

# Cracking RSA with Quantum Computing

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# Outline

- 1 The Setting
- 2 Classical Computers
- 3 Quantum Computers
- 4 Shor's Algorithm

# The Setting

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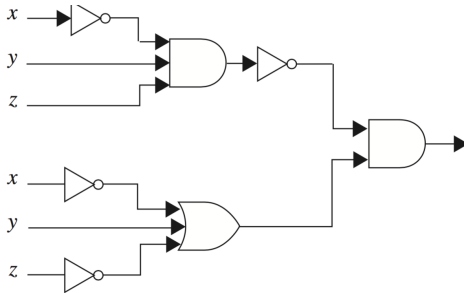
# The Setting

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Quantum computers *are* able to factor in polynomial time. This talk will focus on explaining how quantum algorithms work, building up to Shor's famous algorithm for factoring.

# What Computers Look Like

Equivalent to a circuit whose representation can be quickly computed:





# What Computers Look Like

We can think of a circuit as having  $n$  registers, each of which contain 0 or 1. A possible *state* of these  $n$  registers is an element of  $\{0, 1\}^n$  ( $n$ -length bitstring). Then the action of a gate can be described as a matrix of 0s and 1s.

# What Computers Look Like: NOT gate

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$$\text{NOT}(0) = 1$$

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Let's relabel  $0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Elements of a 2-element vector space, as there are 2 possibilities for bits.

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$$\text{NOT} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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This strongly suggests we can consider it as a matrix:

$$\text{NOT} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

## What Computers Look Like: AND gate

AND gate:

$$\text{AND}(0, 0) = 0$$

$$\text{AND}(0, 1) = 0$$

$$\text{AND}(1, 0) = 0$$

$$\text{AND}(1, 1) = 1$$

## What Computers Look Like: AND gate

For two input bits, there are  $4 = 2^2$  possible states.

$$(0, 0) = |00\rangle = |0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle$$

$$(0, 1) = |01\rangle = |0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$$

$$(1, 0) = |10\rangle = |1\rangle \otimes |0\rangle$$

$$(1, 1) = |11\rangle = |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$$

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# What Computers Look Like: AND gate

Okay, we have a vector space now. What about linear combinations?

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \left( \frac{1}{2} |00\rangle + 0 |01\rangle + \frac{1}{4} |10\rangle + \frac{1}{4} |11\rangle \right) = ???$$

# What changes for Quantum?

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The state of an  $n$ -qubit quantum computer is a vector in  $\mathbb{C}^{2^n}$  that is normalized (this reflects the underlying quantum property of superposition):

$$a_0 |00\rangle + a_1 |01\rangle + a_2 |10\rangle + a_3 |11\rangle$$

with  $a_i \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} |a_i|^2 = 1$  (unit vectors)

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$$a_0 |00\rangle + a_1 |01\rangle + a_2 |10\rangle + a_3 |11\rangle$$

This produces  $|00\rangle$  with probability  $|a_0|^2$ ,  $|01\rangle$  with probability  $|a_1|^2$ , etc.

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Our quantum gates now take unit complex vectors to unit complex vectors (they are exactly the *unitary* matrices)!



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$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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c-NOT

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Phase Rotation

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\frac{\pi}{4}} \end{bmatrix}$$

## Comparison to Classical

$$\text{NOT}(1|0\rangle + 0|1\rangle) = 0|0\rangle + 1|1\rangle$$

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## Comparison to Classical

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## Comparison to Classical

Superposition!

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |1\rangle \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$$

Like applying the gate twice 'at the same time'!

# c-NOT

Want a gate to 'conditionally' apply its effect. Control bit controls whether gate act, and the gate acts on the second bit.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} (|0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle) = |0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle$$

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## PHASE-ESTIMATE

**Input:**  $\omega \in [0, 1]$  unknown. We get a state of the form

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{i=0}^{2^n-1} e^{2\pi i \omega y} |y\rangle$$

**Output:** An estimate of  $\omega$ .

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What does the output even look like? Need to approximate  $\omega$  with  $n$  bits when measured.

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**Output:** An estimate of  $\omega = 0.x_1x_2 \dots x_n = \frac{x}{2^n}$  for  $x \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 2^n - 1\}$

## Phase estimation

It turns out

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{i=0}^{2^n-1} e^{2\pi i \omega y} |y\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} (|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0 \cdot x_n} |1\rangle) \otimes (|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0 \cdot x_{n-1} x_n} |1\rangle)$$

$$\otimes \dots$$

$$\otimes (|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0 \cdot x_2 x_3 \dots x_{n-1}} |1\rangle) \otimes (|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i 0 \cdot x_1 x_2 \dots x_n} |1\rangle)$$

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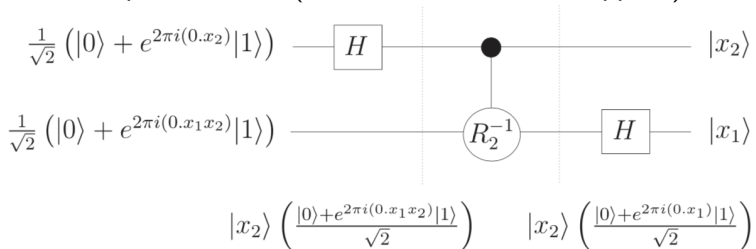
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Idea: 'pull'  $x_i$  out one by one, then remove them from the remaining bits.

# Phase estimation

Implementation (we will examine what happens):



# Phase estimation

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Looking at

$$H \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + e^{2\pi i(0 \cdot x_2)} |1\rangle) = H \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + (-1)^{x_2} |1\rangle) = |x_2\rangle$$



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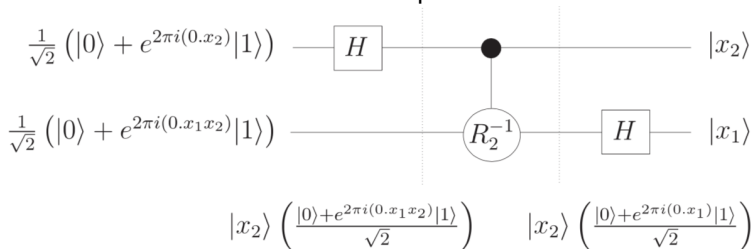
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So  $H$  'pulls'  $x_2$  out for us, into a qbit!

# Phase estimation

We have  $|x_2\rangle$  after the first  $H$ , and we want to 'eliminate' it from the 2nd qubit:



## Phase estimation

$$R_2^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-2\pi i(0.01)} \end{bmatrix}$$

$R_2$  only rotates the phase on  $|1\rangle$ .

Action when  $x_2 = 1$ :

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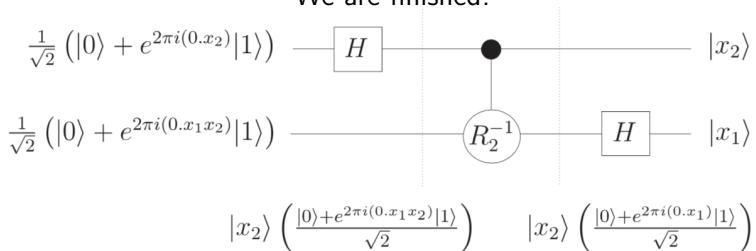
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So we want to perform  $R_2^{-1}$  only when  $x_2 = 1$ ! So we use  $c\text{-}R_2^{-1}$  instead.

# Phase estimation

We are finished!



## Phase estimation technicalities

This analysis is really incomplete:

- We only saw the action  $\omega = 0.x_1x_2$ . What if  $\omega$  is actually like  $2/3$ , and cannot be written as  $x/2^n$ ?

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- Circuit gets more and more complicated for more qubits, but follows the same idea of 'pulling' then repeatedly eliminating.

# Phase estimation backwards: QFT

When  $\omega \approx 0.x_1x_2, \dots, x_n$ , phase estimation now gives us

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{i=0}^{2^n-1} e^{2\pi i \omega y} |y\rangle \mapsto |x_1x_2 \dots x_n\rangle$$

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This replicates the behavior of the discrete fourier transform in a quantum implementation, hence QFT. Phase estimation is called “QFT<sup>-1</sup>”.

## Back to factoring

FACTOR

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**Output:** A factor of  $N$ , which is either  $p$  or  $q$ .

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The idea of reductions is very common in computer science, we write FACTOR  $\rightarrow$  ORDER-FIND

# Order finding

ORDER-FIND

**Input:**  $a, N$  with  $\gcd(a, N) = 1$ .

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We've just factorized  $N$ !  $a^{r/2} + 1$  and  $a^{r/2} - 1$  are almost always nontrivial (meaning not 1 and  $N$ ) factors.

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So  $U_a^r = I!$

This means its eigenvalues are all  $r$ th roots of unity, i.e. complex numbers of the form

$$e^{2\pi ik/r}, k \in \{0, \dots, r-1\}$$



# ORDER-FIND $\rightarrow$ EIGENVALUE-ESTIMATE

For an eigenvector of  $U_a$ ,  $|\psi\rangle$

$$U_a |\psi\rangle = e^{2\pi ik/r} |\psi\rangle$$

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For an eigenvector of  $U_a$ ,  $|\psi\rangle$

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Modulo some details ( $k$ ,  $\psi$ ), we already have a way to estimate  $\omega = k/r$  from phases!!

# Eigenvalue estimation

## EIGENVALUE-ESTIMATE

**Input:** A unitary operator  $U$  implemented in quantum gates, and an eigenvector  $|\psi\rangle$

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Idea: Apply  $U$  repeatedly, so we get a quantum state where we can estimate  $\omega$  from our phase estimation algorithm

# Eigenvalue estimation implementation

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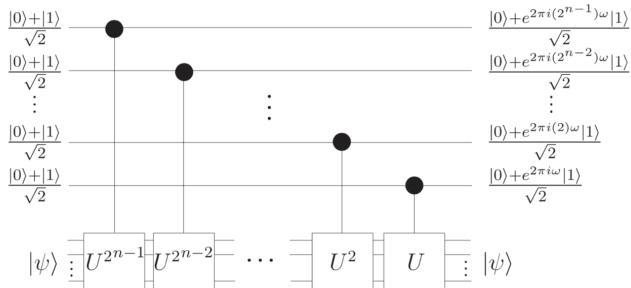
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$$U^{2^j}|\psi\rangle = e^{2\pi i 0.x_j\dots x_{n-j}} |\psi\rangle$$

So we can use  $c-U^{2^j}$  to get the individual qu-bits in the state we want for eigenvalue estimation.

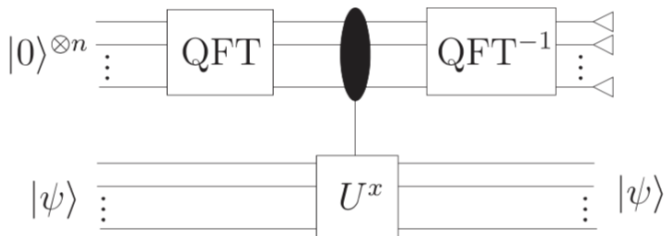
# Eigenvalue estimation implementation

So here is our way to 'set up' the states for estimation:



# Eigenvalue estimation implementation

It turns out QFT sets up 0 states to  $\frac{|0\rangle+|1\rangle}{2}$ , so here is our entire diagram (including actually doing phase estimation):



# Shor's 'entire' algorithm

We have talked about a way to implement Shor's algorithm  
(ignoring crucial details like time complexity and correctness):

FACTOR  $\rightarrow$  ORDER-FIND  $\rightarrow$

EIGENVALUE-ESTIMATE  $\rightarrow$  PHASE-ESTIMATE

# Implications

Factoring numbers quickly breaks security assumptions of RSA.

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This isn't a huge deal yet. The largest number factored with Shor's algorithm is 21, RSA numbers are on the order of  $2^{1024}$ .

# Implications

Factoring numbers quickly breaks security assumptions of RSA.

This isn't a huge deal yet. The largest number factored with Shor's algorithm is 21, RSA numbers are on the order of  $2^{1024}$ .

But be careful what you tell people about in 20 years.

# End

Thank you!

Diagrams and much of material from 'An Introduction to Quantum Computing', Kaye, Laflamme, Mosca