

# Shor's Factoring Algorithm

Julie Butler

# RSA Encryption

- ▶ Rivest, Shamir, Adleman (1978)
- ▶ Internet encryption scheme that uses two large prime numbers to generate both the public and private keys; could be decrypted via factorization
- ▶ Factoring numbers is the most difficult if a number has just two prime factors of roughly equal length → considered classically **intractable**
  - ▶ Intractable means the only solution is brute-force

# Shor's Factoring Algorithm

- ▶ Peter Shor, 1994
- ▶ One of the first quantum algorithms to garner wide-spread interest in quantum computing
- ▶ Currently it is not feasible to solve real factorization problems with Shor's algorithm, but quantum computers are getting larger every year
- ▶ Not only is it an interesting problem, it opens up many security concerns
- ▶ **Note:** This will be our first example of a hybrid classical-quantum algorithm



## Warning

To truly understand how Shor's algorithm works, you need a good grasp of number theory, especially as it relates to prime numbers and factorization. In this lecture we are only going to cover enough mathematics to be able to implement the algorithm.

# Modular Arithmetic

▶ Definition:

$$a = b \bmod N \longrightarrow b = qN + a \text{ for some } q$$

▶ **Note that this is similar to but not the same as the % operator in Python.**

# Example

▶  $3 \bmod(12)$

▶  $-9 \bmod(12)$

# Example

▶  $3 \bmod(12)$

▶  $3 = \underline{\quad}(12) + \underline{\quad}$

▶  $-9 \bmod(12)$

▶  $-9 = \underline{\quad}(12) + \underline{\quad}$



## Example

▶  $3 \bmod(12)$

▶  $3 = -1(12) + \underline{\quad}$

▶  $-9 \bmod(12)$

▶  $-9 = -2(12) + \underline{\quad}$

## Example

- ▶  $3 \bmod(12)$ 
  - ▶  $3 = -1(12) + 15$
- ▶  $-9 \bmod(12)$ 
  - ▶  $-9 = -2(12) + 15$
- ▶ Note there are other options here as well.

## Example

- ▶  $3 \bmod(12) = 3$
- ▶  $-9 \bmod(12) = 3$
- ▶ 3 and -9 are **congruent mod 12** since they have the same modulus
- ▶ 3, -9 are in the same **mod 12 equivalence class** since they can be related through mod 12.

## Simple Algebraic Rules Hold for Modular Arithmetic

$$(x + y) \bmod N = (x \bmod N + y \bmod N)$$

$$(xy) \bmod N = (x \bmod N)(y \bmod N)$$

## Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)

- ▶ Any integer  $N$  can be represented as a product of prime numbers,  $p$ :

$$N = p_1 p_2 p_3 \cdots p_\epsilon$$

- ▶ Each value,  $p_i$  is called a factor of  $N$
- ▶ For two integers their greatest common divisor is the largest prime factor they both share
- ▶ Example: GCD of 15 and 21?
  - ▶  $\text{gcd}(15, 21) = ?$

# Factorization

- ▶ Assume that an integer  $N$  has only two prime factors ( $p$  and  $q$ ). Then we can write  $N$  as:

$$N = pq$$

- ▶ The goal of factorization is to find  $p$  and  $q$  given  $N$

## Factorization of N

- ▶  $N = pq$ , for some  $p$  and  $q$  of similar length is equivalent to stating:

$$x^2 = 1 \pmod{N}$$

$$1 = rN + x^2$$

$$0 = rN + (x^2 - 1)$$

$$(x^2 - 1) = 0 \pmod{N}$$

$$(x + 1)(x - 1) = 0 \pmod{N}$$

- ▶ That is to say that  $N$  divides evenly (no remainder) into  $(x + 1)(x - 1)$
- ▶ We can then find the prime factors if we compute:
  - ▶  $p = \gcd(N, x+1)$
  - ▶  $q = \gcd(N, x-1)$

## But what is $x$ ?

- ▶ Classically we have to iterate overall possible numbers OR pick random numbers
- ▶ Let's assume we brute force pick random prime numbers less than  $N$  and see if  $x = 0 \pmod{N}$
- ▶ The number of prime numbers less than a given number  $N$  is:

$$\frac{N}{\ln(N)}$$



## RSA Encryption Again

- ▶ Consider the following values:
  - ▶  $p, q =$  (large) random prime numbers
  - ▶  $n = pq$
  - ▶  $r = (p-1)(q-1)$
  - ▶  $e = 3, 5, 17,$  or  $65537$
  - ▶  $d = e^{-1} \bmod(r)$ 
    - ▶  $de = 1 \bmod(r)$
- ▶ Public key (everyone can see):
  - ▶  $e$  and  $n$
- ▶ Private key (only members of the transaction can see):
  - ▶  $d$

# RSA Encryption and Decryption

- ▶ To encrypt some message,  $m$ , to pass with RSA encryption (so the rest of the internet can not read it):
  - ▶  $m^e \bmod(n)$
- ▶ To decrypt the encrypted message,  $c$  (for ciphertext) (so the receiver of the message can read it):
  - ▶  $c^d \bmod(n)$

## Example

- ▶ Let  $p = 11$ ,  $q = 3$  (so  $n = 33$ ),  $r = (10)(2) = 20$ ,  $e = 3$ , and  $d = 3^{-1} \bmod(33) = 7$ .
- ▶ Let the message to be  $e = 7$ .

$$m^e \bmod(n) = 7^3 \bmod(33) = 343 \bmod(33) = 13$$

- ▶ The encrypted message to be passed along is 13 (ciphertext)

## Example Continued

- ▶ To decrypt on the other side of the transaction:

$$c^d \bmod(n) = 13^7 \bmod(33) = 62748517 \bmod(33) = 7$$

- ▶ The encryption process does not matter, so it can be public. Decryption needs to be private so it is only done by the people who are conducting the transaction
  - ▶ Decryption is based around the private key  $d$ , which is based on  $r$ , which is based on the prime factors  $p, q$
  - ▶ So if someone could factor  $n$  (which is in the public key) they could crack the decryption

## Consider the case of an RSA using a 6 bit number for $n$

- ▶ Not realistic but for demonstration
- ▶  $s = s_0 2^0 + s_1 2^1 + s_2 2^2 + s_3 2^3 + s_4 2^4 + s_5 2^5$
- ▶ Assume  $s_5$  is 1, then the number is at least  $2^5 = 32$
- ▶ Then  $p$  and  $q$  have to be prime numbers smaller than 32 (need to find just one)

$$\frac{32}{\ln(32)} = 9$$

- ▶ Assume  $s_0 = s_1 = s_2 = s_3 = s_4 = s_5 = 1$

$$\frac{63}{\ln(63)} = 15$$

Consider the case of an RSA using a 1,024 bit number for  $n$

$$\frac{2^{1024}}{\ln(2^{1024})} = 1.26 \times 10^{305}$$

Consider the case of an RSA using a 4,096 bit number for  $n$

$$\frac{2^{4095}}{\ln(2^{4095})} = 1.84 \times 10^{1229}$$





## Modular Exponentiation

- Consider  $a = 2$  and  $N = 9$ . Calculate  $a^n = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{mod}(N)$  for increasing values of  $n$

$$2^0 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{mod}(9)$$

$$2^1 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{mod}(9)$$

$$2^2 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{mod}(9)$$

$$2^3 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{mod}(9)$$

$$2^4 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{mod}(9)$$

$$2^5 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{mod}(9)$$

## Modular Exponentiation

- Consider  $a = 2$  and  $N = 9$ . Calculate  $a^n = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{mod}(N)$  for increasing values of  $n$

$$2^0 = 1 \text{mod}(9)$$

$$2^1 = 2 \text{mod}(9)$$

$$2^2 = 4 \text{mod}(9)$$

$$2^3 = 8 \text{mod}(9)$$

$$2^4 = 7 \text{mod}(9)$$

$$2^5 = 4 \text{mod}(9)$$

## Modular Exponentiation

- Consider  $a = 2$  and  $N = 9$ . Calculate  $a^n = \underline{\quad} \bmod(N)$  for increasing values of  $n$

$$2^0 = 1 \bmod(9) \quad 2^6 = 1 \bmod(9)$$

$$2^1 = 2 \bmod(9) \quad 2^7 = 2 \bmod(9)$$

$$2^2 = 4 \bmod(9) \quad 2^8 = 4 \bmod(9)$$

$$2^3 = 8 \bmod(9) \quad 2^9 = 8 \bmod(9)$$

$$2^4 = 7 \bmod(9) \quad 2^{10} = 7 \bmod(9)$$

$$2^5 = 4 \bmod(9) \quad 2^{11} = 4 \bmod(9)$$

## Modular Exponentiation

- Consider  $a = 2$  and  $N = 9$ . Calculate  $a^n = \underline{\quad} \bmod(N)$  for increasing values of  $n$

$$2^0 = 1 \bmod(9) \quad 2^6 = 1 \bmod(9) \quad 2^{12} = 1 \bmod(9)$$

$$2^1 = 2 \bmod(9) \quad 2^7 = 2 \bmod(9) \quad 2^{13} = 2 \bmod(9)$$

$$2^2 = 4 \bmod(9) \quad 2^8 = 4 \bmod(9) \quad 2^{14} = 4 \bmod(9)$$

$$2^3 = 8 \bmod(9) \quad 2^9 = 8 \bmod(9) \quad 2^{15} = 8 \bmod(9)$$

$$2^4 = 7 \bmod(9) \quad 2^{10} = 7 \bmod(9) \quad 2^{16} = 7 \bmod(9)$$

$$2^5 = 4 \bmod(9) \quad 2^{11} = 4 \bmod(9) \quad 2^{17} = 4 \bmod(9)$$

# Modular Exponentiation and Period Finding

- ▶ Consider  $a = 2$  and  $N = 9$ . Calculate  $a^n = \_\_\_ \text{mod}(N)$  for increasing values of  $n$
- ▶ Repeated pattern: 1, 2, 4, 8, 7, 5
- ▶ The period:  $r = 6$
- ▶ **Period finding** is a classically difficult problem BUT:
  - ▶  $p = \text{gcd}(N, x+1) = \text{gcd}(N, a^{\frac{r}{2}}+1)$
  - ▶  $q = \text{gcd}(N, x-1) = \text{gcd}(N, a^{\frac{r}{2}}-1)$
- ▶ Finding the period between  $N$  and  $a$  will allow us to find the factors of  $N$ !

# Shor's Algorithm

# Shor's Algorithm Step 1

- ▶ If  $N$  is the number we wish to factorize, choose an value for  $a$  where:
  - ▶  $1 < a < N$
  - ▶  $\gcd(a, N) = 1$ 
    - ▶  $a$  and  $N$  share no common factors

## Shor's Algorithm Step 2

- ▶ Find the period between  $a$  and  $N$ , classically hard so use a quantum algorithm! But how?
- ▶ Consider the quantum gate  $U_{a,N}$  which will perform modular exponentiation:
  - ▶  $U_{a,N}|x\rangle = |x \bmod(N)\rangle$
  - ▶ Transforms the state  $|x\rangle$  to the state  $|x \bmod(N)\rangle$ 
    - ▶  $|x\rangle$  is just a random quantum state,  $|x \bmod(N)\rangle$  is still a quantum state that is altered by the  $U_{a,N}$  gate
- ▶ **Note 1:** The form and construction of the  $U_{a,N}$  gate is beyond the scope of the class. It will be used as a black box gate.
- ▶ **Note 2:**  $U_{a,N}$  can be represented as  $U$  in the remaining slides for brevity



## The Modular Exponentiation Gate

- ▶ Apply the gate multiple times to get powers of  $a$  in  $\text{mod}(N)$

$$U_{a,N}^0|1\rangle = |1 \bmod(N)\rangle$$

$$U_{a,N}^1|1\rangle = |a \bmod(N)\rangle$$

$$U_{a,N}^2|1\rangle = |a^2 \bmod(N)\rangle$$

$$U_{a,N}^3|1\rangle = |a^3 \bmod(N)\rangle$$

...

$$U_{a,N}^r|1\rangle = |a^r \bmod(N)\rangle = |1 \bmod(N)\rangle$$

## Constructing the Statevector

- ▶ Consider the variable  $\theta_s = 2\pi is$ , where  $s$  is an integer,  $0 \leq s < r-1$ :
- ▶ Then, we can construct the following quantum state:

$$|u_s\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} e^{-j\theta_s/r} |a^j \bmod(N)\rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} |u_s\rangle = & \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} (e^{-0\theta_s/r} |a^0 \bmod(N)\rangle \\ & + e^{-1\theta_s/r} |a^1 \bmod(N)\rangle + \dots + \\ & e^{-(r-2)\theta_s/r} |a^{r-2} \bmod(N)\rangle \\ & + e^{-(r-1)\theta_s/r} |a^{r-1} \bmod(N)\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

## Apply the Modular Exponentiation Gate

$$\begin{aligned} U|u_s\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}(e^{-0\theta_s/r}U|a^0 \bmod(N)\rangle) \\ &\quad + e^{-1\theta_s/r}U|a^1 \bmod(N)\rangle + \dots \\ &\quad + e^{-(r-2)\theta_s/r}U|a^{r-2} \bmod(N)\rangle \\ &\quad + e^{-(r-1)\theta_s/r}U|a^{r-1} \bmod(N)\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

## Apply the Modular Exponentiation Gate

$$\begin{aligned}
 U|u_s\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}(e^{-0\theta_s/r}|a^1 \bmod(N)\rangle \\
 &+ e^{-1\theta_s/r}|a^2 \bmod(N)\rangle + \dots \\
 &+ e^{-(r-2)\theta_s/r}|a^{r-1} \bmod(N)\rangle \\
 &+ e^{-(r-1)\theta_s/r}|a^r \bmod(N)\rangle)
 \end{aligned}$$

## Multiply by a Factor

► Now multiply the state by  $e^{\theta_s/r} e^{-\theta_s/r} = 1$

$$\begin{aligned}
 U|u_s\rangle &= e^{\theta_s/r} e^{-\theta_s/r} \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} (e^{-0\theta_s/r} |a^1 \bmod(N)\rangle \\
 &\quad + e^{-1\theta_s/r} |a^2 \bmod(N)\rangle + \dots \\
 &\quad + e^{-(r-2)\theta_s/r} |a^{r-1} \bmod(N)\rangle \\
 &\quad + e^{-(r-1)\theta_s/r} |a^r \bmod(N)\rangle)
 \end{aligned}$$

## Distribute the negative exponent term

$$\begin{aligned}
 U|u_s\rangle &= e^{\theta_s/r} \frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} (e^{-1\theta_s/r} |a^1 \bmod(N)\rangle \\
 &\quad + e^{-2\theta_s/r} |a^2 \bmod(N)\rangle + \dots \\
 &\quad + e^{-(r-1)\theta_s/r} |a^{r-1} \bmod(N)\rangle \\
 &\quad + e^{-(r)\theta_s/r} |a^r \bmod(N)\rangle)
 \end{aligned}$$

## Redefine the Last Term

- BUT note that  $e^{-r\theta_s/r} = e^{-0\theta_s/r}$  and  
 $|a^r \bmod(N)\rangle = |1 \bmod(N)\rangle = |a^0 \bmod N\rangle$

$$\begin{aligned} U|u_s\rangle &= e^{\theta_s/r} e^{\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}} (e^{-1\theta_s/r} |a^1 \bmod(N)\rangle \\ &\quad + e^{-2\theta_s/r} |a^2 \bmod(N)\rangle + \dots \\ &\quad + e^{-(r-1)\theta_s/r} |a^{r-1} \bmod(N)\rangle \\ &\quad + e^{-(0)\theta_s/r} |a^0 \bmod(N)\rangle) \\ &= e^{\theta_s/r} |u_s\rangle \end{aligned}$$

# Eigenvalue Problem!

$$U|u_s\rangle = e^{\theta_s/r}|u_s\rangle$$

$$U|u_s\rangle = e^{2\pi i(\frac{s}{r})}|u_s\rangle$$

- ▶ Measuring eigenvalues on a quantum computer → **quantum phase estimation!**



## Constructing the Statevector

- ▶ Remember that  $0 \leq s \leq r - 1$  so there are  $r$  possible values for  $|u_s\rangle$
- ▶ It turns out that the easiest one to construct is a superposition of all  $r$  states:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}} \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} |u_s\rangle = |1 \bmod(N)\rangle = |1\rangle$$

- ▶ So we just need to construct the eigenvector qubit of the QPE algorithm in the  $|1\rangle$  state!
  - ▶ **Consequence of the superposition:** Since the eigenvector qubit is in a superposition, the eigenvalue is also in a superposition of all possible  $s$  values until measurement  $\rightarrow$  the measurement collapses the eigenvalue to one value of  $s$ !

## Shor's Algorithm Step 2 REVISED

- ▶ Construct a QPE algorithm with the  $U_{a,N}$  and measure the eigenvalue. If the eigenvalue is 0 ( $s = 0$ ), then remeasure.
- ▶ The eigenvalue is  $e^{2\pi i(\frac{s}{r})}$  which we can convert into  $\frac{s}{r}$ .

## Shor's Algorithm Step 3

- ▶ Convert the decimal approximation of  $\frac{s}{r}$  to a fraction.
- ▶ This will be done on a classical computer using a process called **continued fractions**

## Continued Fractions

- ▶ Example: Consider the decimal 0.312
- ▶ 0.312 can be written as  $\frac{312}{1000}$  which is equivalent to:

$$0.312 = \frac{1}{\frac{1000}{312}}$$

- ▶ But  $\frac{1000}{312} = 3 + \frac{1000-936}{312} = 3 + \frac{64}{312} = 3 + \frac{8}{39}$ , so

$$0.312 = \frac{1}{3 + \frac{8}{39}}$$

## Continued Fractions (Cont.)

- ▶ But that is equivalent to

$$0.312 = \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{\frac{39}{8}}}$$

- ▶ And here we have  $\frac{39}{8} = 4 + \frac{7}{8}$ , so

$$0.312 = \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{4 + \frac{7}{8}}}$$

- ▶ But this is the same as

$$0.312 = \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{4 + \frac{1}{\frac{8}{7}}}}$$

- ▶ And  $\frac{8}{7} = 1 + \frac{1}{7}$ , so

## Continued Fractions (Cont.)

$$0.312 = \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{4 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{7}}}}$$

\* Now we can approximate 0.312 as:

▶  $0.312 \approx \frac{1}{3}(0.333)$

▶  $0.312 \approx \frac{1}{3+1/4}(0.307)$

▶  $0.312 \approx \frac{1}{3+\frac{1}{4+1/1}}(0.312)$

▶ When doing this step with Shor's algorithm, choose the approximation where  $r$  is even and less than  $N$ .

## Shor's Algorithm **Complete**

- ▶ Step 1: To factor a number,  $N$ , choose a number  $a$  such that  $1 < a < N$  and  $\gcd(a, N) = 1$
- ▶ Set up a QPE algorithm with the  $U_{a, N}$  gate to get a decimal estimation of  $\frac{s}{r}$  (**quantum step**)
- ▶ Use continued fractions to convert  $\frac{s}{r}$  to a fraction and obtain  $r$  (**classical step**)
- ▶  $\gcd(a^{r/2} - 1, N)$  and/or  $\gcd(a^{r/2} + 1, N)$  are likely the factors of  $N$ . If not, repeat the algorithm.

## Shor's Algorithm in Practice:

- ▶ Consider  $N = 15$ , then  $p = 3$  and  $q = 5$
- ▶ Step 1: Let  $a = 7$ , since  $1 < 7 < 15$  and  $\gcd(7, 15) = 1$ .
- ▶ **Jupyter Time!**



# Shor's Algorithm in Practice

- ▶ To crack RSA encryptions, need a fault tolerant quantum computer with millions of qubits