

# RSA, integer factorization, record computations

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<https://www.pepr-cybersecurite.fr/2023/11/10/ ecole-d-hiver-2024/>

These slides at <https://members.loria.fr/AGuillevic/files/teaching/24-Autrans.pdf>

# Outline

Introduction on RSA

Integer Factorization

Naive methods

Quadratic sieve

Sieving

Number Field Sieve

Record computations: RSA-240, RSA-250

Attacks on the RSA cryptosystem

Two French episodes

Bad randomness: gcd, Coppersmith attacks

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## Introduction: public-key cryptography

Introduced in 1976 (Diffie–Hellman, DH) and 1977 (Rivest–Shamir–Adleman, RSA)  
Asymmetric means distinct public and private keys

- encryption with a public key
- decryption with a private key
- deducing the private key from the public key is a very hard problem

Two hard problems:

- Integer factorization (for RSA)
- Discrete logarithm computation in a finite group (for Diffie–Hellman)

# Public-key encryption

Alice

Bob

# Public-key encryption

Alice

public key  $\text{PK}_A$

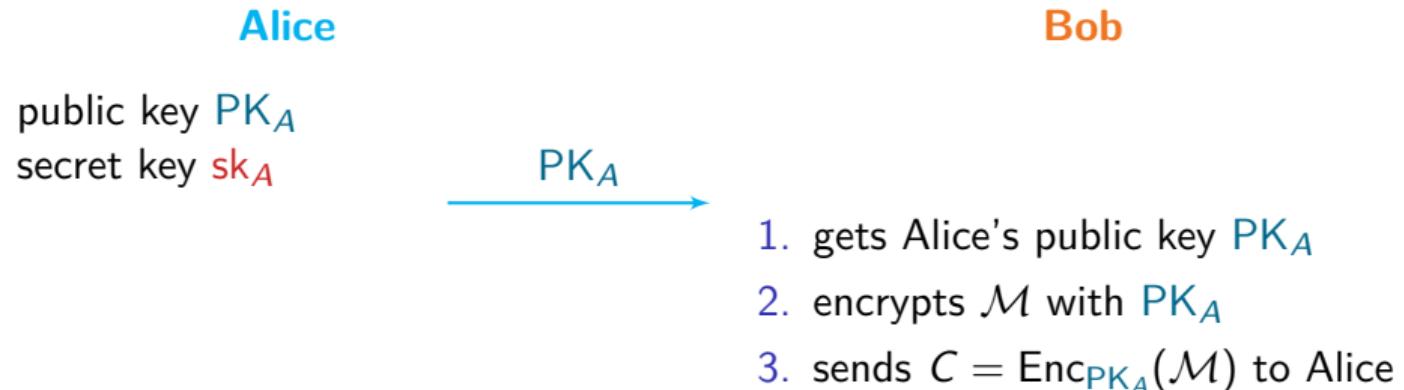
secret key  $\text{sk}_A$

Bob

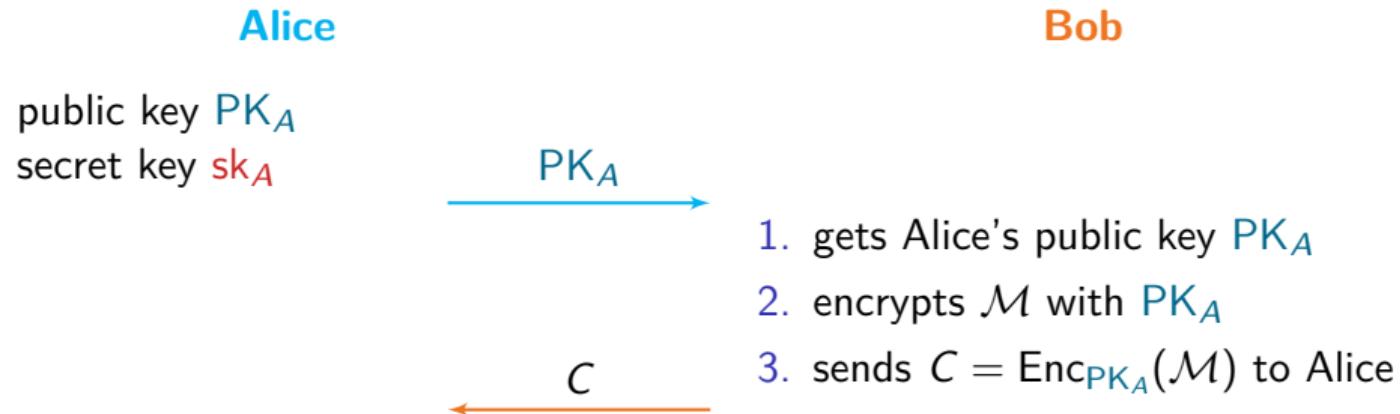
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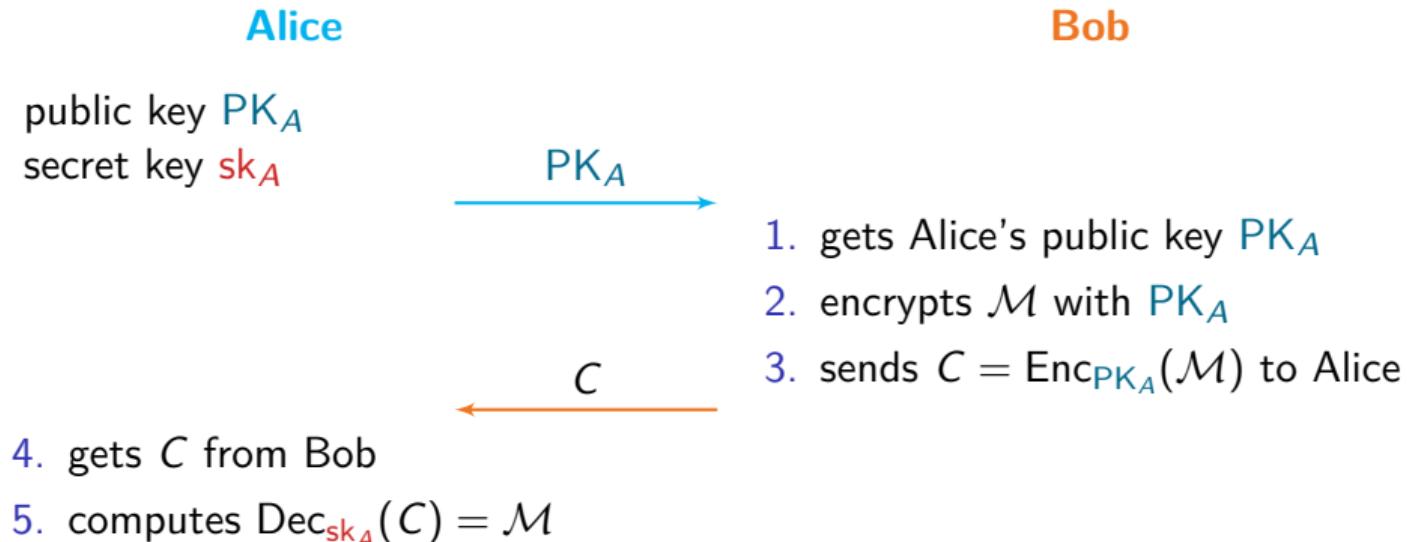
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## RSA Public-key encryption

Alice

Bob

secret primes  $p, q$ ,  $\varphi(N) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$

public modulus  $N = pq$ , encryption exponent  $e = 3$  or  $2^{16} + 1$

secret decryption exponent  $d = 1/e \bmod (p - 1)(q - 1)$

so that  $e \cdot d = 1 \bmod (p - 1)(q - 1)$

and  $x^{ed} = x \bmod N$

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Bob

$N, e$

gets Alice's public key  $N, e$   
encrypts  $M$  as  $C = m^e \bmod N$   
sends  $C$  to Alice

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gets  $C$  from Bob

computes  $C^d \bmod N = M$

## RSA Public-key encryption, toy example

Alice

Bob

secret primes  $p = 11, q = 17$

public key modulus  $N = 11 \cdot 17 = 187$ , exponent  $e = 3$

$(11 - 1)(17 - 1) = 160$ ,  $d = 1/3 \bmod 160 = 107$

so that  $3 \cdot 107 = 321 = 1 \bmod 160$

and  $x^{3 \cdot 107} = x \bmod N$

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encrypts  $M = 38$  as  $C = 38^3 \bmod 187 = 81$

sends  $C = 81$  to Alice

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$$\xleftarrow{C = 81}$$

gets  $C = 81$  from Bob

computes  $81^{107} \bmod 187 = 38 = M$

# RSA, how does it work?

1977, Rivest, Shamir, Adleman

- modulus  $N = p \times q$ ,  $p, q$  two distinct large primes
- arithmetic modulo  $N$ , in  $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z} = \{0, 1, \dots, N - 1\}$

The **multiplicative group** is the set of **invertible** integers in  $\{1, 2, \dots, N - 1\}$ .

invertible  $x$  means  $\gcd(x, N) = 1$ ,  $x$  coprime to  $N$ .

There are  $\varphi(N) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$  invertible integers in  $\{1, \dots, N - 1\}$

Hard tasks without knowing  $p, q$  if  $N$  is large enough:

- computing  $(p - 1)(q - 1)$ ,
- computing a square root  $\sqrt{x} = x^{1/2} \bmod N$ ,
- computing an  $e$ -th root  $x^{1/e} \bmod N$ .

## RSA, how does it work?

The security relies on the hardness of computing  $d$  from  $N$ , e.

$p, q$  are required to compute  $\varphi(N)$

→ security relies on the hardness of **integer factorization**.

Use cases:

ssh-keygen (linux), SSL-TLS, payment (chip) cards, PGP: Enigmails on Thunderbird, Protonmail.

Note that short keys are not allowed:

```
ssh-keygen -b 512 -t rsa
```

Invalid RSA key length: minimum is 1024 bits

## Weakness on exponents

For faster encryption, one can choose a short public exponent  $e$  (coprime to  $N$ ).

Two common choices of *prime* exponents:

- $e = 3$
- $e = 2^{16} + 1 = 65537$  (safer choice)

Old known facts/attacks:

- Knowing both the public and private exponents  $e, d$  gives a factorization of  $N$
- Short private exponent is a bad idea
  - faster decryption (at the cost of larger  $e$ , slower encryption), but
  - Wiener attack
  - Idea: continued fraction technique.

## Padding messages

$m \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, N - 1\}$ . Problems:

- $m = 0 \implies c = m^e = 0 \bmod N$
- $m = 1 \implies c = m^e = 1 \bmod N$
- $2 \leq m \leq \lfloor \sqrt[e]{N} \rfloor \implies c = m^e$  (no modular reduction)  $\implies m = c^{1/e}$  as an integer.

Standards (PKCS) define ways to fill the zeros (the unused bytes) between  $m$  and  $N$ .

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## Malleability

$$\begin{cases} c_1 = m_1^e \pmod{N} \\ c_2 = m_2^e \pmod{N} \end{cases} \implies c_1 \cdot c_2 \pmod{N} = (m_1 \cdot m_2)^e \pmod{N}$$

We don't want this property  $\rightarrow$  padding

## Choosing key sizes

**Symmetric ciphers** (AES): key sizes are 128, 192 or 256 bits.

Perfect symmetric cipher: trying all keys of size  $n$  bits takes  $2^n$  tests

→ **brute-force search**

perfect symmetric cipher with secret key in  $[0, 2^n - 1]$ , of  $n$  bits  $\leftrightarrow n$  bits of security

For RSA with  $N$  of length( $N$ ) bits:

$n$  bits of security  $\leftrightarrow$  the best (mathematical) attack should take at least  $2^n$  steps

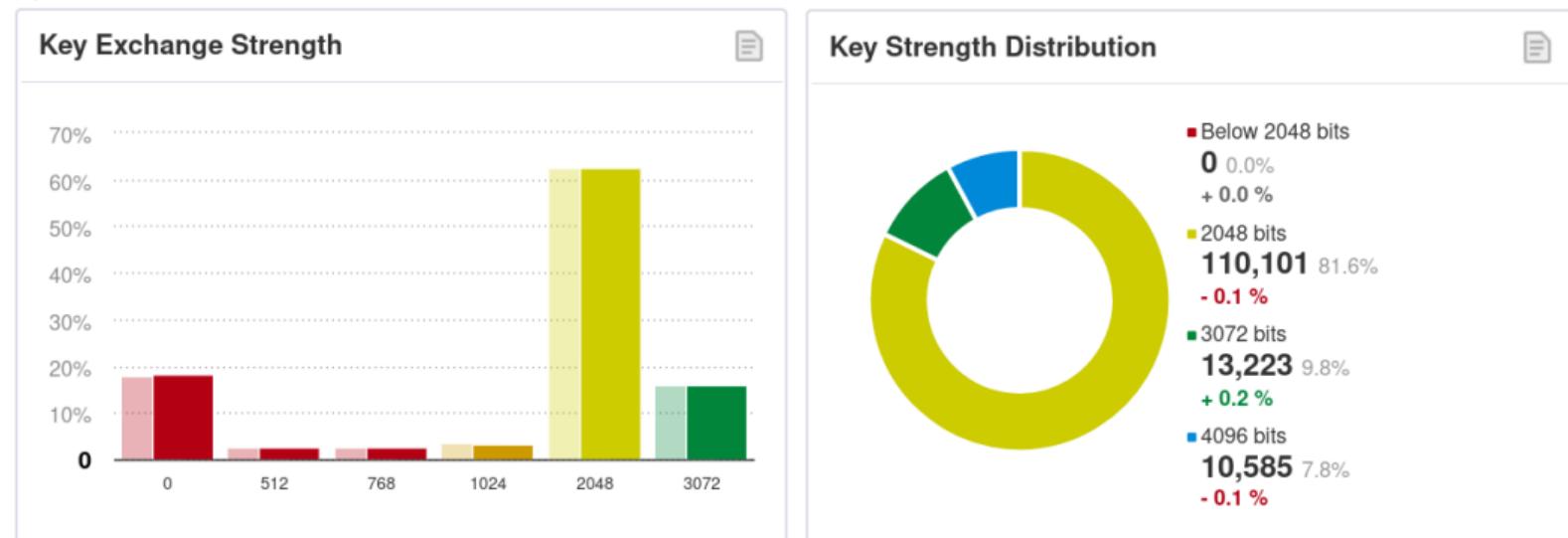
- what is the fastest attack?
- how much time does it take with respect to length( $N$ )?

RSA keys are much larger.

*Cipher suite*: a pair of symmetric and asymmetric ciphers offering the same level of security.

## Examples

<https://www.lemonde.fr/>, https, security information →  
TLS\_ECDHE\_RSA\_WITH\_AES\_128\_GCM\_SHA256, 128 bits, TLS 1.2



# Particles

$n$	$2^n$	Examples
32	$2^{32} = 10^{9.6}$	number of humans on Earth
47	$2^{47} = 10^{14.2}$	distance Earth - Sun in millimeters ( $149.6 \cdot 10^{12}$ ) number of operations in one day on a processor at 2 GHz
56	$2^{55.8} = 10^{16.8}$	number of operations in one year on a processor at 2 GHz
79	$2^{79} = 10^{23.8}$	Avogadro number: atoms of Carbon 12 in 1 mol
82	$2^{82.3} = 10^{24.8}$	mass of Earth in kilograms
100	$2^{100} = 10^{30}$	number of operations in $13.77 \cdot 10^9$ years (age of the universe) on a processor at 2 GHz
155	$2^{155} = 10^{46.7}$	number of molecules of water on Earth
256	$2^{256} = 10^{77.1}$	number of electrons in universe

Courtesy Marine Minier

## Boiling water

Universal Security; From bits and mips to pools, lakes – and beyond

Arjen Lenstra, Thorsten Kleinjung, and Emmanuel Thomé

<https://hal.inria.fr/hal-00925622>

- $2^{90}$  operations require enough energy to boil the lake of Genève
- $2^{114}$  operations: boiling all the water on Earth
- $2^{128}$  operations: boiling 16,000 planets like the Earth

## Choosing key sizes

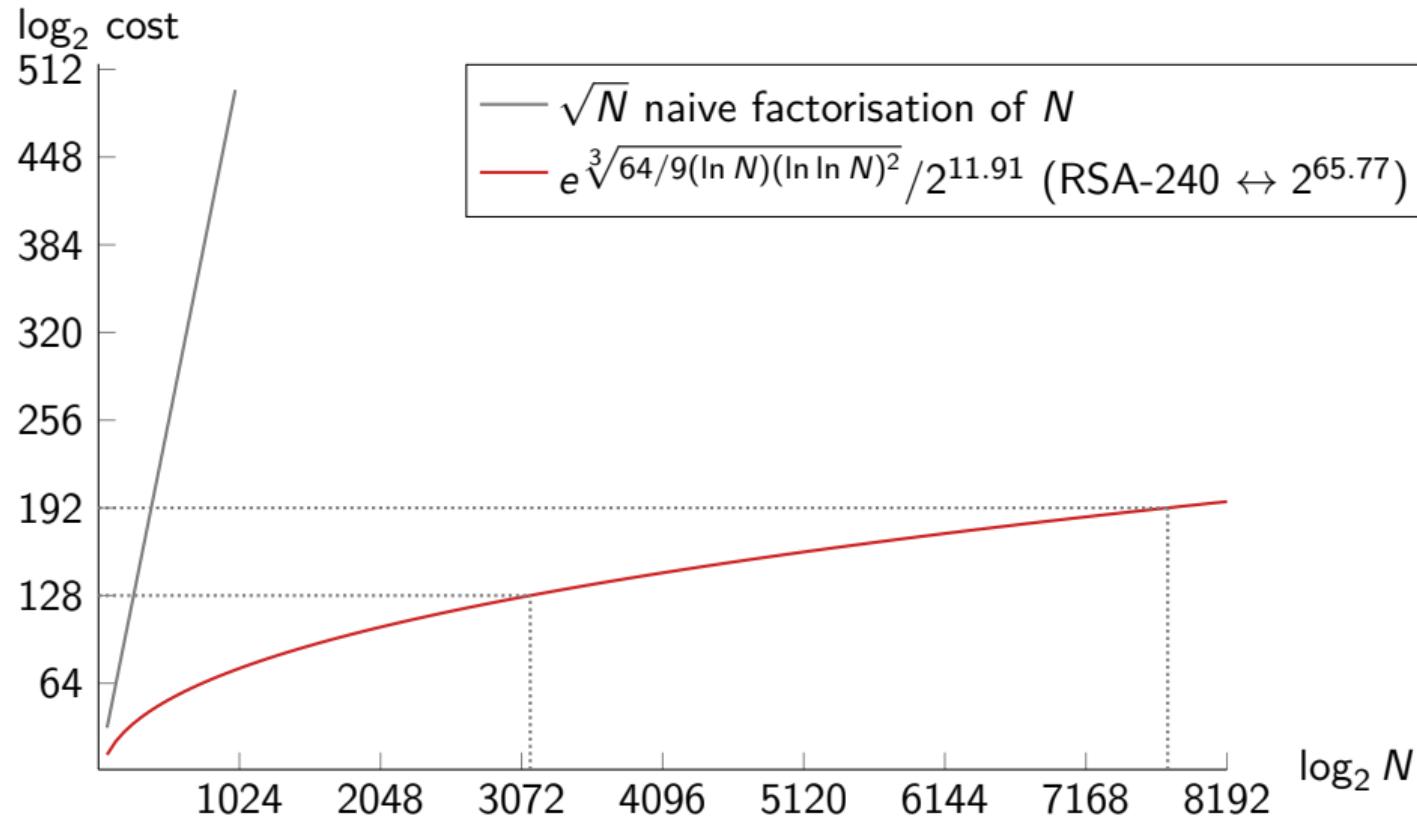
For RSA with  $N$  of length( $N$ ) bits:

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- fastest factorization: with the Number Field Sieve algorithm
- Complexity:  $\exp\left(\sqrt[3]{(64/9+o(1))(\ln N)(\ln \ln N)^2}\right)$
- $+o(1)$  not known
- $\exp\left(\sqrt[3]{(64/9+0)(\ln N_{\text{RSA-240}})(\ln \ln N_{\text{RSA-240}})^2}\right) = 2^{77.68}$
- RSA-240 in  $2^{65.77}$  operations  $\rightarrow 2^{65.77}/2^{77.68} = 2^{-11.91}$

Replace unknown  $+o(1)$  in the  $\exp()$  by a global scaling factor  $2^{-11.91} \cdot \exp()$

(A. Lenstra, Verheul, Asiacrypt'01)



RSA-240: 953 core-years, Intel Xeon Gold 6130 CPUs as a reference (2.1GHz)  
 $\approx 953 \cdot 365.25 \cdot 24 \cdot 60 \cdot 60 \cdot 2.1 \cdot 10^9 \approx 2^{65.77}$

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## Naive way 1: Testing all primes up to square root of $N$

**Trial division:** testing all the primes up to  $\sqrt{N}$

But if there are too many primes to test, it never ends

- $x / \ln x$  prime numbers between 1 and  $x$  (with  $\ln \exp(1) = 1$ )
- $\sqrt{N} / \ln \sqrt{N}$  prime numbers between 1 and  $\sqrt{N}$

$N$ (bits)	$N$ (digits)	$\sqrt{N} / \ln \sqrt{N}$
256	77	$2^{122} \quad 10^{37}$
512	154	$2^{249} \quad 10^{75}$
768	231	$2^{376} \quad 10^{114}$
1024	308	$2^{504} \quad 10^{152}$
1280	385	$2^{632} \quad 10^{191}$
1536	462	$2^{759} \quad 10^{229}$
1792	539	$2^{887} \quad 10^{267}$
2048	617	$2^{1015} \quad 10^{306}$

## Naive way 2: testing all primes around square root of $N$

If  $p$  and  $q$  are of the same length (in bits), test all prime factors between  $\lfloor \sqrt{N}/2 \rfloor$  and  $\lfloor \sqrt{N} \rfloor$ .

How many primes in  $[1, 2^n]$ ? approximately  $2^n / \ln 2^n$

How many primes in  $[2^{n-1}, 2^n]$ ? approximately  $(1/2) \times 2^n / \ln 2^n$

Still completely impracticable.

(Trial division usually to detect prime factors up to  $10^6$  (78498 distinct prime factors,  $10^6 / \ln 10^6 = 72382.4$ ) or  $10^7$  (664579 distinct prime factors,  $10^7 / \ln 10^7 = 620420.7$ ))

## Historical steps in integer factorization

- 1975, Morrison, Brillhart, continued fraction method CFRAC  
(factorization of  $2^{2^7} + 1 = 2^{128} + 1$ ) (see the *Cunningham project*  
<https://homes.cerias.purdue.edu/~ssw/cun/>)  
 $2^{128} + 1 = 340282366920938463463374607431768211457 =$   
 $59649589127497217 \times 5704689200685129054721$
- 1981, Dixon, random squares method
- 70's, unpublished: Schroepel, Linear Sieve
- 1982, Pomerance, Quadratic Sieve
- 1987, Lenstra, Elliptic Curve Method (ECM)
- 1993, Buhler, Lenstra, Pomerance, General Number Field Sieve

Strong joint work of researchers and manufacturers of computers in the US  
(before the Personal Computer)

## Square roots modulo $N$

In  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ , if  $x$  is a square, it has two square roots  $\sqrt{x}$  and  $-\sqrt{x}$ .

But in  $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$  with  $N = pq$  strange things happen: **four** square roots.

```
N = 2021
for i in range(-N//2, N//2):
    if (i**2 % N) == 1:
        print(i)
```

Two pairs of square roots of  $x = 1$ :  $(1, -1)$  and  $(-988, 988)$

$$\begin{aligned} 988^2 &= 1^2 \pmod{2021} \\ \iff 988^2 - 1^2 &= 0 \pmod{2021} \\ \iff (988 - 1) \times (988 + 1) &= 0 \pmod{2021} \end{aligned}$$

Compute a gcd (greatest common divisor):

$$\gcd(988 - 1, 2021) = 47, \quad \gcd(988 + 1, 2021) = 43.$$

$$N = 43 \times 47$$

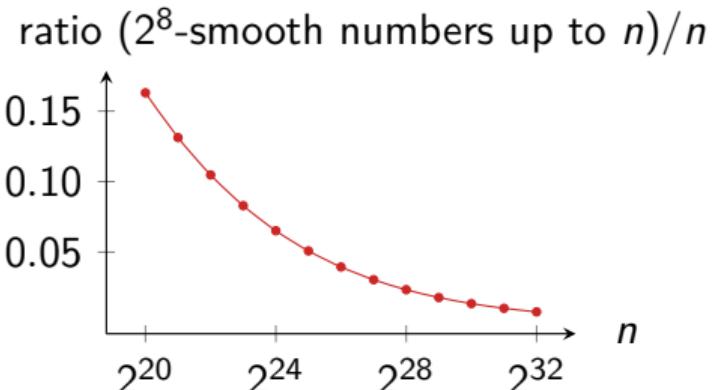
## Smooth numbers

*B-smooth*

A positive integer  $n$  is *B-smooth*  $\iff$   
 $n$  factors as a product of primes up to  $B$   
 $n = 2^{e_1}3^{e_2}5^{e_3}\cdots p_i^{e_i}$  and  $p_i \leq B$ .

*B-smooth* integers are quite common:

10% of 22-bit integers are 8-bit smooth  
5% of 25-bit integers are 8-bit smooth  
1% of 31-bit integers are 8-bit smooth



32-bit  $a = 2654809430$   
 $= 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 13 \cdot 59 \cdot 197 \cdot 251$   
is 8-bit smooth ( $B = 256$ )

For very large integers:

Proba( $n$  is *B-smooth*) = Dickman- $\rho(\log n / \log B)$

## Factorization with the Quadratic Sieve

$N$  to be factored

If  $X^2 \equiv Y^2 \pmod{N}$  and  $X \neq \pm Y \pmod{N}$ , then  $\gcd(X \pm Y, N)$  gives a factor of  $N$ .

Find such  $X, Y$ .

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For many small  $a \leq A$ , computes  $n_a = (a + m)^2 - N$

if  $n_a$  is  $B$ -smooth, store the relation  $n_a = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_j^{e_j}$  with all primes  $p_i \leq B$

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$X = (a_1 + m)(a_2 + m) \cdots (a_i + m) \pmod{N}$ ,  $Y = \sqrt{n_{a_1} n_{a_2} \cdots n_{a_i}} \pmod{N}$

If  $X \neq \pm Y \pmod{N}$ , computes  $\gcd(X - Y, N)$ .

## Factorization with the Quadratic Sieve: example

$$N = 2021, m = \lfloor \sqrt{N} \rfloor = 44$$

Smoothness bound  $B = 19$

$\mathcal{F} = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19\}$  small primes up to  $B$ ,  $i = \#\mathcal{F} = 8$

$B$ -smooth integer:  $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_i^{e_i}$ , all  $p_i \leq B$  primes

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$$(2 + m)^2 - N = 95 = 5 \cdot 19$$

$$(5 + m)^2 - N = 380 = 2^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 19 \rightarrow$$

$$(17 + m)^2 - N = 1700 = 2^2 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 17$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

exponents

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$$(17 + m)^2 - N = 1700 = 2^2 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 17$$

$$\begin{matrix} 2 & 5 & 17 & 19 \\ \left[ \begin{matrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{matrix} \right] & \text{exponents} \\ & \text{mod } 2 \end{matrix}$$

Left kernel:  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$(2 + m)^2(5 + m)^2 \equiv 2^2 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 19^2 \pmod{N}$$

## Factorization with the Quadratic Sieve: example

$$N = 2021, m = \lfloor \sqrt{N} \rfloor = 44$$

Smoothness bound  $B = 19$

$\mathcal{F} = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19\}$  small primes up to  $B$ ,  $i = \#\mathcal{F} = 8$

$B$ -smooth integer:  $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_i^{e_i}$ , all  $p_i \leq B$  primes

is  $n = (a + m)^2 - N$  smooth for small  $a$ ?

$$(2 + m)^2 - N = 95 = 5 \cdot 19$$

$$(5 + m)^2 - N = 380 = 2^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 19 \rightarrow$$

$$(17 + m)^2 - N = 1700 = 2^2 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 17$$

$$\begin{matrix} 2 & 5 & 17 & 19 \\ \left[ \begin{matrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{matrix} \right] & \text{exponents} \\ \mod 2 & \end{matrix}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} (2 + m)^2(5 + m)^2 &\equiv 2^2 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 19^2 \pmod{N} \\ \underbrace{(46 \cdot 49)^2}_X &\equiv \underbrace{(2 \cdot 5 \cdot 19)^2}_Y \pmod{N} \end{aligned}$$

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$$(5 + m)^2 - N = 380 = 2^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 19 \rightarrow$$

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$$X = 2254 \equiv 233 \pmod{N}, Y = 190 \pmod{N}$$

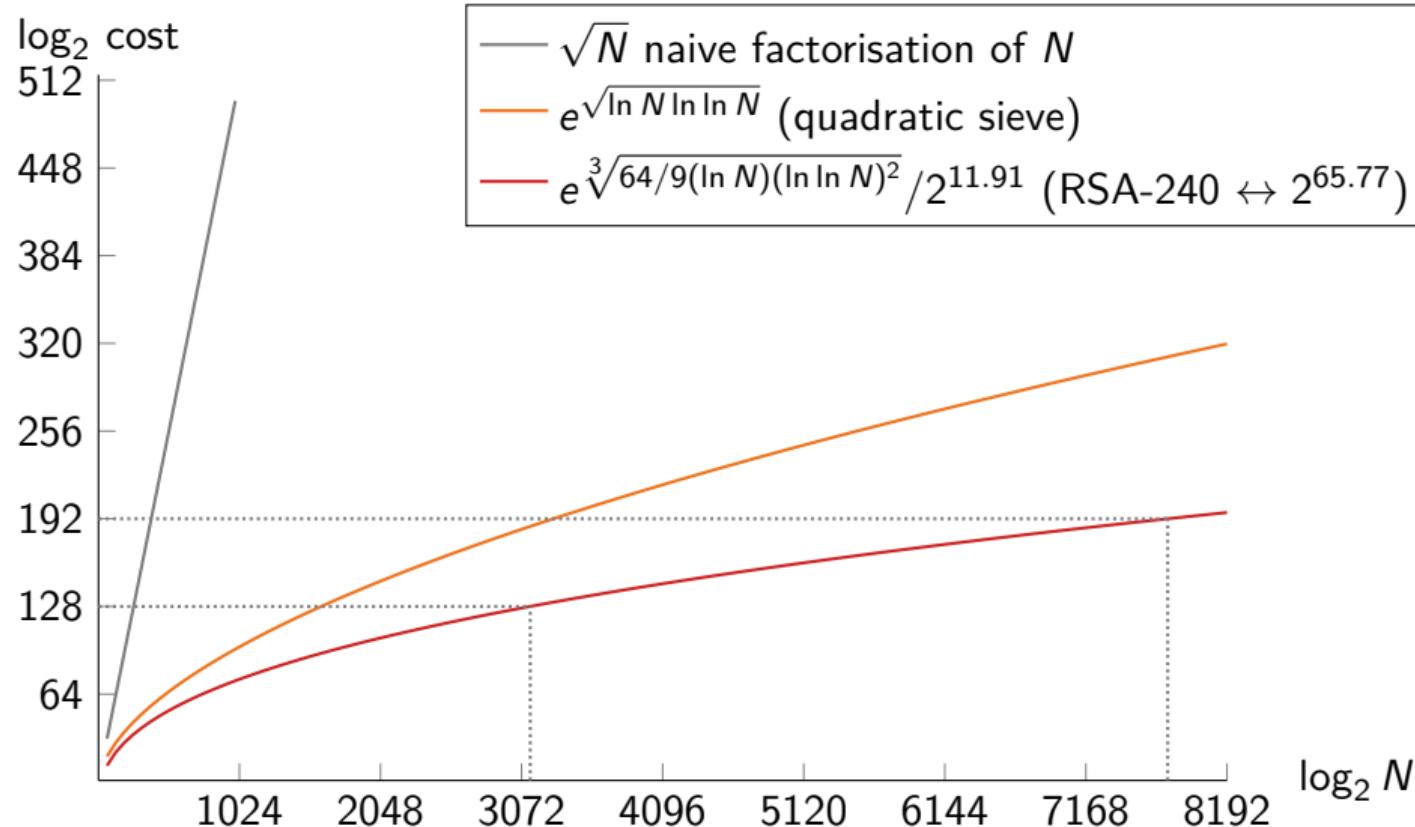
$$\gcd(X - Y, N) = 43, \gcd(X + Y, N) = 47$$

$$N = 43 \cdot 47$$

## Quadratic Sieve: limitations for large numbers

Complexity:  $e^{\sqrt{(1+o(1)) \ln N \ln \ln N}}$

- $n = (a + m)^2 - N \approx 2A\sqrt{N}$   
Factor integers of size  $\approx 2A\sqrt{N}$
- $\#\mathcal{F} = \#\{\text{ primes up to } B\} \approx B/\ln B$
- Computes left kernel of huge linear system modulo 2



# Outline

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- Naive methods

- Quadratic sieve

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Number Field Sieve

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Attacks on the RSA cryptosystem

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- Bad randomness: gcd, Coppersmith attacks

## Sieving: Detect smooth numbers without factoring

### Eratosthenes sieve

Array  $T[1 \dots n - 1]$  of integers from 2 up to  $n$

At iteration  $i$ , each non-marked integer in  $T[1 \dots i]$  is prime

For each non-marked  $p_i = T[i]$  starting with  $p_1 = T[1] = 2$ :

Mark as composite all multiples  $T[i + kp_i]$ ,  $1 \leq k \leq (n - i)/p_i$

[2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30]

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## Sieving: Detect smooth numbers without factoring

### Quadratic sieve

1. Initialize array  $T[1 \dots A]$  with  $T[a] = (a + m)^2 - N$
2. For each prime  $p_i$  from 2 to  $B$ 
  - 2.1 Solve  $(x + m)^2 - N \equiv 0 \pmod{p_i} \rightarrow$  roots  $x_0, x_1 \in [0, p_i - 1]$
  - 2.2 Update  $T$ : divide by  $p_i$  the cells  $T[x_{0,1} + kp_i]$  for all  $0 \leq k \leq (A - x_{0,1})/p_i$
  - 2.3 Consider higher powers  $p_i^{e_i}$ : solve  $((x_{0,1} + m)^2 - N)/p_i \equiv 0 \pmod{p_i}$  ...
3.  $T[a] = 1 \iff (a + m)^2 - N$  is  $B$ -smooth

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3.  $T[a] = 1 \iff (a + m)^2 - N$  is  $B$ -smooth

$(a + m)^2 - N$  is larger than a machine-word:

store  $\log_2((a + m)^2 - N)$  at step (1) and subtract  $\log_2 p_i$  at step (2)

$T[a] = 0 \iff (a + m)^2 - N$  is  $B$ -smooth (up to rounding errors)

Recompute  $(a + m)^2 - N$  and factor it

$\rightarrow$  factor only the smooth ones

## Sieving: Detect smooth numbers without factoring

### Quadratic sieve

1. Initialize array  $T[1 \dots A]$  with  $T[a] = \log_2((a + m)^2 - N)$
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3.  $T[a] = 0 \iff (a + m)^2 - N$  is  $B$ -smooth

1987: ECM factoring

Do not sieve up to  $B$ , set a sieving bound  $B_0 < B$

For all  $T[a] \leq$  ECM-bound,

recompute and run ECM on  $(a + m)^2 - N$  with bound  $B$

Store the  $B$ -smooth ones for the linear algebra step.

## Sieving: Detect smooth numbers without factoring

$N = 2021, B = 19, A = 20, a \in \{0, \dots, A\}$

$T = [-85, 4, 95, 188, 283, 380, 479, 580, 683, 788, 895,$   
 $1004, 1115, 1228, 1343, 1460, 1579, 1700, 1823, 1948, 2075]$

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$$p_i = 2, x_0 = 1, T[1 + 2k]/2^2$$

$$[-85, \textcolor{red}{4}, 95, \textcolor{red}{188}, 283, \textcolor{red}{380}, 479, \textcolor{red}{580}, 683, \textcolor{red}{788}, 895, \\ \textcolor{red}{1004}, 1115, \textcolor{red}{1228}, 1343, \textcolor{red}{1460}, 1579, \textcolor{red}{1700}, 1823, \textcolor{red}{1948}, 2075]$$

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$$p_i = 17, x_0 = 0, x_1 = 14$$

$$p_i = 19, x_0 = 2, x_1 = 5$$

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## Nowadays' method: the Number Field Sieve

- developed in the 80's and 90's
- reduce the size of the numbers to be factored from  $A_1\sqrt{N}$  to  $A_2^d \sqrt[d]{N}$  for a smaller  $A_2 < A_1$  and  $d \in \{3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- two huge steps: collecting relations, solving a large sparse system



Carl Pomerance.

A tale of two sieves.

*Notices of the AMS*, 43(12):1473–1485, Dec 1996.

<http://www.ams.org/notices/199612/pomerance.pdf>

## The development of the NFS algorithm

- 1985 ElGamal: Discrete logarithms in  $GF(p^2)$  with quadratic number fields
- 1986 Coppersmith, Odlyzko, Schroepel:  
factoring with a quadratic number field (Gaussian integers)
- 1988 J. M. Pollard, Factoring with cubic integers. Factorization of  $F_7 = 2^{2^7} + 1$ .  
Special Number Field.
- 1993 Lenstra, Lenstra, Manasse, Pollard. The Number Field Sieve.

 Arjen K. Lenstra and Hendrik W. Lenstra Jr., editors.  
*The development of the number field sieve*, volume 1554 of *Lect. Note. Math.*  
Springer, 1993.

<http://doi.org/10.1007/BFb0091534>

## Factorization with NFS: recap

1. Polynomial selection: find two irreducible polynomials in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  sharing a common root  $m$  modulo  $N$
2. Relation collection: computes many smooth relations
3. Filtering: remove singletons, densify and shrink the matrix
4. Linear algebra: takes logarithms mod 2 of the relations: large sparse matrix over  $\mathbb{F}_2$ , computes left kernel
5. Characters: find a combination of the vectors of the kernel so that  $X^2 \equiv Y^2 \pmod{N}$
6. Square root: computes  $X, Y$
7. Factor  $N$ : computes  $\gcd(X - Y, N)$

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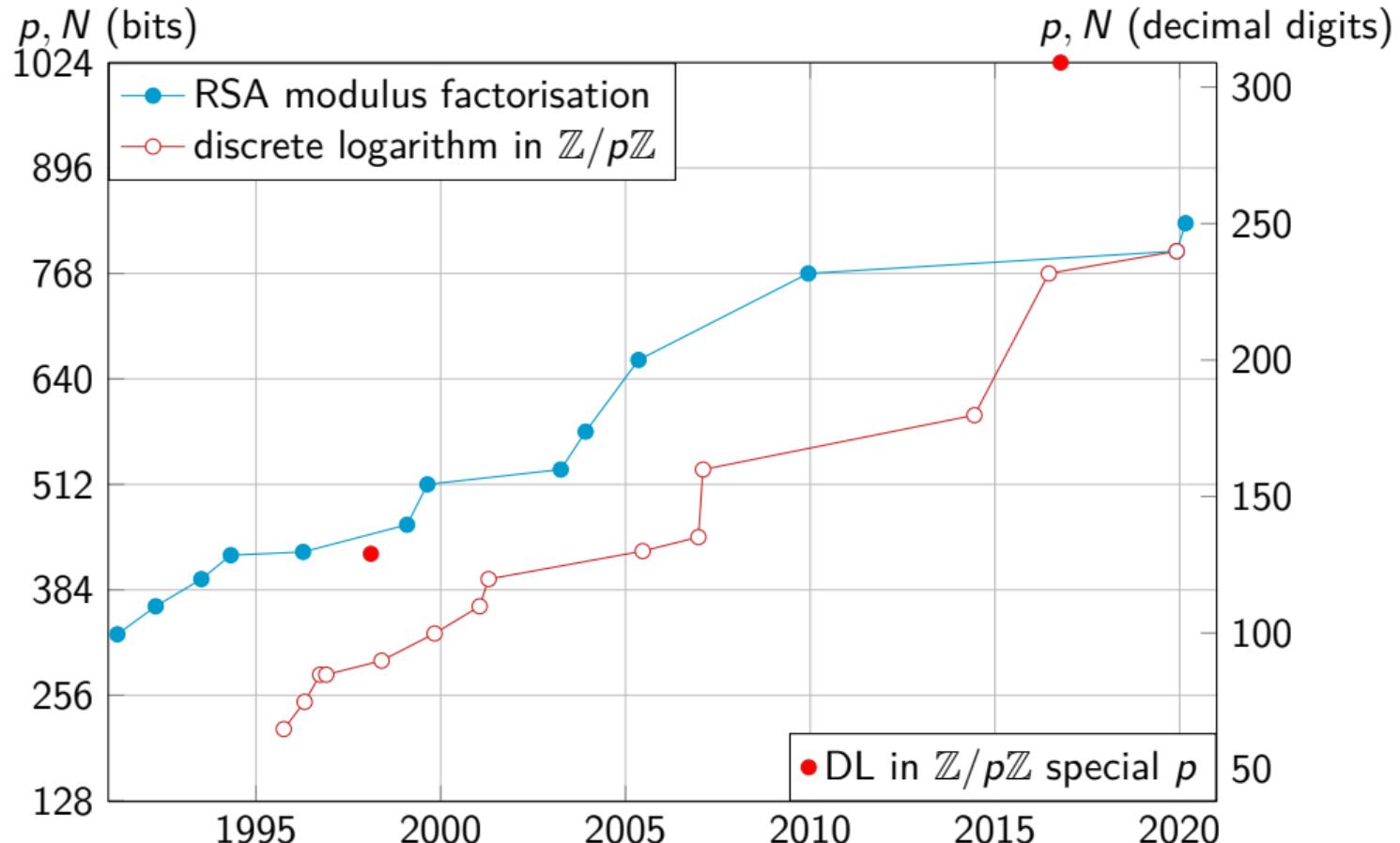
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## Record computations



## Latest record computations

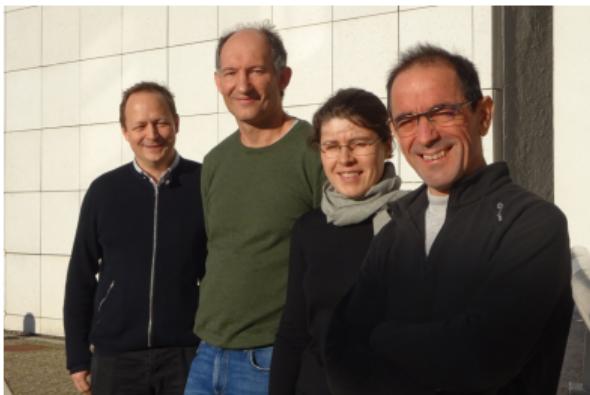
 Fabrice Boudot, Pierrick Gaudry, Aurore Guillevic, Nadia Heninger, Emmanuel Thomé, and Paul Zimmermann.

Comparing the difficulty of factorization and discrete logarithm: A 240-digit experiment.

In Daniele Micciancio and Thomas Ristenpart, eds., *CRYPTO 2020, Part II*, vol. 12171 of *LNCS*, pp. 62–91. Springer, August 2020.

Factorization of RSA-240 (795 bits) in December 2019 and RSA-250 (829 bits) in February 2020

Video at Crypto'2020: <https://youtube.com/watch?v=Qk207A4H7kU>



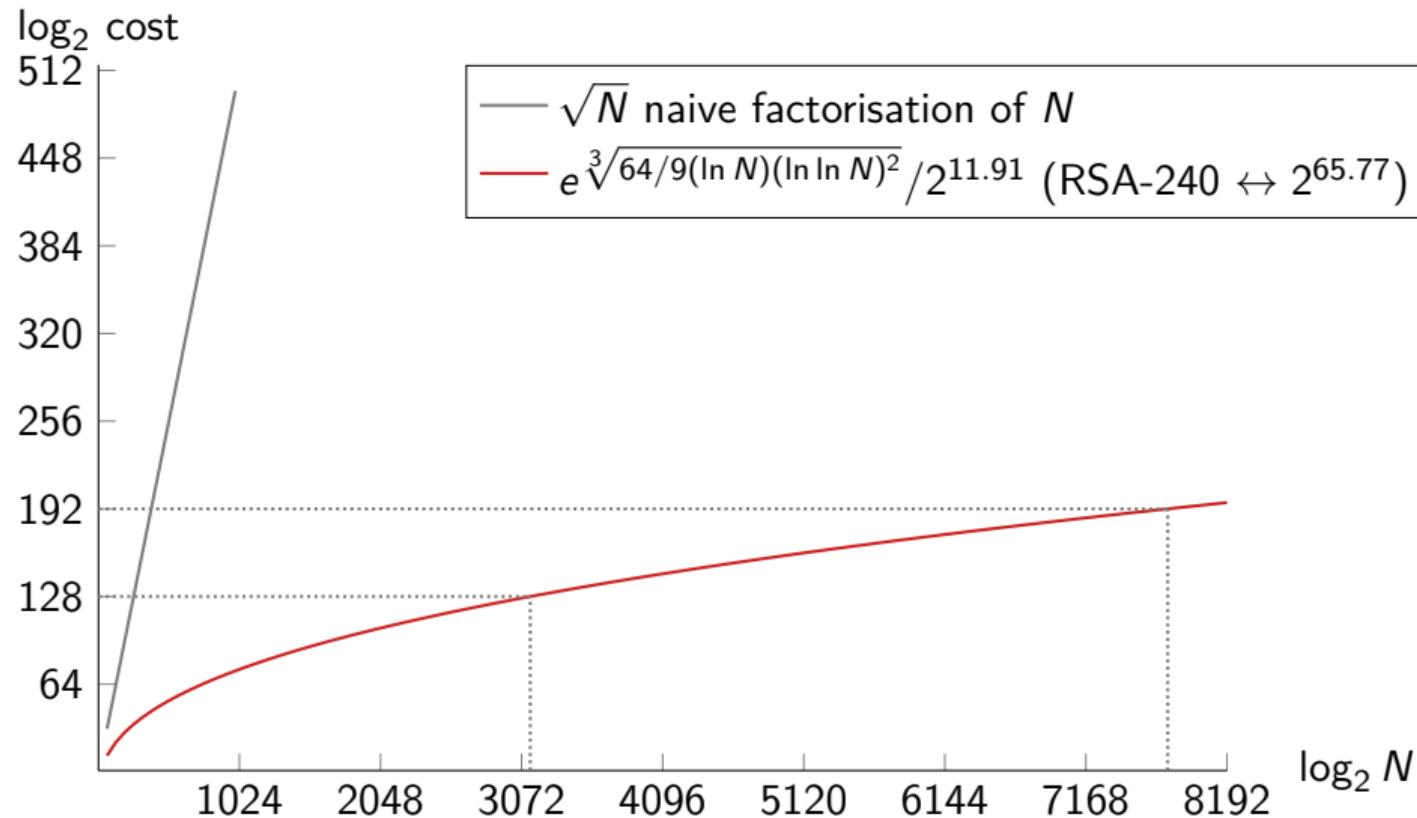
Emmanuel, Pierrick,  
Aurore, Paul in Nancy.  
Not on the picture:  
Fabrice, Nadia.

## Latest record computations

RSA-240 = 124620366781718784065835044608106590434820374651678805754818  
788883289666801188210855036039570272508747509864768438458621  
054865537970253930571891217684318286362846948405301614416430  
468066875699415246993185704183030512549594371372159029236099,  
 $p$  = 509435952285839914555051023580843714132648382024111473186660  
296521821206469746700620316443478873837606252372049619334517,  
 $q$  = 244624208838318150567813139024002896653802092578931401452041  
221336558477095178155258218897735030590669041302045908071447.

## Latest record computations

RSA-250 = 214032465024074496126442307283933356300861471514475501779775492  
088141802344714013664334551909580467961099285187247091458768739  
626192155736304745477052080511905649310668769159001975940569345  
7452230589325976697471681738069364894699871578494975937497937,  
 $p$  = 641352894770715802787901901705773890848250147429434472081168596  
32024532344630238623598752668347708737661925585694639798853367,  
 $q$  = 333720275949781565562260106053551142279407603447675546667845209  
87023841729210037080257448673296881877565718986258036932062711



RSA-240: 953 core-years, Intel Xeon Gold 6130 CPUs as a reference (2.1GHz)  
 $\approx 953 \cdot 365.25 \cdot 24 \cdot 60 \cdot 60 \cdot 2.1 \cdot 10^9 \approx 2^{65.77}$

## Breaking the previous record: Why?

- Record computations needed for key-size recommendations
- Open-source software Cado-NFS
- Motivation to improve all the steps
- Testing folklore ideas competitive only for huge sizes
- Exploits improvements of ECM (Bouvier–Imbert PKC'2020)
- Scaling the code for larger sizes improves the running-time on smaller sizes

# The CADO-NFS software

Record computations with the CADO-NFS software.

- Important software development effort since 2007.
- 250k lines of C/C++ code, 60k for relation collection only.
- Significant improvements since 2016.
  - improved parallelism: strive to get rid of scheduling bubbles;
  - versatility: large freedom in parameter selection;
  - prediction of behaviour and yield: essential for tuning.
- Open source (LGPL), open development model (gitlab).  
Our results can be reproduced.

## Factorization of $N = \text{RSA-240}$ , 240 decimal digits

### Polynomial selection

$$m = m_1/m_2 = 105487753732969860223795041295860517380/17780390513045005995253$$

$$f_1 = 10853204947200x^6$$

$$-4763683724115259920x^5$$

$$-6381744461279867941961670x^4$$

$$+974448934853864807690675067037x^3$$

$$+179200573533665721310210640738061170x^2$$

$$+1595712553369335430496125795083146688523x$$

$$-221175588842299117590564542609977016567191860$$

$$f_0 = 17780390513045005995253x$$

$$-105487753732969860223795041295860517380$$

$$\text{Res}(f_0, f_1) = 120N$$

Integers  $(am_2 - bm_1)$  much smaller than

$$\text{Norm}_{f_1}(a - b\alpha) = c_0b^6 + c_1ab^5 + c_2a^2b^4 + c_3a^3b^3 + c_4a^4b^2 + c_5a^5b + c_6a^6,$$

$$f_1 = c_0 + c_1x + \dots + c_6x^6$$

# Relation collection with lattice sieving

Most time-consuming part.

How to enumerate  $(a, b)$ , and detect smooth  $a - b\alpha, am_2 - bm_1$ ?

## Special-q (spq) Sieving

2-dimension array  $T$  of norm of  $i - j\alpha$  all multiple of prime  $q_k$

## Allow Parallelization

Consider all primes  $q_i \in [0.8G, 7.4G]$  ( $G=10^9$ ) s.t.  $\exists q$

- for  $q_i \in [0.8G, 2.1G]$ : **Lattice Sieve** on both sides
- for  $q_i \in [2.1G, 7.4G]$ : **Lattice Sieve** for  $f_1$  (large norms) and **Factorization Tree** for  $f_0$  (much smaller norms)

$$\# \text{ spq} \approx 3.0e8 \approx 2^{28}$$

Sieve area per spq:  $\mathcal{A} = [-2^{15}, 2^{15}] \times [0, 2^{16}], \#\mathcal{A} = 2^{32}$

## Relations look like

small primes, **special-q**, large primes

✓	$5^2 \cdot 11 \cdot 23 \cdot 287093 \cdot 870953 \cdot 20179693 \cdot 28306698811 \cdot 47988583469$	$2^3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 13 \cdot 31 \cdot 61 \cdot 14407 \cdot 26563253 \cdot 86800081 \cdot 269845309 \cdot 802234039 \cdot 1041872869 \cdot 5552238917 \cdot 12144939971 \cdot 15856830239$
✓	$3 \cdot 1609 \cdot 77699 \cdot 235586599 \cdot 347727169 \cdot 369575231 \cdot 9087872491$	$2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 13 \cdot 19 \cdot 23 \cdot 31 \cdot 59 \cdot 239 \cdot 3989 \cdot 7951 \cdot 2829403 \cdot 31455623 \cdot 225623753 \cdot 811073867 \cdot 1304127157 \cdot 78955382651 \cdot 129320018741$
✓	$5 \cdot 1381 \cdot 877027 \cdot 15060047 \cdot 19042511 \cdot 11542780393 \cdot 13192388543$	$2^4 \cdot 5 \cdot 13 \cdot 31 \cdot 59 \cdot 823 \cdot 2801 \cdot 26539 \cdot 2944817 \cdot 3066253 \cdot 87271397 \cdot 108272617 \cdot 386616343 \cdot 815320151 \cdot 1361785079 \cdot 12322934353$
✓	$2^3 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 173 \cdot 971 \cdot 613909489 \cdot 929507779 \cdot 1319454803 \cdot 2101983503$	$2^7 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 29 \cdot 1021 \cdot 42589 \cdot 190507 \cdot 473287 \cdot 31555663 \cdot 654820381 \cdot 802234039 \cdot 19147596953 \cdot 23912934131 \cdot 52023180217$
✗	$2^2 \cdot 15193 \cdot 232891 \cdot 19514983 \cdot 139295419 \cdot 540260173 \cdot 606335449$	$2^2 \cdot 3^4 \cdot 13 \cdot 19 \cdot 74897 \cdot 1377667 \cdot 55828453 \cdot 282012013 \cdot 802234039 \cdot 3350122463 \cdot 35787642311 \cdot 37023373909 \cdot 128377293101$
✗	$2^2 \cdot 5^4 \cdot 439 \cdot 1483 \cdot 13121 \cdot 21383 \cdot 67751 \cdot 452059523 \cdot 33099515051$	$2^2 \cdot 3^3 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 \cdot 19 \cdot 5023 \cdot 3683209 \cdot 98660459 \cdot 802234039 \cdot 1506372871 \cdot 4564625921 \cdot 27735876911 \cdot 32612130959 \cdot 45729461779$

small primes: abundant → dense column in the matrix

large primes: rare → sparse colum, limit to 2 or 3 on each side.

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small primes, **special- $q$** , large primes

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small primes: abundant  $\rightarrow$  dense column in the matrix

large primes: rare  $\rightarrow$  sparse column, limit to 2 or 3 on each side.

Before linear algebra: **filtering** step

as many **cheap combinations** as possible  $\rightarrow$  smaller matrix

## Relation collection looks like

## Discrete logarithm problem

$\mathbf{G}$  multiplicative group of order  $\ell$

$g$  generator,  $\mathbf{G} = \{1, g, g^2, g^3, \dots, g^{\ell-2}, g^{\ell-1}\}$

Given  $h \in \mathbf{G}$ , find integer  $x \in \{0, 1, \dots, \ell - 1\}$  such that  $h = g^x$ .

Exponentiation easy:  $(g, x) \mapsto g^x$

Discrete logarithm hard in well-chosen groups  $\mathbf{G}$

## Choice of group

**Prime finite field**  $\mathbb{F}_p = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  where  $p$  is a prime integer

Multiplicative group:  $\mathbb{F}_p^* = \{1, 2, \dots, p - 1\}$

Multiplication *modulo p*

**Finite field**  $\mathbb{F}_{2^n} = \text{GF}(2^n)$ ,  $\mathbb{F}_{3^m} = \text{GF}(3^m)$  for efficient arithmetic, now broken

**Elliptic curves**  $E: y^2 = x^3 + ax + b/\mathbb{F}_p$ ,  $E_a: y^2 + xy = x^3 + ax^2 + 1/\mathbb{F}_{2^n}$

## Discrete Logarithm 240 dd

$$p = N + 49204, \ell = (p - 1)/2 \text{ prime}$$

$$f_1 = 39x^4 + 126x^3 + x^2 + 62x + 120$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_0 = & 286512172700675411986966846394359924874576536408786368056 x^3 \\ & + 24908820300715766136475115982439735516581888603817255539890 x^2 \\ & - 18763697560013016564403953928327121035580409459944854652737 x \\ & - 236610408827000256250190838220824122997878994595785432202599 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Res}(f_0, f_1) = -540p$$

More balanced integers

Smaller matrix but kernel modulo large prime  $\ell$

## Relations, matrix size, core-years timings

	RSA-240	DLP-240
polynomial selection $\deg f_0, \deg f_1$	76 core-years 1, 6	152 core-years 3, 4
relation collection	794 core-years	2400 core-years
raw relations	8 936 812 502	3 824 340 698
unique relations	6 011 911 051	2 380 725 637
filtering	days	days
after singleton removal	$2\ 603\ 459\ 110 \times 2\ 383\ 461\ 671$	$1\ 304\ 822\ 186 \times 1\ 000\ 258\ 769$
after clique removal	$1\ 175\ 353\ 278 \times 1\ 175\ 353\ 118$	$149\ 898\ 095 \times 149\ 898\ 092$
after merge	282M rows, density 200	36M rows, density 253
linear algebra	83 core-years	625 core-years
characters, sqrt, ind log	days	days
total	953 core-years $\approx 2^{65.77}$ op.	3177 core-years $\approx 2^{67.51}$ op.

Intel Xeon Gold 6130 CPUs as a reference (2.1GHz)

## RSA-240 record computation

- Parameterization strategies
- Extensive simulation framework for parameter choices
- Implementation scales well

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Comparisons:

- Comparing RSA-240 to 10 years old previous record not meaningful
- Comparing DL-240 to previous record (DLP-768, 232 digits, 2016):  
On **identical hardware**, our DLP-240 computation would have taken  
**25% less time** than the 232-digits computation.
- Finite field DLP is not **much** harder than integer factoring.

## choosing RSA modulus keysizes

- 512 bits: factorization in 7.5 h at cost \$100 on Amazon EC2 RSA\_EXPORT ciphersuite in SSL/TLS → FREAK attack (2015)
- 768 bits (232 dd): 2009
- 795 bits (240 dd): 2019
- 829 bits (250 dd): 2020
- 1024 bits:  $\sim 2^{75}$  op. to factor, to be avoided
- 2048 bits:  $\sim 2^{105}$ , was standard until 2020 (ANSSI)
- 3072 bits:  $\sim 2^{128}$ , standard size  $\iff$  256-bit elliptic curves
- 4096 bits:  $\sim 2^{145}$ , high security

# Outline

Introduction on RSA

Integer Factorization

- Naive methods

- Quadratic sieve

Sieving

Number Field Sieve

Record computations: RSA-240, RSA-250

**Attacks on the RSA cryptosystem**

- Two French episodes

- Bad randomness: gcd, Coppersmith attacks

## Attacks on the RSA cryptosystem

Survey paper by Dan Boneh in 1999:



- Dan Boneh.  
Twenty years of attacks on the RSA cryptosystem.  
*Notices of the AMS*, 46(2):203–213, February 1999.

## Too short keys: Humpich episode (1997 in France)

http:

//www.bibmath.net/crypto/index.php?action=affiche&quoi=moderne/cb

In 1997, the keys in payment cards were 320-bit long (96 decimal digits)

Serge Humpich: reverse-engineering, yescard, factorization of a 320-bit key

Showed that possible to pay with a non-legitimate card (RATP tickets)

Possible to factor such keys with the *quadratic sieve*

March 4, 2000: the keys of *GIE carte bancaire* and their factors were released on Internet

Nowadays 1152-bit keys (in 2020)

## Wrong key sizes: Bitcrypt ransomware (2014)

<https://airbus-cyber-security.com/fr/bitcrypt-broken/>

Fabien Perigaud and Cédric Pernet, Airbus Cybersecurity (formerly Cassidian)

ransomware: encrypt the files of target computers

Asks to pay in bitcoins

Encryption: with AES

AES keys encrypted with RSA

But not RSA-1024 (bits)

$$\begin{aligned} N = & \quad 3129884719662540063950693863716193016278901146429595260054414582 \\ & \quad 9335849533528834917800088971765784757175491347320005860302574523 \end{aligned}$$

1024 bits = 128 bytes but the key was 128 decimal digit long (424 bits)!

Factorization with cado-nfs

$$p = 4627583475399516037897017387039865329961620697520288948716924853$$

$$q = 676354027172319302743451260512922936486939444394656022641769391.$$

## Gcd attack (2012, 2013)

$N$  2048 bits:  $p, q$  of 1024 bits,  $\approx 2^{1014}$  prime numbers of 1024 bits

**Good randomness** is very important to be sure that no one will share a factor  
Attack:

- scan the internet: collect certificates with RSA keys
- compute the gcd of each possible pair of keys
- optimise the search: *batch gcd*, product-tree
- non-trivial gcd were found!

$N_1 = p_1 q$ ,  $N_2 = p_2 q$ , then  $\gcd(N_1, N_2) = q$  and the factorisation of  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  is found.

## Coppersmith attack (2013), 1/2 Gcd and Patterns

Taiwan system of digital ID (tax payment, car registration...)

- More than 2 million of 1024-bit RSA public keys (2 086 177)
- Batch gcd over the keys: 103 public keys factor into 119 different primes  
206 distinct primes required for 103 independent RSA keys
- Pattern found in the primes, no entropy source, no random number generator
- Testing all primes following the expected pattern (164 primes) → 18 more factorizations

The most common prime factor (found in 46 distinct RSA moduli) was  
 $p = 2^{511} + 2^{510} + 761$  next prime after  $2^{511} + 2^{510}$

## Coppersmith attack (2013), 2/2

$p$  and  $q$  follow a pattern except for the low bits because of `next_prime`

$a = 0xc9242492249292499249492449242492249292499249492449242492249292499249492449242492249292499249492449242492$

Coppersmith attack: if the high bits of  $p$  are known, can recover the low bits and the factor  $p$

```
p = next_prime(2**511 + 2**510)
q = 0xc9242492249292499249492449242492249292499249492449242492249292499249
N = p * q
X = 2**168
a = 0xc9242492249292499249492449242492249292499249492449242492249292499249
M = Matrix(3, 3, [X**2, X*a, 0, 0, X, a, 0, 0, N])
R = M.LLL()
g0 = R[0][2]
g1 = R[0][1] // X
g2 = R[0][0] // X**2
c = gcd([g0,g1,g2]) # gcd of coefficients
ZZx.<x> = ZZ[]
g = (g0 + g1*x + g2*x**2) // c
g.factor()
# (x - 83) * (30064312327*x - 23972510637500)
g(83) == 0
q == a + 83
```

## RSA and the quantum computer

1994: Peter Shor, algorithm for integer factorization with a quantum computer

Factorization of a  $n$ -bit integer requires a perfect quantum computer with  $2n$  qubits (quantum bits)

Quantum computer extremely hard to build

Record computation in 2018:  $4\ 088\ 459 = 2017 \times 2027$

RSA-1024 (bits) will be factored before a quantum computer become competitive.

## Summary of RSA best practices

Use elliptic curve cryptography.

If that's not an option:

- Choose RSA modulus N at least 2048 bits, preferably 3072 bits.
- Use a good random number generator to generate primes.
- Use a secure, randomized padding scheme.

# Conclusion

Slides at <https://members.loria.fr/AGuillevic/teaching/>

Future Milestones in the forthcoming decades: RSA-896, RSA-1024?

Knowing the public and private exponents  $e$ ,  $d$  gives a factorization of  $N$

- if  $x$  is a square mod  $N$ , it has 4 square roots  $y$  such that  $y^2 \equiv x \pmod{N}$
- $ed = 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)} \iff ed - 1 = 0 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$
- For all  $x \in \{1, \dots, N-1\}$  coprime to  $N$ ,  $x^{ed-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$
- $ed - 1$  is even:  $(ed - 1)/2$  is integer

If  $N$ ,  $e$  and  $d$  are known:

Compute  $y = x^{(ed-1)/2} \pmod{N}$  a square root of 1.

If  $y \neq \pm 1$ , then

$$y^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{N} \iff y^2 - 1 = (y-1)(y+1) \equiv 0 \pmod{N}$$

→ compute  $\gcd(y-1, N)$  or  $\gcd(y+1, N)$  to find  $p$  or  $q$ .

If  $y$  is 1, try with  $(ed-1)/4, \dots, (ed-1)/2^i$  as long as it is an integer.

Otherwise, try with another  $x$ . Success rate is high.

## Example

$N = 43 \times 47 = 2021$ ,  $e = 5$  coprime to  $\varphi(N) = 42 \times 46 = 1932$ ,

$d = 1/e \bmod \varphi(N) = 773$

```
p = 43 ; q = 47 ; N = p * q
```

```
e = 5
```

```
phiN = (p-1) * (q-1)
```

```
g, d, v = xgcd(e, phiN) # d is the private exponent
```

```
y = 1; x = 2
```

```
while y == 1:
```

```
    expo = e*d - 1
```

```
    while y == 1 and (expo % 2) == 0:
```

```
        expo = expo // 2
```

```
        y = x**expo % N
```

```
    if y == 1:
```

```
        x = x+1
```

```
gcd(y-1, N); gcd(y+1, N)
```

We obtain:  $2^{1932/4} = 988 \bmod N$ ,  $\gcd(y - 1, N) = 47 = q$ ,  $\gcd(y + 1, N) = 43 = p$ .

## Factorization with NFS: key idea

**Reduce further the size of the integers to factor**

Choose integer  $m \approx \sqrt[d]{N}$

Write  $N$  in basis  $m$ :  $N = c_0 + c_1m + \dots + c_dm^d$

Set  $f_1(x) = c_0 + c_1x + \dots + c_dx^d \implies f_1(m) = 0$ , set  $f_0 = x - m \implies f_0(m) = 0$

Polynomials  $f_0, f_1$  share a common root  $m$  modulo  $N$

If  $f_1$  is irreducible, define  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$  a root of  $f_1$

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Define a map from  $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$  to  $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$

$$\phi: \mathbb{Z}[\alpha] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$$

$$\alpha \mapsto m \bmod N \text{ where } f_1(m) = 0 \bmod N$$

ring homomorphism  $\phi(a + b\alpha) = a + bm$

$$\phi \underbrace{(a + b\alpha)}_{\text{factor in } \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]} = \underbrace{a + bm}_{\text{factor in } \mathbb{Z}} \bmod N$$

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## Factorization in $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$

Factor  $N = 2021$

$$m = 38, 7 + 15m + m^2 = N, f_1(x) = x^2 + 15x + 7, f_0 = x - m$$

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Factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ ,  $i \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $i^2 = -1$ :

$$(1+i)(1-i) = 2, (2+i)(2-i) = 5, (2+3i)(2-3i) = 13$$

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Fondamental Unit:  $u = 2\alpha + 1$  and  $\text{Norm}(u) = 1$

Norm

## Factorization in $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$

Factor  $N = 2021$

$$m = 38, 7 + 15m + m^2 = N, f_1(x) = x^2 + 15x + 7, f_0 = x - m$$

$\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$  a root of  $f_1$ , factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ :

$$7 = (7^+)(7^-), 19 = (19^+)(19^-), 23 = (23^+)(23^-)$$

Factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ ,  $i \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $i^2 = -1$ :

$$(1+i)(1-i) = 2, (2+i)(2-i) = 5, (2+3i)(2-3i) = 13$$

Fondamental Unit:  $u = 2\alpha + 1$  and  $\text{Norm}(u) = 1$

## Norm

The norm of  $a - bi$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is  $\text{Norm}(a - bi) = a^2 + b^2$

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$$\text{Norm}(a - b\alpha) = b^2 f(a/b) = a^2 + 15ab + 7b^2$$

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To factor  $a - b\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ ,

compute  $\text{Norm}(a - b\alpha) \in \mathbb{Z}$  and factor in  $\mathbb{Z}$

→ To factor  $N$ , factor many smaller integers.

$a, b$	$a - bm = \text{factor in } \mathbb{Z}$	$a^2 + 15ab + 7b^2$	factor in $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$
-23,2	$-99 = -3^2 \cdot 11$	$-133 = -7 \cdot 19$	$(7^+)(19^+)$
-22,1	$-60 = -2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$	$161 = 7 \cdot 23$	$(7^+)(23^+)$
-16,1	$-54 = -2 \cdot 3^3$	$23 = 23$	$(23^-)$
-14,1	$-52 = -2^2 \cdot 13$	$-7 = -7$	$(7^-)$
-13,1	$-51 = -3 \cdot 17$	$-19 = -19$	$(19^-)$
-9,2	$-85 = -5 \cdot 17$	$-161 = -7 \cdot 23$	$(7^+)(23^-)$
-8,5	$-198 = -2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 11$	$-361 = -19^2$	$(19^-)^2$
-8,15	$-578 = -2 \cdot 17^2$	$-161 = -7 \cdot 23$	$(7^+)(23^+)$
-7,1	$-45 = -3^2 \cdot 5$	$-49 = -7^2$	$(7^-)^2$
-6,13	$-500 = -2^2 \cdot 5^3$	$49 = 7^2$	$(7^+)^2$
-2,1	$-40 = -2^3 \cdot 5$	$-19 = -19$	$(19^+)$
-1,1	$-39 = -3 \cdot 13$	$-7 = -7$	$(7^+)$
-1,2	$-77 = -7 \cdot 11$	$-1 = -1$	
5,4	$-147 = -3 \cdot 7^2$	$437 = 19 \cdot 23$	$(19^-)(23^-)$
6,1	$-32 = -2^5$	$133 = 7 \cdot 19$	$(7^+)(19^-)$
7,6	$-221 = -13 \cdot 17$	$931 = 7^2 \cdot 19$	$(7^-)^2(19^+)$

## Example in $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ : Matrix

Build the matrix of relations:

- one row per  $(a, b)$  pair s.t. both sides are smooth
- one column per prime  $\{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17\}$
- one column per prime ideal  $(7^+), (7^-), (19^+), (19^-), (23^+), (23^-)$
- store the exponents mod 2

Example in  $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ : Matrix

2 3 5 7 11 13 17

(7<sup>+</sup>) (7<sup>-</sup>) (19<sup>+</sup>) (19<sup>-</sup>) (23<sup>+</sup>) (23<sup>-</sup>)

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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2 3 5 7 11 13 17

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Example in  $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ : Matrix

sparse

Example: from left kernel in GF(2) to factorization

$$\ker M = \left( \begin{array}{cccccccccccccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

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Relations #9 and #10:

$$\left| \begin{array}{l} (-7 - m) = -45 = -3^2 \cdot 5 \\ (-6 - 13m) = -500 = -2^2 \cdot 5^3 \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{l} -7 - \alpha = (7^-)^2 \\ -6 - 13\alpha = (7^+)^2 \end{array} \right.$$

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$(-7 - m)(-6 - 13m) = 150^2$ , but  $(-7 - \alpha)(-6 - 13\alpha) = -49 - 98\alpha$  **not square**

because of the units

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Relations # {5, 10, 11, 12, 15, 16}:

$$(-13 - m)(-6 - 13m)(-2 - m)(-1 - m)(6 - m)(7 - 6m) = 530400^2$$

$$(-13 - \alpha)(-6 - 13\alpha)(-2 - \alpha)(-1 - \alpha)(6 - \alpha)(7 - 6\alpha) = -3113264 - 6456485\alpha$$

**not square**

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**not square** → multiply both

$$(-49 - 98\alpha)(-3113264 - 6456485\alpha) = (-12103 - 25137\alpha)^2$$

**square**

$$X = 150 \cdot 530400 = 1314 \bmod N \quad Y = (-12103 - 25137m) = 750 \bmod N$$

$$\gcd(X - Y, N) = 47, \gcd(X + Y, N) = 43 \quad N = 43 \cdot 47$$

# Outline

## Diffie-Hellman, and the discrete logarithm problem

Discrete logarithm problem and cryptosystems

Computing discrete logarithms

Generic algorithms of square root complexity

## Pairings

## Discrete logarithm problem

$\mathbf{G}$  multiplicative group of order  $r$

$g$  generator,  $\mathbf{G} = \{1, g, g^2, g^3, \dots, g^{r-2}, g^{r-1}\}$

Given  $h \in \mathbf{G}$ , find integer  $x \in \{0, 1, \dots, r - 1\}$  such that  $h = g^x$ .

Exponentiation easy:  $(g, x) \mapsto g^x$

Discrete logarithm hard in well-chosen groups  $\mathbf{G}$

## Choice of group

**Prime finite field**  $\mathbb{F}_p = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  where  $p$  is a prime integer

Multiplicative group:  $\mathbb{F}_p^* = \{1, 2, \dots, p - 1\}$

Multiplication *modulo p*

**Finite field**  $\mathbb{F}_{2^n} = \text{GF}(2^n)$ ,  $\mathbb{F}_{3^m} = \text{GF}(3^m)$  for efficient arithmetic, now broken

**Elliptic curves**  $E: y^2 = x^3 + ax + b/\mathbb{F}_p$

# Diffie-Hellman key exchange

Alice

Bob

## Diffie-Hellman key exchange

Alice

$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$

Bob

$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$

public parameters

# Diffie-Hellman key exchange

Alice

$$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$$

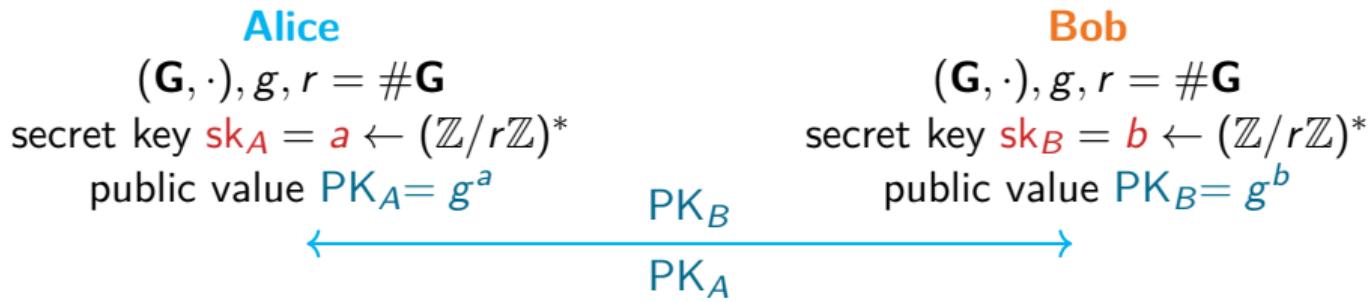
secret key  $sk_A = a \leftarrow (\mathbb{Z}/r\mathbb{Z})^*$   
public value  $PK_A = g^a$

Bob

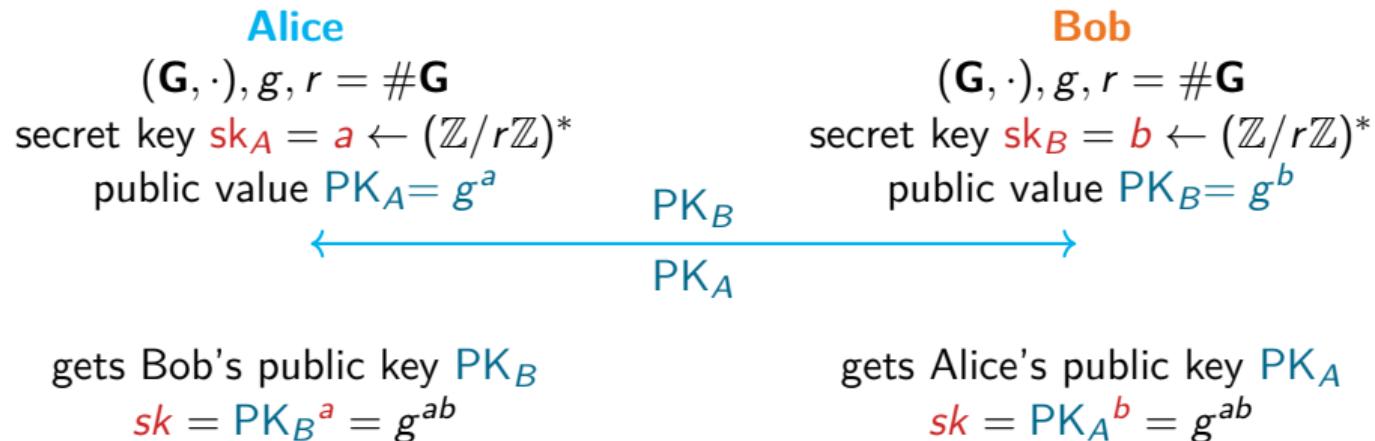
$$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$$

secret key  $sk_B = b \leftarrow (\mathbb{Z}/r\mathbb{Z})^*$   
public value  $PK_B = g^b$

# Diffie-Hellman key exchange



# Diffie-Hellman key exchange



## EIGamal, Schnorr signature, DSA

# EIGamal encryption

Alice

Bob

# EIGamal encryption

Alice

$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$

Bob

public parameters

$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$

## ElGamal encryption

Alice

$$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$$

secret key  $\text{sk}_A = a \leftarrow (\mathbb{Z}/r\mathbb{Z})^*$

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Bob

$$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$$

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Alice

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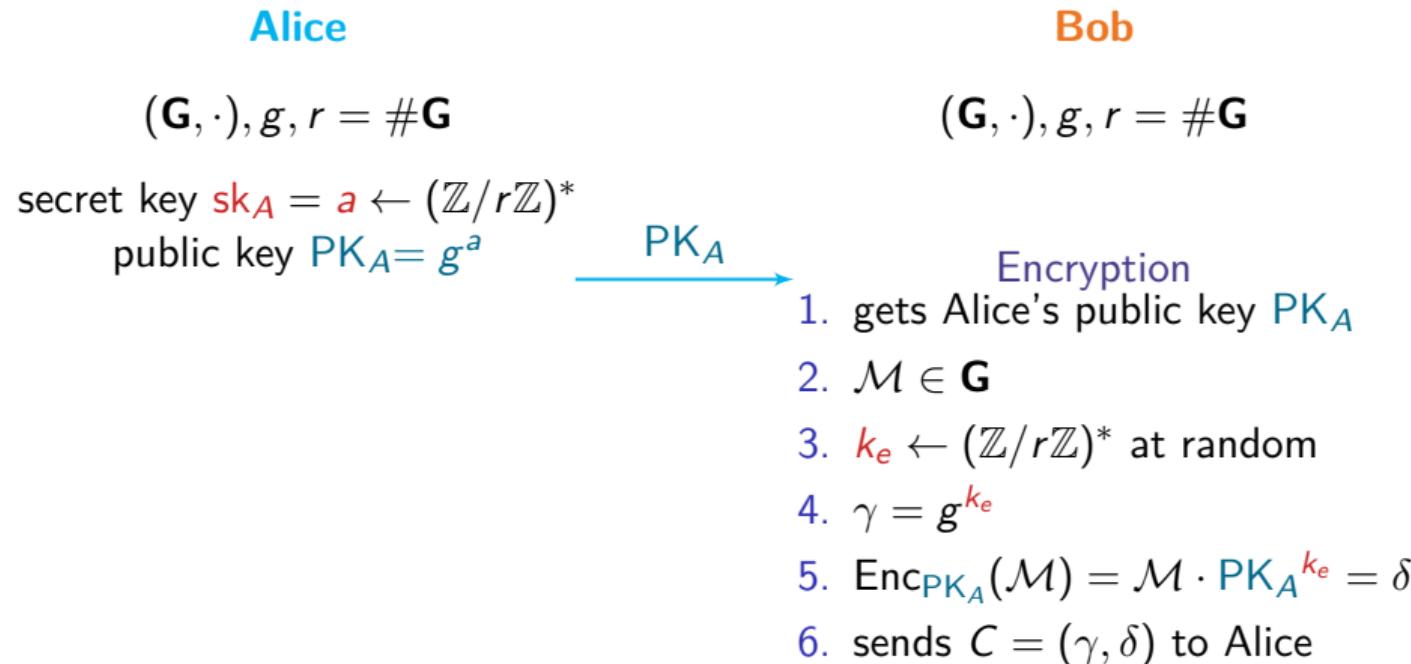
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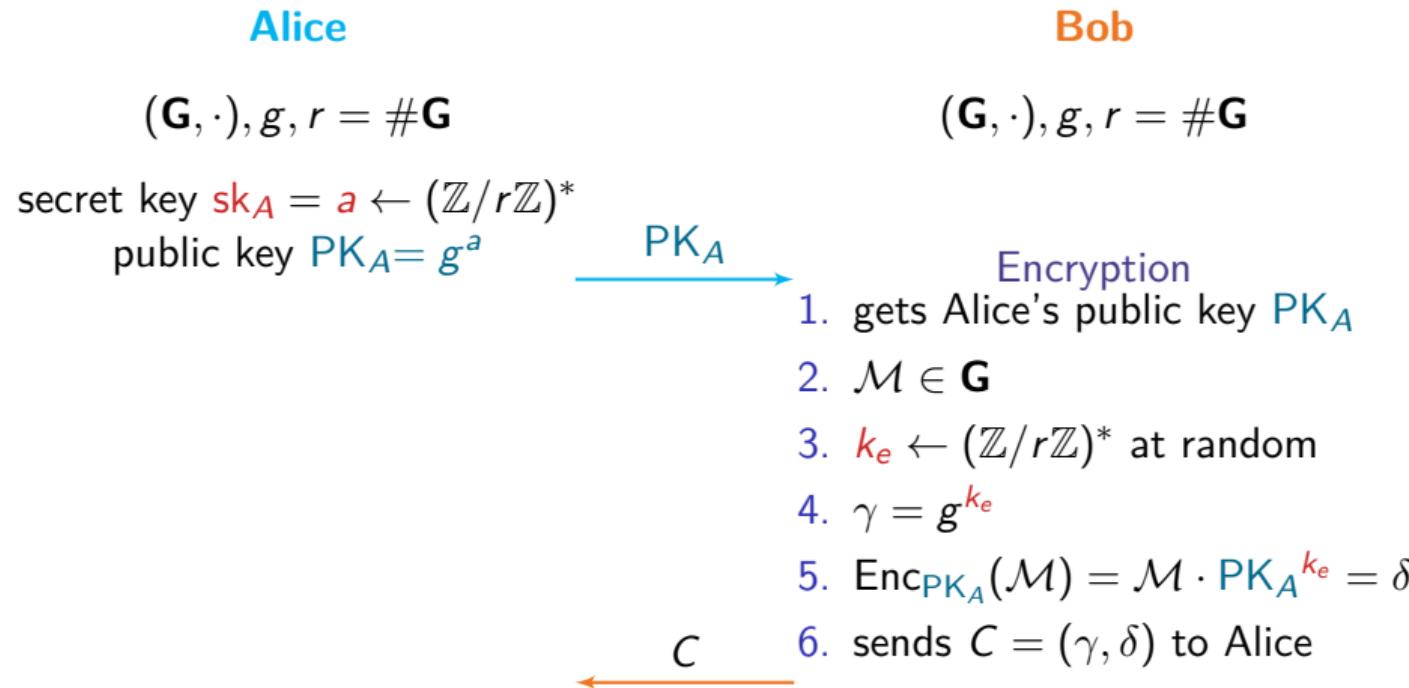
$$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$$

$\xrightarrow{PK_A}$

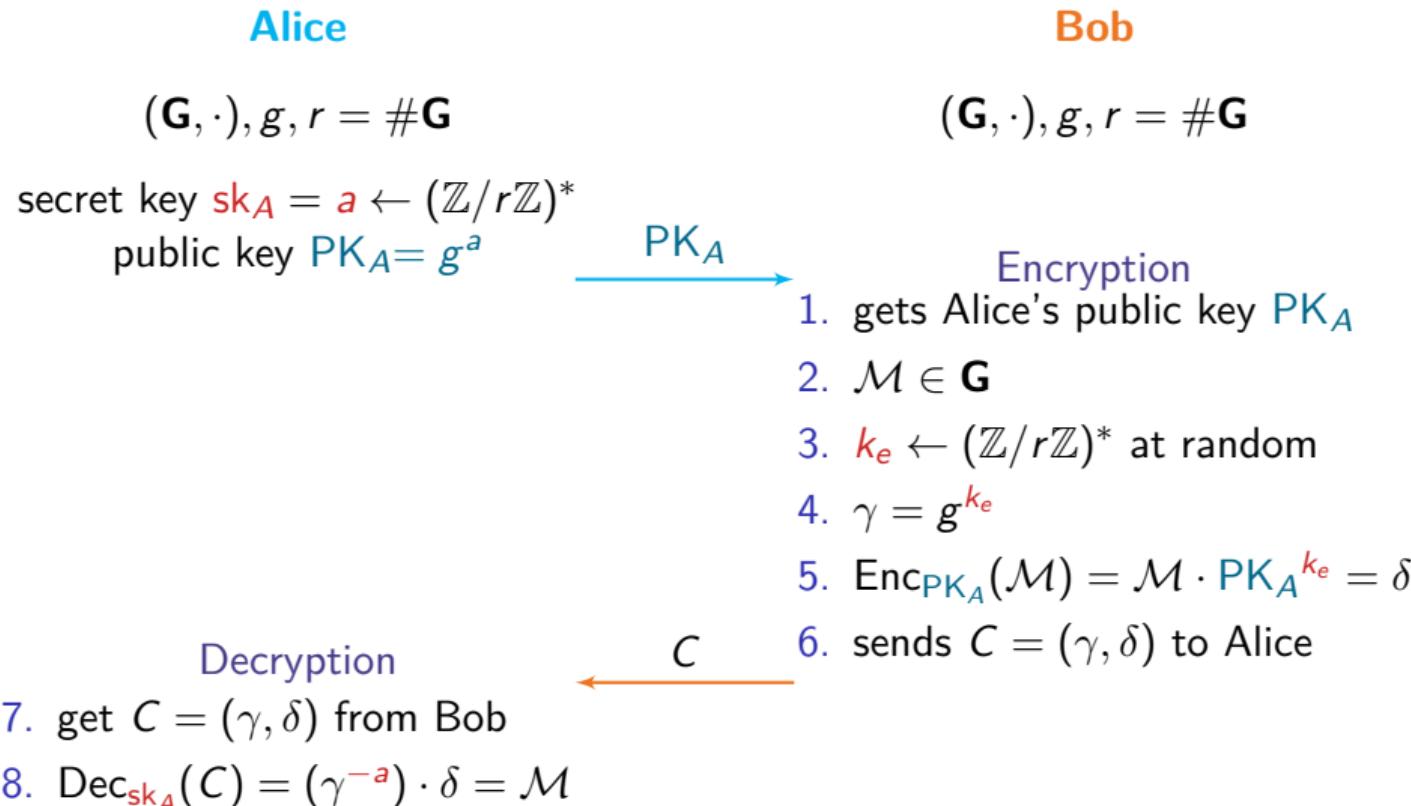
# EIGamal encryption



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# Asymmetric cryptography

## Factorization (RSA cryptosystem)

Discrete logarithm problem (use in Diffie-Hellman, etc)

Given a finite cyclic group  $(\mathbf{G}, \cdot)$ , a generator  $g$  and  $h \in \mathbf{G}$ , compute  $x$  s.t.  $h = g^x$ .  
→ can we invert the exponentiation function  $(g, x) \mapsto g^x$ ?

Common choice of  $\mathbf{G}$ :

- prime finite field  $\mathbb{F}_p = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  (1976)
- characteristic 2 field  $\mathbb{F}_{2^n}$  ( $\approx 1979$ )
- elliptic curve  $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$  (1985)

## Discrete log problem

How fast can we invert the exponentiation function  $(g, x) \mapsto g^x$ ?

- $g \in G$  generator,  $\exists$  always a preimage  $x \in \{1, \dots, \#G\}$
- naive search, try them all:  $\#G$  tests
- $O(\sqrt{\#G})$  generic algorithms

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  - Shanks baby-step-giant-step (BSGS):  $O(\sqrt{\#G})$ , deterministic
  - random walk in  $G$ , cycle path finding algorithm in a connected graph (Floyd) → Pollard:  $O(\sqrt{\#G})$ , probabilistic  
(the cycle path encodes the answer)
  - parallel search (parallel Pollard, Kangarous)

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  - parallel search (parallel Pollard, Kangarous)
- independent search in each distinct subgroup  
+ Chinese remainder theorem (Pohlig-Hellman)

## Discrete log problem

How fast can we invert the exponentiation function  $(g, x) \mapsto g^x$ ?

- choose  $G$  of large prime order (no subgroup)
- complexity of inverting exponentiation in  $O(\sqrt{\#G})$
- **security level 128 bits** means  $\sqrt{\#G} \geq 2^{128}$ 
  - take  $\#G = 2^{256}$
  - analogy with symmetric crypto, keylength 128 bits (16 bytes)

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  - analogy with symmetric crypto, keylength 128 bits (16 bytes)

Use additional structure of  $G$  if any.

## Discrete log problem when $\mathbf{G} = (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$

Index calculus algorithm [Western–Miller 68, Adleman 79],  
prequel of the Number Field Sieve algorithm (NFS)

- $p$  prime,  $(p - 1)/2$  prime,  $\mathbf{G} = (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ , gen.  $g$ , target  $h$

- get many multiplicative relations in  $\mathbf{G}$

$$g^t = g_1^{e_1} g_2^{e_2} \cdots g_i^{e_i} \pmod{p}, \quad g, g_1, g_2, \dots, g_i \in \mathbf{G}$$

- find a relation  $h \cdot g^s = g_1^{e'_1} g_2^{e'_2} \cdots g_i^{e'_i} \pmod{p}$

- take logarithm: linear relations

$$t = e_1 \log g_1 + e_2 \log g_2 + \dots + e_i \log g_i \pmod{p-1}$$

⋮

$$\log h = -s + e'_1 \log g_1 + e'_2 \log g_2 + \dots + e'_i \log g_i \pmod{p-1}$$

- solve a linear system

- get  $x = \log h$

## Index calculus in $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ : example

$p = 1109$ ,  $r = (p - 1)/4 = 277$  prime

Smoothness bound  $B = 13$

$\mathcal{F}_{13} = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13\}$  small primes up to  $B$ ,  $i = \#\mathcal{F}$

$B$ -smooth integer:  $n = \prod_{p_i \leq B} p_i^{e_i}$ ,  $p_i$  prime

is  $g^s$  smooth?  $1 \leq s \leq 72$  is enough

$$\begin{array}{l}
 g^1 = 2 = 2 \\
 g^{13} = 429 = 3 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 \\
 g^{16} = 105 = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \\
 g^{21} = 33 = 3 \cdot 11 \\
 g^{44} = 1029 = 3 \cdot 7^3 \\
 g^{72} = 325 = 5^2 \cdot 13
 \end{array}
 \rightarrow
 \begin{matrix}
 & 2 & 3 & 5 & 7 & 11 & 13 \\
 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 13 \\ 16 \\ 21 \\ 44 \\ 72 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{matrix}$$

$$\mathbf{x} = [1, 219, 40, 34, 79, 269] \text{ mod } 277$$

$\rightarrow \log_g 7 = 34 \text{ mod } 277$ , that is,  $(g^{34})^4 = 7^4$

$g^{34} = 7u$  and  $u^4 = 1$

## Index calculus in $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ : example

$$\mathbf{x} = [1, 219, 40, 34, 79, 269] \bmod 277$$

$$\text{subgroup of order 4: } g_4 = g^{(p-1)/4}$$

$$\{1, g_4, g_4^2, g_4^3\} = \{1, 354, 1108, 755\}$$

Pohlig-Hellman:

$$3/g^{219} = 1 = 1 \Rightarrow \log_g 3 = = 219$$

$$5/g^{40} = 1108 = -1 \Rightarrow \log_g 5 = 40 + (p-1)/2 = 594$$

$$7/g^{34} = 354 = g_4 \Rightarrow \log_g 7 = 34 + (p-1)/4 = 311$$

$$11/g^{79} = 755 = g_4^3 \Rightarrow \log_g 11 = 79 + 3(p-1)/4 = 910$$

$$13/g^{269} = 755 = g_4^3 \Rightarrow \log_g 13 = 269 + 3(p-1)/4 = 1100$$

$$\mathbf{v} = [1, 219, 594, 311, 910, 1100] \bmod p-1$$

Target  $h = 777$

$$g^{10} \cdot 777 = 495 = 3^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 11 \bmod p$$

$$\log_2 777 = -10 + 2 \log_g 3 + \log_g 5 + \log_g 11 = 824 \bmod p-1$$

$$g^{824} = 777$$

## Index calculus in $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ : example

Trick

Multiplicative relations over the **integers**

$g_1, g_2, \dots, g_i \longleftrightarrow$  small prime integers

Smooth integers  $n = \prod_{p_i \leq B} p_i^{e_i}$  are quite common  $\rightarrow$  it works

Complexity  $e^{\sqrt{(2+o(1))(\log p)(\log \log p)}}$  (Pomerance 87)

## Index calculus in $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ : example

Trick

Multiplicative relations over the **integers**

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Improvements in the 80's, 90's:

- Sieve (faster relation collection)
- Smaller integers to factor
- Multiplicative relations in **number fields**
- Better **sparse linear algebra**
- Independent targets  $h$

## Number Field: Toy example with $\mathbb{Z}[i]$

1986: Coppersmith–Odlyzko–Schroeppel, DL in  $\text{GF}(p)$

If  $p = 1 \pmod 4$ ,  $\exists U, V$  s.t.  $p = U^2 + V^2$

and  $|U|, |V| < \sqrt{p}$

$U/V \equiv m \pmod p$  and  $m^2 + 1 = 0 \pmod p$

Define a map from  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  to  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$

$$\phi: \mathbb{Z}[i] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$$

$$i \mapsto m \pmod p \text{ where } m = U/V, \quad m^2 + 1 = 0 \pmod p$$

ring homomorphism  $\phi(a + bi) = a + bm$

$$\underbrace{\phi(a + bi)}_{\substack{\text{factor in} \\ \mathbb{Z}[i]}} = a + bm = (a + b \underbrace{U/V}_{=m}) = (\underbrace{aV + bU}_{\substack{\text{factor in} \\ \mathbb{Z}}})V^{-1} \pmod p$$

## Example in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$

$p = 1109 = 1 \bmod 4$ ,  $r = (p - 1)/4 = 277$  prime

$$p = 22^2 + 25^2$$

$\max(|a|, |b|) = A = 20$ ,  $B = 13$  smoothness bound

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$$\mathcal{F}_{\text{rat}} = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13\} \text{ primes up to } B$$

$$g(x) = Vx - U$$

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Algebraic side: think about the complex number in  $\mathbb{C}$

$$-i(1+i)^2 = 2, (2+i)(2-i) = 5, (2+3i)(2-3i) = 13$$

$$\mathcal{F}_{\text{alg}} = \{1+i, 2+i, 2-i, 2+3i, 2-3i\}$$

“primes” of norm up to  $B$

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### Units

$$\mathcal{U}_{\text{alg}} = \{-1, i, -i\}$$

## Example in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$

$$p = 1109$$

$$(a, b) = (-4, 7),$$

$$\text{Norm}(-4 + 7i) = (-4)^2 + 7^2 = 65 = 5 \cdot 13$$

In  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ ,

- $5 = (2 + i)(2 - i)$
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We obtain  $i(2 - i)(2 + 3i) = -4 + 7i$

$$i \leftrightarrow m = 22/25 = 755 \bmod p$$

$$m(2 - m)(2 + 3m) = 845 \bmod p$$

$$-4 + 7m = 845 \bmod p$$

$$(-4 \cdot 25 + 7 \cdot 22)/25 = 845 \bmod p$$

## Example in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$

$a + bi$	$aV + bU = \text{factor in } \mathbb{Z}$	$a^2 + b^2$	factor in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$
$-17 + 19i$	$-7 = -7$	$650 = 2 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 13$	$i(1+i)(2+i)^2(2-3i)$
$-11 + 2i$	$-231 = -3 \cdot 7 \cdot 11$	$125 = 5^3$	$i(2+i)^3$
$-6 + 17i$	$224 = 2^5 \cdot 7$	$325 = 5^2 \cdot 13$	$(2+i)^2(2+3i)$
$-4 + 7i$	$54 = 2 \cdot 3^3$	$65 = 5 \cdot 13$	$i(2-i)(2+3i)$
$-3 + 4i$	$13 = 13$	$25 = 5^2$	$-(2-i)^2$
$-2 + i$	$-28 = -2^2 \cdot 7$	$5 = 5$	$-(2-i)$
$-2 + 3i$	$16 = 2^4$	$13 = 13$	$-(2-3i)$
$-2 + 11i$	$192 = 2^6 \cdot 3$	$125 = 5^3$	$-(2-i)^3$
$-1 + i$	$-3 = -3$	$2 = 2$	$i(1+i)$
$i$	$22 = 2 \cdot 11$	$1 = 1$	$i$
$1 + 3i$	$91 = 7 \cdot 13$	$10 = 2 \cdot 5$	$(1+i)(2+i)$
$1 + 5i$	$135 = 3^3 \cdot 5$	$26 = 2 \cdot 13$	$i(1+i)(2-3i)$
$2 + i$	$72 = 2^3 \cdot 3^2$	$5 = 5$	$(2+i)$
$5 + i$	$147 = 3 \cdot 7^2$	$26 = 2 \cdot 13$	$-i(1+i)(2+3i)$

## Example in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ : Matrix

Build the matrix of relations:

- one row per  $(a, b)$  pair s.t. both norms are smooth
- one column per prime of  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{rat}}$
- one column for  $1/V$
- one column per prime ideal of  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{alg}}$
- one column per unit  $(-1, i)$
- store the exponents

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 5 & 7 & 11 & 13 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{v}} & -1 & i & 1+i & 2+i & 2-i & 2+3i & 2-3i \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 6 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2 \ 3 \ 5 \ 7 \ 11 \ 13 \ \frac{1}{\sqrt{v}} \ -1 \ i \ \textcolor{orange}{1+i} \ \textcolor{red}{2+i} \ \textcolor{blue}{2-i} \ \textcolor{red}{2+3i} \ \textcolor{blue}{2-3i}$$

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} & & & 1 & 2 \\ & 1 & & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 3 & \\ 5 & & 1 & & 1 & & 2 & 1 & \\ 1 & 3 & & & 1 & 1 & & 1 & \\ & & 1 & 1 & 1 & & 2 & \\ 2 & & 1 & & 1 & & 1 & \\ 4 & & & 1 & 1 & & & 1 \\ 6 & 1 & & & 1 & 1 & & 3 \\ 1 & & & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & \\ 1 & & 1 & 1 & 1 & & 1 & \\ & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & \\ 3 & 1 & & & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & & & 1 & & 1 & \\ 1 & 2 & & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2 \quad 3 \quad 5 \quad 7 \quad 11 \quad 13 \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{v}} \quad -1 \quad i \quad \textcolor{orange}{1+i} \quad \textcolor{red}{2+i} \quad \textcolor{blue}{2-i} \quad \textcolor{red}{2+3i} \quad \textcolor{blue}{2-3i}$$

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} & & & -1-2 & & \\ & 1 & & 1-1-1-1-2 & & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1-1-1 & -3 & \\ 5 & 1 & & 1 & -2 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 & & 1 & -1 & -1-1 \\ & & 1 & 1-1 & & -2 \\ 2 & & 1 & 1 & & -1 \\ 4 & & & 1-1 & & -1 \\ 6 & 1 & & 1-1 & & -3 \\ 1 & & & 1-1-1-1 & & \\ 1 & & 1 & 1 & -1 & \\ & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1-1 & \\ 3 & 1 & & 1 & -1-1 & -1 \\ 3 & 2 & & 1 & -1 & \\ 1 & 2 & & 1-1-1-1 & & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Example in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$

Right kernel  $M \cdot \mathbf{x} = 0 \bmod (p-1)/4 = 277$ :

$$\mathbf{x} = (\underbrace{1, 219, 40, 34, 79, 269}_{\text{rational side}}, \underbrace{197}_{1/V}, \underbrace{0, 0}_{\text{units}}, \underbrace{139, 84, 233, 68, 201}_{\text{algebraic side}})$$

Logarithms (in some basis)

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Rational side: logarithms of  $\{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13\}$  in basis 2

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→ order 4 subgroup

$$\mathbf{v} = [1, 219, 594, 311, 910, 1100] \bmod p-1$$

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Target 314, generator  $g = 2$

$$314 = -20/7 \pmod{p} = -2^2 \cdot 5/7$$

$$\begin{aligned}\log_g 314 &= \log_g -1 + 2 \log_g 2 + \log_g 5 - \log_g 7 \\ &= (p-1)/2 + 2 + 594 - 311 = 839 \pmod{p-1}\end{aligned}$$

$$2^{839} = 314 \pmod{p}$$

# Number Field Sieve

Since 1993 (Gordon, Schirokauer):

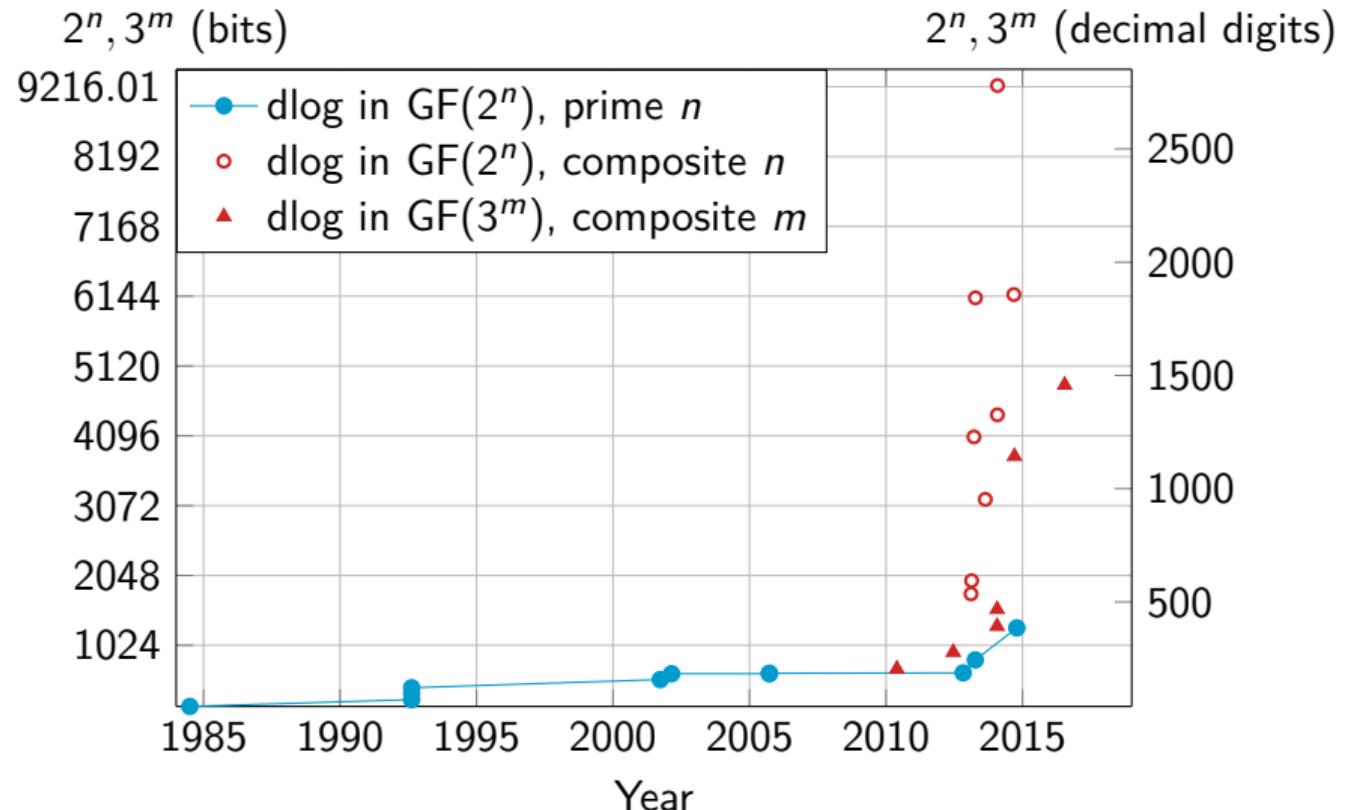
$$L_p(1/3, c) = e^{(c+o(1))(\log p)^{1/3}(\log \log p)^{2/3}}$$

- polynomial selection
- **relation collection**  $L_p(1/3, 1.923)$   
sieve to enumerate efficiently  $(a, b)$  pairs
- **sparse linear algebra**  $L_p(1/3, 1.923)$   
compute right kernel mod prime  $\ell$ , block-Wiedemann alg.
- individual discrete logarithm

## Attacks on discrete-logarithm based cryptosystems

1. Sony Play-Station 3 (PS3) hacking
  - 1.1 ECDSA signature
  - 1.2 PS3 problem
2. Weak DH attack
3. Weak keys in the Moscow internet voting system

## Discrete logarithm computation in finite fields $\mathbb{F}_{2^n}$ and $\mathbb{F}_{3^m}$



# Outline

Diffie-Hellman, and the discrete logarithm problem

Discrete logarithm problem and cryptosystems

Computing discrete logarithms

Generic algorithms of square root complexity

## Pairings

## What is a pairing?

$(\mathbf{G}_1, +), (\mathbf{G}_2, +), (\mathbf{G}_3, \cdot)$  three cyclic groups of order  $r$

Pairing: map  $e : \mathbf{G}_1 \times \mathbf{G}_2 \rightarrow \mathbf{G}_3$

1. bilinear:  $e(P_1 + P_2, Q) = e(P_1, Q) \cdot e(P_2, Q)$ ,  $e(P, Q_1 + Q_2) = e(P, Q_1) \cdot e(P, Q_2)$
2. non-degenerate:  $e(G_1, G_2) \neq 1$  for  $\langle G_1 \rangle = \mathbf{G}_1$ ,  $\langle G_2 \rangle = \mathbf{G}_2$
3. efficiently computable.

In practice we use mostly

$$e([a]P, [b]Q) = e([b]P, [a]Q) = e(P, Q)^{ab} .$$

~ Many applications in asymmetric cryptography.

# Pairings in cryptography: 1993 and 2001

**1993**

Menezes–Okamoto–Vanstone attack

**2001**

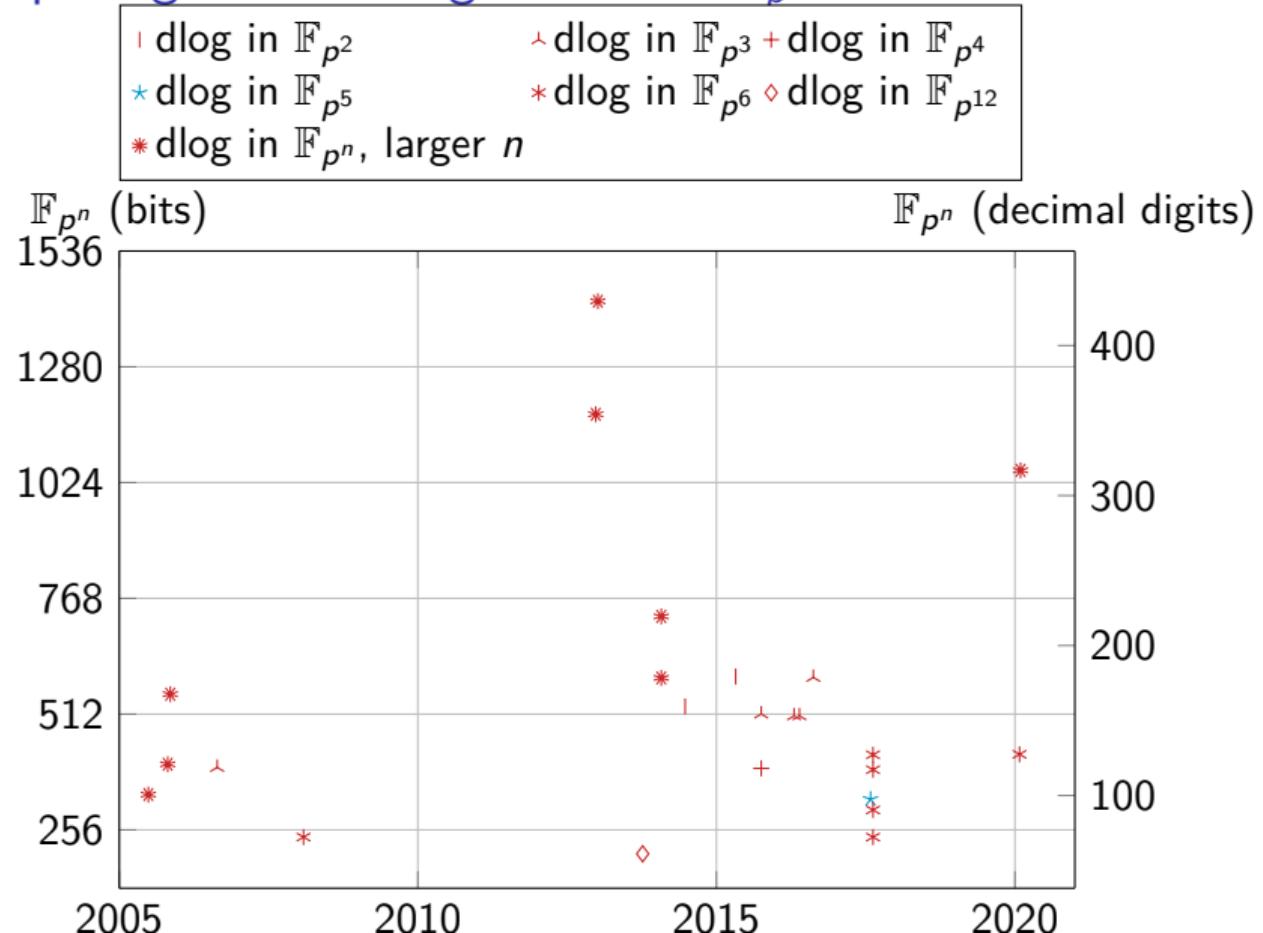
- Joux' tri-partite key exchange
- Boneh Franklin Identity based encryption
- Boneh Lynn Shacham short signature

Pairings with curves over fields  $\mathbb{F}_{2^n}$  and  $\mathbb{F}_{3^m}$ , rise and fall

## Pairings with curves over fields $\mathbb{F}_p$

<https://members.loria.fr/AGuillevic/pairing-friendly-curves/>

## Computing Discrete logarithms in $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$



## Choosing key-sizes

<https://members.loria.fr/AGuillevic/pairing-friendly-curves/>