

African School of Fundamental Physics and Applications

## Quantum Information

### Lecture 3 : Quantum Cryptography and Quantum Computing

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### Outline

### Lecture 1 : Introduction to Quantum Information

2 Lecture 2 : Quantum Mechanics for Quantum Information

- Introduction
- Quantum gates and circuits
- Quantum algorithms
- Conclusion
- Appendices



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Introduction

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### Quantum Mechanics and Information Theory



<sup>1</sup>Andrew Steane 1998 Rep. Prog. Phys. 61 117



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### Quantum Supremacy

#### Introduction

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### Article | Published: 23 October 2019

# Quantum supremacy using a programmable superconducting processor

Frank Arute, Kunal Arya, [...] John M. Martinis 🖂

Nature 574, 505-510(2019) Cite this article



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### Abstract

### Introduction

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- A fundamental challenge is to build a high-fidelity processor capable of running quantum algorithms in an exponentially large computational space.



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- The promise of quantum computers is that certain computational tasks might be executed exponentially faster on a quantum processor than on a classical processor.
- A fundamental challenge is to build a high-fidelity processor capable of running quantum algorithms in an exponentially large computational space.
- Here we report the use of a processor with programmable superconducting qubits to create quantum states on 53 qubits, corresponding to a computational state-space of dimension 253 (about 1016).



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- The promise of quantum computers is that certain computational tasks might be executed exponentially faster on a quantum processor than on a classical processor.
- A fundamental challenge is to build a high-fidelity processor capable of running quantum algorithms in an exponentially large computational space.
- Here we report the use of a processor with programmable superconducting qubits to create quantum states on 53 qubits, corresponding to a computational state-space of dimension 253 (about 1016).
- Our Sycamore processor takes about 200 seconds to sample one instance of a quantum circuit a million times—our benchmarks currently indicate that the equivalent task for a state-of-the-art classical supercomputer would take approximately 10,000 years.



### Sycamore processor

#### Introduction

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The Sycamore processor is made up of 53 qubits.



Summary of logic gates

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NOR



AND



OR

NAND



XOR







NOT



Appendix 1 for more details about classical logic gates

### Half-adder circuit

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Conclusion

• The half-adder takes two bits  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  as input and delivers 2 outputs, the sum S and the carry R, in accordance with the truth table presented above.





### Half-adder circuit

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Conclusion

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• See Appendix 1 full-adder circuit



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### Half-adder quantum circuit

• Here's what a half-adding quantum circuit looks like:





• Here's what a half-adding quantum circuit looks like:



• How to build this Quantum circuit ?



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### 1-qubit quantum gates

• In quantum computation, a 1-qubit quantum gate is a unit transformation that transforms an the quantum state of input qubit into another quantum state or an output qubit.

• 1-qubit quantum gates are represented by unitary matrices 2 × 2.





### Quantum Logic Gates





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1-qubit quantum gates	

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- In this section, we'll go over them. For example, we will find the Pauli matrices that we have already studied in the previous lecture.
- We will use for the graphs, those of the IBM Qiskit environment (www.qiskit.org) where a 1 qubit gate (for example the X gate) is represented as follows:





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• The Pauli gates X, Y and Z are represented by the 3 Pauli matrices  $\sigma_x$ ,  $\sigma_y$  and  $\sigma_z$ .



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• here we adopted a specific notation with parentheses [] rather than the traditional parentheses ()



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# Hadamard Gate ${\cal H}$

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



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

• It is used to generate state superpositions by acting on the state  $|0\rangle$  or  $|1\rangle.$  Indeed :

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



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- The states  $|+\rangle$  and  $|-\rangle$  are particularly important in quantum cryptography.
- Exercice : verify the identity X = HZH





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n-qubits Quantum gates

• In the previous section, we reviewed 1-qubit quantum gates. However, the real power of quantum computing takes advantage of superposition and entanglement, which requires at least 2 qubits.



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- We will see below the main gates at n qubits, focusing our attention on the central cases n = 2.3, with in particular the introduction of the CNOT gate (2 qubits) and the Toffoli gate (3 qubits).


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- We will see below the main gates at n qubits, focusing our attention on the central cases n = 2.3, with in particular the introduction of the CNOT gate (2 qubits) and the Toffoli gate (3 qubits).
- Thus, with 1, 2 and 3 qubit gates, we will be able to build circuits capable of performing quantum calculations (Quantum Computing).



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### Action of 1-qubit gates on n-qubits register

• Let us start a system with 2 qubits, which we will note for the purposes of quantum computation  $|q_0\rangle$  and  $|q_1\rangle$ .



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- We can construct operations which act on the tensor product, with the tensor products of 1-qubit gates.
- For example, with a gate *H* acting on  $|q_0\rangle$  and a gate *X* acting on  $|q_1\rangle$ , we construct:

$$(X \otimes H)|q_1q_0\rangle = X|q_1\rangle \otimes H|q_0\rangle$$





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## Action of 1-qubit gates on n-qubits register

• In accordance with the rules of the tensor product of 2 matrices, we have:

$$(X \otimes H) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 1\\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1\\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0\\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$





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• By noting that the blocks  $2 \times 2$  are none other than the gate H (by including the factor  $(1/\sqrt{2})$ , we can use the more compact notation for the same 2 qubit gate :

$$(X \otimes H) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & H \\ H & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$





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Action of 1-qubit gates on n-qubits register

• If we want to apply a single gate to 1 qubit on one of the 2 qubits, we use the tensor product with the identity operator:

$$(X \otimes I) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I \\ I & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$





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CNOT gate	

• The CNOT gate is a 2-qubits gate





# CNOT gate

- The CNOT gate is a 2-qubits gate
- Its matrix representation is:

$$(CNOT) = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0\\ 0 & X \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1\\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$





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It is a conditional gate which causes a gate X to act on the second qubit |q<sub>1</sub>⟩ (target), if the first qubit |q<sub>0</sub>⟩ (control) is in state |1⟩.





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- In this case, the CNOT gate reverses the amplitudes of the target qubit. Otherwise, she does not change her condition.





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First Quantum Circuit	

• The major interest of the CNOT gate is to create an entangled state.



### First Quantum Circuit

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- In the first step, to create a superimposed state, we make a gate of H act on |q<sub>0</sub>⟩, which produces the state |+⟩ from the initial state |0⟩. This is done by applying a (H ⊗ I) gate to the system.





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- Then the CNOT gate is applied, which amounts to creating a first quantum circuit.



 $q_0$ 

 $q_1$ 

 $q_0$ 

 $q_1$ 

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Quantum gates and circuits

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- Then the CNOT gate is applied, which amounts to creating a first quantum circuit.
- The action of this circuit on the 2 qubit system initially in the state  $|00\rangle$  is:

$$(CNOT.(H \otimes I))|00\rangle = CNOT|0+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00\rangle+|11\rangle)$$

which is a Bell state.





### Other quantum circuits

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 If we put the target in the state |−⟩, by applying a gate X after the gate H, and we add a gate CNOT, the circuit produces the state

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 $q_0 - H$  $q_1 - H$ 



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• Note that this circuit changes the state of the control qubit, without modifying that of the target qubit.





## Phase kickback

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• This circuit makes it possible to create a kind of CNOT gate upside down.





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## Phase kickback

- This circuit makes it possible to create a kind of CNOT gate upside down.
- We sandwich a CNOT gate between 2 pairs of Hadamard gates on each qubit.
- Phase reversal is useful in some quantum circuits, where one needs to change the control qubit of the CNOT gate





# Toffoli gate







# Toffoli gate

- The Toffoli gate is a 3 qubit gate, of which 2 are control qubits and 1 target qubit.
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- Exercise  $\bigcirc$ : Write the matrix of the Toffoli gate.





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- Exercise ©: Write the matrix of the Toffoli gate.
- Exercise ©: Check the equivalence scheme below







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What is a quantum circuit?	

• In general, what is a quantum circuit?



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- A quantum circuit is a computing device which consists of a succession of coherent operations on qubits and of concomitant classical calculations in real time.



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  - state measurements of some qubits
  - writing of the measurement results in conventional classical registers, either to read them directly as results of quantum computation, or to reuse them in a new iterative computation cycle.



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#### Example 1: Half-adder circuit

• Here again is a half-adder quantum circuit:





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#### Example 2: Teleportation circuit





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# Why is there a classic part?

• Although a universal quantum computer can perform all the calculations that a classical computer can perform, classical parts are always added to quantum circuits, because quantum states are fragile, due to the phenomena of decoherence.



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- Because of the postulate of wavepacket collapse, a measurement on a quantum system irreversibly changes its state and generates a loss of information on its state prior to the measurement.
- In most algorithms, we measure the qubits so that we can send the results through stable classical channels instead of noisy and fragile quantum channels.



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# Why is there a classic part?

- Although a universal quantum computer can perform all the calculations that a classical computer can perform, classical parts are always added to quantum circuits, because quantum states are fragile, due to the phenomena of decoherence.
- Because of the postulate of wavepacket collapse, a measurement on a quantum system irreversibly changes its state and generates a loss of information on its state prior to the measurement.
- In most algorithms, we measure the qubits so that we can send the results through stable classical channels instead of noisy and fragile quantum channels.



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- In most algorithms, we measure the qubits so that we can send the results through stable classical channels instead of noisy and fragile quantum channels.
- Finally, we need to use the results of quantum computation in a classical form that we can use in practice.



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Quantum algorithms	

• Several quantum algorithms have been proposed and implemented. Here is a list of the main ones:



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# Quantum algorithms

- Several quantum algorithms have been proposed and implemented. Here is a list of the main ones:
  - Deutsch's and Deutsch-Jozsa Algorithms
  - Bernstein-Vazirani Algorithm
  - Simon's Algorithm
  - Quantum counting
  - Quantum Teleportation
  - Shor's Algorithm
  - Grover's Algorithm
  - Quantum Key Distribution (Quantum Cryptography)
  - Quantum Fourier Transform (QFT)
  - Super-dense Coding
  - Quantum Phase Estimation (QPE)
  - Variationl Quantum Eigensolver (VQE)



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# Quantum algorithms

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  - Variationl Quantum Eigensolver (VQE)
- In this lecture, we will have time to see some of these algorithms: Quantum Teleportation and Quantum Cryptography



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#### Quantum Teleportation & non-cloning theorem

- Alice wants to send a qubit  $q_0$  to Bob (more precisely the quantum state of the qubit  $q_0$ ). However, the quantum non-cloning theorem prohibits this operation if the only parties involved are the sender (Alice) and the receiver (Bob).
- If |χ⟩ is any state of system A (for example a qubit), it is not possible to clone it, *i.e.* to copy it to a system B (for example another qubit).



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- This result is known as "Quantum non-cloning theorem".



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- See Appendix 4 for proof.



# Teleportation protocol

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• Alice and Bob call on a third partner (Telamon) who sends each a qubit that is part of a pair of entangled qubits (q<sub>1</sub> for Alice and q<sub>2</sub> for Bob).





#### Teleportation protocol

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- Telamon uses a special pair which is a Bell pair, in which both qubits are in a Bell entangled state.





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# Teleportation protocol

- The translation in terms of quantum circuit of this preparation step is the first piece :
- The qubit q<sub>0</sub> passes a Hadamard gate which creates a |+⟩ state. Then apply a *CNOT* gate on the other qubit q<sub>1</sub> controlled by q<sub>0</sub>.

• Alice applies a *CNOT* gate to  $q_1$  controlled by  $q_0$ . Next, a Hadamard gate on  $q_0$  that she wants to send to Bob.







#### Teleportation protocol

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Then, Alice measures the 2 qubits  $q_1$  and  $q_0$ and records the results in two standard bits. Then she sends these 2 classic bits to Bob through a classic channel.





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Teleportation protocol	

• Bob, who had already received the qubit  $q_2$  from Telamon, applies one of the following gates to it depending on the state of the classic bit sent by Alice:





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- Note here that this information transfer is purely classical.
- That's it ! At the end of the protocol, Alice's qubit  $q_0$  was teleported to Bob. Let us insist on the fact that it is not the qubit itself which has been teleported, but a state of the qubit.



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- Specifically, Bob reconstructed the quantum state that Alice sent him, thanks to the invaluable help of Telamon and his entangled qubits.



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- Specifically, Bob reconstructed the quantum state that Alice sent him, thanks to the invaluable help of Telamon and his entangled qubits.
- So: No entanglement, no Quantum Teleportation!



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# Quantum Cryptography

• The objective of encryption is to secure communications between the sender (Alice) and the receiver (Bob) against the intrusions of a possible spy (Eve).



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- The objective of encryption is to secure communications between the sender (Alice) and the receiver (Bob) against the intrusions of a possible spy (Eve).
- We have already studied the RSA protocol and seen how the difficulty of breaking the code comes from the virtual impossibility, with conventional computers, of finding the prime factors of the RSA number which was used for coding.



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- We have already studied the RSA protocol and seen how the difficulty of breaking the code comes from the virtual impossibility, with conventional computers, of finding the prime factors of the RSA number which was used for coding.
- The advent of quantum computing, and in particular the publication in 1994 of a quantum factorization algorithm by Peter Shor, raised the alarm on the possibility that very soon, a quantum computer could factorize RSA numbers in a very short time and undermine thus the building on which almost all the computer security of exchanges is based!



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- At the same time, the idea germinated to use the quantum properties themselves (superposition / entanglement) to design quantum cryptography algorithms which would thus be almost inviolable.



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Quantum cryptography	

# • Alice wants to send Bob confidential information (for example a password or the code of a bank card).



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- Alice wants to send Bob confidential information (for example a password or the code of a bank card).
- Unless she whispers the message in her ear, Alice is forced to go through a communication channel, to which possibly other people (eg Eve) have access.



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- The idea is to use a quantum channel, so that if Eve dares to spy on the message sent by Alice, Bob will eventually find out, which should allow her to make further arrangements to secure this data. .


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- The idea is to use a quantum channel, so that if Eve dares to spy on the message sent by Alice, Bob will eventually find out, which should allow her to make further arrangements to secure this data. .
- Schematically, this is based on the fact that on a quantum system, spying, which results in a measurement, alters the quantum state of the qubit, unlike a conventional channel and this alteration can be detected by Bob.



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## How does it work?

If Alice prepares the qubit in the state |+⟩, which is the eigenstate |0⟩ of the gate X, and if Bob measures the state in the same base, he is certain always get the result |0⟩ with a probability of 100 %.



## How it works ?

 But if Eve wants to intercept the message by measuring the state of the system by a gate Z (by default), she will project it on the state |0⟩ or |1⟩ of X with a probability of 50% each.



Quantum algorithms



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Quantum algorithms

- We see that Bob in this case has a 50% chance of measuring 0 (or 1), so Alice and Bob realize the interception of the message.
- The quantum key distribution protocol relies on repeating this process enough times that Eve has virtually no chance of making her interception undetectable.

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Quantum key distribution protocol

The quantum key distribution protocol takes place in 5 steps. • First stage :



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The quantum key distribution protocol takes place in 5 steps.

- First stage :
  - Alice chooses a string of random bits, for example a 16-bit register: 10001011010100



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## Quantum key distribution protocol

The quantum key distribution protocol takes place in 5 steps.

- First stage :
  - Alice chooses a string of random bits, for example a 16-bit register: 100010110110100
  - Alice prepares the initial state of the qubit string according to the values of the corresponding classic bits:

 $|1\rangle|0\rangle|0\rangle|0\rangle|1\rangle|0\rangle|1\rangle|0\rangle|1\rangle|1\rangle|0\rangle|1\rangle|0\rangle|1\rangle|0\rangle|1\rangle|0\rangle|0\rangle$ 



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• Alice makes a random choice of bases (or gates) for each bit, for example:

#### ZZXZXXXZXZXXXXXX



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  - Alice applies the gates to each qubit, whose initial state is defined by the value of the corresponding bit
  - In the example chosen, this gives:

 $|1\rangle|0\rangle|+\rangle|1\rangle|-\rangle|+\rangle|-\rangle|0\rangle|-\rangle|1\rangle|+\rangle|-\rangle|+\rangle|-\rangle|+\rangle|+\rangle$ 



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• This is the message Alice sends to Bob.



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Protocol (continued)	

• Third step :



## Protocol (continued)

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## • Third step :

• Bob measures the state of each qubit randomly using a series of gates, for example:

#### XZZZXZXZXZXZZZZZZ



## Protocol (continued)

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and this of course without prior knowledge of the bases chosen by Alice.

• Bob keeps the results of the measurements and does not disseminate them.



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Quantum algorithms

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  - Bob and Alice publicly exchange the bases (or gates) that each has used for each qubit (16 in all for each of them).
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  - Eventually, Bob and Alice publicly share a sample of their keys.



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- Fifth step :
  - Eventually, Bob and Alice publicly share a sample of their keys.
  - If the keys match, they can be sure (with a small margin of error though) that the transmission is successful and secure.



## Post-Quantum era

July 30, 2021

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#### THE

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### Preparing for the Post-Quantum Migration: A Race to Save the Internet

Thursday, July 29, 2021

Most people don't know or care to know, about cryptography. Without cryptography, the internet privacy that we all rely on for transmitting virtually all forms of digital communication would be insecure from attackers. Our current encryption methods are threatened by the breakthrough in quantum computing. Unless proactive steps are taken to mitigate this threat, large-scale quantum computers will tear down the backhone of the internet, secure communications.





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Conclusion of lecture 3	

# • Review of Quantum gates (1-qubit and n-qubits gates)



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Conclusion of lecture 3	

- Review of Quantum gates (1-qubit and n-qubits gates)
- First example of Quantm circuit : Half-adder



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Conclusion of lecture 3	

- Review of Quantum gates (1-qubit and n-qubits gates)
- First example of Quantm circuit : Half-adder
- Review of main Quantum algorithms



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- Review of Quantum gates (1-qubit and n-qubits gates)
- First example of Quantm circuit : Half-adder
- Review of main Quantum algorithms
- Applications: Teleportation and Quantum cryptography



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General conclusion	

• In this series of lectures we have briefly reviewed :



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General conclusion	

- In this series of lectures we have briefly reviewed :
  - Shannon information theory
  - Quantum mechanics tools for quantum information



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• Quantum information main features including examples of quantum

• Shannon information theory

cryptography and teleportation

## General conclusion

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- In this series of lectures we have briefly reviewed :
  - Shannon information theory
  - Quantum mechanics tools for quantum information
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## General conclusion

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## General conclusion

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# General conclusion

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- Several platforms are available for intersted people to get introduced to Quantum computing, e.g., IBM : www.qiskit.org



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  - Quantum information main features including examples of quantum cryptography and teleportation
- We did not address several important issues :
  - Quantum algorithms (QFT, QPE, Grover, Shor, ...)
  - Quantum code error corrections
  - Other fundamental and practical issues
- Several platforms are available for intersted people to get introduced to Quantum computing, e.g., IBM : www.qiskit.org
- You are most welcome to join the African Quantum community through various initiatives : OneQuantum Africa, ASFAP, QWorld branches, ...



## Quantum Africa

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## Quantum Africa

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• The NOT gate takes an input E and gives an output S. Its symbol is:





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• The truth table is written:

E	S
0	1
1	0



Lecture 1 : Introduction to Quantum Information Lecture 2 : Quantum Mechanics for Quantum Information Lecture 3 : Quantum Cryptography and Quantum Computi Appendix 1 : classical logic gates, NOT gate

• The NOT gate takes an input E and gives an output S. Its symbol is:



• The truth table is written:

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|}\hline E & S \\ \hline 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

• This gate is also called an inverter because it inverts the values of bits 0 and 1.



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Appendix 1 : OR gate	

• The OR gate takes 2 inputs  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  and gives an output S. Its symbol is:





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Appendix 1 : OR gate	

• The OR gate takes 2 inputs  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  and gives an output S. Its symbol is:



• The truth table is written:

$$\begin{array}{c|ccc} E_1 & E_2 & S \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{array}$$



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Appendix 1 : AND gate	

• The AND gate takes 2 inputs  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  and gives an output S. Its symbol is:





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• The AND gate takes 2 inputs  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  and gives an output S. Its symbol is:



• The truth table is written :

$E_1$	$E_2$	S
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1



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Appendix 1 : Composite logic gates	

• By combining the 3 simple gates NOT, OR and AND, we define the composite gates NAND, NOR, XOR and XNOR



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Appendix 1 : Composite logic gates	

- By combining the 3 simple gates NOT, OR and AND, we define the composite gates NAND, NOR, XOR and XNOR
- Each of these gates takes 2 inputs  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  and gives an output S, characterized by a specific truth table.



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Appendix 1 : NAND gate	

• The NAND gate combines the AND and NOT gates. The name NAND is a contraction of NOT-AND.



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Appendix 1 · NAND gate	

- The NAND gate combines the AND and NOT gates. The name NAND is a contraction of NOT-AND.
- Its symbol is:





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Appendix 1 · NAND gate	

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$E_1$	$E_2$	S
0	0	1
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Appendix 1 · NOR gate	

• The NOR gate combines the OR and NOT gates. The name NAND is a contraction of NOT-OR.



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Appendix 1 : NOR gate	

- The NOR gate combines the OR and NOT gates. The name NAND is a contraction of NOT-OR.
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Appendix 1 : NOR gate	

- The NOR gate combines the OR and NOT gates. The name NAND is a contraction of NOT-OR.
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$E_1$	$E_2$	S
0	0	1
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Appendix 1 : XOR gate	

• The XOR gate is also called exclusive OR



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Appendix 1 : XOR gate	

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Appendix 2 : More 1-qubit Quantum gates, Gate  $R_{\phi}$ 

• The gate  $R_{\phi}$  is represented by the matrix:

$$R_{\Phi} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0\\ 0 & e^{i\phi} \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $\phi$  is a real number.



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• We can notice that for  $\phi = \pi$ , we find the gate Z.



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- We can notice that for  $\phi = \pi$ , we find the gate Z.
- $\bullet$  We will see later that the gates S and T are also special cases of the gate  $R_{\phi}$



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Gates $I, S$ and $T$	

• The *I* gate is the identity gate :

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

It does not change the state of the qubit.



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#### Gates I, S and T

• The I gate is the identity gate :

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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• The S gate is a  $R_{\phi}$  gate for  $\phi = -\pi/2$ :

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0\\ 0 & e^{-i\frac{\pi}{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

The gate S is also known as the gate  $\sqrt{Z}$ , because we have  $S^2 = Z$ .



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• The gate T is also a gate  $R_{\phi}$  for  $\phi = -\pi/4$ :

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General gate $U_3$	

• The  $U_3$  gate is the most general of all 1 qubit gates.



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General gate $U_3$	

- The  $U_3$  gate is the most general of all 1 qubit gates.
- Its matrix representation involves the angles  $\theta$  and  $\phi$ , defined on the Bloch sphere, as well as a parameter denoted  $\lambda$ :

$$U_3(\theta, \phi, \lambda) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\frac{\theta}{2}) & e^{-i\lambda}\sin(\frac{\theta}{2}) \\ e^{i\phi}\sin(\frac{\theta}{2}) & e^{i(\lambda+\phi)}\cos(\frac{\theta}{2}) \end{bmatrix}$$



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• All the gates we have just listed are special cases of the gate  $U_3(\theta, \phi, \lambda)$ .



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- We also define the gates  $U_1$  and  $U_2$ , which correspond to the cases  $(\theta = \phi = 0)$  and  $(\theta = \pi/2)$  respectively.



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- All the gates we have just listed are special cases of the gate  $U_3(\theta, \phi, \lambda)$ .
- We also define the gates  $U_1$  and  $U_2$ , which correspond to the cases  $(\theta = \phi = 0)$  and  $(\theta = \pi/2)$  respectively.
- We can also notice that the gate  $U_1$  is nothing more than a gate  $R_{\phi}$  $(\phi = \lambda)$ . Indeed :

$$U_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\lambda} \end{bmatrix}$$


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# Appendix 3 : Comparator circuit

• The comparator is a circuit which compares two words of *n* bits. At the output, a bit indicates the result of the comparison: 1 if there is equality between the two codes present at the input, 0 if these codes are different.



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## Appendix 3 : Comparator circuit

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- It is formed by n XNOR gates connected in parallel and an AND gate with n inputs (below is the circuit diagram for n = 3).





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• Take the example of the addition operation 1 + 3 = 4 with 4-bit registers.



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- Take the example of the addition operation 1 + 3 = 4 with 4-bit registers.
- In binary code, the addition is written:

	0	1	1	
	0	0	0	1
+				
	0	0	1	1
	0	1	0	0



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- Take the example of the addition operation 1 + 3 = 4 with 4-bit registers.
- In binary code, the addition is written:



• The addition of the right-hand bits is an addition of two bits, it can be done with the half-adder. In the example above, the output will give a sum  $S_1 = 0$  and a carry  $R_1 = 1$ .



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- The sum of the next two bits requires the carryover to be taken into account (indicated at the top in red), which amounts to performing 2 additions instead of just one for the first pair of bits (1 + 0 + 1 = 0) with a carryover of 1 for the next column.



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• To carry out the addition, we chain a first addition without prior carry-over, and a series of additions with carry-over (3 in our example)



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## Appendix 3 : Full-adder circuit

- To carry out the addition, we chain a first addition without prior carry-over, and a series of additions with carry-over (3 in our example)
- The adder circuit must take as input 3 bits, the inputs A and B and the carry R from the previous operation. It will output the sum S and the carryforward for the next operation.





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# Appendix 3 : Full-adder circuit

- To carry out the addition, we chain a first addition without prior carry-over, and a series of additions with carry-over (3 in our example)
- The adder circuit must take as input 3 bits, the inputs A and B and the carry R from the previous operation. It will output the sum S and the carryforward for the next operation.



• The circuit which will realize the total addition will be a cascade of full-adder circuits.



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## Appendix 3 : Full-adder circuit

• Cascading of 4 adders for the addition of two 4-bit numbers.





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## Appendix 3 : Full-adder circuit

• Cascading of 4 adders for the addition of two 4-bit numbers.



• Exercise: Check the correct implementation of the 4-bit addition given as an example above.



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#### Appendix 4 : Quantum non-cloning theorem

• This theorem addresses the following question: Is it possible to duplicate (copy / clone) the quantum state of a system?



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#### Appendix 4 : Quantum non-cloning theorem

- This theorem addresses the following question: Is it possible to duplicate (copy / clone) the quantum state of a system?
- To answer this question, we suppose the system A in the state  $|\chi_A\rangle$  and we want to copy this state in a system B, previously in a state  $|\phi_B\rangle$ .



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## Appendix 4 : Quantum non-cloning theorem

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- To answer this question, we suppose the system A in the state  $|\chi_A\rangle$  and we want to copy this state in a system B, previously in a state  $|\phi_B\rangle$ .
- For this, we consider the system AB including the two parts A and B. If the cloning operation is possible, then there exists a unit transformation (quantum gate) which transforms the state  $|\chi_A \otimes \phi_B\rangle$  into the state  $|\chi_A \otimes \chi_B\rangle$ .

$$U:|\chi_A\otimes\phi_B\rangle\longrightarrow|\chi_A\otimes\chi_B\rangle$$



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## Appendix 4 : Quantum non-cloning theorem

- This theorem addresses the following question: Is it possible to duplicate (copy / clone) the quantum state of a system?
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$$U:|\chi_A\otimes\phi_B\rangle\longrightarrow|\chi_A\otimes\chi_B\rangle$$

 If such a gate exists, then it must be able to copy any state from A to B, *i.e.* for 2 states χ<sub>1A</sub> and χ<sub>2A</sub>:

$$U|\chi_{1A} \otimes \phi_B\rangle = |\chi_{1A} \otimes \chi_{1B}\rangle$$
$$U|\chi_{2A} \otimes \phi_B\rangle = |\chi_{2A} \otimes \chi_{2B}\rangle$$



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## Appendix 4 : Quantum non-cloning theorem

• Let us calculate the quantity X scalar product of the left (then right) members of the previous equality:



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## Appendix 4 : Quantum non-cloning theorem

- Let us calculate the quantity X scalar product of the left (then right) members of the previous equality:
  - On the one hand we have

$$X = \langle \chi_{1A} \otimes \phi_B | U^{\dagger} U | \chi_{2A} \otimes \phi_B \rangle$$
  
=  $\langle \chi_{1A} \otimes \phi_B | \chi_{2A} \otimes \phi_B \rangle$   
=  $\langle \chi_{1A} | \chi_{2A} \rangle \langle \phi_B | \phi_B \rangle$   
=  $\langle \chi_{1A} | \chi_{2A} \rangle$ 

because U is unitary and  $\langle \phi_B | \phi_B \rangle = 1$ .



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$$= \langle \chi_{1A} | \chi_{2A} \rangle \langle \chi_{1B} | \chi_{2B} \rangle$$

• Since  $\langle \chi_{1A} | \chi_{2A} \rangle = \langle \chi_{1B} | \chi_{2B} \rangle$ , on déduit que  $X = X^2$ . There are therefore 2 cases:



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## Appendix 4 : Quantum non-cloning theorem

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• On the other hand :

$$X = \langle \chi_{1A} \otimes \chi_{1B} | \chi_{2A} \otimes \chi_{2B} \rangle$$
$$= \langle \chi_{1A} | \chi_{2A} \rangle \langle \chi_{1B} | \chi_{2B} \rangle$$

• Since  $\langle \chi_{1A} | \chi_{2A} \rangle = \langle \chi_{1B} | \chi_{2B} \rangle$ , on déduit que  $X = X^2$ . There are therefore 2 cases:

• 
$$X = 1 \Rightarrow |\chi_1\rangle = |\chi_2\rangle.$$



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## Appendix 4 : Quantum non-cloning theorem

- Let us calculate the quantity X scalar product of the left (then right) members of the previous equality:
  - On the one hand we have

$$X = \langle \chi_{1A} \otimes \phi_B | U^{\dagger} U | \chi_{2A} \otimes \phi_B \rangle$$
  
=  $\langle \chi_{1A} \otimes \phi_B | \chi_{2A} \otimes \phi_B \rangle$   
=  $\langle \chi_{1A} | \chi_{2A} \rangle \langle \phi_B | \phi_B \rangle$   
=  $\langle \chi_{1A} | \chi_{2A} \rangle$ 

because U is unitary and  $\langle \phi_B | \phi_B \rangle = 1$ .

• On the other hand :

$$X = \langle \chi_{1A} \otimes \chi_{1B} | \chi_{2A} \otimes \chi_{2B} \rangle$$
$$= \langle \chi_{1A} | \chi_{2A} \rangle \langle \chi_{1B} | \chi_{2B} \rangle$$

- Since  $\langle \chi_{1A} | \chi_{2A} \rangle = \langle \chi_{1B} | \chi_{2B} \rangle$ , on déduit que  $X = X^2$ . There are therefore 2 cases:
  - $X = 1 \Rightarrow |\chi_1\rangle = |\chi_2\rangle.$
  - $X = 0 \Rightarrow |\chi_1\rangle \perp |\chi_2\rangle.$

