

Sieve-based factoring algorithms

From bicycle chains to number fields

Eran Tromer

`tromer@wisdom.weizmann.ac.il`

Weizmann Institute of Science

Factoring by square root extraction

Factoring a composite n can be reduced to computing square roots modulo n . Given a black box $\boxed{\sqrt{\quad}}$:

Pick $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ randomly and compute $x^2 \rightarrow \boxed{\sqrt{\quad}} \rightarrow y$.

With probability at least $1/2$,

$$x^2 \equiv y^2, \quad x \not\equiv \pm y \pmod{n}$$

and then $\gcd(x - y, n)$ is a non-trivial factor of n .

Fermat's method

Special case: $n = x^2 - y^2$ (*difference of squares*)

- Find $x > \sqrt{n}$ such that $x^2 - n$ is a square.
- Equivalently (by $x = a + \lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil$):

$$f(a) = \left(a - \lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil\right)^2 - n$$

$$g(a) = \left(a - \lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil\right)^2 \quad \leftarrow \text{always a square}$$

Try $a = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ until you find a such that $f(a)$ is also a square over \mathbb{Z} .

- Compute $x = \sqrt{g(a)}$, $y = \sqrt{f(a)}$ over \mathbb{Z} .

Idea #1: exploit regularity

for any prime p

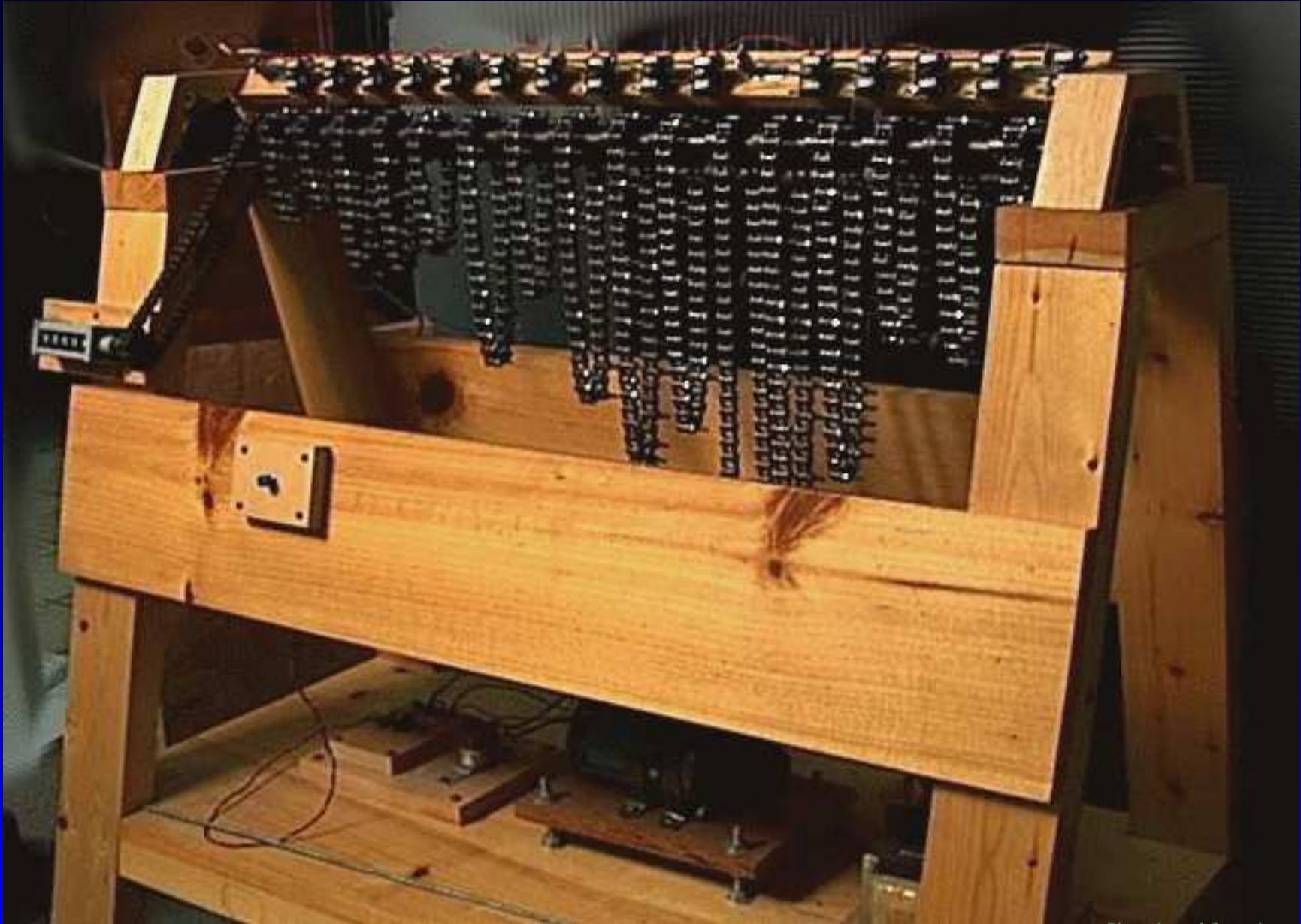
$f(a)$ is a
square over \mathcal{Z}

\implies

$f(a)$ is 0 or a quadratic
residue modulo p :
 $\left(\frac{f(a)}{p}\right) \in \{0, 1\}$

- $f(a) \pmod{p}$ has period p .
- About half the values in this period are “good” (quadratic residues or 0).
- We can easily compute these periods.

Lehmer's bicycle chain sieve [1928] (implementation of Fermat's method)

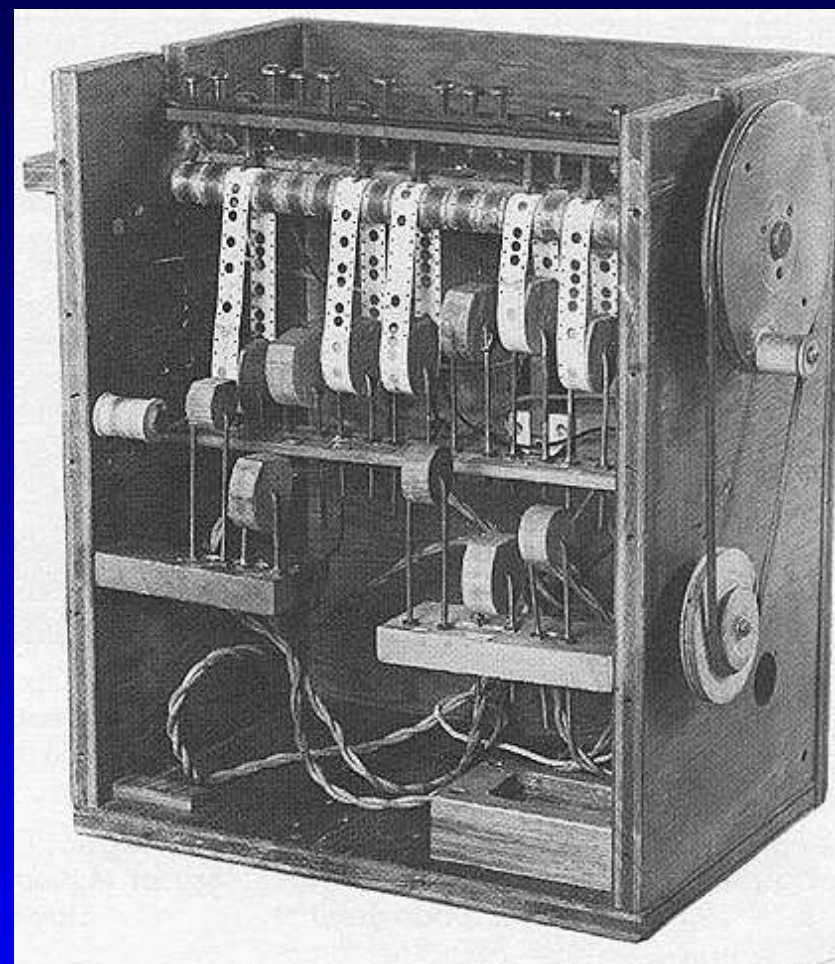


Lehmer's movie film sieve [1932] (implementation of Fermat's method)

Choose many small primes
and precompute the corre-
sponding periods of $\left(\frac{f(a)}{p}\right)$.

Scan $a = 1, 2, 3, \dots$
sequentially while keeping
track of the index in each
period.

When all periods are at a
“good” value, stop and
(hopefully) compute
 $\sqrt{f(a)}$.



Complexity of Fermat's method

The efficient sieving hardware is nice, but doesn't change the asymptotic performance.

There are only \sqrt{n} squares smaller than n , so for a general n we expect to sieve for about \sqrt{n} steps.

This is worse than trial division!

Idea #2: Combine relations

[Morrison, Brillhart 1975]

Let $f'(a) = a^2 \bmod n$, $g'(a) = a^2$.

It's too hard to directly find $a > \sqrt{n}$ such that $f'(a)$ is a square, so instead find a nonempty set $S \subset \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\prod_{a \in S} f'(a)$ is a square. Then compute x, y such that

$$\prod_{a \in S} f'(a) = y^2, \quad \prod_{a \in S} g'(a) = x^2$$

Because $\forall a : f'(a) \equiv g'(a) \pmod{n}$, we get

$$x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$$

and $\gcd(x - y, n)$ may be a non-trivial factor of n .

Idea #2: Combine relations (example)

$$f'(629) = 102$$

$$f'(792) = 33$$

$$f'(120) = 1495$$

$$f'(105) = 84$$

$$f'(52) = 616$$

$$f'(403) = 145$$

$$f'(201) = 42$$

⋮

Idea #2: Combine relations (example)

$f'(629)$	$=$	102	$=$	2	3		17	
$f'(792)$	$=$	33	$=$		3		11	
$f'(120)$	$=$	1495	$=$			5	13	23
$f'(105)$	$=$	84	$=$	2^2	3		7	
$f'(52)$	$=$	616	$=$	2^3			7	11
$f'(403)$	$=$	145	$=$			5		29
$f'(201)$	$=$	42	$=$	2	3		7	
				\vdots				

Idea #2: Combine relations (example)

	$f'(629) = 102 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 17$
→	$f'(792) = 33 = 3 \cdot 11$
	$f'(120) = 1495 = 5 \cdot 13 \cdot 23$
	$f'(105) = 84 = 2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 7$
→	$f'(52) = 616 = 2^3 \cdot 7 \cdot 11$
	$f'(403) = 145 = 5 \cdot 29$
→	$f'(201) = 42 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 7$

$$\prod_{a \in \{792, 52, 201\}} f'(a) = 2^4 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5^0 \cdot 7^2 \cdot 11^2$$

A square because all exponents are even.

Dixon's algorithm [1981]

How to find S such that $\prod_{a \in S} f'(a)$ is a square?

Consider only the $\pi(B)$ primes smaller than a bound B , and search for $f'(a)$ values that are B -smooth (i.e., factor into primes smaller than B).

- Pick random $a \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ and check if $f'(a)$ is B -smooth. If so, represent it as a vector of exponents:
 $f'(a) = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} p_3^{e_3} \cdots p_k^{e_k} \mapsto (e_1, e_2, e_3, \dots, e_k)$
- Find a subset S of these vectors whose sum has even entries: place the vectors as the rows of a matrix A and find v such that $vA \equiv \vec{0} \pmod{2}$.

$\prod_{a \in S} f'(a) = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} p_3^{e_3} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$ where e_i are all even, so it's a square.

Complexity of Dixon's algorithm

- Let $\rho(\gamma, B)$ be the probability that a random number around γ is B -smooth. Since $f'(a)$ is distributed randomly in $\{0, \dots, n - 1\}$, each trial finds a relation with probability $\sim \rho(n, B)$.
- We need $\pi(B) + 1$ relations. Thus, we need roughly $\pi(B) / \rho(n, B)$ trials.
- In each trial we check divisibility by $\pi(B)$ primes.
- Tradeoff:
 - Decrease $B \rightarrow$ relations are rarer (smaller ρ).
 - Increase $B \rightarrow$ more relations are needed and they are harder to identify. Also, computing S is harder since the matrix is larger.

Complexity of Dixon's algorithm (cont.)

- Time complexity for optimal choice of B :
 $e^{(c+o(1))} \cdot (\log n)^{1/2} \cdot (\log \log n)^{1/2}$
- Simple implementation: $c = 2$
(trial division, Gaussian elimination)
- Improved implementation: $c = \sqrt{2}$
(ECM factorization, Lancos/Wiedemann kernel)
- The approach of combining relations works very well, but we can do better.

The Quadratic Sieve [Pomerance]

Dixon's method looks at the values $f'(a), g'(a)$ for random a . $f'(a) = a^2 \bmod n \sim n$

$$g'(a) = a^2$$

Instead look at $f(a), g(a)$ for $a = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ as in Fermat's method:

$$f(a) = \left(a - \left\lceil \sqrt{n} \right\rceil\right)^2 - n \sim 2a\sqrt{n}$$

$$g(a) = \left(a - \left\lceil \sqrt{n} \right\rceil\right)^2$$

Smaller numbers are more likely to be smooth!

$$\rho(\sqrt{n}, B) \gg \rho(n, B).$$

The Quadratic Sieve – remember Lehmer

- Task: find many a for which $f(a)$ is B -smooth.
- We look for a such that $p|f(a)$ for many large p :

$$\sum_{p:p|f(a)} \log p > T \approx \log f(a)$$

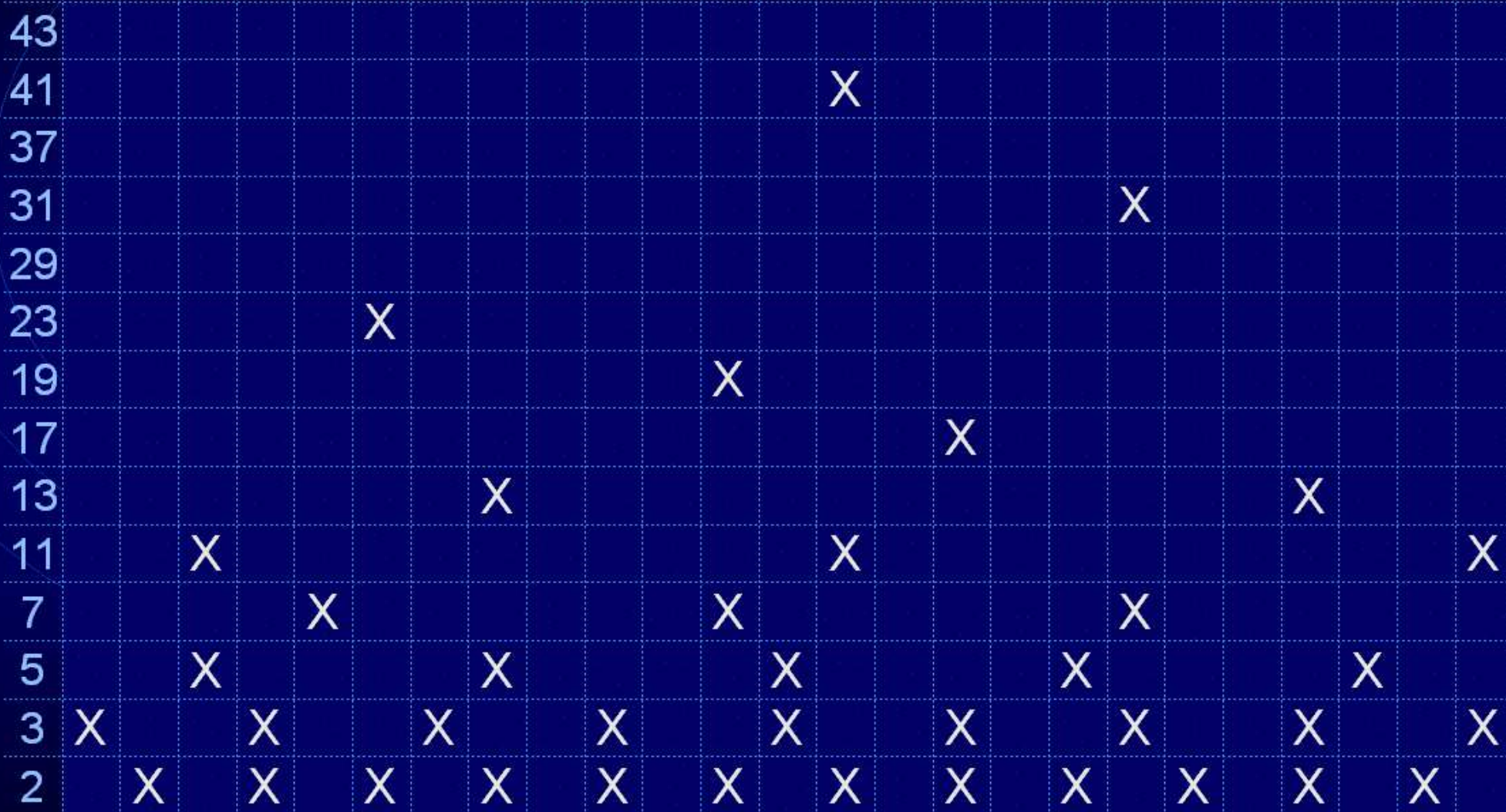
- Each prime p “hits” at arithmetic progressions:

$$\begin{aligned} \{a : p|f(a)\} &= \{a : f(a) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}\} \\ &= \bigcup_i \{r_i + kp : k \in \mathbb{Z}\} \end{aligned}$$

where r_i are the roots modulo p of the polynomial f (there are either 0 or 2; one on average).

The Quadratic Sieve (cont.)

primes



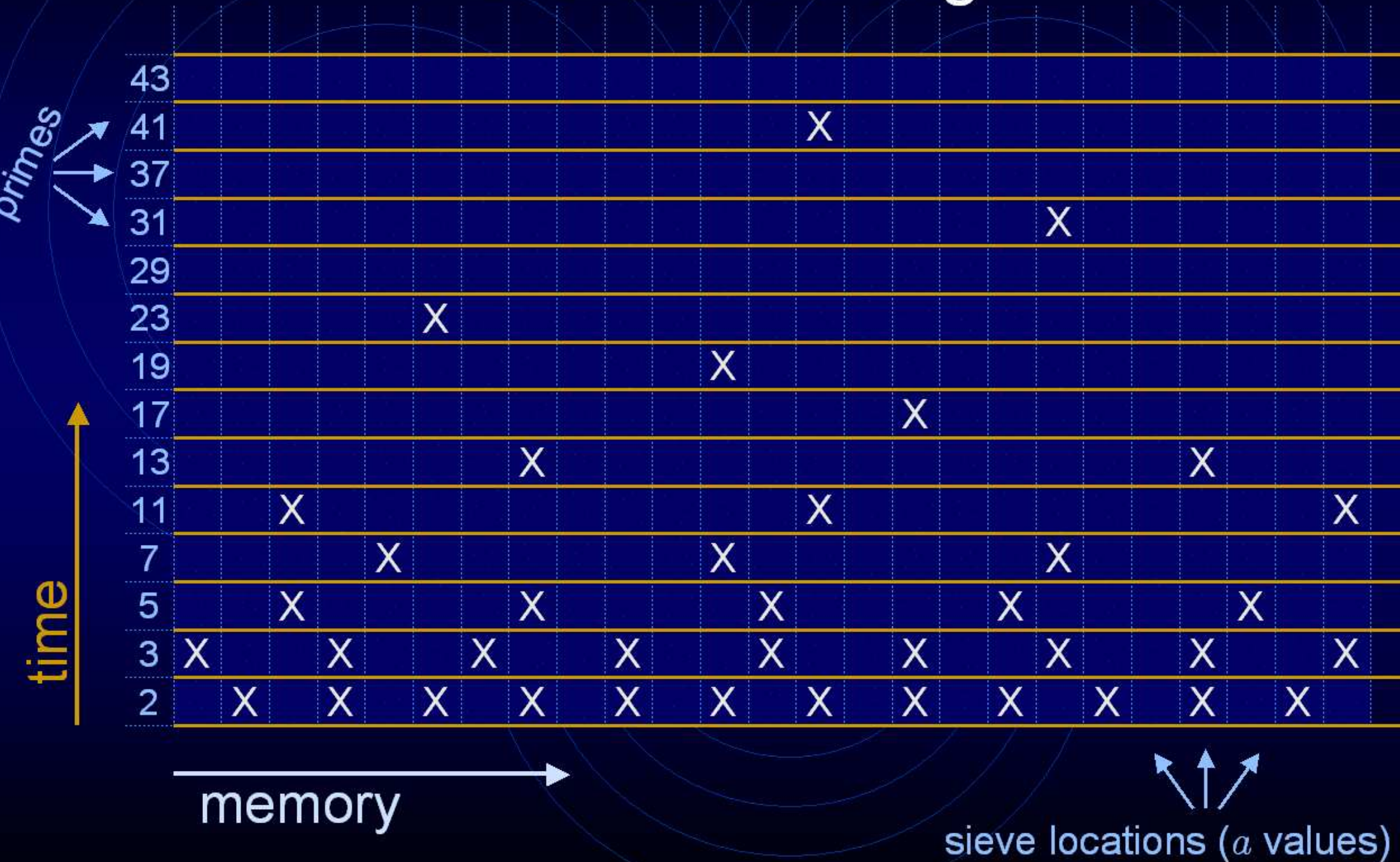
sieve locations (*a* values)

TWINKLE

[Shamir 1999]



PC-based sieving



Complexity of the Quadratic Sieve

- Conjectured time for optimal choice of B :

$$e^{(c+o(1)) \cdot (\log n)^{1/2}} \cdot (\log \log n)^{1/2}$$

with $c = 1$, compared to $c = \sqrt{2}$ for Dixon's algorithm

⇒ can factor integers that are twice longer.

- Variants — self initializing multiple polynomial quadratic sieve.
- Subexponential time, subexponential space but can practically factor integers up to ~ 400 bits.
- Can we decrease the $(\log n)^{1/2}$ term in the exponent?

Can we?

Key observation: the $e^{\cdots(\log n)^{1/2}\cdots}$ is there essentially because we sieve over numbers of size $\sim n^{1/2}$, which aren't very likely to be smooth.

Find a way to sieve over smaller numbers!

But we don't know how to do that with quadratic polynomials...

The Number Field Sieve

[Pollard, Lenstra, Lenstra, Manasse, Adleman, Montgomery, . . . 1988–]

As before we have two polynomials f , g that are related modulo n , but now the relation is more subtle: f and g both have a known root m modulo n .

$$f(m) \equiv g(m) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$$

Also, suppose f and g are monic and irreducible. Let α be a complex root of f . Consider the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ (equivalently, $\mathbb{Z}[x]/(f(x))$). The members of this ring are of the form

$$q(\alpha) = q_0 + q_1\alpha + q_2\alpha^2 + \cdots + q_{d-1}\alpha^{d-1}.$$

Operations in this ring are done modulo $f(\alpha)$, simply because $f(\alpha) = 0$.

Similarly define $\mathbb{Z}[\beta]$, where β is a complex root of g .

The Number Field Sieve (cont.)

Consider the ring homomorphism $\phi : \mathbb{Z}[\alpha] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$ defined by $\phi : \alpha \mapsto m$ (i.e., replacing all occurrences of α with m). Likewise, $\psi : \mathbb{Z}[\beta] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$, $\psi : \beta \mapsto m$.

Suppose we found a set of integer pairs $S \subset \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ and also $q(\alpha) \in \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ and $t(\beta) \in \mathbb{Z}[\beta]$ such that

$$q(\alpha)^2 = \prod_{(a,b) \in S} (a - b\alpha) \quad \text{over } \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$$

$$t(\beta)^2 = \prod_{(a,b) \in S} (a - b\beta) \quad \text{over } \mathbb{Z}[\beta] \quad \text{Then mod } n \dots$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \phi(q(\alpha))^2 &\equiv \phi\left(\prod_{(a,b) \in S} (a - b\alpha)\right) \\ \psi(t(\beta))^2 &\equiv \psi\left(\prod_{(a,b) \in S} (a - b\beta)\right) \end{aligned} \right\} \equiv \prod_{(a,b) \in S} (a - bm)$$

The Number Field Sieve

$$\prod_{(a,b) \in S} (a - b\alpha) = q(\alpha)^2 \quad \text{over } \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$$

?!

The Number Field Sieve

Let $F(a, b) = b^{\deg f} f(a/b)$. It turns out that

$\prod_{(a,b) \in S} (a - b\alpha)$ is a square in $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$

$\implies \prod_{(a,b) \in S} F(a, b)$ is a square in \mathbb{Z}

Moreover, the converse “almost” holds.

Therefore, we can work as before: find (a, b) pairs such that $F(a, b)$ is B -smooth, compute their exponent vectors and find dependencies.

To find pairs, we fix values of b and sieve over a .

We do the same for g and $\mathbb{Z}[\beta]$, and find S that satisfies both conditions.

Complexity of the Number Field Sieve

- The point: wisely choose f, g so that their values near 0 are small and therefore likely to be smooth.
- Specifically, we choose f, g of degree $d \approx (\log n / \log \log n)^{1/3}$ and the $F(a, b)$ and $G(a, b)$ values we test for smoothness have size roughly $n^{2/d}$ (vs. $n^{1/2}$ for the QS).
- Conjectured time for optimal parameter choice:
 $e^{(c+o(1)) \cdot (\log n)^{1/3} \cdot (\log \log n)^{2/3}}$ with $c \approx 2$.
- Successfully factored 512-bit and 524-bit composites, at considerable effort.
- Appears scalable to 1024-bit composites using custom-built hardware.

Probability of smoothness

Let $\rho(\gamma, \beta)$ be the probability that a random number around γ is β -smooth. Asymptotically:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \gamma &= e^{c_1 (\log n)^{d_1} \cdot (\log \log n)^{1-d_1}} \\ \beta &= e^{c_2 (\log n)^{d_2} \cdot (\log \log n)^{1-d_2}} \end{aligned} \right\} \rightarrow$$

$$\rho(\gamma, \beta) =$$

$$e^{(-c_1(d_1-d_2)/c_2 + o(1)) \cdot (\log n)^{d_1-d_2} \cdot (\log \log n)^{1-(d_1-d_2)}}$$