

Recent improvements in concrete (quantum) cryptanalysis of some lattice problems

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Based on joint work with Martin R. Albrecht (who I thank for a lot of the experimental figures in this talk), Vlad Gheorghiu, John M. Schanck and Fernando Virdia.

Learning With Errors

Given (\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{c}) of the following form, find \mathbf{s} .

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{c} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \leftarrow n \rightarrow \\ \mathbf{A} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{s} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{e} \end{pmatrix} \bmod q$$

Here $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{U}(\mathbb{Z}_q^{m \times n})$, $\mathbf{s} \leftarrow \chi_s^n$, $\mathbf{e} \leftarrow \chi_e^m$, and $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m$.

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Wider secret and error distributions (relative to q) give more *security* but less *functionality*.

Some facts about LWE

Not relevant for this talk but interesting,

- LWE has built public key encryption, key encapsulation, digital signatures, fully homomorphic encryption, non interactive zero knowledge for NP,
- there are reductions^{1,2} from worst case lattice problems to LWE.

¹Oded Regev. “On Lattices, Learning with Errors, Random Linear Codes, and Cryptography”. In: *J. ACM* 56.6 (2009).

²Chris Peikert. “Public-Key Cryptosystems from the Worst-Case Shortest Vector Problem: Extended Abstract”. In: *STOC*. 2009, pp. 333–342.

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More relevant to this talk,

- originally the secret and error are drawn from the uniform distribution and the discrete Gaussian mod q respectively,
- there is a simple transformation that allows one to draw the secret from the same distribution as the error with (effectively) no loss: we call this *normal form*.

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Introduction to lattices

A d dimensional lattice Λ is a discrete additive subgroup of \mathbb{R}^d , and is described by a basis

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{b}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{b}_r \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r}, \quad \Lambda(\mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbb{Z}^r = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^r x_i \mathbf{b}_i : x_i \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}.$$

The basis is formed of linearly independent vectors $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_r \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

Introduction to lattices

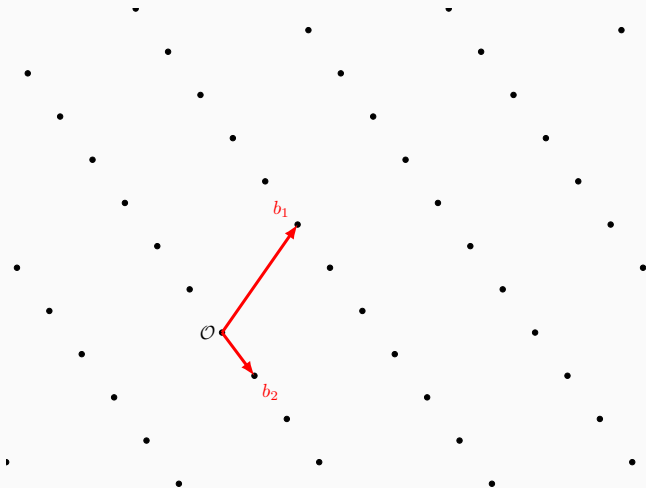
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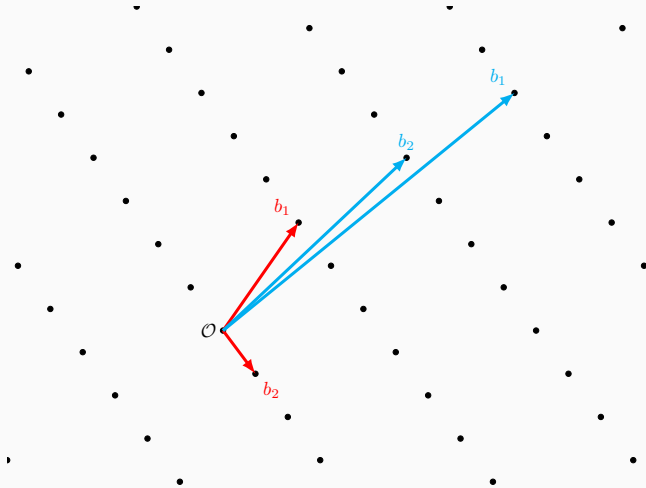
This is a rank r lattice, as its basis has r vectors in it, and any lattice with rank $r \geq 2$ will have infinitely many bases.

Some pictures



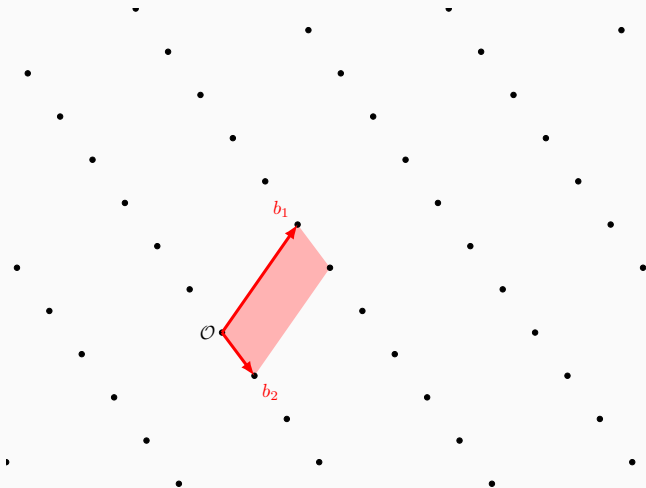
$$\Lambda = \text{span}_{\mathbb{Z}}(b_1, \dots, b_r), \mathbf{B} = \{b_1, \dots, b_r\} \subset \mathbb{R}^d \text{ basis}$$

Some pictures



|| Good basis B , bad basis \bar{B} ||

Some pictures



The volume of the lattice $\text{vol}(\Lambda)$ is an invariant (not dependent on e.g. basis \mathbf{B}).

How to attack LWE using the *primal* lattice

The idea is to construct a lattice basis using the (\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{c}) we get from the LWE problem.³

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} q\mathbf{I}_m & -\mathbf{A} & \mathbf{c} \\ 0 & \mathbf{I}_n & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} * \\ \mathbf{s} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{e} \\ \mathbf{s} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad d = r = m + n + 1.$$

This lattice has a *unique shortest vector* containing the error and secret!

³Shi Bai and Steven D. Galbraith. “Lattice Decoding Attacks on Binary LWE”. In: *Information Security and Privacy*. 2014, pp. 322–337.

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Use *lattice reduction* to solve uSVP.

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So what is lattice reduction?

An algorithm that takes as input a lattice basis, some parameters, and outputs a “better” basis for this lattice. We consider block Korkine–Zolotarev reduction, or BKZ.

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- a lattice basis \mathbf{B} ,
- a parameter called *blocksize*, $3 \leq \beta \leq r$,
- an SVP oracle O_{SVP} which returns a non zero shortest vector in some input lattice.

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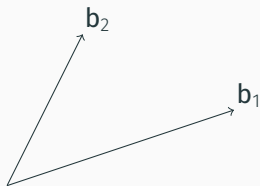
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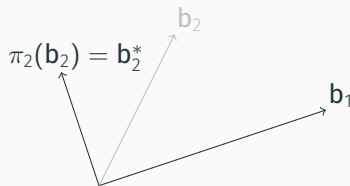
We call O_{SVP} on many related rank β lattices to find a shortish vector in $\Lambda(\mathbf{B})$.

We need a projection operator $\pi_{\mathbf{B},i}: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ for $1 \leq i \leq r$ that removes the components of $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_{i-1}$. Visually,



BKZ I

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Note

- $\pi_{\mathbf{B},1}$ is the identity (no projection),
- we remove the \mathbf{B} from the subscript,
- $\pi_i(\mathbf{b}_i) = \mathbf{b}_i^*$, the *Gram-Schmidt* orthogonalisation of \mathbf{b}_i .

Data: lattice basis \mathbf{B}

Data: blocksize β

repeat *for* τ tours

for $i \leftarrow 1$ **to** $r - 1$ **do**

 the block begins at \mathbf{b}_i

 the block ends at \mathbf{b}_f for $f = \min(i + \beta - 1, r)$

 form *block* $\mathbf{B}_{[i:f]} = (\pi_i(\mathbf{b}_i), \dots, \pi_i(\mathbf{b}_f))$

$\mathbf{v} \leftarrow O_{SVP}(\mathbf{B}_{[i:f]})$

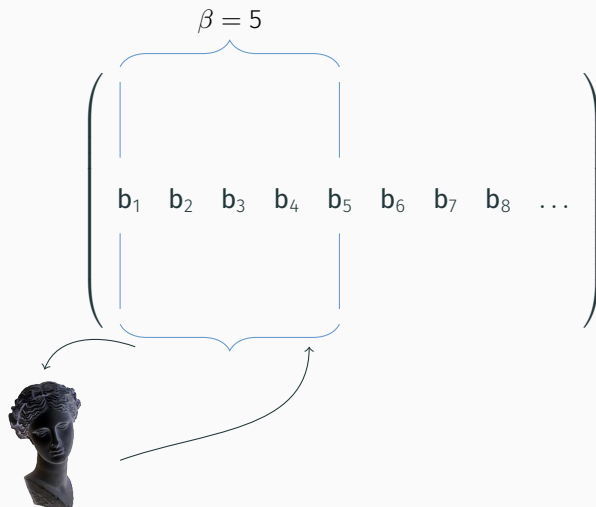
 insert \mathbf{v} into \mathbf{B}

end

// first vector is \mathbf{b}_i^*

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccccccccc} \overbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}^{\beta = 5} & & & & & & & & \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & b_4 & b_5 & b_6 & b_7 & b_8 & \dots \end{array} \right)$$



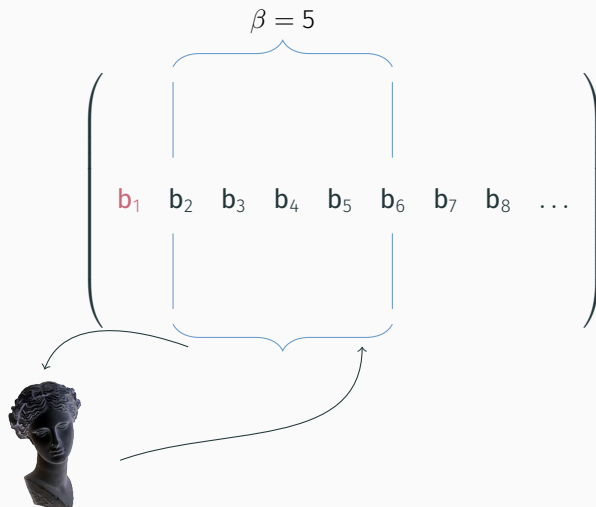


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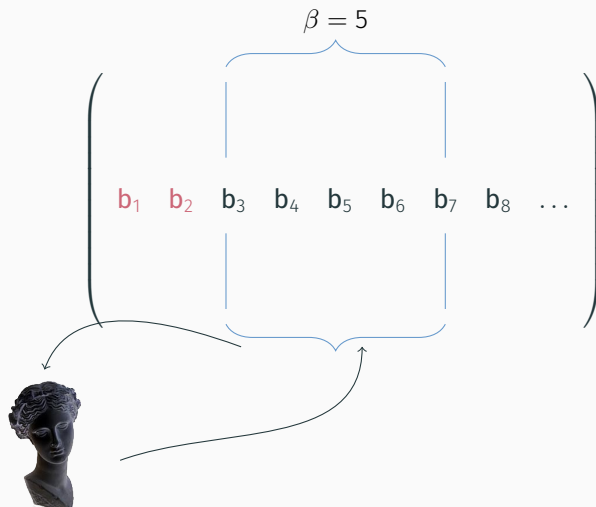


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$$\left(\begin{array}{cccccccc} & & \overbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}^{\beta = 5} & & & & & \\ & & | & & | & & & \\ \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{b}_2 & \mathbf{b}_3 & \mathbf{b}_4 & \mathbf{b}_5 & \mathbf{b}_6 & \mathbf{b}_7 & \mathbf{b}_8 & \dots \\ & & | & & | & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & \end{array} \right)$$



Choose your own adventure

There are (at least) two natural questions to ask next.

- How well does BKZ perform in the primal attack \longleftrightarrow how large must we take β ?
- How expensive is BKZ for a given $\beta \longleftrightarrow$ how expensive is O_{SVP} ?

The output of BKZ

On random lattices the average case behaviour of BKZ⁴ with blocksize $\beta \geq 50$ is to output a basis \mathbf{B} for the input lattice with

$$\|\mathbf{b}_1\| \approx \delta_\beta^{r-1} \cdot \text{vol}(\Lambda)^{1/r}, \quad \delta_\beta = \left(\frac{\beta}{2\pi e} \cdot (\pi\beta)^{1/\beta} \right)^{1/(2(\beta-1))}.$$

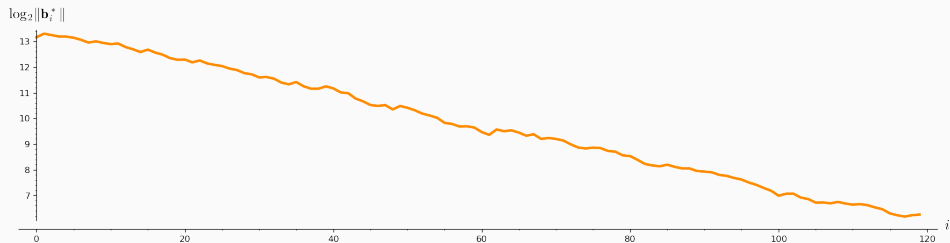
We recall the volume of a lattice from earlier, it can be computed as

$$\text{vol}(\Lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^r \|\mathbf{b}_i^*\|.$$

⁴Yuanmi Chen. “Réduction de réseau et sécurité concrète du chiffrement complètement homomorphe”. PhD thesis. Université Paris Diderot, 2013.

Geometric Series Assumption

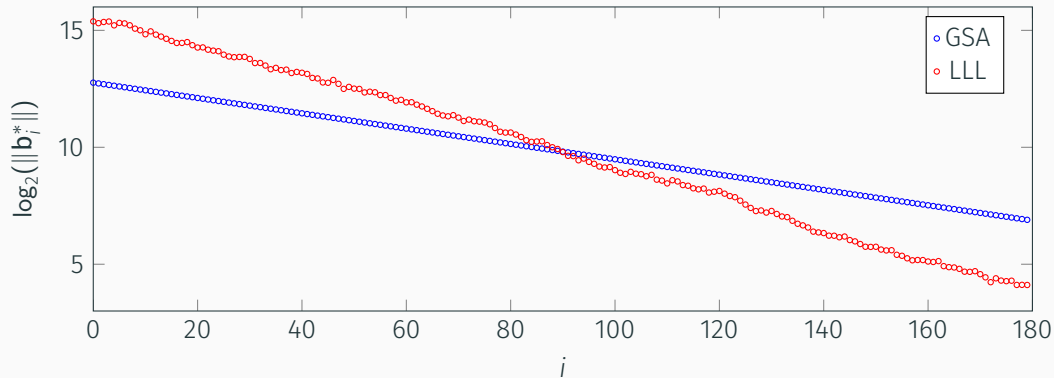
We plot the log norms of $\|\mathbf{b}_i^*\|$ against the index i .



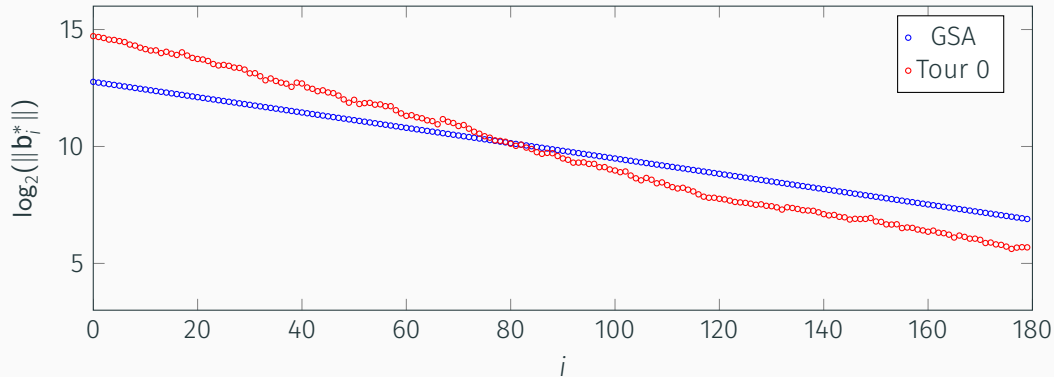
The GSA says stronger lattice reduction equals a flatter slope.⁵

⁵Claus Peter Schnorr. "Lattice Reduction by Random Sampling and Birthday Methods". In: *STACS 2003*. 2003, pp. 145–156.

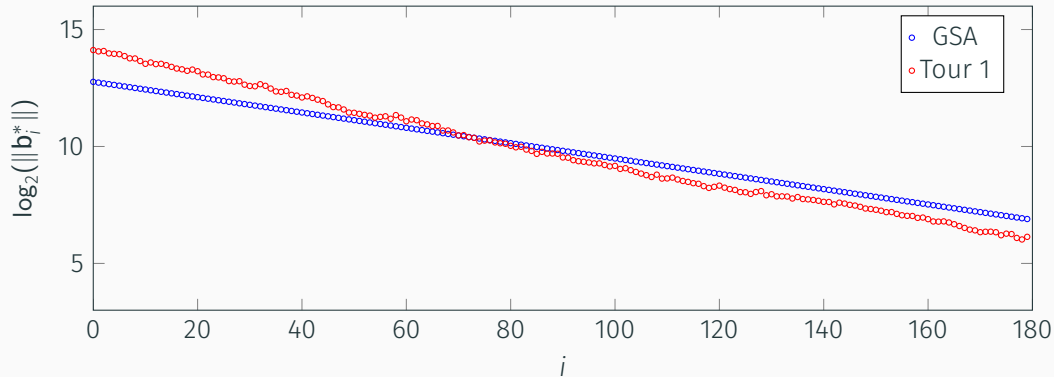
Behaviour in Practice: BKZ-60 in Dimension 180



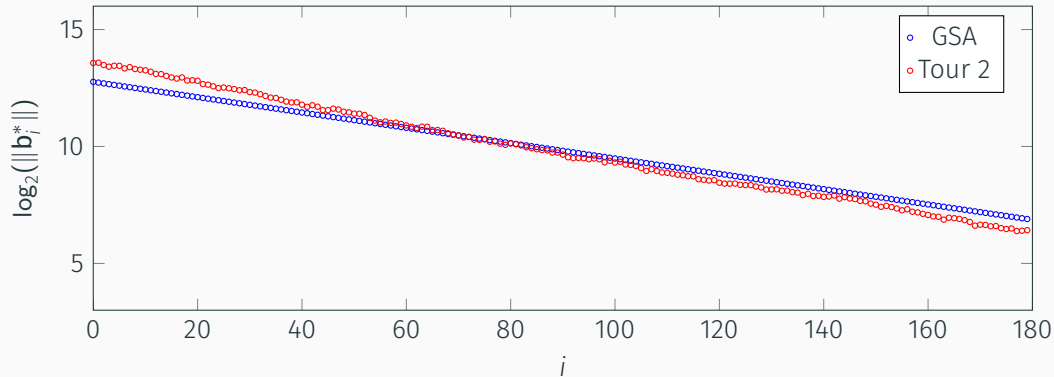
Behaviour in Practice: BKZ-60 in Dimension 180 ii



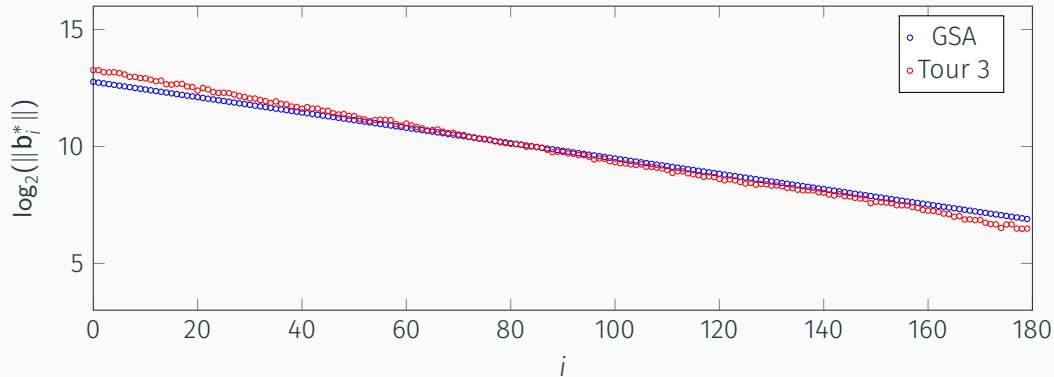
Behaviour in Practice: BKZ-60 in Dimension 180 iii



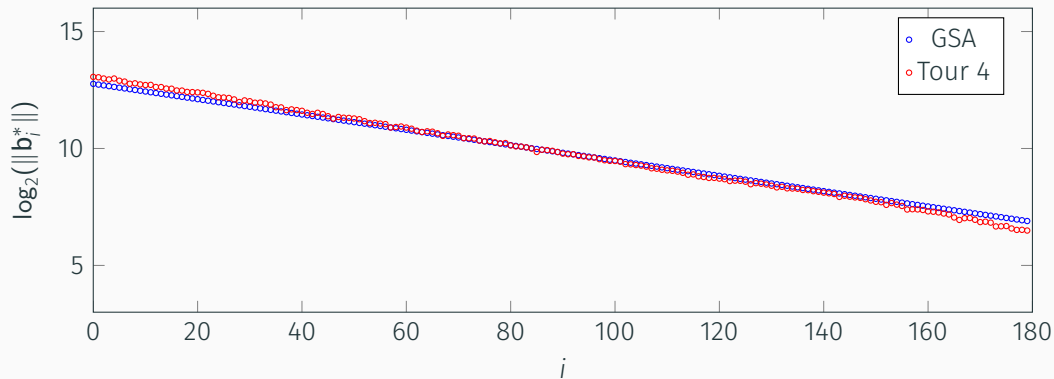
Behaviour in Practice: BKZ-60 in Dimension 180 iv



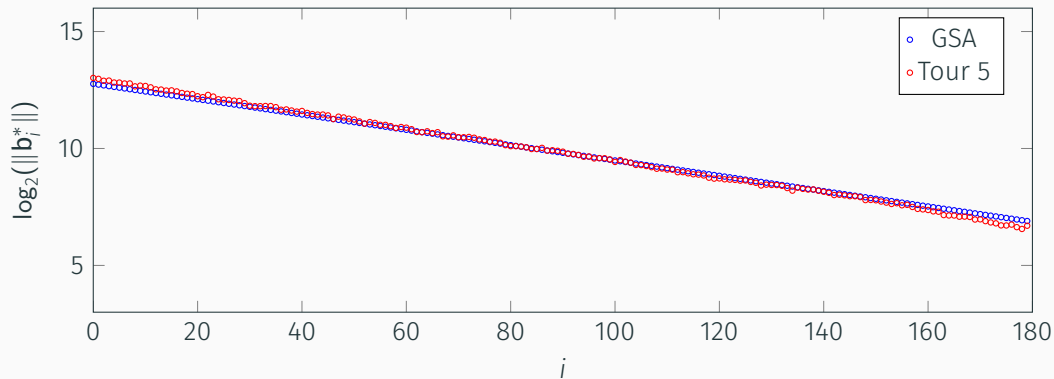
Behaviour in Practice: BKZ-60 in Dimension 180 v



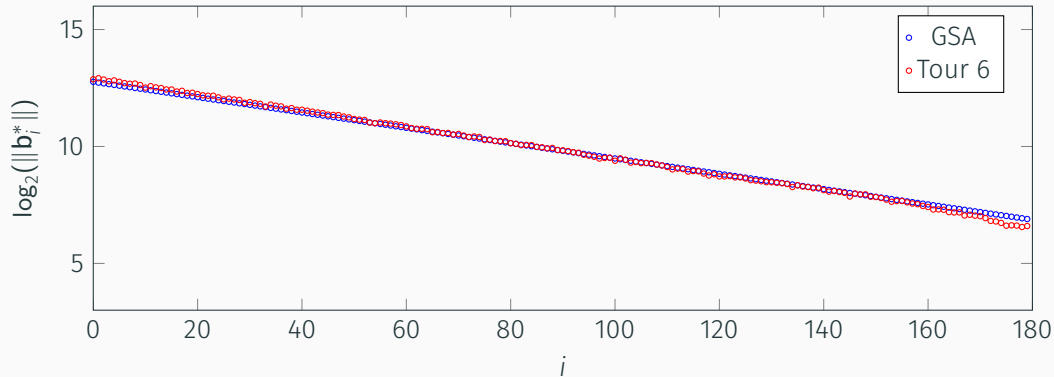
Behaviour in Practice: BKZ-60 in Dimension 180 vi



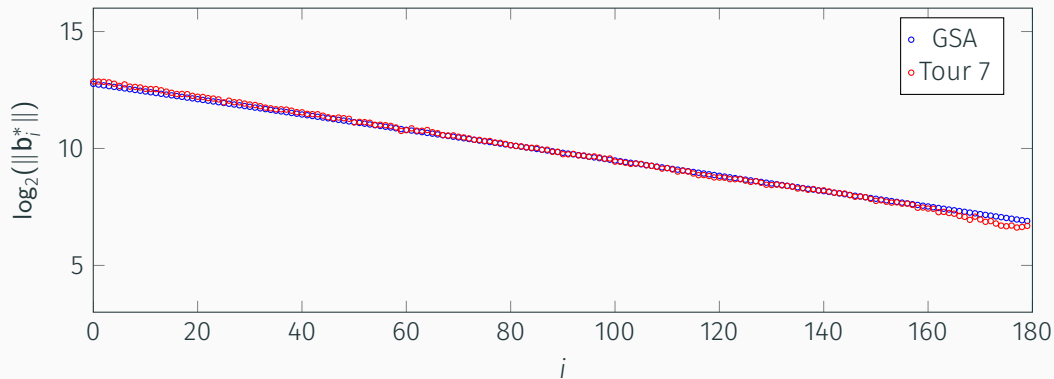
Behaviour in Practice: BKZ-60 in Dimension 180 vii



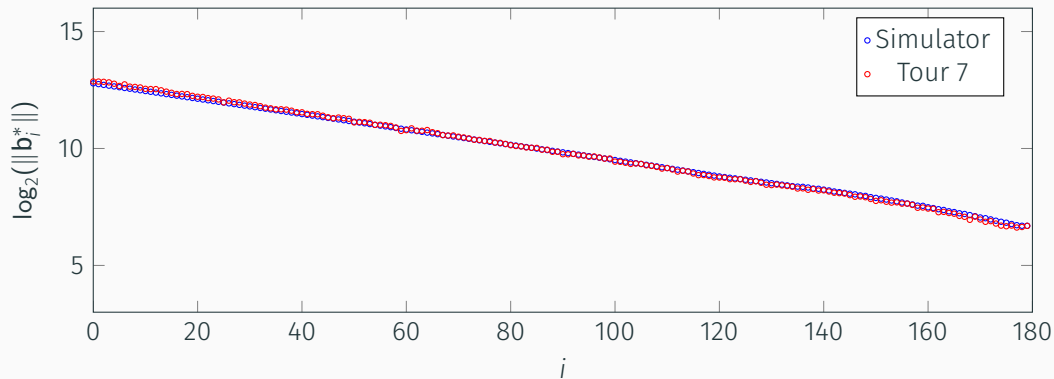
Behaviour in Practice: BKZ-60 in Dimension 180 viii



Behaviour in Practice: BKZ-60 in Dimension 180 ix



Behaviour in Practice: BKZ-60 in Dimension 180 x



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⁶Yuanmi Chen and Phong Q. Nguyen. “BKZ 2.0: Better Lattice Security Estimates”. In: *ASIACRYPT*. 2011, pp. 1–20.

What about the uSVP solution?

Consider normal form LWE instances, so $\mathbf{s} \leftarrow \chi^n$, $\mathbf{e} \leftarrow \chi^m$ where $\chi = \chi_e = \chi_s$. Also consider χ such that $\mathbb{E}(\chi) = 0$ and $\mathbb{V}(\chi) = \sigma^2$ for some σ , so that $\mathbb{E}(\chi^2) = \mathbb{V}(\chi) = \sigma^2$.

Name	χ	$\mathbb{E}(\chi)$	$\mathbb{V}(\chi)$
discrete Gaussian mod q	$D_{q,\sigma}$	0	σ^2
centred binary	$\mathcal{U}(\{-1, 1\})$	0	1
trinary	$\mathcal{U}(\{-1, 0, 1\})$	0	2/3
bounded uniform	$\mathcal{U}(\{-B, \dots, 0, \dots, B\})$	0	$B(B+1)/3$

The uSVP solution is a vector $\mathbf{t} = (\mathbf{e} \mid \mathbf{s} \mid 1)^T$.

Since $d = m + n + 1$, then \mathbf{t} has expected square length $m\sigma^2 + n\sigma^2 + 1^2 \approx d\sigma^2$.

What about the uSVP solution when projected?

We model the squared length of the projections of \mathbf{t} using a *chi-squared* distribution

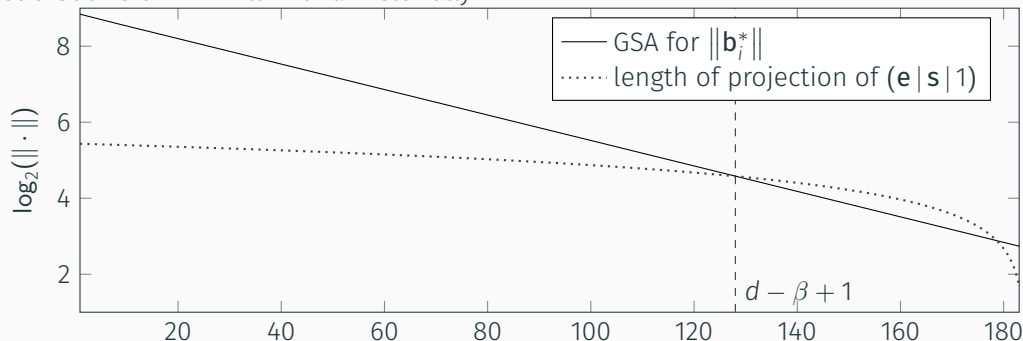
$$\|\pi_i(\mathbf{t})\|^2 \sim \sigma^2 \cdot \chi^2(d - i + 1).$$

This gives us the expected squared length of the projection of \mathbf{t} in a block in BKZ!

In particular, for some block $\mathbf{B}_{[i: i+\beta-1]} = (\pi_i(\mathbf{b}_i), \dots, \pi_i(\mathbf{b}_{i+\beta-1}))$ we model the expected square length of the projection as $(d - i + 1)\sigma^2$.

Now we have all the pieces...

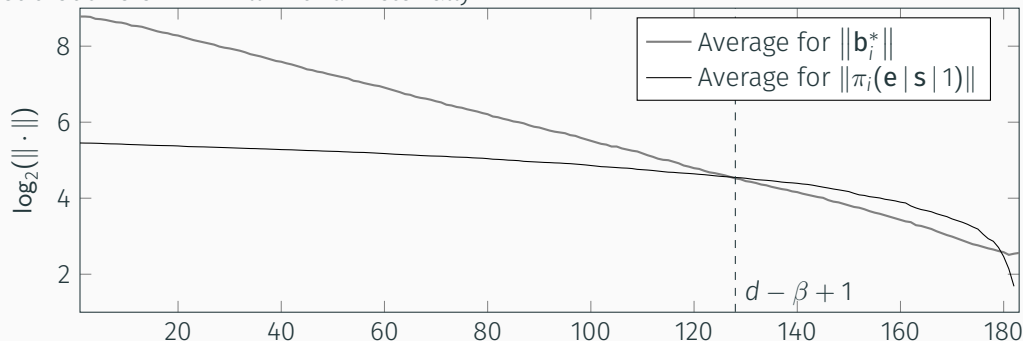
In the final block of a tour, if the projection of \mathbf{t} is the shortest vector, then the O_{SVP} subroutine of BKZ will find it. Pictorially⁷



⁷Martin R. Albrecht, Florian Göpfert, Fernando Virdia, and Thomas Wunderer. “Revisiting the Expected Cost of Solving uSVP and Applications to LWE”. In: *ASIACRYPT*. 2017, pp. 297–322.

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The NewHope approach

This method for determining the required β to recover \mathbf{t} was introduced in a lattice KEM paper called NewHope.⁸

$$\sigma\sqrt{\beta} \leq \delta_{\beta}^{2\beta-d-1} \cdot \text{vol}(\Lambda)^{1/d} = \delta_{\beta}^{2\beta-d-1} \cdot q^{m/d}.$$

Experimental works vindicated the approach,^{9,10} but also noticed that smaller β sometimes had a non zero chance of success.

⁸Erdem Alkim, Léo Ducas, Thomas Pöppelmann, and Peter Schwabe. “Post-quantum Key Exchange—A New Hope”. In: *25th USENIX Security Symposium (USENIX Security 16)*. 2016, pp. 327–343.

⁹Martin R. Albrecht, Florian Göpfert, Fernando Virdia, and Thomas Wunderer. “Revisiting the Expected Cost of Solving uSVP and Applications to LWE”. In: *ASIACRYPT*. 2017, pp. 297–322.

¹⁰Shi Bai, Shaun Miller, and Weiqiang Wen. “A Refined Analysis of the Cost for Solving LWE via uSVP”. In: *AFRICACRYPT*. 2019, pp. 181–205.

An example

Adapted from¹¹ – averaged over 500 trials.

n	q	σ	β_{2016}	m_{2016}	β	% success
100	2053	$8/\sqrt{2\pi}$	67	243	67	88.8
					62	39.6
					57	5.8
					52	0.2

¹¹Martin R. Albrecht, Florian Göpfert, Fernando Virdia, and Thomas Wunderer. “Revisiting the Expected Cost of Solving uSVP and Applications to LWE”. In: ASIACRYPT. 2017, pp. 297–322.

On the Success Probability of Solving Unique SVP via BKZ¹⁴

In recent work with Fernando Virdia¹² we use ideas from¹³ to explain, estimate and experiment on these instances where a smaller β than expected can sometimes succeed.

The crucial idea is that, since we are modelling

$$\|\pi_i(\mathbf{t})\|^2 \sim \sigma^2 \cdot \chi^2(d - i + 1),$$

we can argue about the probabilities that projections of \mathbf{t} have a given length, rather than relying on the expectation of these lengths.

¹²Find him here <https://fundamental.domains/>

¹³Dana Dachman-Soled, Léo Ducas, Huijing Gong, and Mélissa Rossi. “LWE with Side Information: Attacks and Concrete Security Estimation”. In: *CRYPTO*. 2020, pp. 329–358.

¹⁴Eamonn W. Postlethwaite and Fernando Virdia. *On the Success Probability of Solving Unique SVP via BKZ*. Cryptology ePrint Archive, Report 2020/1308. <https://eprint.iacr.org/2020/1308>. 2020.

A uSVP simulator for BKZ

Input: $(n, q, \chi, m), \beta, \tau$
 $p_{\text{tot}} \leftarrow 0, \sigma^2 \leftarrow \mathbb{V}(\chi)$
 $d \leftarrow n + m + 1$
for $\text{tour} \leftarrow 1$ **to** τ **do**
 $\text{profile} \leftarrow \text{BKZSim}((n, q, \chi, m), \beta, \text{tour})$
 $p_{\text{new}} \leftarrow P[x \leftarrow \sigma^2 \chi^2(\beta): x \leq \text{profile}[d - \beta + 1]]$
 $p_{\text{tot}} \leftarrow p_{\text{tot}} + (1 - p_{\text{tot}}) \cdot p_{\text{new}}$
end
return p_{tot}

We are assuming the independence of tours; the insertions and extra processing “rerandomise” the basis.

We also describe a uSVP simulator for a variant called *progressive* BKZ, where the blocksize increments after τ tours.

BKZ experiments

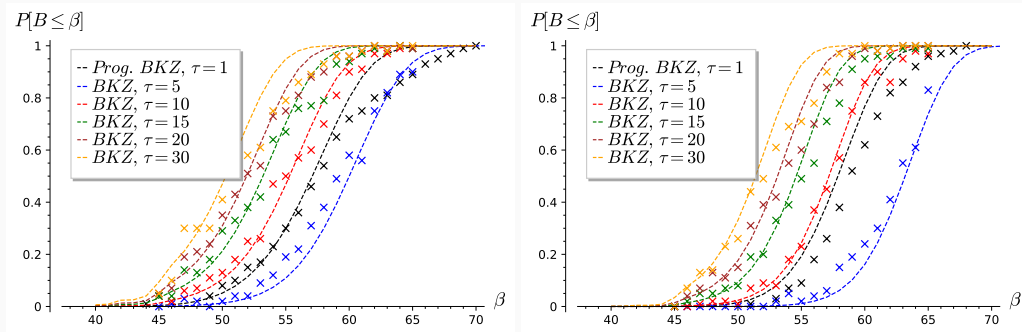


Figure 1: Left: $(n, q, \sigma) = (72, 97, 1)$. Right: $(n, q, \sigma) = (100, 257, \sqrt{2/3})$. Both: $\beta_{2016} \approx 60$ and using discrete Gaussian $D_{q,\sigma}$ for secret and error.

Progressive BKZ experiments

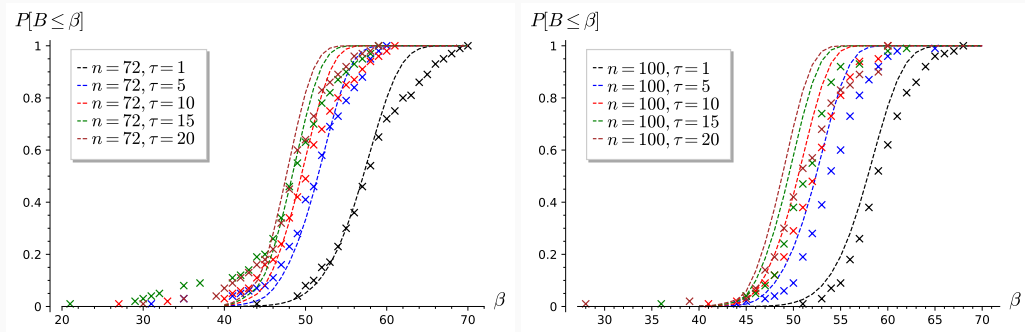


Figure 2: Left: $(n, q, \sigma) = (72, 97, 1)$. Right: $(n, q, \sigma) = (100, 257, \sqrt{2/3})$. Both: $\beta_{2016} \approx 60$ and using discrete Gaussian $D_{q,\sigma}$ for secret and error.

Accuracy?

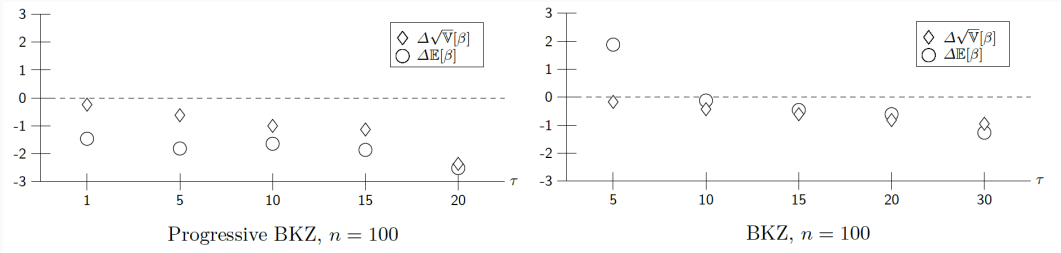


Figure 3: Difference in expectation and variance between experimental and simulated worlds.

Rule of thumb: a difference of 3 in blocksize is approximately 1 bit of security.

The independence condition breaks down when little further improvement can be made to the basis; this happens sooner for progressive BKZ.

Findings I

It is the variance of the distribution from which \mathbf{e} and \mathbf{s} are drawn that determines the concrete complexity of the primal attack.

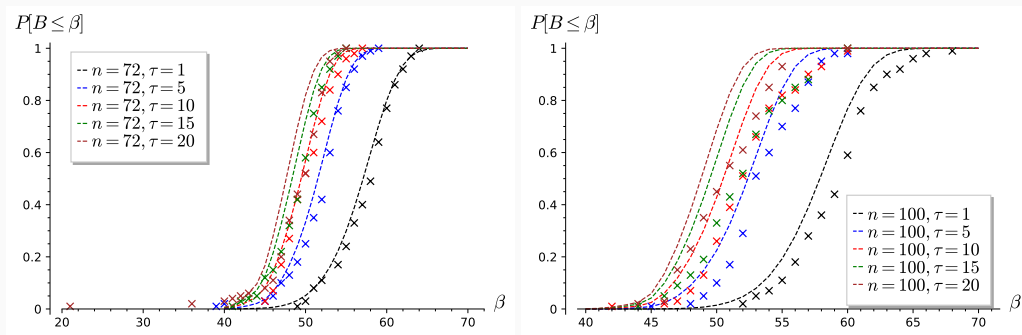


Figure 4: Left: $(n, q, \sigma) = (72, 97, 1)$, centred binary secret and error. Right: $(n, q, \sigma) = (100, 257, \sqrt{2/3})$, ternary secret and error. Both: $\beta_{2016} \approx 60$.

The expected sample variance plays a role in how accurate our simulators are. Considering $\mathbf{t} = (\mathbf{t}_1, \dots, \mathbf{t}_d)$ the sample variance is

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{d} \sum_{i=1}^d (\mathbf{t}_i - t)^2, \quad t = \frac{1}{d} \sum_{i=1}^d \mathbf{t}_i.$$

Depending on the value of s^2 , then the model $\|\pi_i(\mathbf{t})\|^2 \sim \sigma^2 \cdot \chi^2(d - i + 1)$ may be inaccurate.

Findings II

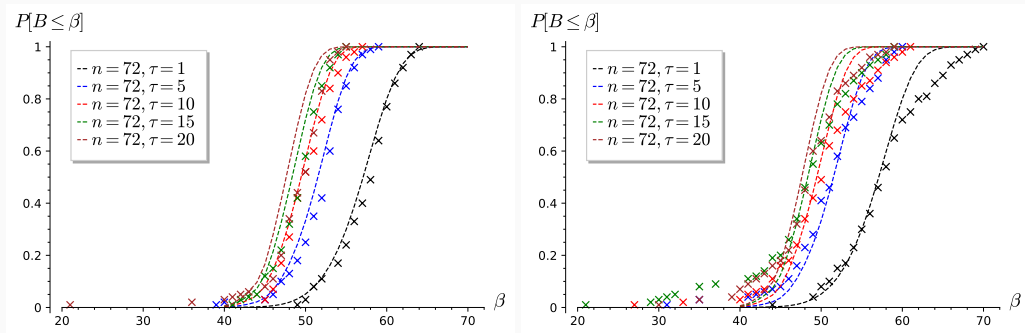


Figure 5: Left: secret and error from centred binary. Right: secret and error from discrete Gaussian. Both: $(n, q, \sigma) = (72, 97, 1)$, $\beta_{2016} \approx 60$.

Findings II

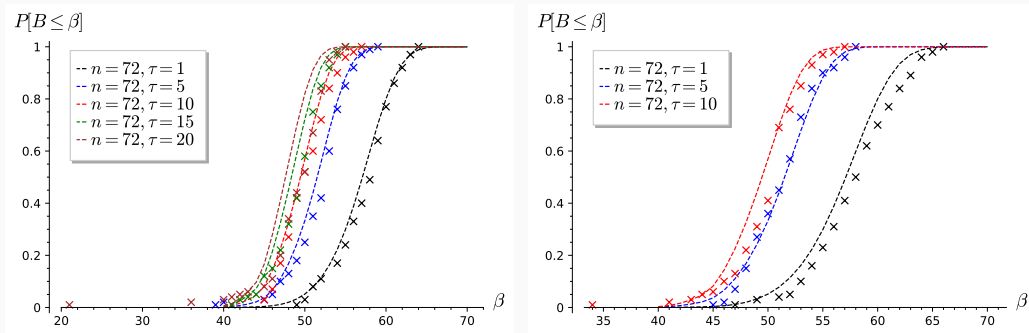


Figure 5: Left: secret and error from centred binary. Right: secret and error from discrete Gaussian, corrected sample variance. Both: $(n, q, \sigma) = (72, 97, 1)$, $\beta_{2016} \approx 60$.

Applied to a NIST candidate¹⁵

scheme	n	q	σ_s	σ_e	BKZ, $\tau = 15$			
					β_{2016}	m_{2016}	$\mathbb{E}(\text{succ. } \beta)$	$\sqrt{\mathbb{V}}(\text{succ. } \beta)$
Kyber 512	512	3329	1	1	381	484	386.06	2.56
Kyber 768	768	3329	1	1	623	681	634.41	2.96
Kyber 1024	1024	3329	1	1	873	860	891.13	3.31

Progressive BKZ, $\tau = 1$		Progressive BKZ, $\tau = 5$	
$\mathbb{E}(\text{succ. } \beta)$	$\sqrt{\mathbb{V}}(\text{succ. } \beta)$	$\mathbb{E}(\text{succ. } \beta)$	$\sqrt{\mathbb{V}}(\text{succ. } \beta)$
389.53	2.88	385.70	2.32
638.23	3.30	634.00	2.66
895.24	3.66	890.63	2.96

¹⁵Peter Schwabe, Roberto Avanzi, Joppe Bos, Léo Ducas, Eike Kiltz, Tancrede Lepoint, Vadim Lyubashevsky, John M. Schanck, Gregor Seiler, and Damien Stehlé. *CRYSTALS-KYBER*. Tech. rep. available at <https://csrc.nist.gov/projects/post-quantum-cryptography/round-2-submissions>. National Institute of Standards and Technology, 2019.

Briefly: lattice sieving

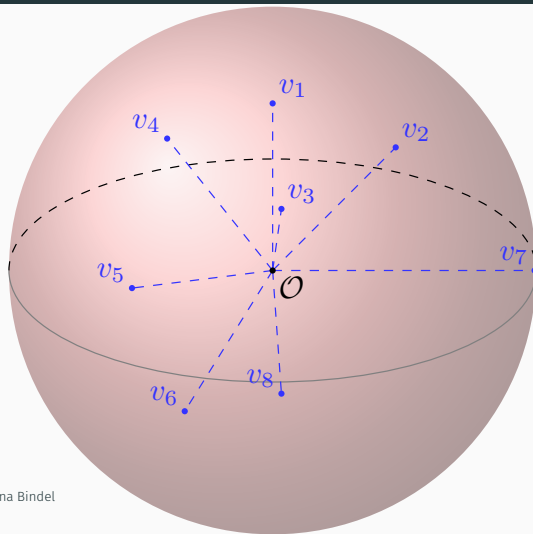
Lattice sieves take a basis of lattice and output an (approximate solution) to the shortest vector problem. They have complexity

Time: $2^{\Theta(d)}$

Space: $2^{\Theta(d)}$

They are one way to instantiate the O_{SVP} oracle within BKZ.

They key subroutine is nearest neighbour search on the sphere



Template Credit: Nina Bindel

find pairs (v_i, v_j) such that $\|v_i - v_j\| \leq 1 \iff \langle v_i, v_j \rangle \geq \cos(\pi/3)$.

Set the problem up as a search predicate

Let $[N] = \{1, \dots, N\}$ and $f: [N] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be an unstructured predicate, with *roots*

$$\text{Ker}(f) = \{x: f(x) = 0\}.$$

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If $|\text{Ker}(f)| \ll N$ then we expect $O(N)$ queries to f classically, and $j \in O(\sqrt{N})$ queries to $\mathbf{G}(f)$ quantumly.

Use a filter

A potentially cheaper way is to use a filter, some predicate

$$g: [N] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}, |\text{Ker}(g) \cap \text{Ker}(f)| \geq 1.$$

Then (classically) we can evaluate

$$g(1), f(1) \text{ when } g(1) = 0, \dots, g(N), f(N) \text{ when } g(N) = 0.$$

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What makes a good filter? Cheap to evaluate, and

$$\rho_f(g) = 1 - \frac{|\text{Ker}(f) \cap \text{Ker}(g)|}{|\text{Ker}(g)|}, \quad \eta_f(g) = 1 - \frac{|\text{Ker}(f) \cap \text{Ker}(g)|}{|\text{Ker}(f)|}$$

the false positive and negative rate, are both small.

A filtered quantum search

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- g be a filter for predicate $f: [N] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$,
- $P, Q, \gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ such that
 - $P/\gamma \leq |\text{Ker}(g)| \leq \gamma P$, and
 - $1 \leq Q \leq |\text{Ker}(f) \cap \text{Ker}(g)|$.

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The cost of a Grover query encoding the filter, $\mathbf{G}(g)$, and not one encoding the predicate, $\mathbf{G}(f)$, is then the crucial quantity.

What is the filter?

For lattices vectors u, v_1, \dots, v_N , the reduction predicate of u is

$$f_u: \{v_1, \dots, v_N\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}, f_u(v_i) = 0 \iff \langle u, v_i \rangle \geq \cos(\pi/3).$$

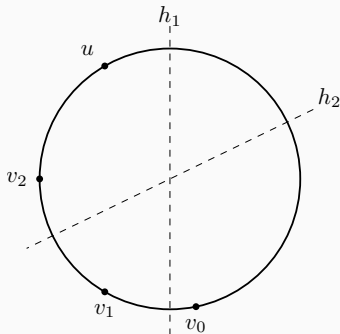
¹⁶Robert Fitzpatrick, Christian Bischof, Johannes Buchmann, Özgür Dagdelen, Florian Göpfert, Artur Mariano, and Bo-Yin Yang. “Tuning GaussSieve for Speed”. In: *LATINCRYPT*. 2014.

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For the filter g we use 'XOR and popcount'.¹⁶



$$\text{popcount}_{1,2}(u, v_0) = 1$$

$$\text{popcount}_{1,2}(u, v_1) = 0$$

$$\text{popcount}_{1,2}(u, v_2) = 0$$

$$(k, n) = (1, 2)$$

¹⁶Robert Fitzpatrick, Christian Bischof, Johannes Buchmann, Özgür Dagdelen, Florian Göpfert, Artur Mariano, and Bo-Yin Yang. "Tuning GaussSieve for Speed". In: *LATINCRYPT*. 2014.

Putting it together

- we have a filtered quantum search routine,
- we have a filter, **popcount**, and build an optimised quantum circuit for it,
- we give an analysis of the false positive and negative rates of **popcount**
- we define a number of metrics depending on assumptions regarding quantum memory.

A selected result

Our estimates suggest less than advantage for quantum sieves than the asymptotics suggest, without entirely ruling out their relevance.

Quantum Metric	d	$\log_2 \text{time}_C$	$\log_2 \text{time}_Q$	$\log_2 \text{memory}$	$0.0272d$
GE19 ¹⁷	312	119	119	78	8.5
GE19	352	130	128	87	9.6
GE19	824	270	256	187	22.4
GE19	544	189	182	128	14.8

All classical costs are in a simple RAM model, the above table is for ListDecodingSieve.¹⁸

¹⁷Craig Gidney and Martin Ekerå. *How to factor 2048 bit RSA integers in 8 hours using 20 million noisy qubits*. 2019. arXiv: [1905.09749](https://arxiv.org/abs/1905.09749) [quant-ph].

¹⁸Anja Becker, Léo Ducas, Nicolas Gama, and Thijs Laarhoven. “New Directions in Nearest Neighbor Searching with Applications to Lattice Sieving”. In: *SODA*. 2016.

Even given the following

- we cost qRAM and RAM as the same (unit cost),
- we are conservative within our filtered quantum search,
- we do not consider depth constraints, which harm quantum search more,

we see a smaller quantum advantage than expected.



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