Title: The Quantum Information Age - EinsteinPlus Keynote Session

Date: Jul 10, 2007 10:30 AM

URL: http://pirsa.org/07070009

Abstract: The world at the size of individual atoms obeys very different laws of physics from those we are used to in the everyday world around us. Quantum mechanics rules, allowing atoms to be, in some sense, in more than one place at a time. Researchers all over the world are working to build \"quantum computers\" whose memories manipulate an inherently new type of information, \"quantum information.\"

Quantum computers have capabilities impossible for a regular computer, no matter how advanced it may be, including the ability to run new kinds of computer programs capable of rapidly solving certain problems, and to make new highly secure codes for secret communication.

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The Quantum Information Age

Daniel Gottesman Perimeter Institute

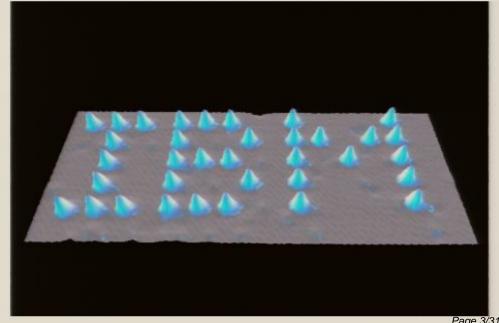
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Bigger and Better? No, Smaller and Smarter

We are on the verge of being able to build objects at the atomic scale:

In the early 1980's, development of the scanning tunneling microscope and atomic force microscope allowed imaging of individual atoms.

These microscopes involve a reaction force back against the atom, and by the late 1980's, this could be used to move individual atoms around.



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Built using 35 xenon atoms at IBM Almaden

Quantum Computers Think Different

But atoms obey different physical laws than do everyday objects like cars, telephones, and paperclips. Because atoms are so small, the laws of quantum mechanics become important.

Atoms can be in "superpositions": in some sense, they can be in two places at once. A book written using single atoms might therefore be a superposition of two or more different stories.

Atoms can store quantum information. A computer built at the atomic scale, a quantum computer, can do things that simply don't make sense for a regular "classical" computer.

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Quantum Bits

We can break up regular information into "bits", either 0 or 1. Quantum information is measured in quantum bits, or "qubits," which can be in a superposition of both 0 and 1. A measurement on a qubit will produce one of the two results at random:

$$a | 0 \rangle + b | 1 \rangle$$

measure

Probability $|a|^2$ of 0

Probability $|b|^2$ of 1

We can manipulate qubits in various ways. E.g.:

$$\begin{array}{c|c} & \text{bit flip} \\ a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle & \longrightarrow & a|1\rangle + b|0\rangle \end{array}$$

We can interact multiple qubits at once:

$$a|00\rangle + b|01\rangle + controlled-NOT $c|10\rangle + d|11\rangle$ $controlled-NOT $c|10\rangle + d|11\rangle$ $c|11\rangle + d|10\rangle$ Page 5/3$$$

Interference

We can also create superpositions:

$$\begin{cases} |0\rangle & \text{Hadamard} & (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)/\sqrt{2} \\ |1\rangle & (|0\rangle - |1\rangle)/\sqrt{2} \end{cases}$$

What if we attempt to create a superposition, but we already had one?

$$(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)/\sqrt{2} \xrightarrow{\text{Hadamard}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)/2 + = |0\rangle$$

$$(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)/2$$

The 0 parts add together ("constructive interference")

The 1 parts cancel ("destructive interference")

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What Good Is a Quantum Computer?

Quantum computers can use interference and superposition to do some things classical computers can't:

- Quickly factoring large numbers.
- Efficiently simulating quantum systems.
- Speed up exhaustive search of N items to N^{1/2} tries.
- Square-root speedup to find the best chess move.
- Maybe more interesting undiscovered algorithms?

But for other problems, a quantum computer offers no speedup over a classical computer.

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RSA Encryption System

RSA encryption is widely used today:

- Encryption key is a pair of large numbers (N, e) (e.g., 300 digits long)
- To encrypt a message, Bob:
 - Converts the message to numbers less than N.
 - Raises the message to the power e.
 - Divides by N and takes the remainder. (Modular arithmetic)
- Decryption key d
 Derived from prime factors of N
- To decrypt y, Alice:
 - Raises the encrypted message to the power d
 - Divides by N and takes the remainder.
- Breaking RSA believed as hard as factoring N

Factoring with a Quantum Computer

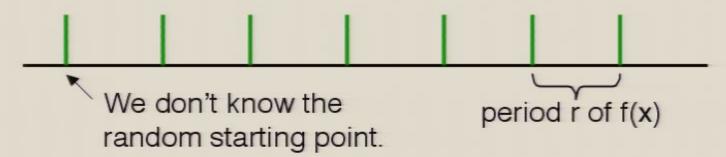
Find period of function $f(x) = a^x$



Factor large numbers (hard on classical computer)

Create superposition:

(over points where f(x) = c, c random)



The Fourier Transform determines the period of a repeating function, so Shor's algorithm applies the Fourier transform to the superposition. Once we know the period Pirsa: 000 Pirsa: 000

lons in an electromagnetic bottle, with an electron's energy level as the qubit. They are controlled with lasers. (Record size: 4 qubits.)



~10 microns between ions. Ion trap at NIST Boulder.

1.1 mm

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From UC Santa Barbara, in Science Magazine

Small superconducting circuits, with a current, charge location, or some other quantity as the qubit. They are controlled with voltage sources and inductors

(Record: 2 qubits.)

A molecule in an NMR machine, using nuclear spins as qubits. They are controlled using RF pulses. (Record: 12 qubits.)



The magnet for an NMR quantum computer at the University of Waterloo

And more:

- Polarization of photons
- Atoms in an optical lattice
- Quantum dots in semiconductors

• ...

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Quantum Cryptography

Quantum computers can break existing codes, but they can also help make stronger codes.

In classical cryptography, the one-time pad is an unbreakable code:

Message 00001 10011 00111 10010 . . .

Key 00101 11011 10100 10100 . . .

Ciphertext 00100 01000 10011 00110 . . .

Each bit of the message is flipped or left alone, according to a new random key bit. The encrypted message looks random to someone Pirsa: 070700 Who does not know the key.

Quantum Key Distribution: Alice

But the key in a one-time pad can only be safely used once. If Alice wants to send a long message to Bob, how can they agree on the long secret key necessary?

Answer: By sending qubits.

This is called "Quantum key distribution," or QKD.

Alice sends single particles of light ("photons"), in one of four possible quantum states:

$$\uparrow |0\rangle \qquad |1\rangle \longrightarrow \qquad \angle |0\rangle + |1\rangle \qquad |0\rangle - |1\rangle \searrow$$

Key bit: 0 1 Key bit: 0

"Z" states "X" states

Quantum Key Distribution: Bob

When Bob receives a photon, he can either measure it right away (a "Z" measurement): is it 0 or 1?

Or he can shift to a superposition (the "X" measurement) to try to distinguish the two X states.

But if he guesses wrong, his measurement result is random:

$$|0\rangle + |1\rangle$$
 measure 50% chance of 0 50% chance of 1

To avoid this problem, once Bob has measured, Alice and Bob compare their choices, and only keep the bit if

Pirsa: 0707000 Bob guessed the right measurement to make.

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Quantum Key Distribution: Eve

An eavesdropper Eve wants to learn the key bits too, but she faces the same problem as Bob: she does not know which measurement to make.

If Bob makes the correct measurement, his result is supposed to agree with the bit Alice sent.

If Eve guesses wrong, Eve's measurement might introduce an error into Bob's result:

$$|0\rangle$$
 Eve $|0\rangle + |1\rangle$ Bob 50%: 0 50%: 1

Alice and Bob can compare a few of their bits to

QKD: Full Protocol

- Alice chooses random sequence of bits and X/Z
- Alice sends corresponding qubits to Bob
- Alice and Bob:
 - Compare X/Z values.
 - Discard bits where Bob chose wrong.
 - Compare bit values on a test subset.
 - Abort if error rate is too high.
 - Use an error-correcting code to fix remaining bits (there will always be some errors, even without Eve).
 - Privacy amplification: Mix up remaining bits to eliminate any little bits of information Eve might have.

Alice and Bob either end up with a secret shared key, or

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Celect Eve's attempt at eavesdropping.

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Moving Qubits Around

If we use photons as qubits, as in QKD, moving them is easy, but computing is very hard.

If we use atoms as qubits, as in many types of quantum computer, computing is not quite as hard, but now moving them is also hard.

A solution: Quantum Teleportation

Quantum teleportation splits up the task of quantum communication into two parts:

- Quantum part: Alice & Bob create a specific quantum state shared between them.
- Pirsa: 07070009 Communication part: Alice sends classical bits to Bob.

Entangled State

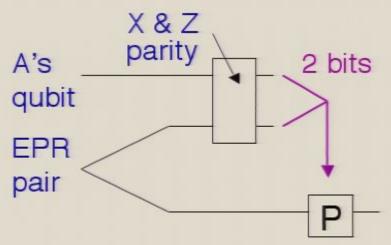
In quantum mechanics, there are incompatible pairs of measurements. For instance, the X and Z measurements from before cannot both be done on the same qubit. This means Alice cannot measure everything about the qubit she wishes to teleport.

However, if we only ask if the X measurements on two qubits give the same or different answers (the "X parity" measurement), that is compatible with the Z parity measurement.

It is possible to create a state (an "EPR pair") that will always give the answer "same" to both the X parity and Z parity measurements. An EPR pair is an example of an entangled state, and has strange non-classical properties.

Quantum Teleportation

In quantum teleportation, Alice and Bob first create an EPR pair, and each takes one of the two qubits.



Then Alice asks if the qubit she wishes to teleport is the same or different from her half of the EPR pair for both X and Z (i.e., she does the X and Z parity measurements).

She sends the result to Bob, who corrects his state appropriately:

X or Z parity

A's qubit A's and & A's FPR

B's EPR

A's qubit & B's FPR

same

same

same

different

same

different

Teleporting Large Objects

Teleporting a single qubit requires sending 2 bits of information. Teleporting 10²⁷ qubits thus requires 2 x 10²⁷ bits, which would take 60 billion years over a 1 Gps line.



In any case, for most large objects, the exact quantum state is unimportant, so quantum teleportation has little to do with science-fiction style teleportation.

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Quantum Information

You now have a taste of how quantum information differs from classical information:

- Quantum algorithms
- Quantum computers
- Quantum cryptography

There are others:

- Quantum error correction
- Quantum communication complexity
- And more, including many yet to be discovered.

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Key bit: 0 1 Key bit: 0 1

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diagonal polarization

A molecule in an NMR machine, using nuclear spins as qubits. They are controlled using RF pulses. (Record: 12 qubits.)



The magnet for an NMR quantum computer at the University of Waterloo

And more:

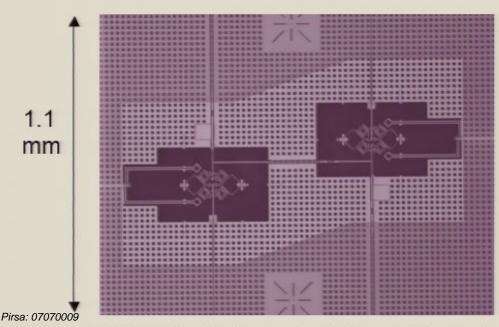
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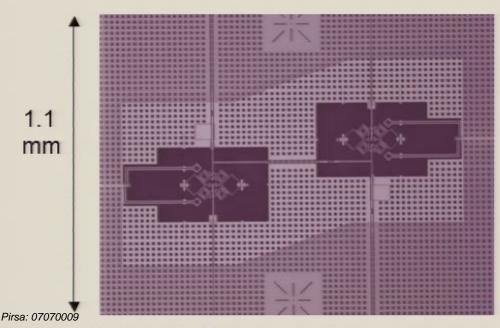
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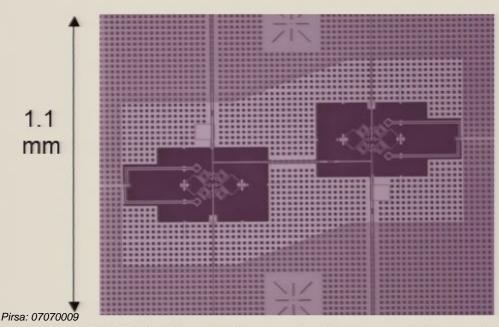
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