# Classical verification of quantum computation 

Greg Kahanamoku-Meyer
May 3, 2022

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Setting:

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- "Verifier" + communication is entirely classical
- No assumptions about how prover works


## Quantum computational advantage

Experiments claiming that their output can't be simulated classically:


Random circuit sampling [Google, 2019]


Gaussian boson sampling [USTC, 2020]

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- How hard is it really to classically simulate?
- If indeed we can't simulate, how do we check that it's correct?


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All about asymptotics. Example:
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We care about actual resource costs for a specific instance of the problem. Ex:
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Takeaway: Complexity theory tells us how the hardness of a problem scales, but not the actual cost for specific instances.

Best strategy for finding cost in practice: have a bunch of people try it.

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## Random circuit sampling: checking correctness



Idea: extrapolate correctness from simpler circuits.
"The device works correctly on the easy ones, so it probably also works on the hard one" Ideally:

- Remove need for extrapolations/assumptions in verification process
- Not need a supercomputer to do it


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Remote: validate an untrusted quantum device over the internet
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11101100 (
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emote: validate an untrusted quantum device over the internet
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Local: robust demonstration of the power of quantum computation "Qubits prove their power to humanity"

## Connection to cryptography

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Our goal: a "cryptographic proof of quantumness"

## Near-term verifiable quantum advantage

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NISQ: Noisy Intermediate-Scale Quantum devices

## Sampling problems

## Number theory problems

e.g. random circuits, Boson sampling, ...
$\checkmark$ NISQ feasible
$x$ Efficiently verifiable
e.g. factoring, discrete logarithm, ...
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## Adding structure to sampling problems

Generically: seems hard.

The point of random circuits is that they don't have structure!

## IQP

Example: sampling "IQP" circuits (products of Pauli $X$ 's)

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\begin{equation*}
H=X_{0} X_{1} X_{3}+X_{1} X_{2} X_{4} X_{5}+\cdots \tag{1}
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\begin{gathered}
\text { Fraction of measurement results with } \vec{x} \cdot \vec{s}=0 \text { : } \\
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- Easy for quantum device to pass: yes
- Easy for classical computer to verify: yes
- Hard for classical computer to cheat: hopefully?
- Is it possible to simulate this class of circuits?
- Is there some way to pass the test without simulating the circuit?


## The $\$ 25$ challenge

Alice's quantum challenge
C'mon Bob, show us how quantum you really are


## IQP: is it possible to simulate classically?

> Classical simulation of commuting
> quantum computations implies collapse of the polynomial hierarchy
> BY MICHAEL J. Bremner $^{1, *,}$, RICHARD JozsA ${ }^{2}$ AND DAN J. SHEPHERD ${ }^{3}$
> ${ }^{1}$ Institut für Theoretische Physik, Leibniz Universität Hannover,
> Appelstrasse 2, Hannover 30167, Germany
> ${ }^{2}$ DAMTP, Centre for Mathematical Sciences, University of Cambridge, Wiberforce Road, Cambridge CB3 0WA, UK
> ${ }^{3}$ CESG, Hubble Road, Cheltenham GL51 OEX, UK

| PRL 117, 080501 (2016) | PHYSIC AL | REVIEW | LETTERS |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | week ending |
| :---: |

## Average-Case Complexity Versus Approximate Simulation of Commuting Quantum Computations

[^0]
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> BY MICHAEL J. Bremner $^{1, *,}$, RICHARD JozsA ${ }^{2}$ AND DAN J. SHEPHERD ${ }^{3}$
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\text { PRL 117, } 080501 \text { (2016) PHYS IC A L R E V IE W LETTERS } \\
\hline \text { Average-Case Complexity Versus Approximate Simulation of Commuting } \\
\text { Quantum Computations } \\
\text { Week } \\
\text { Michael J. Bremner, }{ }^{19, *} \text { Ashley Montanaro, }{ }^{2} \text { and Dan J. Shepherd }{ }^{3} \\
{ }^{\text {1 }} \text { Centre for Quantum Computation and Intelligent Systems, Faculty of Engineering and Information Technology, } \\
\text { University of Technology Sydney, Sydney, NSW 2007, Australia } \\
{ }^{2} \text { School of Mathematics, University of Bristol, Bristol BS8 ITW, United Kingdom } \\
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... and in practice, it seems to be infeasible for $>50$ qubits...

## IQP: is it possible to pass without simulating the circuit?

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Fraction of measurement results with $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{s}=0$ :
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Key: for a given $H$ (and thus $\vec{s}$ ) one can classically generate sets of correlated samples.


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|  |  | Q: why doesn't this immediately break the protocol? |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | w/ prob. $1 / 2$ |  |
| 75\% |  | In 100\% case, get a system of equations |
| always | 50\% | in 100\% case, get a system of equations |
|  | w/ prob. $1 / 2$ | With knowledge of $\vec{s}$, trivial to classically pass test. |

## Breaking the IQP protocol

Trying it against their verification code...
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Loading X-program at 'challenge.dat'...
Extracting secret key...
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Congratulations; you have what appears to be a
working quantum computer!
Dataset accepted as proof!
$
```


## Near-term verifiable quantum advantage

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## Sampling problems

Number theory problems
e.g. random circuits, Boson sampling, ...
e.g. factoring, discrete logarithm, ...
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## Making number theoretic problems less costly

Fully solving a problem like factoring is "overkill"

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Fully solving a problem like factoring is "overkill"
Can we demonstrate quantum capability without needing to solve such a hard problem?

## Zero-knowledge proofs: differentiating colors

You are red/green colorblind, your friend is not.
How can they use a red ball and green ball to convince you that they see color?

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Goal: find protocol as verifiable and classically hard as factoringbut less expensive than actually finding factors (via Shor)

## Interactive proofs of quantumness

Multiple rounds of interaction between the prover and verifier


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Round 1: Prover commits to holding a specific quantum state
Round 2: Verifier asks for measurement in specific basis, prover performs it

## Interactive proofs of quantumness

Multiple rounds of interaction between the prover and verifier


Round 1: Prover commits to holding a specific quantum state
Round 2: Verifier asks for measurement in specific basis, prover performs it

By randomizing choice of basis and repeating interaction, can ensure prover would respond correctly in any basis

## State commitment (round 1): trapdoor claw-free functions

How does the prover commit to a state?

Consider a 2-to-1 function $f$ :
for all $y$ in range of $f$, there exist $\left(x_{0}, x_{1}\right)$ such that $y=f\left(x_{0}\right)=f\left(x_{1}\right)$.

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Prover has committed to the state $\left(\left|x_{0}\right\rangle+\left|x_{1}\right\rangle\right)|y\rangle$

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Source of power: cryptographic properties of 2-to-1 function $f$

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Cheating classical prover can't forge the state; classical verifier can determine state using trapdoor.

## State commitment (round 1): trapdoor claw-free functions

```
Prover has committed to (|\mp@subsup{x}{0}{}\rangle+|\mp@subsup{x}{1}{}\rangle)|y\rangle\mathrm{ with }y=f(\mp@subsup{x}{0}{})=f(\mp@subsup{x}{1}{})
```

Source of power: cryptographic properties of 2-to-1 function $f$

- "Claw-free": It is cryptographically hard to find any pair of colliding inputs
- Trapdoor: With the secret key, easy to classically compute the two inputs mapping to any output

Cheating classical prover can't forge the state; classical verifier can determine state using trapdoor.

Generating a valid state without trapdoor uses superposition + wavefunction collapse-inherently quantum!

## Trapdoor claw-free function example

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f(x)=x^{2} \bmod N \text {, where } N=p q
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Example: $4^{2} \equiv 11^{2} \equiv 16(\bmod 35) ;$ and $11-4=7$

## Brakerski, Christiano, Mahadev, Vazirani, Vidick '18



Evaluate $f$ on uniform superposition:
$\sum_{x}|x\rangle|f(x)\rangle$
Measure $2^{\text {nd }}$ register as $y$


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$\xrightarrow{y}$ Compute $x_{0}, x_{1}$ from $y$ using trapdoor

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## 10100111100 <br> 1010110011 <br> 1101100100 <br> 1001100001

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Hardness of finding $\left(x_{0}, x_{1}\right)$ does not imply hardness of measurement results! Protocol requires strong claw-free property: For any $x_{0}$, hard to find even a single bit about $x_{1}$.

## Trapdoor claw-free functions

| Function family | Trapdoor | Claw-free | Strong claw-free |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Learning-with-Errors [1] | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| Ring Learning-with-Errors [2] | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $x$ |
| $x^{2}$ mod $N$ [3] | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $x$ |
| Diffie-Hellman [3] | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $x$ |

[1] Brakerski, Christiano, Mahadev, Vidick, Vazirani '18 (arXiv:1804.00640)
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Cooperative two-player game; players can't communicate (non-local).


If anyone receives tails, want $A=B$. If both get heads, want $A \neq B$.

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Classical optimal strategy: return equal values, hope you didn't both get heads. 75\% success rate.

Can we do better with entanglement?

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> Quantum: $\cos ^{2}(\pi / 8) \approx 85 \%$ Classical: $75 \%$

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Replace X basis measurement with "single-qubit CHSH game"

## Interactive measurement: computational Bell test

Two-step process: "condense" $x_{0}, x_{1}$ into a single qubit, and then do a "Bell test."


$\left|x_{0}\right\rangle\left|x_{0} \cdot r\right\rangle+\left|x_{1}\right\rangle\left|x_{1} \cdot r\right\rangle$
Measure all but ancilla in $X$ basis


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GDKM, Choi, Vazirani, Yao '21 (arXiv:2104.00687)

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Pick $(Z+X)$ or $(Z-X)$ basis Validate against $r, x_{0}, x_{1}, d$

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This protocol can use any trapdoor claw-free function!

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Run protocol many times, collect statistics.
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Note: Let $p_{z}=1$. Then for $p_{\text {Bell }}$ :
Classical bound $75 \%$, ideal quantum $\sim 85 \%$. Same as regular Bell test!
GDKM, Choi, Vazirani, Yao '21 (arXiv:2104.00687)

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Asymptotically: evaluating $x^{2} \bmod N$ requires $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ gates; $a^{x} \bmod N$ in Shor requires $\mathcal{O}\left(n^{2} \log n\right)$

[^1]
## Moving towards efficiently-verifiable quantum advantage in the near term

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- Measurement-based uncomputation scheme [2]
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Q: Why is mid-circuit measurement necessary for these protocols?
Other applications of mid-circuit measurement:

- Quantum error correction
- Quantum machine learning (QCNN)
- ...


## Intermediate measurements in the lab

## TIIII 48

Trapped Ion Quantum Information lab at U. Maryland ( $\rightarrow$ Duke)
First demonstration of these protocols, in trapped ions! (arXiv:2112.05156)

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Partial measurement:

## Interactive proofs on a few qubits

Experimental results for $f(x)=x^{2} \bmod N$
Up and right is stronger evidence of quantumness

GDKM, D. Zhu, et al. (arXiv:2112.05156)


## Looking forward

Bottleneck: Evaluating TCF on quantum superposition

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- $x^{2} \bmod N$ requires at minimum 500-1000 qubits for classical hardness-search for new claw-free functions?


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Improving the protocol itself:

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- $x^{2} \bmod N$ requires at minimum 500-1000 qubits for classical hardness-search for new claw-free functions?

Improving the protocol itself:

- Remove trapdoor-symmetric key/hash-based cryptography [arXiv:2204.02063]


## Looking forward

## Bottleneck: Evaluating TCF on quantum superposition

Improving implementation of the protocol:

- Preliminary implementation of $x^{2} \bmod N$ at scale has depth $10^{5}$-optimize it!
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- $x^{2} \bmod N$ requires at minimum 500-1000 qubits for classical hardness-search for new claw-free functions?

Improving the protocol itself:

- Remove trapdoor-symmetric key/hash-based cryptography [arXiv:2204.02063]
- Explore other protocols (verifiable sampling with good security?)


## References + further reading

Numbers below are arXiv IDs; go to arxiv.org/abs/xxxx.xxxxx
Proofs of quantumness

- IQP sampling protocol [0809.0847]
- Breaking IQP protocol [1912.05547]
- First interactive proof based on trapdoor claw-free functions [1804.00640]
- Removing assumptions via random oracles [2005.04826]
- Removing assumptions via computational Bell test [2104.00687]
- Single-prover proofs from any multi-prover quantum game [2203.15877]
- Proofs using only random oracles [2204.02063]

Other applications of quantum interactive proofs

- Certifiable quantum randomness [1804.00640]
- Remote state preparation [1904.06320]
- Verification of arbitrary quantum computations (!) [1804.01082]

Backup!

## Hardness proof: rewinding

Prover


## Verifier

10100111100 11010110011
11101100100
10011000011

From a "proof of hardness" perspective:

## Hardness proof: rewinding



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From a "proof of hardness" perspective:

- Classical cheater can be "rewound"
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- Extract measurement results in all choices of basis


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From a "proof of hardness" perspective:

- Classical cheater can be "rewound"
- Save state of prover after first round of interaction
- Extract measurement results in all choices of basis
- Quantum prover's measurements are irreversible
"Rewinding" proof of hardness doesn't go through for quantum prover-can even use functions that are quantum claw-free!


## Technique: postselection

How to deal with high fidelity requirement? Naively need $\sim 83 \%$ overall circuit fidelity to pass.

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A prover holding $\left(\left|x_{0}\right\rangle+\left|x_{1}\right\rangle\right)|y\rangle$ with $\epsilon$ phase coherence passes!

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When we generate $\sum_{x}|x\rangle|f(x)\rangle$, add redundancy to $f(x)$, for bit flip error detection!

## Technique: postselection

How to deal with high fidelity requirement? Naively need $\sim 83 \%$ overall circuit fidelity to pass.


Numerical results for $x^{2} \bmod N$ with $\log N=512$ bits.
Here: make transformation $x^{2} \bmod N \Rightarrow(k x)^{2} \bmod k^{2} N$

## Improving circuit sizes

Most demanding step in all these protocols: evaluating TCF

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\mathcal{U}_{f}|x\rangle\left|0^{\otimes n}\right\rangle=|x\rangle|f(x)\rangle
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$x^{2} \bmod N$ and Ring-LWE have classical circuits as fast as $\mathcal{O}(n \log n) \ldots$

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$x^{2} \bmod N$ and Ring-LWE have classical circuits as fast as $\mathcal{O}(n \log n) \ldots$ but they are recursive and hard to make reversible.

Protocol allows us to make circuits irreversible!

## Technique: taking out the garbage

$$
\text { Goal: } \mathcal{U}_{f}|x\rangle\left|0^{\otimes n}\right\rangle=|x\rangle|f(x)\rangle
$$

When converting classical circuits to quantum:
Garbage bits: extra entangled outputs due to unitarity


Classical AND


Quantum AND (Toffoli)

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When converting classical circuits to quantum:
Garbage bits: extra entangled outputs due to unitarity
Let $\mathcal{U}_{f}^{\prime}$ be a unitary generating garbage bits $g_{f}(x)$ :
$|x\rangle \equiv$
$|0\rangle \equiv \mathcal{U}_{f}^{\prime}$
$\equiv|x\rangle$
$|0\rangle \equiv\left|g_{f}(x)\right\rangle$

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Lots of time and space overhead!

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Garbage bits: extra entangled outputs due to unitarity
Let $\mathcal{U}_{f}^{\prime}$ be a unitary generating garbage bits $g_{f}(x)$ :


Can we "measure them away" instead?

## Technique: taking out the garbage

Measure garbage bits $g_{f}(x)$ in $X$ basis, get some string $h$. End up with state:

$$
\sum_{x}(-1)^{n \cdot g_{f}(x)}|x\rangle|f(x)\rangle
$$

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\left[(-1)^{n \cdot g_{f}\left(x_{0}\right)}\left|x_{0}\right\rangle+(-1)^{n \cdot g_{f}\left(x_{1}\right)}\left|x_{1}\right\rangle\right]|y\rangle
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Can directly convert classical circuits to quantum! 1024 -bit $x^{2} \bmod N$ in depth $10^{5}$ (and can be improved?)

## IQP circuits [Shepherd and Bremner, '08]

Consider a matrix $P \in\{0,1\}^{k \times n}$ and "action" $\theta$.

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Let $H=\sum_{i} \prod_{j} X_{j}^{P_{i j}}$.
Example:

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\begin{equation*}
H=X_{0} X_{1} X_{3}+X_{1} X_{2} X_{4} X_{5}+\cdots \tag{2}
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\left.\operatorname{Pr}[X=x]=\left|\langle x| e^{-i H \theta}\right| 0\right\rangle\left.\right|^{2} \tag{3}
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Bremner, Jozsa, Shepherd '11: classically sampling worst-case IQP circuits would collapse polynomial heirarchy

Bremner, Montanaro, Shepherd '16: average case is likely hard as well

## IQP proof of quantumness [Shepherd and Bremner, '08]

Let $\theta=\pi / 8$, and $s$ (secret) and $P$ have the form:

$$
P=\left[\begin{array}{l}
\mathrm{G} \\
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$G^{\top}$ is generator of Quadratic Residue code, $R$ random.

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\operatorname{Pr}\left[X^{\top} \cdot s=0\right]=\cos ^{2}\left(\frac{\pi}{8}\right) \approx 0.85
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## IQP: Hiding s

Quantum: $\operatorname{Pr}\left[X^{\top} \cdot s=0\right] \approx 0.85$
Best classical: $\operatorname{Pr}\left[Y^{\top} \cdot \mathbf{s}=0\right]=?$
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1 \\
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\vdots \\
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0 \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right] \\
& P^{\prime} \mathbf{S}^{\prime}=\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Scrambling preserves quantum success rate.

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0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right] \quad P^{\text {permute rows }} \begin{aligned}
& \text { Couss } \\
& \text { Columns }
\end{aligned} \quad \quad \text { S }^{\prime}=\left[\begin{array}{l}
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0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
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Scrambling preserves quantum success rate.
Conjecture [SB '08]: Scrambling P cryptographically hides G (and equivalently s)

## IQP: Classical strategy

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Assuming $s$ hidden, can classical do better than 0.5? Try to take advantage properties of embedded code.

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Consider choosing random $d \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{n}$, and letting

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Then:

$$
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Then:

$$
y \cdot s=w t(G d) \quad(\bmod 2)
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QR code codewords are $50 \%$ even parity, $50 \%$ odd parity.

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Consider choosing random $d, e \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{n}$, and letting

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Then:

$$
y \cdot s=(G d) \cdot(G e) \quad(\bmod 2)
$$

Fact: $(G d) \cdot(G e)=1$ iff $G d, G e$ both have odd parity.

## IQP: Classical strategy [SB '08]

Quantum: $\operatorname{Pr}\left[X^{\top} \cdot s=0\right] \approx 0.85$
Classical: $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\boldsymbol{Y}^{\top} \cdot \boldsymbol{s}=0\right]=0.75$

Consider choosing random $d, e \stackrel{\mathbb{S}}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{n}$, and letting

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$$

Fact: $(G d) \cdot(G e)=1$ iff $G d, G e$ both have odd parity.
Thus $y \cdot s=0$ with probability $3 / 4$ !

## IQP: Can we do better classically? [GDKM '19 arXiv:1912.05547]

Key: Correlate samples to attack the key s

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$$
\text { Gd has even parity } \Rightarrow \text { all } y_{i} \cdot s=0
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y_{i}=\sum_{\substack{p \in \operatorname{rows}(P) \\ p \cdot d=p \cdot e_{i}=1}} p
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$y_{i} \cdot s=1$ iff $G d, G e_{i}$ both have odd parity.

Gd has even parity $\Rightarrow$ all $y_{i} \cdot s=0$
Let $y_{i}$ form rows of a matrix $M$, such that $M s=0$

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- Could pick a different $G$ for which this attack would not succeed?
- Ultimately, would like to rely on standard cryptographic assumptions...


## Quantum circuits for $x^{2} \bmod N$

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\text { Goal: } \quad \mathcal{U}|x\rangle|0\rangle=|x\rangle\left|x^{2} \bmod N\right\rangle
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Advantages:

- Everything is diagonal (it's just a phase)!
- Modulo is automatic in the phase
- Simple decomposition into few-qubit gates


## Implementation

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\text { New goal: } \quad \tilde{\mathcal{U}}|x\rangle|z\rangle=\exp \left(2 \pi i \frac{x^{2}}{N} z\right)|x\rangle|z\rangle
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Decompose using "grade school" integer multiplication:

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- Binary multiplication is AND
- "Apply phase whenever $x_{i}=x_{j}=z_{k}=1$ "
- These are CCPhase gates (of arb. phase)!


## Leveraging the Rydberg blockade



## Leveraging the Rydberg blockade



## Decisional Diffie-Hellman (DDH)

Problem (not TCF): Consider a group $\mathbb{G}$ of order $N$, with generator $g$. Given the tuple $\left(g, g^{a}, g^{b}, g^{c}\right)$, determine if $c=a b$.

Elliptic curve crypto.: $\log N \sim 160$ bits is as hard as 1024 bit factoring!!

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How to build a TCF?
Trapdoor [Peikert, Waters '08; Freeman et al. '10]: linear algebra in the exponent Claw-free [GDKM et al. '21 (arXiv:2104.00687)]: collisions in linear algebra in the exponent!

## Full protocol




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    (Received 8 May 2015; revised manuscript received 9 June 2016; published 18 August 2016)

[^1]:    (can also use other TCFs, and other optimizations...)

