## Factoring Algorithms Pollard's p-1 Method

This method discovers a prime factor p of an integer n whenever p-1 has only small prime factors.

Input: n (to factor) and a limit B
Output: a proper factor of n or "fail"

```
a = 2
for (i = 2 to B) {
    a = a^i mod n
    if ( (g = gcd(a - 1, n) ) > 1) {
        print "g divides n"
            stop
            }
            print "fail"
```

Note that at the end of the *i*-th iteration of the loop we have  $a \equiv 2^{i!} \pmod{n}$ , so  $a \equiv 2^{i!} \pmod{p}$  if *p* divides *n*.

When *i* is large enough so that p-1 divides *i*!, say, i! = (p-1)m for some *m*, we will have

$$a \equiv 2^{i!} \equiv (2^{p-1})^m \equiv 1^m \equiv 1 \pmod{p},$$

by Fermat's little theorem, so p divides a-1. If p also divides n, then p divides g = gcd(a-1, n).

Occasionally, Pollard's p-1 method has a spectacular success, but it is unlikely to factor an RSA public modulus n.

However, when generating a large prime p for RSA one should factor p - 1 and be sure it contains a large prime factor. (A prime factor q of p - 1 is "large" if no adversary can do q operations.)

## Quadratic Sieve Method

Recall this theorem:

**Theorem**. If n = pq is the product of two distinct primes, and if  $x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$ , but  $x \not\equiv \pm y \pmod{n}$ , then gcd(x + y, n) = p or q.

**Proof**: We are given that *n* divides (x+y)(x-y) but not (x+y) or (x-y). Hence, one of *p*, *q* must divide (x+y) and the other must divide (x-y).

In fact, if n has more than two prime factors and the congruence conditions of the theorem hold, then gcd(x+y,n) and gcd(x-y,n) will be proper factors of n even if they are not prime. The conditions fail to lead to a proper factor of n only in case n is a power of a prime. The quadratic sieve algorithm tries to factor nsimply by finding x and y with  $x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$ , ignoring the conditions  $x \not\equiv \pm y \pmod{n}$ . (It just hopes for the best. Usually, it finds several such pairs x, y. Each pair succeeds in factoring n with probability at least 1/2.) **Definition**. An integer k is a square if there exists an integer x so that  $k = x^2$ .

The quadratic sieve method tries to factor n by finding two congruent squares modulo n.

How can one recognize a square?

Multiple choice question:

Which of these numbers is a square?

- a. 21
- b. 23
- c. 25
- d. 27
- e. 29

Which of these numbers is a square?

- a. 431641
- b. 431643
- c. 431645
- d. 431647
- e. 431649

This is harder.

Suppose I give you the prime factorizations of the numbers.

Which of these numbers is a square?

- a.  $431641 = 7^2 \cdot 23 \cdot 383$
- b.  $431643 = 3 \cdot 143881$
- c.  $431645 = 5 \cdot 131 \cdot 659$
- d.  $431647 = 17 \cdot 25391$
- e.  $431649 = 3^4 \cdot 73^2$

**Theorem**. If  $n = \prod_{i=1}^{k} p_i^{e_i}$  is the prime factorization of n into the product of powers of distinct primes, then n is square if and only if all exponents  $e_i$  are even numbers.

The quadratic sieve factoring algorithm finds congruences  $x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$  as follows.

Generate many "relations"  $j^2 \equiv m \pmod{n}$ , where *m* is small and therefore easy to factor. Factor the numbers *m* and match their prime factors to form a product of some *m*s in which each prime occurs as a factor an even number of times, so it is a square. Let  $y^2$  be the product of these *m*s. Let *x* be the product of the *j*s in the relations used to make  $y^2$ . Then  $x^2$ is the product of the  $j^2$ s, which is congruent to the the product of the *m*s. This product is  $y^2$  by the choice of relations. **Example**. Let us factor n = 1649. Note that  $\sqrt{n} \approx 40.6$ , so the numbers  $41^2 \mod n$ ,  $42^2 \mod n$ , ..., will be fairly small compared to n. We have

$$41^2 \equiv 1681 \equiv 32 = 2^5 \pmod{1649},$$

 $42^2 \equiv 1764 \equiv 115 = 5 \cdot 23 \pmod{1649}$ 

 $43^2 \equiv 1849 \equiv 200 = 2^3 \cdot 5^2 \pmod{1649}$ .

Now  $32 \cdot 200 = 2^8 \cdot 5^2 = 80^2$  is a square. Therefore,

$$(41 \cdot 43)^2 \equiv 80^2 \pmod{1649}.$$

Note that  $41 \cdot 43 = 1763 \equiv 114 \pmod{1649}$ and that  $114 \not\equiv \pm 80 \pmod{1649}$ . We get the factors of 1649 from gcd(114 - 80, 1649) = 17and gcd(114 + 80, 1649) = 97, so  $1649 = 17 \cdot 97$ . In a real application of the quadratic sieve there may be millions of relations  $j^2 \equiv m \pmod{n}$ with m factored. How can we efficiently match the prime factors of the ms to make each prime occur an even number of times?

Answer: Use linear algebra over the field  $\mathbf{F}_2$  with 2 elements.

Let  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_b$  be all of the prime numbers that occur as factors of any of the ms.

If  $m = \prod_{i=1}^{b} p_i^{e_i}$ , where each exponent  $e_i \ge 0$ , associate m to the vector

$$v(m) = (e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_b).$$

Multiplying ms corresponds to adding their associated vectors. If  $S \subseteq \{1, 2, ..., r\}$ , where r is the total number of relations, then  $\prod_{i \in S} m_i$  is a square if and only if  $\sum_{i \in S} v(m_i)$  has all even coordinates. Reduce the exponent vectors v(m) modulo 2 and think of them as vectors in the *b*-dimensional vector space  $\mathbf{F}_2^b$  over  $\mathbf{F}_2 = \{0, 1\}$ .

Linear combinations of distinct vectors v(m)correspond to subset sums. Finding a nonempty subset of integers whose product is a square is reduced to finding a linear dependency among the vectors v(m).

We know from linear algebra that if we have more vectors than the dimension b of the vector space (r > b), then there will be linear dependencies among the vectors.

Also from linear algebra we have efficient algorithms, such as matrix reduction, for finding linear dependencies. Row reduction over  $F_2$  is especially efficient because adding (or subtracting) two rows is the same as finding their exclusive-or.

The analysis of the quadratic sieve algorithm shows that its time complexity to factor n is about

$$e^{\sqrt{(\ln n)(\ln \ln n)}}$$

bit operations.

To understand what this means, consider  $e^{\sqrt{(\ln n)(\ln \ln n)}} \le e^{\sqrt{(\ln n)(\ln n)}} = e^{\ln n} = n$ 

and

$$e^{\sqrt{(\ln n)(\ln \ln n)}} \ge e^{\sqrt{(\ln \ln n)(\ln \ln n)}} = e^{\ln \ln n} = \ln n.$$

Thus,  $e^{\sqrt{(\ln n)(\ln \ln n)}} \leq n^{\varepsilon}$  for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $e^{\sqrt{(\ln n)(\ln \ln n)}} \geq (\ln n)^c$  for any constant c > 0. That is, the time complexity is subexponential but not polynomial time. Discrete Logarithms via Index Calculus

There is a faster way to solve  $a^x \equiv b \pmod{p}$ using a method similar to the integer factoring algorithm QS. It is called the **index calculus method**.

If  $a^x \equiv b \pmod{p}$ , then we write  $x = \text{Log}_a(b)$ . Note that  $\text{Log}_a(b)$  is an integer determined modulo p - 1 because of Fermat's theorem:  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

 $Log_a(b)$  is called the discrete logarithm of b to base a. (The modulus p is usually supressed.) Choose a factor base of primes  $p_1, \ldots, p_k$ , usually all primes  $\leq B$ . Perform the following precomputation which depends on a and p but not on b. For many random values of x, try to factor  $a^x \mod p$  using the primes in the factor base.

Save at least k + 20 of the factored residues:

$$a^{x_j} \equiv \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{e_{ij}} \pmod{p}$$
 for  $1 \le j \le k+20$ ,

or equivalently

 $x_j \equiv \sum_{i=1}^k e_{ij} \operatorname{Log}_a p_i \pmod{p-1} \text{ for } 1 \le j \le k+20.$ 

Use linear algebra to solve for the  $Log_a p_i$ .

When b is given, perform the following main computation to find  $\text{Log}_a b$ . Try many random values for s until one is found for which  $ba^s$  mod p can be factored using only the primes in the factor base.

Write it as

$$ba^s \equiv \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{c_i} \pmod{p}$$

or

$$(Log_a b) + s \equiv \sum_{i=1}^k c_i Log_a p_i \pmod{p-1}.$$

Substitute the values of  $Log_a p_i$  found in the precomputation to get  $Log_a b$ .

Using arguments like those for the running time of the quadratic sieve factoring algorithms, one can prove that the precomputation takes time

$$\exp\left(\sqrt{2\log p\log\log p}\right),$$

while the main computation takes time

$$\exp\left(\sqrt{\log p \log \log p}\right).$$