# CPEN 400Q Lecture 12 Order finding and Shor's algorithm

Friday 17 February 2023

#### Announcements

- First questions of assignment 2 available (final one still in testing)
- Project group and paper selection due today (use Piazza to find teammates)

#### Last time

We implemented quantum phase estimation.

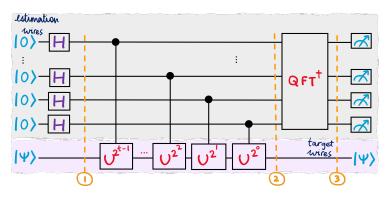


Image credit: Xanadu Quantum Codebook node P.2

## Learning outcomes

- Use QPE to implement the order finding algorithm
- Implement both classical and quantum components of Shor's algorithm to factor numbers
- Describe the steps involved in the RSA cryptosystem, and identify the vulnerability to quantum computers

Suppose we have a function

over the integers modulo N.

If there exists  $r \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.

f(x) is periodic with period r.

Suppose

The *order* of a is the smallest m such that

Note that this is also the period:

More formally, define

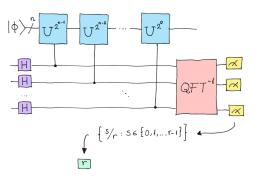
Define a unitary operation that performs

If m is the order of a, and we apply  $U_{N,a}$  m times,

So m is also the order of  $U_{N,a}$ ! We can find it efficiently using a quantum computer.

Let U be an operator and  $|\phi\rangle$  any state. How do we find the minimum r such that

QPE does the trick if we set things up in a clever way:



Consider the state

If we apply  $\it U$  to this:

Now consider the state

If we apply U to this:

This generalizes to  $|\Psi_s\rangle$ 

It has eigenvalue

Idea: if we can create *any* one of these  $|\Psi_s\rangle$ , we could run QPE and get an estimate for s/r, and then recover r.

Problem: to construct any  $|\Psi_s\rangle$ , we would need to know r in advance!

Solution: construct the uniform superposition of all of them.

But what does this equal?

The superposition of all  $|\Psi_s\rangle$  is just our original state  $|\phi\rangle$ !

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \right) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \right) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}$$

If we run QPE, the output will be s/r for one of these states.

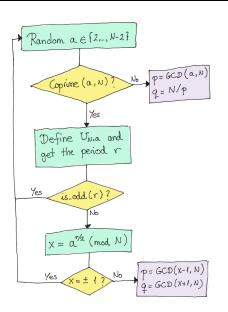
#### Overview

Shor's algorithm is used to factor some number N into

where p and q are prime.

A quantum computer runs order finding, and the result is used to obtain p and q.

The rest of the algorithm is classical.



### Non-trivial square roots

Idea: find a *non-trivial square root* of N, i.e., some  $x \neq \pm 1$  s.t.

If we find such an x, then we know

This means that

for some integer k.

## Non-trivial square roots

lf

then x-1 is a multiple of one of p or q, and x+1 is a multiple of the other. If

we can compute the values of p and q by finding their gcd with N:

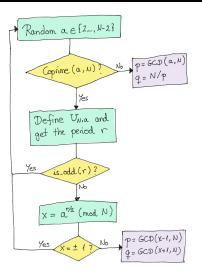
But... how do we find such an x?

## Non-trivial square roots and factoring

It's actually okay to find any even power of x for which this holds:

We can use order finding to find such an r, and it is an even number, then we can find an x and factor N.

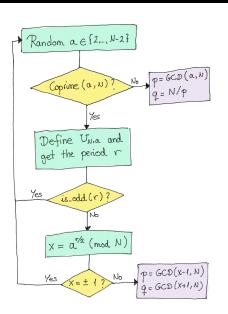
# Shor's algorithm



## Is this really efficient?

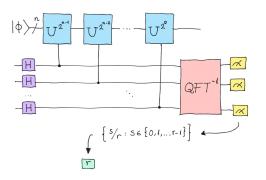
**GCD:** polynomial w/Euclid's algorithm

Modular exponentiation: can use exponentiation by squaring, other methods to reduce number of operations and memory required



## Is this really efficient?

Quantum part: let  $L = \lceil \log_2 N \rceil$ .



**QFT**: polynomial in number of qubits  $O(L^2)$ 

**Controlled-**U gates: implemented using something called *modular* exponentiation in  $O(L^3)$  gates.

## Public-key cryptosystems

Two different types of cryptosystems:

- Symmetric: the key used to decode is the same as (or can easily be obtained from) the one used to encode
- Asymmetric / public-key: the key used to decode is different than the one used to encode

Both are used in modern infrastructure and each has its own advantages/disadvantages, attack vectors, and vulnerabilities.

#### RSA (Rivest-Shamir-Adleman) is a public-key cryptosystem.

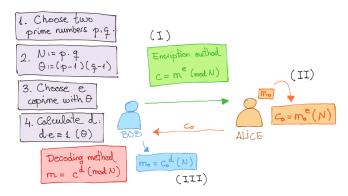


Image credit: Xanadu Quantum Codebook node S.5

The math behind RSA involves modular arithmetic and a few other number-theoretic ideas:

**Greatest common divisor (gcd)**: gcd(a, b) is the largest integer factor that divides perfectly into both a and b

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**Fermat's little theorem**: if p prime and a is an integer, then  $a^p = a \mod p$ . If a is not divisible by p, then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$ .

# Step 1

Choose two prime numbers, p and q.

# Step 2

Compute:

$$N = p \cdot q$$
  
 $\theta = (p-1)(q-1)$ 

# Step 3

Choose a value e that is *co-prime* with  $\theta$ .

## Step 4

Compute the inverse of  $e \mod \theta$ , i.e., find d s.t.

$$d \cdot e \equiv 1 \mod \theta$$

The *public key* is the pair (e, N).

The private key is the pair (d, N).

# Encoding

Acquire the public key (e, N) of the party you wish to send something to. To send the message m, encode it as

$$c = m^d \mod N$$

## Decoding

If you receive c and have the private key (d, N), decode like so:

$$c^e \mod N = (m^d)^e \mod N = m$$

Two cases to consider to understand why this works.

Since  $ed = 1 \mod \theta$ , there exists integer k such that  $ed = 1 + k\theta$ .

Case 1: m co-prime with N

It is a known result in number theory that if m and N are co-prime, then  $m^{\theta} \equiv 1 \mod N$  where  $\theta = (p-1)(q-1)$ . Thus,

Case 2: m not co-prime with N

Then, gcd(m, N) > 1. Must be p or q, because those are the only two factors of N.

Suppose gcd(m, N) = p. Then, p also divides m,

But q does not. q is prime, so gcd(q, m) = 1. So by Fermat's little theorem,

Case 2: m not co-prime with N

Again, since  $ed = 1 \mod \theta$ , there exists k such that  $ed = 1 + k\theta$ .

So we have

It follows that

## RSA and factoring

- To decrypt the message, we must learn d
- We know e, and that  $de \equiv 1 \mod \theta$

We have only e, and N.

However, N and  $\theta$  are based on the same two prime numbers:

$$N = p \cdot q$$
$$\theta = (p-1)(q-1)$$

If we can factor N = pq, we find  $\theta$  and can decode the message!

The security of RSA relies on the fact that factoring for large numbers is computationally intractable.

## Computational complexity of breaking RSA

Current recommended key (N) sizes are 2048- and 4096-bit.

The largest key size cracked so far is 829 bits in 2020. See: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/RSA\_numbers

Best-known classical algorithm:

#### General number field sieve

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

In number theory, the **general number field sieve** (**GNFS**) is the most efficient classical algorithm known for factoring integers larger than  $10^{100}$ . Heuristically, its complexity for factoring an integer n (consisting of  $\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor + 1$  bits) is of the form

$$\exp\biggl(\left(\sqrt[3]{\frac{64}{9}}+o(1)\right)\left(\ln n\right)^{\frac{1}{3}}\left(\ln\ln n\right)^{\frac{2}{3}}\biggr)=L_n\left[\frac{1}{3},\sqrt[3]{\frac{64}{9}}\right]$$

### Computational complexity of breaking RSA

On a quantum computer, there exists an algorithm that can help us solve the problem in *polynomial time*.

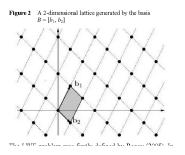
But it is still going to be a long time before that happens.

	RSA-2048	RSA-2048 Old estimates					Current estimates			
ı	$p_g$	$n_{\ell}$	$n_p$	quantum resources	time	$n_{\ell}$	$n_p$	quantum resources	$_{ m time}$	
ı	$10^{-3}$	6190	19.20	1.17	1.46	8194	22.27	0.27	0.34	
ı	$10^{-5}$	6190	9.66	0.34	0.84	8194	8.70	0.06	0.15	

Table 2. RSA-2048 security estimates. Here  $n_\ell$  denotes the number of logical qubits,  $n_p$  denotes the number of physical qubits (in millions), time denotes the expected time (in hours) to break the scheme, and quantum resources (quantum resources) are expressed in units of megaqubit days. The corresponding classical security parameter is 112 bits.

Image: V. Gheorghiu and M. Mosca, A resource estimation framework for quantum attacks against cryptographic functions - recent developments. Feb. 15 2021.

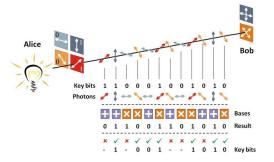
RSA will not be cracked tomorrow. BUT, it's only a matter of time. We need to use this time wisely to re-tool our infrastructure. One option: post-quantum cryptography.



Use hard problems that *don't* have (known) efficient quantum solutions.

Image credit: G. Zhang, J. Qin. Lattice-based threshold cryptography and its applications in distributed cloud computing. Int. J. High Perform. Comput. Netw. 2015

Symmetric crypto remains largely secure; use quantum key distribution to perform key exchange for it rather than RSA.



Theoretically secure, but can be challenging to implement, and other potential attack vectors such as hardware.

Image credit: Carrasco-Casado, Marmol, Denisenko. (2016) Free-Space Quantum Key Distribution. Optical Wireless Communications - An Emerging Technology (pp.589-607)

Ethical dilemma: if we know quantum computers have malicious applications like breaking our cryptography infrastructure

- Should we still build them?
- Who should get to build them?
- Who should get to *use* them?

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## Next time

#### Content:

■ Moving back to variational algorithms

#### Action items:

1. Start working on prototype implementation for project

#### Recommended reading:

- Codebook nodes S.1-S.5
- Nielsen & Chuang 5.3, Appendix A.5