Challenges in quantum algorithms for integer factorization

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Prelude: What is the fastest algorithm to sort an array?

```
def blindsort(x):
    while not issorted(x):
    permuterandomly(x)
```

```
def bubblesort(x):
    for j in range(len(x)):
        for i in reversed(range(j)):
        x[i],x[i+1] = (
            min(x[i],x[i+1]),
            max(x[i],x[i+1])
        )
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bubblesort takes poly time.  $\Theta(n^2)$  comparisons. Huge speedup over blindsort!

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No, still not optimal.

Analogous: What is the fastest algorithm to factor integers?

Shor's algorithm takes poly time. Huge speedup over NFS!

 $b^2(\log b)^{1+o(1)}$  qubit operations to factor b-bit integer, using standard subroutines for fast integer arithmetic.

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"Shor's algorithm: the bubble sort of integer factorization."

# A simple exercise to illustrate suboptimality of Shor's algorithm: Find a prime divisor of $|10^{3009}\pi|$ .

## Important variations in the factorization problem:

- Maybe need one factor.
- Maybe need all factors.
- Maybe factors are small.
- Maybe factors are large.
- Maybe there are many inputs.
- Maybe inputs in superposition.

Important variations in metrics (even assuming perfect devices):

- Qubits.
- Area ("A", including wire area).
- Qubit operations ("gates").
- Depth.
- Time ("T": latency).

#### Short-term RSA security

1995 Kitaev, 1996 Vedral-Barenco-Ekert, 1996 Beckman-Chari-Devabhaktuni-Preskill. 1998 Zalka, 1999 Mosca-Ekert, 2000 Parker-Plenio, 2001 Seifert, 2002 Kitaev-Shen-Vyalyi, 2003 Beauregard, 2006 Takahashi-Kunihiro, 2010 Ahmadi-Chiang, 2014 Svore-Hastings-Freedman, 2015 Grosshans-Lawson-Morain-Smith, 2016 Häner-Roetteler-Svore, 2017 Ekerå-Håstad, 2017 Johnston: try to squeeze constant factors out of Shor's algorithm.

2003 Beauregard: 2b + 3 qubits.

... 2016 Häner-Roetteler-Svore:

2b + 2 qubits;  $64b^3(\lg b + O(1))$ 

Toffoli gates; similar number of

CNOT gates; depth  $O(b^3)$ .

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Conventional wisdom: cannot avoid 2*b* qubits for controlled mulmod.

e.g. 4096 qubits for b = 2048, very common RSA key size.

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So 2048-bit factorization needs 4096 qubits?

No: NFS uses 0 qubits.

NFS takes  $L^{p+o(1)}$  operations with  $p = \sqrt[3]{92 + 26\sqrt{13}/3} > 1.9$ ,  $\log L = (\log 2^b)^{1/3} (\log \log 2^b)^{2/3}$ .

Analysis for b = 2048 (not easy!): very roughly  $2^{112}$  operations.

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Open: Analyze for b = 2048. Fewer than 4096 qubits? Fewer than 2048 qubits? Counting operations is an oversimplified cost model: ignores communication costs, parallelism. See, e.g., 1981 Brent–Kung *AT* theorem for realistic chip model.

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NFS suffers somewhat from communication costs inside big linear-algebra subroutine.

2001 Bernstein:

 $AT = L^{p'+o(1)}$  with  $p' \approx 1.976$ .

2017 Bernstein-Biasse-Mosca:

 $AT = L^{q'+o(1)}$  with  $q' \approx 1.456$  using  $b^{2/3+o(1)}$  qubits.

Open: Analyze for b = 2048.

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Open: Any quantum speedups for factoring many integers?

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"Expert" cryptographers:

"Obviously they won't react to Shor's algorithm this way! They'll switch to codes, lattices, etc. long before quantum computers break RSA-2048! We don't need to analyze the security of RSA-4096, RSA-8192, RSA-16384, etc.!"

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Bernstein-Fried-Heninger-Lou-Valenta: Draft NIST submission proposing 1-gigabyte RSA keys. Much faster to generate.

The secret primes are small:

4096 bits in terabyte key; 1024 bits in gigabyte key. Important time-saver in keygen, signing, decryption.

Is this a weakness?

ECM finds any prime < y using  $L^{\sqrt{2}+o(1)}$  mulmods, where  $\log L = (\log y \log \log y)^{1/2}$ . Beats Shor for  $\log y$  below  $(\log \log y \log y)^{2+o(1)}$ .

Public ECM record: 274-bit factor of  $7^{337} + 1$ .

Analysis for  $y \approx 2^{1024}$ :

>2<sup>125</sup> mulmods, huge depth; and 2<sup>33</sup>-bit mulmod is slow.

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Seems swamped by overhead.

Open: Better ways for quantum algorithms to find small factors?

Minimum security level that NIST allows for post-quantum submissions: brute-force/Grover search for a 128-bit AES key.

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But Shor's algorithm can (with more qubits) use faster mulmods.

NIST allows submissions to assume reasonable time limits:

"Plausible values for MAXDEPTH range from 2<sup>40</sup> logical gates (the approximate number of gates that presently envisioned quantum computing architectures are expected to serially perform in a year) through 2<sup>64</sup> logical gates (the approximate number of gates that current classical computing architectures can perform serially in a decade), to no more than  $2^{96}$ logical gates ..."

What is the minimum time for *b*-bit integer multiplication?

Light takes time  $\Omega(b^{1/2})$  to cross a  $b^{1/2} \times b^{1/2}$  chip.

1981 Brent–Kung AT theorem:  $AT \ge \text{small constant} \cdot b^{3/2}$ , even if wire latency is 0.

(Work around obstacles using faster-than-light communication through long-distance EPR pairs? Haven't seen plausible designs, even if reversible computation avoids FTL impossibility proofs.)

What is the minimum time for Shor's algorithm?

Main bottleneck:  $a^e$  mod N for 2b-bit superposition e.

Traditional approach: series of controlled multiplications by a and 1/a mod N;  $a^2$  mod N and  $1/a^2$  mod N;  $a^4$  mod N and  $1/a^4$  mod N; etc.

Can multiply these in parallel, using many more qubits; but hard to parallelize initial computation of  $a^{2^i}$  mod N.

Why gigabyte keys are reasonable: big enough to push latency beyond the  $2^{64}$  limit, under reasonable assumptions.

Gigabyte inputs are millions of times larger than 2048-bit inputs.
These algorithms will take billions of times longer.
More cost to find *all* primes.

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Open: What is minimum time for integer factorization?

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Is NIST implicitly assuming a higher latency limit?

## Some improvements to Shor

(2017 Bernstein-Biasse-Mosca)

Consider Shor's algorithm factoring  $N = p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_f^{e_f}$ . Write  $(p_j - 1)p_j^{e_j - 1}$  as  $2^{t_j}u_j$  with  $u_j$  odd.

Unit group is isomorphic to

$$\mathbf{Z}/2^{t_1} \times \cdots \times \mathbf{Z}/2^{t_f} \times \mathbf{Z}/u_1 \times \cdots$$

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Shor's algorithm (hopefully) computes order r of random unit. Order  $2^{c_j}$  in  $\mathbf{Z}/2^{t_j}$  is  $2^{t_j}$  with probability 1/2;  $2^{t_j-1}$  with probability 1/4; etc.

Shor computes  $gcd\{N, a^{r/2} - 1\}$ . Divisible by  $p_j$  exactly when  $c_j < \max\{c_1, \ldots, c_f\}$ .

Factorization fails iff all  $c_j$  are equal. Chance  $\leq 1/2^{f-1}$ .

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More subtle problem: Factorization is likely to split off some of the primes with maximum  $t_i$ .

Can iterate Shor's algorithm enough times to completely factor. Many full-size iterations; many more for adversarial inputs.

Better method, inspired by primality testing: compute gcd with  $a^{r/2} + 1$ ,  $a^{r/4} + 1$ ,  $a^{r/8} + 1$ , ...,  $a^d + 1$ ,  $a^d - 1$ , with odd d.

This splits  $p_j$  according to  $c_j$ . Any two primes have chance  $\geq 1/2$  of being split.

Factors are around half size.

Much less overhead for recursion.

Also "parallel construction": Run several times in parallel, giving several factorizations. Then factor into coprimes. These methods use >b qubits. Didn't we claim  $b^{2/3+o(1)}$  qubits?

We actually use Grover's method to search for smooth  $b^{2/3+o(1)}$ -bit numbers in NFS.

Oracle for Grover's method: factor thoroughly enough to recognize smooth inputs.

We tweak (improved) Shor to work in superposition. Careful with qubit budget for continued fractions, power detection, etc.

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Open: What are minimum costs for this unification?