

# Quantum algorithms for factorization and other problems in cryptanalysis

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1. Introduction
2. Basic Circuits: Deutsch-Jozsa and Simon algorithm
3. Shor algorithm
4. Other quantum factorisation algorithms

## Cryptography

- Science of “secret”: Confidentiality, Integrity, and Authentication
- Cryptosystem: encryption and signature schemes
- Public-Key vs. Secret-Key Cryptography

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- Adversaries  $\approx$  (classical or quantum) algorithms
- Complexity of the algorithms to evaluate the security parameters
- For Public-Key Cryptography: security is not perfect and use **computational assumption**: not possible to break the cryptosystem except if you break a mathematical hard problem

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## Security Levels

- If the number of steps is  $2^{128}$ , the adversary requires too much time
- The logarithm is the **security level** and 128 is good, while 64 is low

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RSA (Rivest-Shamir-Adleman) describe a cryptosystem whose security is based on the untractability to solve the factorisation problem

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Given an integer  $N = pq$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are two primes. Recover  $p$  ?

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## Classical algorithm:

- Number Field Sieve (NFS). Complexity:  $2^{\tilde{O}(n^{1/3})}$  (constants matter...) where  $n$  is the size of  $N$ :  $n = \log_2(N)$
- Record: 250-digits (830 bits): 2700 computer years
- $\approx 2^{128}$  for a 2048-bit modulus

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## Discrete Logarithm

Let  $p$  a prime and  $q$  a prime divisor of  $p - 1$ , and  $g$  a generator of the  $q$ -order subgroup of  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ . Given  $y = g^x \bmod p$ , recover  $x$  ?

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- Classical algorithms: Pollard  $\sqrt{q}$  and NFS:  $2^{\tilde{O}((\log_2 p)^{1/3})}$

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- $p$  a 2048-bit prime and  $q$  a 256-bit prime

# Shor's quantum factorisation algorithm

## Polynomial-Time Algorithms for Prime Factorization and Discrete Logarithms on a Quantum Computer\*

Peter W. Shor<sup>†</sup>

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- **Post-Quantum Cryptography**: classical algorithms where hard problems are **conjectured** to resist quantum computers ...
- E.g.: hard lattice problems, coding problems, ...
- Standards are available since 2024 and the transition to PQC begins

## **Basic Circuits: Deutsch-Jozsa and Simon algorithms**

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## Partial Measurement of a 2-qubit

- $|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0.0\rangle + \beta|0.1\rangle + \gamma|1.0\rangle + \delta|1.1\rangle$ ,  $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 + |\gamma|^2 + |\delta|^2 = 1$

- $|\psi\rangle$    
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- Let  $|\psi\rangle = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}|0.0\rangle + \frac{1}{2}|0.1\rangle + \frac{1}{2}|1.1\rangle$ . If one measures the first qubit as 1, what is the second qubit?

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- $|\psi\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle}{2} \cdot (\sqrt{2}|0\rangle + |1\rangle) + \frac{1}{2}|1\rangle|1\rangle$ , the 2<sup>nd</sup> is  $\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}|0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}|1\rangle$

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- More generally,  $|\psi\rangle = |0\rangle \cdot (\alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle) + |1\rangle \cdot (\gamma |0\rangle + \delta |1\rangle)$ , and if one measures  $|0\rangle$  for the first qubit, the second

$$\frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2}} |0\rangle + \frac{\beta}{\sqrt{|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2}} |1\rangle$$

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- Exo: If  $|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{5}(2|0.0.0\rangle - |0.0.1\rangle + 3|0.1.0\rangle + |0.1.1\rangle - 2|1.0.0\rangle + 2|1.0.1\rangle + \sqrt{2}|1.1.1\rangle)$ , and we measure 0.0, what is the last qubit ?

# Quantum oracle gate

## Oracle

- Let  $f : E \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$  be a function
- $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, +) = (\{0, 1\}, \oplus)$
- $F : E \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow E \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, (x, y) \longmapsto (x, y \oplus f(x))$ , is a bijection

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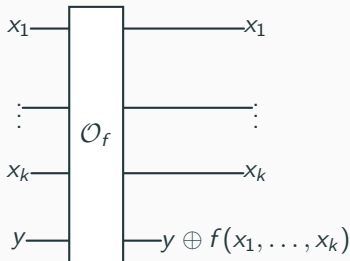
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- Deutsch-Jozsa Oracle  $f : (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^k \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ :



# Deutsch-Jozsa problem

## Goal

- Let  $f : \{0, 1\} \longrightarrow \{0, 1\}$ .
- There are 4 such functions: two are **constant** and two are **balanced** (0 and 1 are taken the same number of times)

$$f_0 = \begin{cases} 0 \mapsto 0 \\ 1 \mapsto 0 \end{cases} \quad f_1 = \begin{cases} 0 \mapsto 1 \\ 1 \mapsto 1 \end{cases} \quad f_2 = \begin{cases} 0 \mapsto 0 \\ 1 \mapsto 1 \end{cases} \quad f_3 = \begin{cases} 0 \mapsto 1 \\ 1 \mapsto 0 \end{cases}$$

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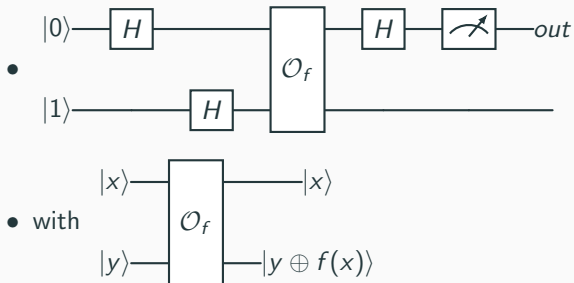
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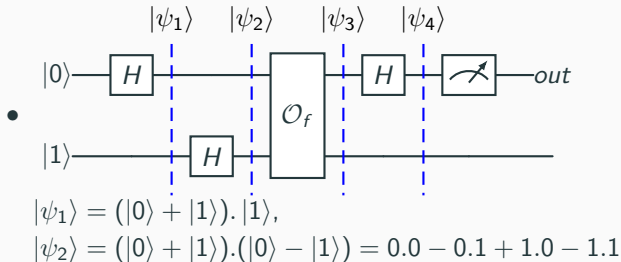
**Exponential gap:** Let  $f : \{0, 1\}^n \longrightarrow \{0, 1\}$  and we have the **promise**  $f$  is either balanced or constant.

Classically, one need **at most**  $2^{n-1} + 1$  **queries**, while only **1** quantumly !

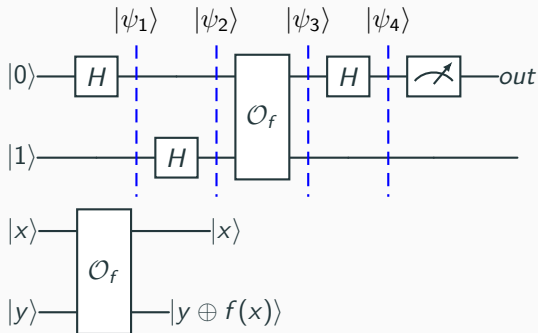
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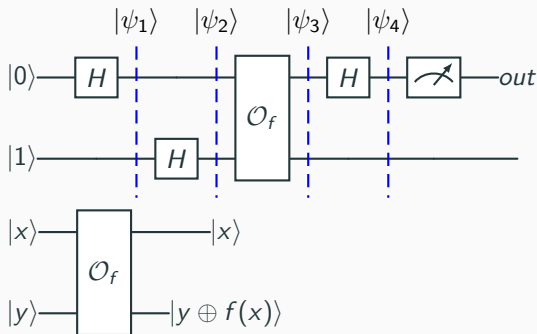


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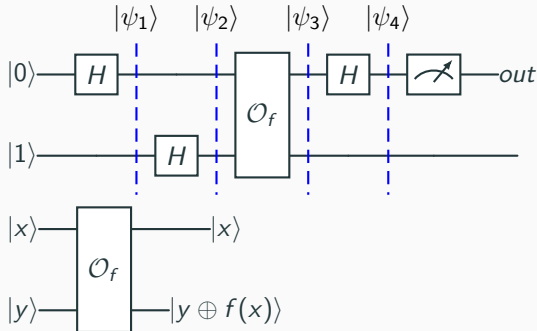
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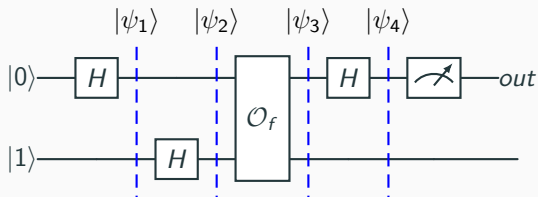
- $|\psi_2\rangle = 0.0 - 0.1 + 1.0 - 1.1,$
- $|\psi_3\rangle = \underbrace{0.(0 \oplus f(0)) - 0.(1 \oplus f(0))}_A + \underbrace{1.(0 \oplus f(1)) - 1.(1 \oplus f(1))}_B$
- $A = \begin{cases} 0.0 - 0.1 & \text{if } f(0) = 0 \\ -(0.0 - 0.1) & \text{if } f(0) = 1 \end{cases} \quad \text{so } A = (-1)^{f(0)}(0.0 - 0.1)$

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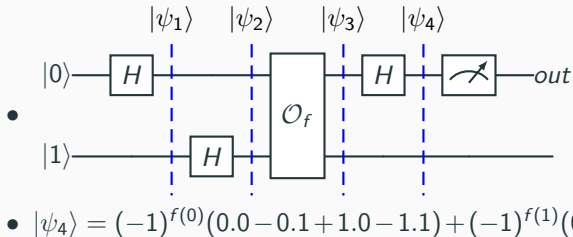
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- $|\psi_3\rangle = (-1)^{f(0)}(0.0 - 0.1) + (-1)^{f(1)}(1.0 - 1.1)$
- $|\psi_4\rangle = (-1)^{f(0)}((0+1).0 - (0+1).1) + (-1)^{f(1)}((0-1).0 - (0-1).1)$
- $|\psi_4\rangle = (-1)^{f(0)}(0.0 - 0.1 + 1.0 - 1.1) + (-1)^{f(1)}(0.0 - 0.1 - 1.0 + 1.1)$

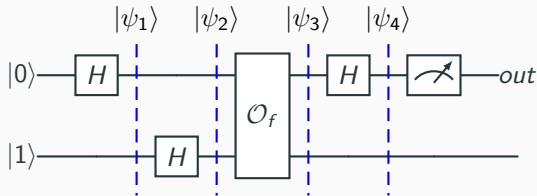
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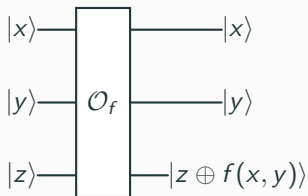
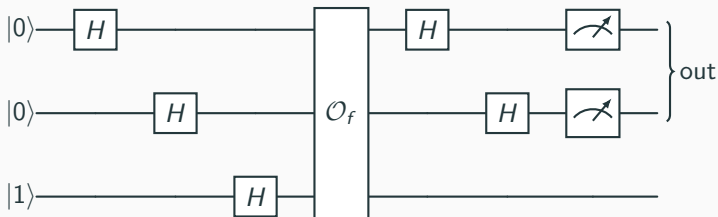
- $$|\psi_4\rangle = (-1)^{f(0)}(0.0 - 0.1 + 1.0 - 1.1) + (-1)^{f(1)}(0.0 - 0.1 - 1.0 + 1.1)$$
  - $$|\psi_4\rangle = ((-1)^{f(0)} + (-1)^{f(1)})0.0 + (-(-1)^{f(0)} - (-1)^{f(1)})0.1 + ((-1)^{f(0)} - (-1)^{f(1)})1.0 + (-(-1)^{f(0)} + (-1)^{f(1)})1.1$$

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- If  $f$  is **constant**,  $(-1)^{f(0)} + (-1)^{f(1)} = \pm 2$  and  $(-1)^{f(0)} - (-1)^{f(1)} = 0$  and  $(-1)^{f(0)} - (-1)^{f(1)} = 0$ , so  $|\psi_4\rangle = 0.0 - 0.1$  the measure of the first qubit 0 in both cases
- If  $f$  is **balanced**, check that the first bit is 1

## Deutsch-Jozsa Circuit for $n = 2$



- Check that **if  $f$  is constant**, the final state before the measurement is  $\pm |0.0\rangle \left| \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(0 - 1) \right\rangle$ , and the 2 first bits are 0.0
- **if  $f$  is balanced**, the final state does not contain qubits starting with 0.0, so no measurement of these qubits will give 0.0.

# Simon algorithm

## Problem

Let  $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$  a **2-to-1** function so that there exists  $c \in \{0, 1\}^n$  such that

$$f(x) = f(x \oplus c), \text{ where } \oplus \text{ is bitwise exclusive or}$$

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$f(000) = 101$	$f(100) = 011$
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## Classical algorithms

- Compute  $f(x)$  until a collision  $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \dots$  and then  $c = x_1 \oplus x_2$
- Another solution: since  $f(000) \neq f(001)$ ,  $c \neq 001$ , ...

## Hadamard Transform

- $H^{\otimes n} |\underline{j}\rangle = \frac{1}{2^{n/2}} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} (-1)^{j \cdot k} |\underline{k}\rangle$
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Start with  $2n$  qubits:

$$|\underline{0}\rangle |\underline{0}\rangle$$

Apply  $H^{\otimes n}$

$$\sum_x |\underline{x}\rangle |\underline{0}\rangle$$

Apply  $O_f$

$$\sum_x |\underline{x}\rangle |f(x)\rangle$$

Measure the second register

$$|\underline{x_0}\rangle + |\underline{x_0 + s}\rangle$$

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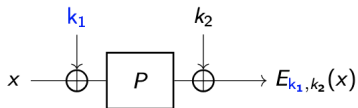
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## Post-processing

- With  $n - 1$  values  $y_1, \dots, y_{n-1}$  independent vectors, we obtain a linear system to recover  $s$

# Application of Simon to Symmetric-key cryptanalysis

**Figure 1:** Even-Mansour:  $P$  public permutation on  $\{0,1\}^n$  with  $2n$ -bit key

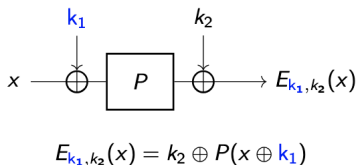


$$E_{k_1, k_2}(x) = k_2 \oplus P(x \oplus k_1)$$

**Goal:** Recover the secret key  $(k_1, k_2)$

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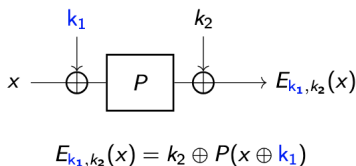
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$$T \cdot D = 2^n$$

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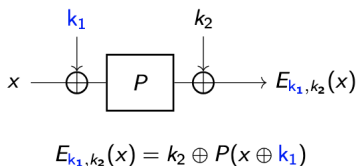
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- $f$  one query to  $E_{k_1,k_2}$  in superposition. Q2 model: Realistic model ?

# Shor Algorithm

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- $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$  is not an integral domain:  $N = 15$ ,  $5 \times 3 = 0 \bmod 15$
- $(\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^*$  multiplicative group of invertible elements, not cyclic !
- order of  $a$ : smallest positive integer  $r$  s.t.  $a^r = 1 \bmod N$
- $r \mid \varphi(N)$  Lagrange Theorem in the group  $(\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^*$
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## Assumptions

1. **Assumption 1:  $\text{ord}(a) = r$  is even** with proba.  $1/2$
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$$a=2 \quad (a, N) = 1 \quad r = 4, 2^4 = 16 = 1 \bmod 15 \quad (2^{4/2} - 1, 15) = 3$$

$$a=3 \quad \text{no}$$

$$a=11 \quad (a, N) = 1 \quad r = 2, 11^2 = 121 = 1 \bmod 15 \quad (11^{2/2} - 1, 15) = 5 \quad 17$$

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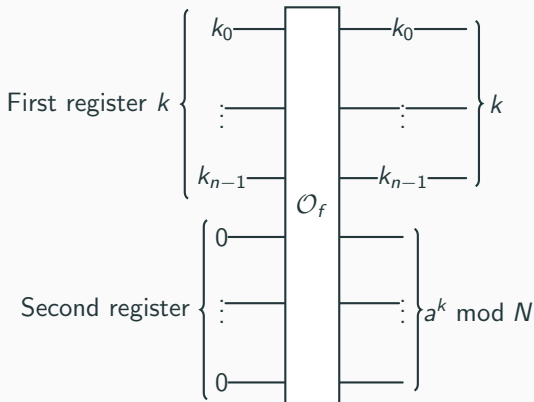
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$$\begin{array}{cccc} (0, 0) \xrightarrow{F} (0, 1) & (4, 0) \xrightarrow{F} (4, 1) & (8, 0) \xrightarrow{F} (8, 1) & (12, 0) \xrightarrow{F} (12, 1) \\ (1, 0) \xrightarrow{F} (1, 2) & (5, 0) \xrightarrow{F} (5, 2) & (9, 0) \xrightarrow{F} (9, 2) & (13, 0) \xrightarrow{F} (13, 2) \\ (2, 0) \xrightarrow{F} (2, 4) & (6, 0) \xrightarrow{F} (6, 4) & (10, 0) \xrightarrow{F} (10, 4) & (14, 0) \xrightarrow{F} (14, 4) \\ (3, 0) \xrightarrow{F} (3, 8) & (7, 0) \xrightarrow{F} (7, 8) & (11, 0) \xrightarrow{F} (11, 8) & (15, 0) \xrightarrow{F} (15, 8) \end{array}$$

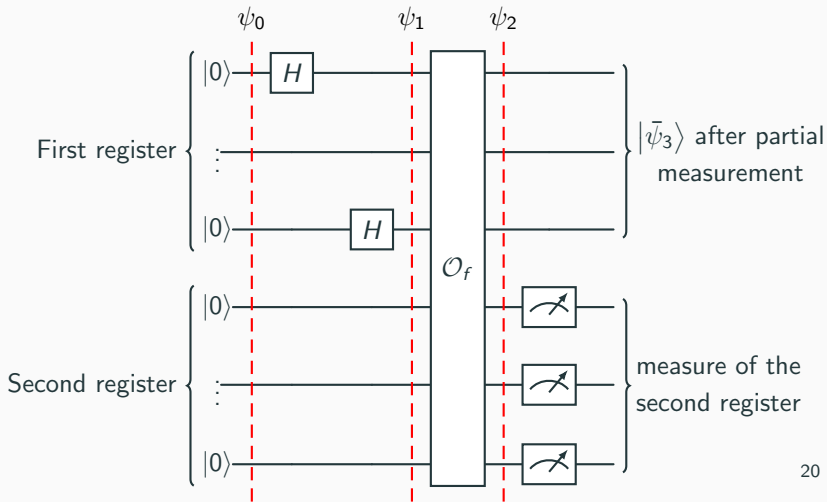
## Oracle Circuit $2^n \geq N$

The oracle is composed of 2 registers: the first receives the integer  $k$  in binary with  $n$  bits, and the second, 0 on  $n$  bits. We write  $|\underline{k}\rangle$  the register containing  $k$  written in binary. For instance,  $|\underline{0}\rangle = |0 \dots 0\rangle$  with  $n$  bits. The initial state is  $|\underline{k}\rangle \otimes |\underline{0}\rangle$ .



# Starting the Circuit $2^n \geq N$

- Initialization:  $|\psi_0\rangle = |\underline{0}\rangle \otimes |\underline{0}\rangle$ .
- Hadamard:  $|\psi_1\rangle = H^{\otimes n}(|\underline{0}\rangle) \otimes |\underline{0}\rangle = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} |\underline{k}\rangle\right) \otimes |\underline{0}\rangle$
- Oracle:  $|\psi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{2^{n/2}} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} |\underline{k}\rangle \otimes |\underline{a^k}\rangle$



## Using the period to rewrite $|\psi_2\rangle$

- Assumption 3:  $\text{ord}(a) = r|2^n$ . This assumption is not true, and can be removed (see later)
- Under Assumption 3:  $k = \alpha r + \beta$  with  $0 \leq \beta < r$  and  $0 \leq \alpha < 2^n/r$ ,

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- If we measure the second register, we get for a fixed  $\beta_0$ ,

$$|\psi_3\rangle = \sum_{\alpha=0}^{2^n/r-1} |\alpha r + \beta_0\rangle \otimes |\underline{a}^{\beta_0}\rangle$$

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- Assume we measure the first register,  $|\alpha_0 r + \beta_0\rangle$  for fixed  $\alpha_0$  and  $\beta_0$
- If we redo the computation, we will not the same  $\beta_0$ ,
- We cannot do many measures of the first register ...

## Example $N = 15$ , $a = 2$

- $|\psi_0\rangle = |\underline{0}\rangle \otimes |\underline{0}\rangle$
- Hadamard Transform:  $|\psi_1\rangle = (|\underline{0}\rangle + |\underline{1}\rangle + \dots + |\underline{15}\rangle) \otimes |\underline{0}\rangle$
- Oracle:  $|\psi_2\rangle = |\underline{0}\rangle \cdot |\underline{a^0}\rangle + |\underline{1}\rangle \cdot |\underline{a^1}\rangle + \dots + |\underline{15}\rangle \cdot |\underline{a^{15}}\rangle$

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- Since  $r = 4|2^4 = 16$ , the values form a **rectangular table**

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_2\rangle = & (|\underline{0}\rangle + |\underline{4}\rangle + |\underline{8}\rangle + |\underline{12}\rangle) \cdot |\underline{1}\rangle + \\ & (|\underline{1}\rangle + |\underline{5}\rangle + |\underline{9}\rangle + |\underline{13}\rangle) \cdot |\underline{2}\rangle + \\ & (|\underline{2}\rangle + |\underline{6}\rangle + |\underline{10}\rangle + |\underline{14}\rangle) \cdot |\underline{4}\rangle + \\ & (|\underline{3}\rangle + |\underline{7}\rangle + |\underline{11}\rangle + |\underline{15}\rangle) \cdot |\underline{8}\rangle \end{aligned}$$

- If we measure the second register,  $|\underline{4}\rangle$ , the first register is

$$|\widetilde{\psi_3}\rangle = |\underline{2}\rangle + |\underline{6}\rangle + |\underline{10}\rangle + |\underline{14}\rangle$$

- They are separated by the period  $r = 4$ , but how can we recover  $r$  ?

# Discrete Fourier Transform

## Complex numbers

- 

$$1 + z + \dots + z^{n-1} = \begin{cases} n & \text{if } z = 1 \\ \frac{1-z^n}{1-z} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- Crucial Lemma:  $n > 0, j \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} e^{2i\pi \frac{kj}{n}} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \frac{j}{n} \text{ is an integer} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

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## Discrete Fourier Transform and Inverse

$$\hat{F} |\underline{k}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{j=0}^{2^n-1} e^{2i\pi \frac{kj}{2^n}} |\underline{j}\rangle \text{ and } \hat{F}^{-1} |\underline{k}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{j=0}^{2^n-1} e^{-2i\pi \frac{kj}{2^n}} |\underline{j}\rangle$$

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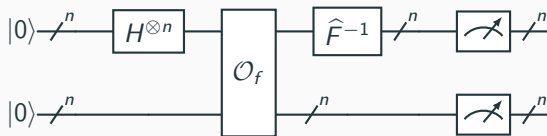
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## The Discrete Fourier Transform is Linear and Unitary

$$\text{If } |\psi\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} \alpha_k |\underline{k}\rangle, \text{ then } \hat{F} |\psi\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} \alpha_k \hat{F} |\underline{k}\rangle$$

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- Initialization:  $|\psi_0\rangle = |\underline{0}\rangle \otimes |\underline{0}\rangle$ .
- Hadamard:  $|\psi_1\rangle = H^{\otimes n}(|\underline{0}\rangle) \otimes |\underline{0}\rangle = \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} |\underline{k}\rangle \right) \otimes |\underline{0}\rangle$
- Oracle:  $|\psi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{2^{n/2}} \sum_{k=0}^{2^n-1} |\underline{k}\rangle \otimes |\underline{a^k}\rangle$



- Measure of the first register:  $\left| \frac{2^n \ell}{r} \right\rangle$
- Allows (often) to get  $r$  (or a factor of  $r$ )

- After measuring the second register  $|\bar{\psi}_3\rangle = \sum_{\alpha=0}^{2^n/r-1} |\underline{\alpha r + \beta_0}\rangle$

# Computation

- After measuring the second register  $|\bar{\psi}_3\rangle = \sum_{\alpha=0}^{2^n/r-1} |\underline{\alpha r + \beta_0}\rangle$
- Action of  $\hat{F}^{-1}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
 |\bar{\psi}_4\rangle &= \hat{F}^{-1} |\hat{\psi}_3\rangle = \sum_{\alpha=0}^{2^n/r-1} \hat{F}^{-1} |\underline{\alpha r + \beta_0}\rangle \\
 &= \sum_{\alpha} \sum_{j=0}^{2^n-1} e^{-\frac{2i\pi(\alpha r + \beta_0)j}{2^n}} |j\rangle = \sum_j \overbrace{\left( \sum_{\alpha} e^{-2i\pi \frac{\alpha j}{2^n/r}} \right)}^{0 \text{ or } 1} e^{-2i\pi \frac{\beta_0 j}{2^n}} |j\rangle \\
 &= \sum_{j \text{ with } j/(2^n/r) \text{ integer}} e^{-2i\pi \frac{\beta_0 j}{2^n}} |j\rangle = \sum_{\ell=0}^{r-1} e^{-2i\pi \beta_0 \frac{\ell}{r}} \left| \frac{2^n \ell}{r} \right\rangle
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 \end{aligned}$$

- Measure the first register:  $\left| \frac{2^n \ell}{r} \right\rangle$ , for  $\ell \in \{0, 1, \dots, r-1\}$
- We get  $m = \frac{2^n \ell}{r}$  for one of the states  $\left| \frac{2^n \ell}{r} \right\rangle$

# Measure the first register

$m = \frac{2^n \ell}{r}$  integer with  $n$  known and  $\ell$  unknown

- Divide  $m$  by  $2^n$  to obtain the rational  $x = \frac{m}{2^n} = \frac{\ell}{r}$
- If  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we get no information on  $r$ , and we redo the quantum circuit
- If  $\gcd(\ell, r) = 1$ , then  $\frac{\ell}{r}$  is irreducible and we get  $r$ .
- If  $\gcd(\ell, r) \neq 1$ , then  $x = \frac{m}{2^n} = \frac{\ell'}{r'} = \frac{\ell}{r}$  and we get  $r'$  a factor of  $r$ .  
We redo the computation with  $a' = a^{r'}$  which is of period  $r/r'$ .

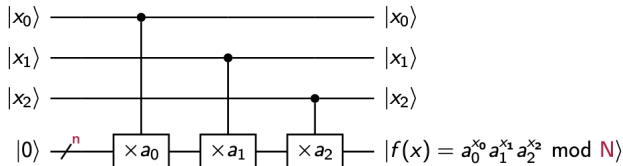
# Implementation of the oracle

Reduce **exponentiation** to **controlled multi-product** modulo  $N$ :

$$f(x) = a^x = \prod_i (a^{2^i})^{x_i} = \prod_i (a_i)^{x_i} \bmod N, \text{ where } a_i = a^{2^i} \bmod N$$

The constants  $a_i$  are precomputed:

- Asymptotic best:  $O(n \times (n \log n))$  operations
- Typical:  $O(n \times (n^2))$  operations



## Definition

- $a_0 + \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{a_2 + \frac{1}{\dots + \frac{1}{a_n}}}}$ , noted  $[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n]$
- E.g.,  $[5, 2, 1, 4] = 5 + \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{4}}} = 5.3571428\dots$
- $[5] = 5, [5, 2] = \frac{11}{2} = 5.5, [5, 2, 1] = \frac{16}{3} = 5.33\dots$

# Continued Fractions

## Definition

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## Good Approximation by continued fractions

- $\pi = 3.14159\dots \approx \frac{314}{100}$  (denominator is large)
- $\frac{314}{100} = 3 + \frac{14}{100} = 3 + \frac{1}{\frac{100}{14}} = 3 + \frac{1}{7 + \frac{2}{14}} = 3 + \frac{1}{7 + \frac{1}{7}} = [3, 7, 7]$
- $[3, 7] = 3 + \frac{1}{7} = \frac{22}{7} = 3.1428$
- $[3, 7, 15, 1] = \frac{355}{113} = 3.14159292\dots$  (same order with 6 exact values instead of 2)

## Example Shor with $N = 21$

- $N = 21$ ,  $a = 2$ ,  $2^n = 512 = 2^9$
- Circuit outputs  $|427\rangle$ , so  $x = \frac{427}{512}$
- $\frac{427}{512} \approx \frac{4}{5}$  so order 5 ??
- $\frac{427}{512} = [0, 1, 5, 42, 2]$  and  $[0, 1] = 1$ ,  $[0, 1, 5] = \frac{5}{6}$ ,  $[0, 1, 5, 42] = \frac{211}{253}$
- We keep the best fraction whose denominator is  $\leq N$  and it gives  $r$  or a fraction of  $r$

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### Shor algorithm with arbitrary order

- $N = 21$ ,  $a = 2$ ,  $2^n = 512 = 2^9 \geq N^2$
- $|\psi_0\rangle = |\underline{0}\rangle \otimes |\underline{0}\rangle$
- $|\psi_1\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} |\underline{k}\rangle \otimes |\underline{0}\rangle$
- $|\psi_2\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} |\underline{k}\rangle \otimes |\underline{a^k \bmod N}\rangle$
- $r = 6$  and  $\frac{2^n \ell}{r} \notin \mathbb{Z}$

## Example

The first two lines have 86 terms and 85 in the others

- The state  $|\psi_2\rangle$  is **not rectangular**:

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_2\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{512}}(|\underline{0}\rangle + |\underline{6}\rangle + \dots + |\underline{504}\rangle + |\underline{510}\rangle) |\underline{1}\rangle \\ &+ \frac{1}{\sqrt{512}}(|\underline{1}\rangle + |\underline{7}\rangle + \dots + |\underline{505}\rangle + |\underline{511}\rangle) |\underline{2}\rangle \\ &+ \frac{1}{\sqrt{512}}(|\underline{2}\rangle + |\underline{8}\rangle + \dots + |\underline{506}\rangle) |\underline{4}\rangle \\ &+ \dots \\ &+ \frac{1}{\sqrt{512}}(|\underline{5}\rangle + |\underline{11}\rangle + \dots + |\underline{509}\rangle) |\underline{11}\rangle \end{aligned}$$

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- measure the second register  $|2\rangle$ :  $|\psi_3\rangle = |\underline{1}\rangle + |\underline{7}\rangle + \dots + |\underline{511}\rangle$
- $|\psi_4\rangle = \hat{F}^{-1} |\psi_3\rangle = \sum_{\alpha=0}^{85} \hat{F}^{-1} |\underline{6\alpha + 1}\rangle$
- $|\psi_4\rangle = \sum_{j=0}^{511} \left( \sum_{\alpha=0}^{85} e^{-2i\pi \frac{6\alpha j}{512}} \right) e^{-2i\pi \frac{j}{512}} |j\rangle$

## Example Shor with arbitrary order

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Now,  $\Sigma(j) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{86}} \sum_{\alpha=0}^{85} e^{-2i\pi \frac{6\alpha j}{512}}$  does not take only 0 / 1 values.

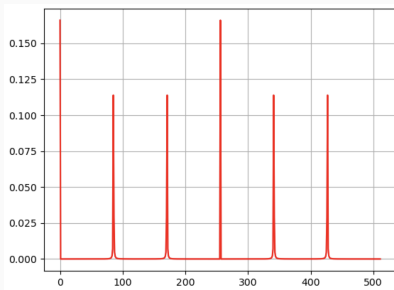
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If we measure the first register, we get  $|j\rangle$  with probability  $|\Sigma(j)|^2$ .

The proba. are  $\approx 0$ , except when  $j \approx \frac{2^n \ell}{r}$ : for  $\ell = 5$ ,  $\frac{512 \times 5}{6} = 426.66$ .



j	p <sub>j</sub>
422	0.00062...
423	0.00099...
424	0.00186...
425	0.00469...
426	0.02888...
<b>427</b>	<b>0.11389...</b>
428	0.00702...
429	0.00226...
430	0.00109...
431	0.00063...

# Hardy-Wright Theorem

## Theorem

Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and a rational  $\frac{p}{q}$  such that

$$\left| x - \frac{p}{q} \right| < \frac{1}{2q^2}.$$

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Then,  $\frac{p}{q}$  is obtained as one of the continued fractions of  $x$ .

Let  $m$  the closest integer to  $\frac{2^n \ell}{r}$ . So,  $|m - \frac{2^n \ell}{r}| < \frac{1}{2}$ .

If  $x = \frac{m}{2^n}$ , we get  $|x - \frac{\ell}{r}| < \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}$ .

As we set  $2^n \geq N^2 \geq r^2$ ,  $|x - \frac{\ell}{r}| < \frac{1}{2r^2}$ .

Using Theorem, we obtain  $\frac{\ell}{r}$  as one of the continued fractions of  $x$ .

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- HSP (Hidden Subgroup Problem): Let  $G$  a group and  $H$  a subgroup. The function  $f$  is constant on each coset of  $H$ , find  $H$

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How to factor 2048 bit RSA integers in 8 hours using 20 million noisy qubits

Craig Gidney<sup>1</sup> and Martin Ekerå<sup>2</sup>

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- $n/2 + o(n)$  qubits and  $O(n^2)$  gates, runs constants [CFS24]

**Regev Quantum factorisation  
algorithm: reducing the circuit  
size by  $\sqrt{n}$**

---

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- $\gcd(1162, 8051) = 83$  and  $8051 = 83 \times 97$  !

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```
.....
[1, 9, 81, 729, 6561, 2692, 75, 675, 6075, 6369, 964, 625, 5625, 2319, 4769, 2666, 7892, 6620, 3223, 4854, 3431,
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- $(19, 47)$ : also Period.  $2^{19} \cdot 3^{47} = 6888 \bmod 8051$  non-trivial square root of unity
- $\gcd(6887, 8051) = 97$

## Regev's algorithm: number of gates (1/2)

**Hadamard and FFT are free, but oracle function...**

The most expensive step is the function evaluation

$$(z_1, \dots, z_d) \mapsto \prod_{i=1}^d a_i^{z_i} \bmod N$$

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- but, we have to do it  $d$  times, do we gain something ....

## Regev's algorithm: number of gates (2/2)

The trick is to choose  $a_1, \dots, a_d$  as small numbers

- E.g., they can be the squares of the first  $d$  primes (4,9,25,49,...)
- To get  $a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4 a_5 a_6 a_7 a_8$ :  $((a_1 a_2)(a_3 a_4))((a_5 a_6)(a_7 a_8))$
- Then, we can compute  $\prod_{i=1}^d a_i^{z_i} \bmod N$  with exponents  $z_i$  up to  $2^{n/d}$  using **only**  $n/d$  big number multiplications, requiring  $\tilde{O}(n^2/d)$  gates
- To get  $a_1^{13} a_2^9 a_3^3 a_4^6$ : from  $1 = a_1^0 a_2^0 a_3^0 a_4^0$ ,
  - $a_1^1 a_2^1 a_3^0 a_4^0$  multiply by  $a_1 a_2$
  - $a_1^2 a_2^2 a_3^0 a_4^0$  square
  - $a_3^3 a_2^2 a_3^0 a_4^1$  multiply by  $a_1 a_4$
  - $a_3^6 a_2^4 a_3^0 a_4^2$  square
  - $a_3^6 a_2^4 a_3^1 a_4^3$  multiply by  $a_3 a_4$
  - $a_3^{12} a_2^8 a_3^2 a_4^6$  square
  - $a_3^{13} a_2^9 a_3^3 a_4^6$  multiply by  $a_1 a_2 a_3$

## Final algorithm

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## Algorithm

1. Choose  $a_1, \dots, a_d$  squares of the first  $d = \sqrt{n}$  primes 4, 9, 25, 49,  $\dots$
2. Apply the following quantum circuit  $d$  times:
  - (i) Compute  $\prod_{i=1}^d a_i^{z_i} \bmod N$  in superposition over all  $(z_1, \dots, z_d) \in (0, \dots, 2^{n/d+d})^d$
  - (ii) Apply QFT and measure to get an approximate dual lattice vector
3. Use the lattice algorithm LLL to recover the period  $(z_1, \dots, z_d)$
4. Use the period to factor  $N$

## Solve 2 drawbacks of Regev's algorithm

1. Number of qubits:  $O(n \log n) \Rightarrow 10n$ : avoid the squaring (not reversible !) while modular multiplications are
  - Fibonacci representation: every number can be written as  $\sum_{i \in I} F_i$
  - Kasiski:  $(a^{F_k}, a^{F_{k+1}}) \Rightarrow (a^{F_{k+2}}, a^{F_{k+1}})$  using only multiplications
  - Circuit reversible, but check invertible elements  
 $|a, b, a^{-1} \bmod N, b^{-1} \bmod N\rangle \Rightarrow |a, ab, a^{-1} \bmod N, (ab)^{-1} \bmod N\rangle$
  - $45.7\sqrt{n}$  modular multiplications while Regev just  $6\sqrt{n}$ , but the space increases to store the different values to be reversible...
2. Number of runs: Regev requires no errors on the  $\sqrt{n}$  runs, while RV using a filtering technique can remove very bad outputs

## Reducing the number of qubits

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# New algorithm<sup>1</sup>

- Factoring RSA moduli using  $n/2 + o(n)$  qubits and  $O(n^3)$  gates
- Benchmarks for RSA-2048:  $\leq 1700$  qubits and  $\leq 60 \times 2^{36}$  Toffoli gates (in 60 runs)
- Based on a completely classical arithmetic circuit

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- Based on a completely classical arithmetic circuit
- Gidney reduces: qubits down to 1399 logical qubits by computing the MSB rather than the LSB,  $2^{32}$  Toffoli gates as previous counting and 9.2 runs, and update estimates at the physical level

## Gidney latest result

### How to factor 2048 bit RSA integers with less than a million noisy qubits

Craig Gidney

Google Quantum AI, Santa Barbara, California 93117, USA

June 9, 2025

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# Discrete logarithm and RSA special case

Find  $d$  s.t.  $a = g^d$ :

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<sup>2</sup>Ekerå, Håstad, “Quantum algorithms for computing short discrete logarithms and factoring RSA integers, PQCrypto 2017”

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# Discrete logarithm and RSA special case

Find  $d$  s.t.  $a = g^d$ :  $f(x, y) := g^x a^{-y} = g^{x-dy} \bmod N$

- Also a hidden period problem:  $f(x + d, y + 1) = f(x, y)$
- Also reduces to controlled multi-product

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Ekerå & Håstad method<sup>23</sup>:

- Reduce RSA factorisation ( $N=pq$ ) to small DLOG of size  $n/2$ : if we recover  $p + q$ , we can factor  $N$
- Use an input register of size  $n/2 + (n/2)/s$  for some  $s$
- $\approx s + 1$  measurements to find  $d$  via an efficient lattice-based post-processing. Typically  $s = O(\log n)$ .

**Space is reduced to:  $n/2 + \text{workspace}$**

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# Variant Shor's algorithm

## Ideas

- Once  $p + q$  is known, using  $N = pq$ , recover  $p$  is easy

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- $G = \langle g \rangle$  a cyclic subgroup of  $(\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^*$  of order  $> (p + q - 2)/2$
- Compute  $x = g^{(N-1)/2} = g^{(p+q-2)/2} \bmod N$  since  $(N - \varphi(N) - 1)/2 = (p + q - 2)/2$  as  $\varphi(N) = N - p - q + 1$
- Compute short discrete logarithm  $d = (p + q - 2)/2$  from  $g$  and  $x$

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- How to compute some bits of  $a^k \bmod N \bmod 2^r$  with  $o(\log n)$  space

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