney–Ekerå](#)

“How to factor 2048 bit RSA integers in 8 hours using 20 million noisy qubits” combines an improved version of Shor’s algorithm with “plausible physical assumptions for large-scale superconducting qubit platforms”.

Most of the cost is for error correction, using many imperfect qubits to simulate the perfect qubits inside Shor’s algorithm.

Same paper says 7 hours with 20 million qubits for a big discrete log in \mathbf{F}_p^* if p is a 2048-bit prime and $(p - 1)/2$ is also prime.

([Other papers](#): lower costs for 256-bit elliptic-curve discrete

Useful comparison: *non-quantum* modular exponentiation on a Intel CPU core is $>2^{20} \times$ faster. Reasonable estimates: quantum computer will cost $2^{20} \times$ more, overall cost of qubit operations will be $2^{40} \times$ cost of bit operations.

“Is the polynomial small enough to be a real threat?”

— 2019 [Gidney–Ekerå](#)

“How to factor 2048 bit RSA integers in 8 hours using 20 million noisy qubits” combines an improved version of Shor’s algorithm with “plausible physical assumptions for large-scale superconducting qubit platforms”.

Most of the cost is for error correction, using many imperfect qubits to simulate the perfect qubits inside Shor’s algorithm.

Same paper says 7 hours with 26 million qubits for a big discrete log in \mathbf{F}_p^* if p is a 2048-bit prime and $(p - 1)/2$ is also prime.

([Other papers](#): lower costs for 256-bit elliptic-curve discrete log.)

Useful comparison: *non-quantum* modular exponentiation on an Intel CPU core is $>2^{20} \times$ faster. Reasonable estimates: quantum computer will cost $2^{20} \times$ more; overall cost of qubit operation will be $2^{40} \times$ cost of bit operation.

polynomial small enough
real threat?"

Gidney–Ekerå

factor 2048 bit RSA

in 8 hours using 20

“noisy qubits” combines

improved version of Shor’s

algorithm with “plausible physical

assumptions for large-scale

conducting qubit platforms”.

the cost is for error

correction, using many imperfect

qubits to simulate the perfect

qubits inside Shor’s algorithm.

Same paper says 7 hours with 26 million qubits for a big discrete log in \mathbf{F}_p^* if p is a 2048-bit prime and $(p - 1)/2$ is also prime.

([Other papers](#): lower costs for 256-bit elliptic-curve discrete log.)

Useful comparison: *non-quantum* modular exponentiation on an Intel CPU core is $>2^{20} \times$ faster. Reasonable estimates: quantum computer will cost $2^{20} \times$ more; overall cost of qubit operation will be $2^{40} \times$ cost of bit operation.

Some re

- Lower-
- Less n
- Better
- Better
- Better

Beyond

each alg

quantum

CCNOT

reversibi

with hig

error-cor

size of c

small enough

?”

kerå

48 bit RSA

s using 20

s” combines

on of Shor’s

ausible physical

rge-scale

qubit platforms” .

s for error

many imperfect

the perfect

s algorithm.

Same paper says 7 hours with 26 million qubits for a big discrete log in \mathbf{F}_p^* if p is a 2048-bit prime and $(p - 1)/2$ is also prime.

([Other papers](#): lower costs for 256-bit elliptic-curve discrete log.)

Useful comparison: *non-quantum* modular exponentiation on an Intel CPU core is $>2^{20} \times$ faster. Reasonable estimates: quantum computer will cost $2^{20} \times$ more; overall cost of qubit operation will be $2^{40} \times$ cost of bit operation.

Some reasons 2^{40}

- Lower-cost qubits
- Less noise in qubits
- Better qubit control
- Better error-correction
- Better reversibility

Beyond modular exponentiation, each algorithm needs quantum/non-quantum overhead. CCNOT costs >10 times more; reversibility conversion with high-level algorithms; error-correction overhead; size of computation.

Same paper says 7 hours with 26 million qubits for a big discrete log in \mathbf{F}_p^* if p is a 2048-bit prime and $(p - 1)/2$ is also prime.

([Other papers](#): lower costs for 256-bit elliptic-curve discrete log.)

Useful comparison: *non-quantum* modular exponentiation on an Intel CPU core is $>2^{20} \times$ faster. Reasonable estimates: quantum computer will cost $2^{20} \times$ more; overall cost of qubit operation will be $2^{40} \times$ cost of bit operation.

Some reasons 2^{40} can improve

- Lower-cost qubits.
- Less noise in qubits.
- Better qubit connectivity.
- Better error-correction methods.
- Better reversibility conversions.

Beyond modular exponentiation, each algorithm needs analysis of quantum/non-quantum cost. CCNOT costs $>100 \times$ CNOT; reversibility conversions interfere with high-level algorithm design; error-correction cost depends on size of computation; and so on.

Same paper says 7 hours with 26 million qubits for a big discrete log in \mathbf{F}_p^* if p is a 2048-bit prime and $(p - 1)/2$ is also prime.

([Other papers](#): lower costs for 256-bit elliptic-curve discrete log.)

Useful comparison: *non-quantum* modular exponentiation on an Intel CPU core is $>2^{20} \times$ faster. Reasonable estimates: quantum computer will cost $2^{20} \times$ more; overall cost of qubit operation will be $2^{40} \times$ cost of bit operation.

Some reasons 2^{40} can improve:

- Lower-cost qubits.
- Less noise in qubits.
- Better qubit connectivity.
- Better error-correction methods.
- Better reversibility conversions.

Beyond modular exponentiation: each algorithm needs analysis of quantum/non-quantum cost ratio. CCNOT costs $>100 \times$ CNOT; reversibility conversions interact with high-level algorithm details; error-correction cost depends on size of computation; and so on.

paper says 7 hours with 26 qubits for a big discrete log if p is a 2048-bit prime $(p-1)/2$ is also prime.

papers: lower costs for (elliptic-curve discrete log.)

comparison: *non-quantum* modular exponentiation on an Intel Xeon U core is $>2^{20} \times$ faster.

reasonable estimates: quantum modular exponentiation will cost $2^{20} \times$ more;

cost of qubit operation is $2^{40} \times$ cost of bit operation.

Some reasons 2^{40} can improve:

- Lower-cost qubits.
- Less noise in qubits.
- Better qubit connectivity.
- Better error-correction methods.
- Better reversibility conversions.

Beyond modular exponentiation: each algorithm needs analysis of quantum/non-quantum cost ratio. CCNOT costs $>100 \times$ CNOT; reversibility conversions interact with high-level algorithm details; error-correction cost depends on size of computation; and so on.

Further

Typical ...
Guess th...
see if gu...
to <HTML...
If not, tr...

Non-qua...
in 2^{127} g...
which so...
for most...
(Bitcoin...

7 hours with 26
 a big discrete
 2048-bit prime
 also prime.

lower costs for
 (via discrete log.)

: *non-quantum*

iation on an
 $> 2^{20} \times$ faster.

tes: quantum
 $> 2^{20} \times$ more;

bit operation
 of bit operation.

Some reasons 2^{40} can improve:

- Lower-cost qubits.
- Less noise in qubits.
- Better qubit connectivity.
- Better error-correction methods.
- Better reversibility conversions.

Beyond modular exponentiation:
 each algorithm needs analysis of
 quantum/non-quantum cost ratio.
 CCNOT costs $> 100 \times$ CNOT;
 reversibility conversions interact
 with high-level algorithm details;
 error-correction cost depends on
 size of computation; and so on.

Further impact: G

Typical symmetric
 Guess the secret A
 see if guess decrypts
 to `<HTML><HEAD><n`
 If not, try further

Non-quantum attack
 in 2^{127} guesses on
 which sounds too
 for most people to
 (Bitcoin: $\approx 2^{92}$ ha

Some reasons 2^{40} can improve:

- Lower-cost qubits.
- Less noise in qubits.
- Better qubit connectivity.
- Better error-correction methods.
- Better reversibility conversions.

Beyond modular exponentiation:
each algorithm needs analysis of
quantum/non-quantum cost ratio.
CCNOT costs $>100\times$ CNOT;
reversibility conversions interact
with high-level algorithm details;
error-correction cost depends on
size of computation; and so on.

Further impact: Grover

Typical symmetric-crypto attack:
Guess the secret AES-128 key
see if guess decrypts ciphertext
to `<HTML><HEAD><meta...>`
If not, try further guesses.

Non-quantum attack succeeds
in 2^{127} guesses on average,
which sounds too expensive
for most people to worry about
(Bitcoin: $\approx 2^{92}$ hashes/year).

Some reasons 2^{40} can improve:

- Lower-cost qubits.
- Less noise in qubits.
- Better qubit connectivity.
- Better error-correction methods.
- Better reversibility conversions.

Beyond modular exponentiation: each algorithm needs analysis of quantum/non-quantum cost ratio. CCNOT costs $>100 \times$ CNOT; reversibility conversions interact with high-level algorithm details; error-correction cost depends on size of computation; and so on.

Further impact: Grover

Typical symmetric-crypto attack: Guess the secret AES-128 key, see if guess decrypts ciphertext to `<HTML><HEAD><met...`. If not, try further guesses.

Non-quantum attack succeeds in 2^{127} guesses on average, which sounds too expensive for most people to worry about. (Bitcoin: $\approx 2^{92}$ hashes/year.)

Some reasons 2^{40} can improve:

- Lower-cost qubits.
- Less noise in qubits.
- Better qubit connectivity.
- Better error-correction methods.
- Better reversibility conversions.

Beyond modular exponentiation: each algorithm needs analysis of quantum/non-quantum cost ratio. CCNOT costs $>100 \times$ CNOT; reversibility conversions interact with high-level algorithm details; error-correction cost depends on size of computation; and so on.

Further impact: Grover

Typical symmetric-crypto attack: Guess the secret AES-128 key, see if guess decrypts ciphertext to `<HTML><HEAD><met...`. If not, try further guesses.

Non-quantum attack succeeds in 2^{127} guesses on average, which sounds too expensive for most people to worry about. (Bitcoin: $\approx 2^{92}$ hashes/year.)

Grover takes only 2^{64} quantum evaluations of AES. Panic!

reasons 2^{40} can improve:
 -cost qubits.
 noise in qubits.
 qubit connectivity.
 error-correction methods.
 reversibility conversions.
 modular exponentiation:
 algorithm needs analysis of
 n/non-quantum cost ratio.
 costs $>100 \times$ CNOT;
 reversibility conversions interact
 high-level algorithm details;
 error-correction cost depends on
 computation; and so on.

Further impact: Grover

Typical symmetric-crypto attack:
 Guess the secret AES-128 key,
 see if guess decrypts ciphertext
 to `<HTML><HEAD><met...`
 If not, try further guesses.

Non-quantum attack succeeds
 in 2^{127} guesses on average,
 which sounds too expensive
 for most people to worry about.
 (Bitcoin: $\approx 2^{92}$ hashes/year.)

Grover takes only 2^{64} quantum
 evaluations of AES. Panic!

Quantum
 $\approx 2^{15}$ qu
 Similar c
 Attack c

can improve:

ts.

bits.

connectivity.

rection methods.

ity conversions.

xponentiation:

eds analysis of

ntum cost ratio.

00 × CNOT;

rsions interact

orithm details;

st depends on

n; and so on.

Further impact: Grover

Typical symmetric-crypto attack:

Guess the secret AES-128 key,

see if guess decrypts ciphertext

to `<HTML><HEAD><met...`

If not, try further guesses.

Non-quantum attack succeeds

in 2^{127} guesses on average,

which sounds too expensive

for most people to worry about.

(Bitcoin: $\approx 2^{92}$ hashes/year.)

Grover takes only 2^{64} quantum

evaluations of AES. Panic!

Quantum AES eva

$\approx 2^{15}$ qubit operat

Similar cost to 2^{55}

Attack costs $\approx 2^{11}$

Further impact: Grover

Typical symmetric-crypto attack:

Guess the secret AES-128 key,
see if guess decrypts ciphertext
to <HTML><HEAD><met...

If not, try further guesses.

Non-quantum attack succeeds
in 2^{127} guesses on average,
which sounds too expensive
for most people to worry about.
(Bitcoin: $\approx 2^{92}$ hashes/year.)

Grover takes only 2^{64} quantum
evaluations of AES. Panic!

Quantum AES evaluation:

$\approx 2^{15}$ qubit operations.

Similar cost to 2^{55} bit operations

Attack costs $\approx 2^{119}$ bit operations

Further impact: Grover

Typical symmetric-crypto attack:

Guess the secret AES-128 key,
see if guess decrypts ciphertext

to `<HTML><HEAD><met...`

If not, try further guesses.

Non-quantum attack succeeds

in 2^{127} guesses on average,

which sounds too expensive

for most people to worry about.

(Bitcoin: $\approx 2^{92}$ hashes/year.)

Grover takes only 2^{64} quantum

evaluations of AES. Panic!

Quantum AES evaluation:

$\approx 2^{15}$ qubit operations.

Similar cost to 2^{55} bit operations.

Attack costs $\approx 2^{119}$ bit operations.

Further impact: Grover

Typical symmetric-crypto attack:

Guess the secret AES-128 key,
see if guess decrypts ciphertext

to `<HTML><HEAD><met...`

If not, try further guesses.

Non-quantum attack succeeds
in 2^{127} guesses on average,
which sounds too expensive
for most people to worry about.
(Bitcoin: $\approx 2^{92}$ hashes/year.)

Grover takes only 2^{64} quantum
evaluations of AES. Panic!

Quantum AES evaluation:

$\approx 2^{15}$ qubit operations.

Similar cost to 2^{55} bit operations.

Attack costs $\approx 2^{119}$ bit operations.

Also, Grover speedup

comes from *serial* iterations.

2^{64} nanoseconds = 585 years,

and 1ns iterations won't be easy.

Further impact: Grover

Typical symmetric-crypto attack:

Guess the secret AES-128 key,
see if guess decrypts ciphertext

to `<HTML><HEAD><met...`

If not, try further guesses.

Non-quantum attack succeeds
in 2^{127} guesses on average,
which sounds too expensive
for most people to worry about.
(Bitcoin: $\approx 2^{92}$ hashes/year.)

Grover takes only 2^{64} quantum
evaluations of AES. Panic!

Quantum AES evaluation:

$\approx 2^{15}$ qubit operations.

Similar cost to 2^{55} bit operations.

Attack costs $\approx 2^{119}$ bit operations.

Also, Grover speedup

comes from *serial* iterations.

2^{64} nanoseconds = 585 years,
and 1ns iterations won't be easy.

To run $2^{10} \times$ faster,

need 2^{20} quantum computers:
 $\approx 2^{129}$ bit operations.

Further impact: Grover

Typical symmetric-crypto attack:

Guess the secret AES-128 key,
see if guess decrypts ciphertext

to `<HTML><HEAD><met...`

If not, try further guesses.

Non-quantum attack succeeds
in 2^{127} guesses on average,
which sounds too expensive
for most people to worry about.
(Bitcoin: $\approx 2^{92}$ hashes/year.)

Grover takes only 2^{64} quantum
evaluations of AES. Panic!

Quantum AES evaluation:

$\approx 2^{15}$ qubit operations.

Similar cost to 2^{55} bit operations.

Attack costs $\approx 2^{119}$ bit operations.

Also, Grover speedup

comes from *serial* iterations.

2^{64} nanoseconds = 585 years,
and 1ns iterations won't be easy.

To run $2^{10} \times$ faster,
need 2^{20} quantum computers:
 $\approx 2^{129}$ bit operations.

To run $2^{20} \times$ faster,
need 2^{40} quantum computers:
 $\approx 2^{139}$ bit operations.

Impact: Grover

symmetric-crypto attack:

the secret AES-128 key,

ess decrypts ciphertext

.><HEAD><met...

ry further guesses.

antum attack succeeds

guesses on average,

ounds too expensive

people to worry about.

: $\approx 2^{92}$ hashes/year.)

akes only 2^{64} quantum

ons of AES. Panic!

Quantum AES evaluation:

$\approx 2^{15}$ qubit operations.

Similar cost to 2^{55} bit operations.

Attack costs $\approx 2^{119}$ bit operations.

Also, Grover speedup

comes from *serial* iterations.

2^{64} nanoseconds = 585 years,

and 1ns iterations won't be easy.

To run $2^{10} \times$ faster,

need 2^{20} quantum computers:

$\approx 2^{129}$ bit operations.

To run $2^{20} \times$ faster,

need 2^{40} quantum computers:

$\approx 2^{139}$ bit operations.

Can still

than non

under re

re quant

but muc

than Sho

Many co

that AES

Grover

-crypto attack:

AES-128 key,

bits ciphertext

net . . .

guesses.

ack succeeds

average,

expensive

o worry about.

shes/year.)

2^{64} quantum

S. Panic!

Quantum AES evaluation:

$\approx 2^{15}$ qubit operations.

Similar cost to 2^{55} bit operations.

Attack costs $\approx 2^{119}$ bit operations.

Also, Grover speedup

comes from *serial* iterations.

2^{64} nanoseconds = 585 years,

and 1ns iterations won't be easy.

To run $2^{10} \times$ faster,

need 2^{20} quantum computers:

$\approx 2^{129}$ bit operations.

To run $2^{20} \times$ faster,

need 2^{40} quantum computers:

$\approx 2^{139}$ bit operations.

Can still be lower

than non-quantum

under reasonable a

re quantum-compu

but much more ex

than Shor RSA-20

Many commentato

that AES-128 is sa

Quantum AES evaluation:

$\approx 2^{15}$ qubit operations.

Similar cost to 2^{55} bit operations.

Attack costs $\approx 2^{119}$ bit operations.

Also, Grover speedup

comes from *serial* iterations.

2^{64} nanoseconds = 585 years,

and 1ns iterations won't be easy.

To run $2^{10} \times$ faster,

need 2^{20} quantum computers:

$\approx 2^{129}$ bit operations.

To run $2^{20} \times$ faster,

need 2^{40} quantum computers:

$\approx 2^{139}$ bit operations.

Can still be lower cost

than non-quantum AES attack

under reasonable assumptions

re quantum-computer progress

but much more expensive

than Shor RSA-2048 attack.

Many commentators conclude

that AES-128 is safe.

Quantum AES evaluation:

$\approx 2^{15}$ qubit operations.

Similar cost to 2^{55} bit operations.

Attack costs $\approx 2^{119}$ bit operations.

Also, Grover speedup
comes from *serial* iterations.

2^{64} nanoseconds = 585 years,
and 1ns iterations won't be easy.

To run $2^{10} \times$ faster,
need 2^{20} quantum computers:
 $\approx 2^{129}$ bit operations.

To run $2^{20} \times$ faster,
need 2^{40} quantum computers:
 $\approx 2^{139}$ bit operations.

Can still be lower cost
than non-quantum AES attack
under reasonable assumptions
re quantum-computer progress,
but much more expensive
than Shor RSA-2048 attack.

Many commentators conclude
that AES-128 is safe.

Quantum AES evaluation:

$\approx 2^{15}$ qubit operations.

Similar cost to 2^{55} bit operations.

Attack costs $\approx 2^{119}$ bit operations.

Also, Grover speedup

comes from *serial* iterations.

2^{64} nanoseconds = 585 years,

and 1ns iterations won't be easy.

To run $2^{10} \times$ faster,

need 2^{20} quantum computers:

$\approx 2^{129}$ bit operations.

To run $2^{20} \times$ faster,

need 2^{40} quantum computers:

$\approx 2^{139}$ bit operations.

Can still be lower cost than non-quantum AES attack under reasonable assumptions re quantum-computer progress, but much more expensive than Shor RSA-2048 attack.

Many commentators conclude that AES-128 is safe.

However, AES-128 exposes many protocols to [multi-target attacks](#) that are already feasible today.

So use AES-256. (Or ChaCha20: bigger security margin, no timing attacks, no block-size attacks.)

in AES evaluation:

bit operations.

cost to 2^{55} bit operations.

costs $\approx 2^{119}$ bit operations.

over speedup

from *serial* iterations.

seconds = 585 years,

iterations won't be easy.

2^{10} × faster,

quantum computers:

bit operations.

2^{20} × faster,

quantum computers:

bit operations.

Can still be lower cost than non-quantum AES attack under reasonable assumptions re quantum-computer progress, but much more expensive than Shor RSA-2048 attack.

Many commentators conclude that AES-128 is safe.

However, AES-128 exposes many protocols to **multi-target attacks** that are already feasible today. So use AES-256. (Or ChaCha20: bigger security margin, no timing attacks, no block-size attacks.)

Every Gr

runs into

How ma

willing to

How ma

can be c

for the t

Does thi

qubit-op

evaluation:
 ons.
 5 bit operations.
 9 bit operations.
 dup
 iterations.
 = 585 years,
 won't be easy.
 r,
 computers:
 ons.
 r,
 computers:
 ons.

Can still be lower cost
 than non-quantum AES attack
 under reasonable assumptions
 re quantum-computer progress,
 but much more expensive
 than Shor RSA-2048 attack.

Many commentators conclude
 that AES-128 is safe.

However, AES-128 exposes many
 protocols to [multi-target attacks](#)
 that are already feasible today.
 So use AES-256. (Or ChaCha20:
 bigger security margin, no timing
 attacks, no block-size attacks.)

Every Grover appli
 runs into the same
 How many years is
 willing to wait for
 How many *serial* i
 can be carried out
 for the target func
 Does this outweigh
 qubit-op cost and

Can still be lower cost than non-quantum AES attack under reasonable assumptions re quantum-computer progress, but much more expensive than Shor RSA-2048 attack.

Many commentators conclude that AES-128 is safe.

However, AES-128 exposes many protocols to **multi-target attacks** that are already feasible today.

So use AES-256. (Or ChaCha20: bigger security margin, no timing attacks, no block-size attacks.)

Every Grover application runs into the same questions: How many years is the user willing to wait for results? How many *serial* iterations can be carried out in that time for the target function f ? Does this outweigh ratio between qubit-op cost and bit-op cost?

Can still be lower cost than non-quantum AES attack under reasonable assumptions re quantum-computer progress, but much more expensive than Shor RSA-2048 attack.

Many commentators conclude that AES-128 is safe.

However, AES-128 exposes many protocols to [multi-target attacks](#) that are already feasible today. So use AES-256. (Or ChaCha20: bigger security margin, no timing attacks, no block-size attacks.)

Every Grover application runs into the same questions. How many years is the user willing to wait for results? How many *serial* iterations can be carried out in that time for the target function f ? Does this outweigh ratio between qubit-op cost and bit-op cost?

Can still be lower cost than non-quantum AES attack under reasonable assumptions re quantum-computer progress, but much more expensive than Shor RSA-2048 attack.

Many commentators conclude that AES-128 is safe.

However, AES-128 exposes many protocols to [multi-target attacks](#) that are already feasible today.

So use AES-256. (Or ChaCha20: bigger security margin, no timing attacks, no block-size attacks.)

Every Grover application runs into the same questions. How many years is the user willing to wait for results? How many *serial* iterations can be carried out in that time for the target function f ? Does this outweigh ratio between qubit-op cost and bit-op cost?

For cryptographic risk management, should presume some Grover speedup depending on quantum-computer progress, but have to account for costs of quantum evaluation of f .

be lower cost
 n-quantum AES attack
 reasonable assumptions
 um-computer progress,
 h more expensive
 or RSA-2048 attack.

ommentators conclude
 S-128 is safe.

, AES-128 exposes many
 s to **multi-target attacks**
 already feasible today.
 AES-256. (Or ChaCha20:
 security margin, no timing
 no block-size attacks.)

Every Grover application
 runs into the same questions.
 How many years is the user
 willing to wait for results?
 How many *serial* iterations
 can be carried out in that time
 for the target function f ?
 Does this outweigh ratio between
 qubit-op cost and bit-op cost?
 For cryptographic risk
 management, should presume
 some Grover speedup depending
 on quantum-computer progress,
 but have to account for costs of
 quantum evaluation of f .

For man
 (and qua
 claims o
 in the lit
 underest
 Example
 finds SH
 evaluatio
 finds SH
 evaluatio
 accesses
 The liter
 physical
 where qu

cost
 n AES attack
 assumptions
 2010 progress,
 expensive
 48 attack.
 ors conclude
 safe.
 3 exposes many
 -target attacks
 feasible today.
 (Or ChaCha20:
 margin, no timing
 size attacks.)

Every Grover application
 runs into the same questions.
 How many years is the user
 willing to wait for results?
 How many *serial* iterations
 can be carried out in that time
 for the target function f ?
 Does this outweigh ratio between
 qubit-op cost and bit-op cost?
 For cryptographic risk
 management, should presume
 some Grover speedup depending
 on quantum-computer progress,
 but have to account for costs of
 quantum evaluation of f .

For many applicat
 (and quantum-wal
 claims of quantum
 in the literature re
 underestimating th
 Example: Non-qua
 finds SHA-256 col
 evaluations. Quan
 finds SHA-256 col
 evaluations *plus* 2
 accesses to 2^{85} me
 The literature doe
 physically plausible
 where quantum al

Every Grover application runs into the same questions.

How many years is the user willing to wait for results?

How many *serial* iterations can be carried out in that time for the target function f ?

Does this outweigh ratio between qubit-op cost and bit-op cost?

For cryptographic risk management, should presume some Grover speedup depending on quantum-computer progress, but have to account for costs of quantum evaluation of f .

For many applications of Grover (and quantum-walk algorithms) claims of quantum speedups in the literature rely critically on underestimating the cost of f .

Example: Non-quantum algorithm finds SHA-256 collision in 2^{80} evaluations. Quantum algorithm finds SHA-256 collision in 2^{40} evaluations *plus* 2^{85} random accesses to 2^{85} memory locations. The literature does not state a physically plausible cost model where quantum algorithm would

Every Grover application runs into the same questions. How many years is the user willing to wait for results? How many *serial* iterations can be carried out in that time for the target function f ? Does this outweigh ratio between qubit-op cost and bit-op cost? For cryptographic risk management, should presume some Grover speedup depending on quantum-computer progress, but have to account for costs of quantum evaluation of f .

For many applications of Grover (and quantum-walk algorithms), claims of quantum speedups in the literature rely critically on underestimating the cost of f .

Example: Non-quantum algorithm finds SHA-256 collision in 2^{128} evaluations. Quantum algorithm finds SHA-256 collision in 2^{85} evaluations *plus* 2^{85} random accesses to 2^{85} memory locations. The literature does not state a physically plausible cost model where quantum algorithm wins.

Grover application
 to the same questions.
 How many years is the user
 willing to wait for results?
 How many *serial* iterations
 can be carried out in that time
 for a target function f ?
 How does the outweigh ratio between
 quantum cost and bit-op cost?
 Cryptographic risk
 assessment, should presume
 Grover speedup depending
 on quantum-computer progress,
 and need to account for costs of
 many evaluations of f .

For many applications of Grover
 (and quantum-walk algorithms),
 the claims of quantum speedups
 in the literature rely critically on
 underestimating the cost of f .

Example: Non-quantum algorithm
 finds SHA-256 collision in 2^{128}
 evaluations. Quantum algorithm
 finds SHA-256 collision in 2^{85}
 evaluations *plus* 2^{85} random
 accesses to 2^{85} memory locations.
 The literature does not state a
 physically plausible cost model
 where quantum algorithm wins.

Post-quantum
 What does
 mean against
 2003: C
 “post-quantum”
 2006, 20
 2014, 20
 2020, 20
[PQCryp](#)
 2015: N
 2016: N
 Post-Quantum
 Standard

ication
 e questions.
 s the user
 results?
 iterations
 in that time
 ction f ?
 n ratio between
 bit-op cost?
 risk
 uld presume
 dup depending
 ounter progress,
 nt for costs of
 on of f .

For many applications of Grover
 (and quantum-walk algorithms),
 claims of quantum speedups
 in the literature rely critically on
 underestimating the cost of f .

Example: Non-quantum algorithm
 finds SHA-256 collision in 2^{128}
 evaluations. Quantum algorithm
 finds SHA-256 collision in 2^{85}
 evaluations *plus* 2^{85} random
 accesses to 2^{85} memory locations.
 The literature does not state a
 physically plausible cost model
 where quantum algorithm wins.

Post-quantum cry
 What do cryptogra
 against quantum c
 2003: [Coined](#) the
 “post-quantum cry
 2006, 2008, 2010,
 2014, 2016, 2017,
 2020, 2021, . . . :
[PQCrypto](#) confere
 2015: NSA issued
 2016: NIST annou
 Post-Quantum Cry
 Standardization P

For many applications of Grover (and quantum-walk algorithms), claims of quantum speedups in the literature rely critically on underestimating the cost of f .

Example: Non-quantum algorithm finds SHA-256 collision in 2^{128} evaluations. Quantum algorithm finds SHA-256 collision in 2^{85} evaluations *plus* 2^{85} random accesses to 2^{85} memory locations. The literature does not state a physically plausible cost model where quantum algorithm wins.

Post-quantum cryptography

What do cryptographers do against quantum computers?

2003: **Coined** the term

“post-quantum cryptography”

2006, 2008, 2010, 2011, 2013

2014, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019

2020, 2021, . . . :

PQCrypto conferences.

2015: NSA issued statement

2016: NIST announced

Post-Quantum Cryptography

Standardization Project.

For many applications of Grover (and quantum-walk algorithms), claims of quantum speedups in the literature rely critically on underestimating the cost of f .

Example: Non-quantum algorithm finds SHA-256 collision in 2^{128} evaluations. Quantum algorithm finds SHA-256 collision in 2^{85} evaluations *plus* 2^{85} random accesses to 2^{85} memory locations. The literature does not state a physically plausible cost model where quantum algorithm wins.

Post-quantum cryptography

What do cryptographers do against quantum computers?

2003: **Coined** the term “post-quantum cryptography”.

2006, 2008, 2010, 2011, 2013, 2014, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020, 2021, . . . :

PQCrypto conferences.

2015: NSA issued statement.

2016: NIST announced Post-Quantum Cryptography Standardization Project.

... applications of Grover
 ... quantum-walk algorithms),
 ... quantum speedups
 ... erature rely critically on
 ... timating the cost of f .

... e: Non-quantum algorithm
 ... SHA-256 collision in 2^{128}
 ... ons. Quantum algorithm
 ... SHA-256 collision in 2^{85}
 ... ons *plus* 2^{85} random
 ... to 2^{85} memory locations.
 ... rature does not state a
 ... y plausible cost model
 ... quantum algorithm wins.

Post-quantum cryptography

What do cryptographers do
 against quantum computers?

2003: [Coined](#) the term
 “post-quantum cryptography”.

2006, 2008, 2010, 2011, 2013,
 2014, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019,
 2020, 2021, ... :

[PQCrypto](#) conferences.

2015: NSA issued statement.

2016: NIST announced
 Post-Quantum Cryptography
 Standardization Project.

2017: N
 69 comp

ions of Grover
 k algorithms),
 speedups
 ly critically on
 e cost of f .

antum algorithm
 lision in 2^{128}
 tum algorithm
 lision in 2^{85}
 85 random
 emory locations.

s not state a
 e cost model
 gorithm wins.

Post-quantum cryptography

What do cryptographers do
 against quantum computers?

2003: **Coined** the term
 “post-quantum cryptography”.

2006, 2008, 2010, 2011, 2013,
 2014, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019,
 2020, 2021, . . . :

PQCrypto conferences.

2015: NSA issued statement.

2016: NIST announced
 Post-Quantum Cryptography
 Standardization Project.

2017: NIST received
 69 complete submissions

Post-quantum cryptography

What do cryptographers do against quantum computers?

2003: **Coined** the term “post-quantum cryptography”.

2006, 2008, 2010, 2011, 2013, 2014, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020, 2021, . . . :

PQCrypto conferences.

2015: NSA issued statement.

2016: NIST announced Post-Quantum Cryptography Standardization Project.

2017: NIST received and processed 69 complete submissions.

Post-quantum cryptography

What do cryptographers do against quantum computers?

2003: **Coined** the term “post-quantum cryptography” .

2006, 2008, 2010, 2011, 2013, 2014, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020, 2021, . . . :

PQCrypto conferences.

2015: NSA issued statement.

2016: NIST announced

Post-Quantum Cryptography Standardization Project.

2017: NIST received and posted 69 complete submissions.

Post-quantum cryptography

What do cryptographers do against quantum computers?

2003: **Coined** the term “post-quantum cryptography” .

2006, 2008, 2010, 2011, 2013, 2014, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020, 2021, . . . :

PQCrypto conferences.

2015: NSA issued statement.

2016: NIST announced

Post-Quantum Cryptography Standardization Project.

2017: NIST received and posted 69 complete submissions.

Almost all submissions have faster attacks known today *even without quantum computers*.

About half have been shown to not meet their security claims.

New attack advances are **continuing to appear** in 2021.

Post-quantum cryptography

What do cryptographers do against quantum computers?

2003: **Coined** the term “post-quantum cryptography”.

2006, 2008, 2010, 2011, 2013, 2014, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020, 2021, . . . :

PQCrypto conferences.

2015: NSA issued statement.

2016: NIST announced Post-Quantum Cryptography Standardization Project.

2017: NIST received and posted 69 complete submissions.

Almost all submissions have faster attacks known today *even without quantum computers*.

About half have been shown to not meet their security claims. New attack advances are **continuing to appear** in 2021.

Much worse status than previous **cryptographic competitions**.

Cryptanalysts are overloaded.

Presumably many attacks haven't been found yet.

quantum cryptography

to cryptographers do
quantum computers?

joined the term
"quantum cryptography".

2008, 2010, 2011, 2013,
2016, 2017, 2018, 2019,
2021,:

to conferences.

NSA issued statement.

NIST announced

Quantum Cryptography
Standardization Project.

2017: NIST received and posted
69 complete submissions.

Almost all submissions have
faster attacks known today
even without quantum computers.

About half have been shown to
not meet their security claims.

New attack advances are
continuing to appear in 2021.

Much worse status than previous
cryptographic competitions.

Cryptanalysts are overloaded.

Presumably many attacks
haven't been found yet.

Major di
quantum

1. "Sma

Main de

Try to fi

that can

searches

Some st

built this

key sear

for SPH

for Class

XL for M

enumera

2017: NIST received and posted 69 complete submissions.

Almost all submissions have faster attacks known today *even without quantum computers.*

About half have been shown to not meet their security claims.

New attack advances are **continuing to appear** in 2021.

Much worse status than previous **cryptographic competitions.**

Cryptanalysts are overloaded.

Presumably many attacks haven't been found yet.

Major directions so far: *quantum* cryptana

1. "Small" Grover

Main design strate

Try to find attack

that can be viewed

searches for "good

Some state-of-the-

built this way: qua

key search; quantu

for SPHINCS+; qu

for Classic McElie

XL for MQ system

enumeration for la

2017: NIST received and posted 69 complete submissions.

Almost all submissions have faster attacks known today *even without quantum computers.*

About half have been shown to not meet their security claims.

New attack advances are **continuing to appear** in 2021.

Much worse status than previous **cryptographic competitions.**

Cryptanalysts are overloaded.

Presumably many attacks haven't been found yet.

Major directions so far in *quantum* cryptanalysis of PC

1. “Small” Grover application

Main design strategy:

Try to find attack component that can be viewed as huge searches for “good” objects.

Some state-of-the-art attacks built this way: quantum AE

key search; quantum preimage for SPHINCS+; **quantum IS**

for Classic McEliece; **quantum**

XL for MQ systems; **quantum enumeration** for lattice systems

2017: NIST received and posted 69 complete submissions.

Almost all submissions have faster attacks known today *even without quantum computers*.

About half have been shown to not meet their security claims.

New attack advances are **continuing to appear** in 2021.

Much worse status than previous **cryptographic competitions**.

Cryptanalysts are overloaded.

Presumably many attacks haven't been found yet.

Major directions so far in *quantum* cryptanalysis of PQC:

1. “Small” Grover applications.

Main design strategy:

Try to find attack components that can be viewed as huge searches for “good” objects.

Some state-of-the-art attacks built this way: quantum AES key search; quantum preimages for SPHINCS+; **quantum ISD** for Classic McEliece; **quantum XL** for MQ systems; **quantum enumeration** for lattice systems.

IST received and posted
complete submissions.

all submissions have

attacks known today

without quantum computers.

half have been shown to

not their security claims.

lack advances are

going to appear in 2021.

worse status than previous

graphic competitions.

analysts are overloaded.

probably many attacks

have been found yet.

Major directions so far in
quantum cryptanalysis of PQC:

1. “Small” Grover applications.

Main design strategy:

Try to find attack components

that can be viewed as huge

searches for “good” objects.

Some state-of-the-art attacks

built this way: quantum AES

key search; quantum preimages

for SPHINCS+; quantum ISD

for Classic McEliece; quantum

XL for MQ systems; quantum

enumeration for lattice systems.

2. “Big”

quantum

Main de

find atta

be viewe

Some st

built this

costs ma

quantum

quantum

quantum

approach

quantum

for lattic

ed and posted
issions.

sions have
wn today

antum computers.

een shown to
urity claims.

ces are
ear in 2021.

s than previous
petitions.

overloaded.

attacks

d yet.

Major directions so far in
quantum cryptanalysis of PQC:

1. “Small” Grover applications.

Main design strategy:

Try to find attack components
that can be viewed as huge
searches for “good” objects.

Some state-of-the-art attacks
built this way: quantum AES
key search; quantum preimages
for SPHINCS+; [quantum ISD](#)
for Classic McEliece; [quantum](#)
[XL](#) for MQ systems; [quantum](#)
[enumeration](#) for lattice systems.

2. “Big” Grover a
quantum walks, et

Main design strate
find attack compo
be viewed as collis

Some state-of-the-
built this way, *ass*

costs magically dis
quantum collisions

quantum claw-finc
[quantum sieving](#) (

[approach](#)) for lattic
[quantum combina](#)

for lattice systems

Major directions so far in *quantum* cryptanalysis of PQC:

1. “Small” Grover applications.

Main design strategy:

Try to find attack components that can be viewed as huge searches for “good” objects.

Some state-of-the-art attacks built this way: quantum AES key search; quantum preimages for SPHINCS+; [quantum ISD](#) for Classic McEliece; [quantum XL](#) for MQ systems; [quantum enumeration](#) for lattice systems.

2. “Big” Grover applications: quantum walks, etc.

Main design strategy: Try to find attack components that be viewed as collision search.

Some state-of-the-art attacks built this way, *assuming memory costs magically disappear*:

quantum collisions for SHA-256; quantum claw-finding for SI; [quantum sieving](#) (and [another approach](#)) for lattice systems; [quantum combinatorial attack](#) for lattice systems.

Major directions so far in *quantum* cryptanalysis of PQC:

1. “Small” Grover applications.

Main design strategy:

Try to find attack components that can be viewed as huge searches for “good” objects.

Some state-of-the-art attacks built this way: quantum AES key search; quantum preimages for SPHINCS+; [quantum ISD](#) for Classic McEliece; [quantum XL](#) for MQ systems; [quantum enumeration](#) for lattice systems.

2. “Big” Grover applications, quantum walks, etc.

Main design strategy: Try to find attack components that can be viewed as collision searches.

Some state-of-the-art attacks built this way, *assuming memory costs magically disappear*:

quantum collisions for SHA-256; quantum claw-finding for SIKE; [quantum sieving](#) (and [another approach](#)) for lattice systems; [quantum combinatorial attacks](#) for lattice systems.

directions so far in
 cryptanalysis of PQC:
 “Big” Grover applications.
 Main design strategy:
 find attack components
 be viewed as huge
 for “good” objects.

State-of-the-art attacks
 this way: quantum AES
 attacks; quantum preimages
 NIST SP 800-185; **quantum ISD**
 basic McEliece; **quantum**
 MQ systems; **quantum**
reduction for lattice systems.

2. “Big” Grover applications,
 quantum walks, etc.
 Main design strategy: Try to
 find attack components that can
 be viewed as collision searches.

Some state-of-the-art attacks
 built this way, *assuming memory*
costs magically disappear:
 quantum collisions for SHA-256;
 quantum claw-finding for SIKE;
quantum sieving (and **another**
approach) for lattice systems;
quantum combinatorial attacks
 for lattice systems.

3. Kupe
 and opti
 example
 isogeny-
 non-inte

(This su
 prompte
 SIKE. S
 CRS/CS
 security
 attacks,
 SIKE als
avenues
 non-inte

o far in
 ysis of PQC:
 applications.
 egy:
 components
 d as huge
 l" objects.
 -art attacks
 antum AES
 um preimages
 uantum ISD
 ce; quantum
 s; quantum
 ttice systems.

2. "Big" Grover applications,
 quantum walks, etc.
 Main design strategy: Try to
 find attack components that can
 be viewed as collision searches.
 Some state-of-the-art attacks
 built this way, *assuming memory
 costs magically disappear*:
 quantum collisions for SHA-256;
 quantum claw-finding for SIKE;
 quantum sieving (and another
 approach) for lattice systems;
 quantum combinatorial attacks
 for lattice systems.

3. Kuperberg appl
 and optimizations.
 example: [attackin](#)
 isogeny-based syst
 non-interactive key
 (This subexponent
 prompted the deve
 SIKE. SIKE is sma
 CRS/CSIDH for s
 security levels aga
 attacks, but cutoff
 SIKE also opens u
 avenues and does
 non-interactive key

2. “Big” Grover applications, quantum walks, etc.
Main design strategy: Try to find attack components that can be viewed as collision searches.

Some state-of-the-art attacks built this way, *assuming memory costs magically disappear*:

- quantum collisions for SHA-256;
- quantum claw-finding for SIKE;
- quantum sieving (and another approach) for lattice systems;
- quantum combinatorial attacks for lattice systems.

3. Kuperberg applications and optimizations. Interesting example: [attacking](#) CRS/CSIDH isogeny-based systems for small non-interactive key exchange.

(This subexponential CRS attack prompted the development of SIKE. SIKE is smaller than CRS/CSIDH for *sufficiently* security levels against known attacks, but cutoff is unclear. SIKE also opens up [new attack avenues](#) and doesn't provide non-interactive key exchange.)

2. “Big” Grover applications, quantum walks, etc.

Main design strategy: Try to find attack components that can be viewed as collision searches.

Some state-of-the-art attacks built this way, *assuming memory costs magically disappear*:

quantum collisions for SHA-256;

quantum claw-finding for SIKE;

quantum sieving (and another approach) for lattice systems;

quantum combinatorial attacks for lattice systems.

3. Kuperberg applications and optimizations. Interesting example: [attacking](#) CRS/CSIDH, isogeny-based systems for small non-interactive key exchange.

(This subexponential CRS attack prompted the development of SIKE. SIKE is smaller than CRS/CSIDH for *sufficiently large* security levels against known attacks, but cutoff is unclear. SIKE also opens up [new attack avenues](#) and doesn't provide non-interactive key exchange.)

Grover applications,
random walks, etc.

design strategy: Try to
break components that can
be used as collision searches.

state-of-the-art attacks
in this way, *assuming memory*
requirements magically disappear:

new collisions for SHA-256;
new claw-finding for SIKE;
new sieving (and another
new) for lattice systems;
new combinatorial attacks
for lattice systems.

3. Kuperberg applications
and optimizations. Interesting
example: [attacking](#) CRS/CSIDH,
isogeny-based systems for small
non-interactive key exchange.

(This subexponential CRS attack
prompted the development of
SIKE. SIKE is smaller than
CRS/CSIDH for *sufficiently large*
security levels against known
attacks, but cutoff is unclear.
SIKE also opens up [new attack](#)
[avenues](#) and doesn't provide
non-interactive key exchange.)

4. Shor
Interesting
logarithm
number
[further t](#)
[polynom](#)
usual "c
of Gentr
homomoc
ideal lat
lattice-b
Latest d
see rece
against l

applications,
 etc.
 Strategy: Try to
 find elements that can
 be used in
 collision searches.

Partial attacks
 assuming memory
 does not
 disappear:

attacks for SHA-256;
 attacks for SIKE;
 and another
 attacks for
 lattice systems;
 theoretical attacks

3. Kuperberg applications
 and optimizations. Interesting
 example: [attacking](#) CRS/CSIDH,
 isogeny-based systems for small
 non-interactive key exchange.

(This subexponential CRS attack
 prompted the development of
 SIKE. SIKE is smaller than
 CRS/CSIDH for *sufficiently large*
 security levels against known
 attacks, but cutoff is unclear.
 SIKE also opens up [new attack](#)
[avenues](#) and doesn't provide
 non-interactive key exchange.)

4. Shor application
 Interesting examples
 logarithms in group
 number fields, con
[further techniques](#)
[polynomial-time a](#)
 usual “cyclotomic
 of Gentry STOC 2
 homomorphic encr
 ideal lattices” and
 lattice-based crypt
 Latest developments
 see recent talk on
 against Ideal-SVP.

3. Kuperberg applications and optimizations. Interesting example: [attacking](#) CRS/CSIDH, isogeny-based systems for small non-interactive key exchange.

(This subexponential CRS attack prompted the development of SIKE. SIKE is smaller than CRS/CSIDH for *sufficiently large* security levels against known attacks, but cutoff is unclear. SIKE also opens up [new attack avenues](#) and doesn't provide non-interactive key exchange.)

4. Shor applications.

Interesting example: discrete logarithms in groups related to number fields, combined with [further techniques](#), led to a [polynomial-time attack](#) breaking usual “cyclotomic $h^+ = 1$ ” of Gentry STOC 2009 “Fully homomorphic encryption using ideal lattices” and some new lattice-based cryptosystems.

Latest developments:

see recent talk on [S-unit attack](#) against Ideal-SVP.

3. Kuperberg applications and optimizations. Interesting example: [attacking](#) CRS/CSIDH, isogeny-based systems for small non-interactive key exchange.

(This subexponential CRS attack prompted the development of SIKE. SIKE is smaller than CRS/CSIDH for *sufficiently large* security levels against known attacks, but cutoff is unclear. SIKE also opens up [new attack avenues](#) and doesn't provide non-interactive key exchange.)

4. Shor applications. Interesting example: discrete logarithms in groups related to number fields, combined with [further techniques](#), led to a [polynomial-time attack](#) breaking usual “cyclotomic $h^+ = 1$ ” case of Gentry STOC 2009 “Fully homomorphic encryption using ideal lattices” and some newer lattice-based cryptosystems.

Latest developments: see recent talk on [S-unit attacks](#) against Ideal-SVP.

Shor applications
 optimizations. Interesting
 : [attacking](#) CRS/CSIDH,
 based systems for small
 active key exchange.

Subexponential CRS attack
 and the development of
 IKE is smaller than
 SIDH for *sufficiently large*
 levels against known
 but cutoff is unclear.

so opens up [new attack](#)
 and doesn't provide
 active key exchange.)

4. Shor applications.

Interesting example: discrete
 logarithms in groups related to
 number fields, combined with
[further techniques](#), led to a
[polynomial-time attack](#) breaking
 usual “cyclotomic $h^+ = 1$ ” case
 of Gentry STOC 2009 “Fully
 homomorphic encryption using
 ideal lattices” and some newer
 lattice-based cryptosystems.

Latest developments:

see recent talk on [S-unit attacks](#)
 against Ideal-SVP.

5. New
 attacks.
 “Quantum
 of average
 via filter

lications

Interesting
g CRS/CSIDH,
ems for small
y exchange.

tial CRS attack
elopment of
aller than
sufficiently large
inst known
f is unclear.

p **new attack**
n't provide
y exchange.)

4. Shor applications.

Interesting example: discrete
logarithms in groups related to
number fields, combined with
further techniques, led to a
polynomial-time attack breaking
usual “cyclotomic $h^+ = 1$ ” case
of Gentry STOC 2009 “Fully
homomorphic encryption using
ideal lattices” and some newer
lattice-based cryptosystems.

Latest developments:

see recent talk on **S-unit attacks**
against Ideal-SVP.

5. New ideas for c
attacks. Recent ex
“Quantum algorithm
of average-case lat
via filtering” .

4. Shor applications.

Interesting example: discrete logarithms in groups related to number fields, combined with [further techniques](#), led to a [polynomial-time attack](#) breaking usual “cyclotomic $h^+ = 1$ ” case of Gentry STOC 2009 “Fully homomorphic encryption using ideal lattices” and some newer lattice-based cryptosystems.

Latest developments:

see recent talk on [S-unit attacks](#) against Ideal-SVP.

5. New ideas for quantum attacks. Recent example: [“Quantum algorithms for various average-case lattice problems via filtering”](#).

4. Shor applications.

Interesting example: discrete logarithms in groups related to number fields, combined with **further techniques**, led to a **polynomial-time attack** breaking usual “cyclotomic $h^+ = 1$ ” case of Gentry STOC 2009 “Fully homomorphic encryption using ideal lattices” and some newer lattice-based cryptosystems.

Latest developments:

see recent talk on **S-unit attacks** against Ideal-SVP.

5. New ideas for quantum attacks. Recent example:

“**Quantum algorithms for variants of average-case lattice problems via filtering**” .

4. Shor applications.

Interesting example: discrete logarithms in groups related to number fields, combined with **further techniques**, led to a **polynomial-time attack** breaking usual “cyclotomic $h^+ = 1$ ” case of Gentry STOC 2009 “Fully homomorphic encryption using ideal lattices” and some newer lattice-based cryptosystems.

Latest developments:

see recent talk on **S-unit attacks** against Ideal-SVP.

5. New ideas for quantum attacks. Recent example:

“**Quantum algorithms for variants of average-case lattice problems via filtering**” .

6. Analyzing and optimizing costs of all of these algorithms **in much more detail.**

4. Shor applications.

Interesting example: discrete logarithms in groups related to number fields, combined with **further techniques**, led to a **polynomial-time attack** breaking usual “cyclotomic $h^+ = 1$ ” case of Gentry STOC 2009 “Fully homomorphic encryption using ideal lattices” and some newer lattice-based cryptosystems.

Latest developments:

see recent talk on **S-unit attacks** against Ideal-SVP.

5. New ideas for quantum attacks. Recent example: **“Quantum algorithms for variants of average-case lattice problems via filtering”**.

6. Analyzing and optimizing costs of all of these algorithms **in much more detail**.

7. Changing cryptosystems to enable attacks: e.g. “Please use your secret key on a quantum computer to decrypt the following superposition of ciphertexts.”