

6.2. The Integer Factorization Problem

Given composite n . Assume that n has a prime factor p such that $p-1$ has all prime factors $\leq \beta$.

Algorithm Pollard-($p-1$)

Choose $a > 1$ (often $a=2$)
 Compute $b = a^{\beta!} \bmod n$
 Compute $d = \gcd(b-1, n)$
 If $1 < d < n$ then d is a nontrivial factor n .

Proof that Pollard-($p-1$) is correct:

Assume p is a prime factor of n s.t. $p-1$ has all prime factors $\leq \beta$.

Then $p-1 \mid \beta!$, i.e., $\beta! = k(p-1)$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

By Fermat's theorem

$$a^{\beta!} \equiv (a^{p-1})^k \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

Hence, $a^{\beta!} - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, such that

$\gcd(a^{\beta!} - 1, n)$ is a factor of n . \square

Remarks:

a) Compute $a^{B!} \bmod n$ as follows

$$b_1 = a \bmod n, \quad b_j = b_{j-1}^j \bmod n, \quad j=2, \dots, B.$$

b) $B!$ can be substituted by

$$\prod_{\substack{q \leq B \\ q \text{ prime}}} q^{\lfloor \ln n / \ln q \rfloor}$$

Note $q^{\lfloor \ln n / \ln q \rfloor} \leq n$

since: $l \leq \frac{\ln n}{\ln q} \Leftrightarrow l \ln q \leq \ln n$
 $\Leftrightarrow q^l \leq n$

still $(p-1) \mid \prod_{\substack{q \leq B \\ q \text{ prime}}} q^{\lfloor \ln n / \ln q \rfloor}$ holds.

To protect against Pollard-(p-1) select

$n = p \cdot q$ s.t. $p-1$ and $q-1$ have at least one large prime factor. How \rightarrow exercise (TrappezWash.)

Improvement of Pollard-(p-1) is 'elliptic curve factoring'.

Another principle of factoring alg. is:

Example: Factor 8051

$$\begin{aligned} 8051 &= 8100 - 49 = 90^2 - 7^2 \\ &= (90+7)(90-7) = 97 \cdot 83 \end{aligned}$$

Prop. 6.8. $x \not\equiv \pm y \pmod{n}$, $x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$

$\Rightarrow \gcd(x-y, n)$ is a nontrivial divisor of n .

Proof. $x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$, i.e., $n \mid (x^2 - y^2)$.

Hence $n \mid (x+y)(x-y)$. By assumption

$n \nmid (x+y)$ and $n \nmid (x-y)$, which shows the assertion. \square

- Prop. 6.8. forms the basis of 'quadratic sieve factoring'. Problem: determine x, y as above.

[Stinson (2002), p. 182-194]

- $\gcd(a, b)$ can be efficiently computed by the Euclidean algorithm, see section 6.3.

Factoring in practice

Presently 3 methods are most successful

- quadratic sieve
- elliptic curve factorization
- number field sieve (most powerful)

They are "subexponential", not polynomial

History of factoring

- 1994: RSA-129 quadr. sieve, 600 workstations
- 1996: RSA-130
- 1999: RSA-155 8 400 MIPS-years, 300 PCs
- 2003: RSA-174
- 2005: RSA-193 5 months, 80 2.2 GHz Opteron CPU
- 2010: RSA-232 almost 2 years (12 authors)

Factoring is considered as a one-way function.

- "Easy": Given 2 prime p, q - Compute $n = p \cdot q$
- "Computationally infeasible", "hopeless"
Given $n = p \cdot q$, p, q prime, unknown
Determine p and q .

6.3. The Extended Euclidean Algorithm

Know: $\gcd(a, n) = 1 \Leftrightarrow \exists$ inverse s st. $a \cdot s \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

Aim: efficient alg. for computing $s = a^{-1}$.

Euclidean algorithm: Let $r_0 > r_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ (*)

$$r_0 = q_1 r_1 + r_2, \quad 0 < r_2 < r_1$$

$$r_1 = q_2 r_2 + r_3, \quad 0 < r_3 < r_2$$

⋮

$$r_{k-2} = q_{k-1} r_{k-1} + r_k, \quad 0 < r_k < r_{k-1}$$

$$r_{k-1} = q_k r_k$$

$$r_2 = r_0 - q_1 r_1 = s_2 r_0 + t_2 r_1$$

$$r_3 = r_1 - q_2 r_2 = s_3 r_0 + t_3 r_1$$

⋮

$$r_k = s_k r_0 + t_k r_1$$

It holds that

$$\gcd(r_0, r_1) = \gcd(r_1, r_2) = \dots = \gcd(r_{k-1}, r_k) = r_k$$

[since $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a - qb)$]

If $\gcd(r_0, r_1) = 1$, then $s_k r_0 + t_k r_1 = 1$

$$\Rightarrow t_k r_1 \equiv 1 - s_k r_0 \equiv 1 \pmod{r_0}, \text{ i.e., } t_k \equiv r_1^{-1} \pmod{r_0}$$

Define recursively (according to the r.h.s. of (*))

$$t_0 = 0, \quad t_1 = 1, \quad t_j = (t_{j-2} - q_{j-1} t_{j-1}) \pmod{r_0}, \quad j \geq 2$$

Th. 6.8. $r_j \equiv t_j \cdot r_1 \pmod{r_0}, \quad j = 0, \dots, k-1$

Proof. (by induction)

$$j=0: \quad r_0 \equiv t_0 r_1 \pmod{r_0}$$

$$j=1: \quad r_1 \equiv t_1 r_1 \pmod{r_0}$$

$(j-2, j-1) \rightarrow j$:

$$\begin{aligned} r_j &\stackrel{\text{Eucl. alg.}}{=} r_{j-2} - q_{j-1} r_{j-1} \stackrel{\text{d.v.}}{=} t_{j-2} r_1 - q_{j-1} t_{j-1} r_1 \\ &\equiv (t_{j-2} - q_{j-1} t_{j-1}) r_1 \equiv t_j r_1 \pmod{r_0}. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Corollary 6.9. $\gcd(r_0, r_1) = 1 \Rightarrow t_k = r_1^{-1} \pmod{r_0}$.

Number of divisions in the Eucl. alg.

$$\leq \log_{\phi}(\sqrt{5} r_0) - 2, \quad \phi = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5})$$

"golden ratio"

(cf. Knuth II, Chap. 4.5.3, p. 320)

Least favorable if r_0, r_1 are successive Fibonacci numbers.

1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 ...

6.4. The Chinese Remainder Theorem

Theorem 6.10.

Suppose m_1, \dots, m_r are pairwise relatively prime,
 $a_1, \dots, a_r \in \mathbb{N}$. The system of r congruences

$$x \equiv a_i \pmod{m_i}, \quad i = 1, \dots, r$$

has a unique solution modulo $M = m_1 \cdots m_r$, given by

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^r a_i M_i y_i \pmod{M}$$

where $M_i = M/m_i$, $y_i = M_i^{-1} \pmod{m_i}$, $i = 1, \dots, r$. \dagger

Example:

$$r=3, m_1=7, m_2=11, m_3=13$$

$$\Rightarrow M=1001, M_1=143, M_2=91, M_3=77$$

$$y_1^{\leftarrow} = 143^{-1} \pmod{7} = 3^{-1} \pmod{7} = 5$$

$$y_2 = 4, y_3 = 12$$

Solution of

$x \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$	$(a_1=5)$
$x \equiv 3 \pmod{11}$	$(a_2=3)$
$x \equiv 10 \pmod{13}$	$(a_3=10)$

$$\text{is } x = 5 \cdot 143 \cdot 5 + 3 \cdot 91 \cdot 4 + 10 \cdot 77 \cdot 12 \pmod{1001} \\ = 894.$$