Cours MPRI 2-12-2 Lecture 5/5: NFS

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Teaser: factoring with cubic integers

General principle

Another rosy example (skipped)

Doing it seriously

Complexity analysis

The initial idea

Factoring $F_7 = 2^{128} + 1$ was one of the early achievements of CFRAC in the 1970's. Is there another way ? Pollard noticed:

$$2F_7 = 2^{129} + 2 = m^3 + 2$$
, with $m = 2^{43}$.

Factoring $2F_7$

We have $2F_7 = 2^{129} + 2 = m^3 + 2$, with $m = 2^{43}$. Define the number field $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha = \sqrt[3]{-2})$.

- K is one of the textbook examples of number fields.
- The algebraic integers in K are Z[α]. These possess unique factorization. (lucky !)

Assume we have many (a, b)'s such that:

- The integer a − bm is smooth (w.r.t some bound B).
 ⇒ write a − bm as a product of primes (and possibly −1).
- The algebraic integer a − bα too.
 ⇒ write a − bα as a product of algebraic integers (and possibly units).

Collect sufficiently many, and combine to make all valuations even!

Even in the simple example of $2F_7$, we have possible complications.

Norm
$$(2\alpha^2 - 3\alpha + 1) = 51 = 3 \times 17$$
,
 $(2\alpha^2 - 3\alpha + 1) = (\alpha - 1) \times (2\alpha^2 + \alpha - 1) \times \text{unit},$
 $= (\alpha - 1) \times (2\alpha^2 + \alpha - 1) \times (-\alpha^2 + \alpha - 1).$

The units which appear have to be taken into account.

- Not too frightening for $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$, but problematic for bigger fields.
- Units are only one of the obstructions encountered.

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NFS is among the algorithms which search for solutions to:

$$X^2 \equiv Y^2 \mod N,$$

as a means to factor N.

- For N = pq, such a congruence reveals a non-trivial factor gcd(X Y, N) with probability 1/2.
- Several congruences of squares are needed.
- NFS will never factor p²q as p × pq. Always p² × q. (but anyway, detecting prime powers is trivial).

Goal: let squares modulo N appear as images of squares in something else via ring morphisms from two different strutures.

NFS: • these ring morphisms come from number fields

ullet usually, we take one of these number fields to be \mathbb{Q} .

NFS as a framework also embraces NFS-DL and FFS. (although we care less about squares in that case).

Strategy (2)

 $\varphi(a \text{ square somewhere}) = a \text{ square in } \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}.$

Fabricating a square in this "somewhere":

- Focus on smooth objects which can be written in factored form.
- Restrict to those which factor over a factor base (set of prescribed size).
- Gather sufficiently many.
- Combine in order to build a square (all exponents even).
- Recover the square root of this square.

NFS takes long routes to achieve this.

Consider:

- a number field K = Q(α) defined by f(α) = 0, for f irreducible over Q and deg f = d;
- extra constraint: $\exists m \in \mathbb{Z}, f(m) \equiv 0 \mod N$.

This provides a ring morphism: $\begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}[\alpha] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}, \\ \alpha \mapsto m \mod N. \end{cases}$

The pair (f, m) is well suited to factoring N.

Broader NFS terminology refers to (f, g), with g = x - m.

The GNFS setup

For factoring "general" N, GNFS uses:

- a number field K = Q(α) defined by f(α) = 0, for f irreducible over Q and deg f = d;
- Another irreducible polynomial g such that f and g have a common root m mod N (example: g = x m).
- g defines the rational side, f defines the algebraic side.

Restating with the resultant

The following restatement can be useful.

f and g share a root modulo $N \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{Res}_{\times}(f,g) = 0 \mod N$.

Choosing f and g is referred to as the polynomial selection step.

Structures

- f defines $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ (and the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] \subset K$).
- g defines \mathbb{Q} , but in a fancy way (and the ring $\mathbb{Z}[m] \subset \mathbb{Q}$).

Ring morphisms (because m is a root of both modulo N):

$$\varphi_f: \left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{Z}[\alpha] & \to & \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}, \\ T(\alpha) & \mapsto & T(m) \bmod N, \end{array} \right. \qquad \varphi_g: \left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{Z}[m] & \to & \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}, \\ t & \mapsto & t \bmod N. \end{array} \right.$$

These morphism are arrows inside a commutative diagram.

Note: having deg g > 1 is also allowed (but making up examples is harder).



This diagram commutes.

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Relations in NFS

$$\mathbb{Z}[x]$$

$$\psi^{(1)}: x \mapsto m / \qquad \psi^{(2)}: x \mapsto \alpha$$

$$\mathbb{Z}[m] \qquad \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$$

$$\varphi_g: t \mapsto t \mod N / \qquad \swarrow \varphi_f: \alpha \mapsto m \mod N$$

$$\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$$

Take for example a - bx in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. Suppose for a moment that:

- the integer a bm is smooth: product of factor base primes;
- the algebraic integer $a b\alpha$ is also a product.
- factors occuring on both sides belong to a small set (factor base).

NFS collects many such "good pairs" (a, b).

Collecting relations

Suppose factor bases are: • $\{p_1, \ldots, p_{99}\}$ (rational), • $\{\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_{99}\}$ (algebraic).

Good pairs could lead to:

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 - b_1 m &= p_2 \times p_4^3 \times p_{12} \times p_{22}, \\ a_2 - b_2 m &= p_1 \times p_3 \times p_5^2 \times p_{47}, \\ a_3 - b_3 m &= p_2 \times p_7 \times p_{12}, \\ a_4 - b_4 m &= p_1^6 \times p_4 \times p_7 \times p_{22}, \end{aligned}$$

Collecting relations

Suppose factor bases are: • { p_1, \ldots, p_{99} } (rational), • { π_1, \ldots, π_{99} } (algebraic). Good pairs could lead to: $a_1 - b_1m = p_2 \times p_4^3 \times p_{12} \times p_{22}$, and at the same time: $a_2 - b_2m = p_1 \times p_3 \times p_5^2 \times p_{47}$, $a_2 - b_2\alpha = \pi_1 \times \pi_3^2 \times \pi_6^2 \times \pi_{35}$, $a_3 - b_3m = p_2 \times p_7 \times p_{12}$, $a_3 - b_3\alpha = \pi_1^3 \times \pi_3 \times \pi_{23} \times \pi_{35}$, $a_4 - b_4m = p_1^6 \times p_4 \times p_7 \times p_{22}$, $a_4 - b_4\alpha = \pi_2^4 \times \pi_3 \times \pi_{23}$,

Mission

Our plan is to have something which is a square on both sides. NFS intends to achieve this by combining relations.

Combining relations

- $\begin{aligned} & a_1 b_1 m = p_2 \times p_4^3 \times p_{12} \times p_{22}, \\ & a_1 b_1 \alpha = \pi_1 \times \pi_3^2 \times \pi_6^2 \times \pi_{35}, \\ & a_2 b_2 m = p_1 \times p_3 \times p_5^2 \times p_{47}, \\ & a_3 b_3 m = p_2 \times p_7 \times p_{12}, \\ & a_4 b_4 m = p_1^6 \times p_4 \times p_7 \times p_{22}, \end{aligned} \\ \begin{vmatrix} a_1 b_1 \alpha = \pi_1 \times \pi_3^2 \times \pi_6^2 \times \pi_{35}, \\ & a_2 b_2 \alpha = \pi_2 \times \pi_8^2 \times \pi_{29}, \\ & a_3 b_3 \alpha = \pi_1^3 \times \pi_3 \times \pi_{23} \times \pi_{35}, \\ & a_4 b_4 \alpha = \pi_2^4 \times \pi_3 \times \pi_{23}, \end{aligned}$
 - Find a combination which makes all exponents even.
 - Evaluating $(a_1 b_1 x)(a_3 b_3 x)(a_4 b_4 x)$ at both *m* and α leads to a square on both sides.
 - Apply φ_g and φ_f : we get a congruence of squares in $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$.

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Caveat

This is too rosy. $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ not a UFD. Complications ahead.

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Exemple de factorisation par NFS

On s'intéresse à N = 16259 = 16384 - 125 = 16384 - 128 + 3. On pose:

$$f(x) = x^2 - x + 3, m = 128, g(x) = x - m.$$

On a ainsi: f(m) = N et g(m) = 0. Soit α une racine de f dans \mathbb{C} $(\alpha = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{-11}))$.



Coup de chance, $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ est un anneau euclidien. Certains nombres premiers dans \mathbb{Z} se factorisent dans $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$. Les nombres premiers de $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ sont:

$$\begin{array}{c} 2, \\ 3 = \alpha \times (1 - \alpha), \\ 5 = (1 + \alpha) \times (2 - \alpha), \\ 7, \\ 11 = -(1 - 2\alpha)^2, \\ 13, \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 17, \\ 19, \\ 23 = (4 + \alpha) \times (5 - \alpha), \\ 29, \\ 31 = (4 - 3\alpha) \times (1 + 3\alpha), \\ 37 = (2 + 3\alpha) \times (5 - 3\alpha), \end{array}$$

Note: comme $\alpha^2 - \alpha + 3 = 0$, on a $\bar{\alpha} = 1 - \alpha$.

Factoriser des deux côtés



- On part de $a bx \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$.
- On espère avoir a bm et $a b\alpha$ simultanément friables.
- Par résolution d'un système linéaire, on fabrique un carré de chaque côté.

Relations

On veut des nombres premiers inférieurs à B = 40.

$$1 - 1m = -127 = -127,$$

$$1 - 2m = -255 = -3 \times 5 \times 17,$$

$$1 - 3m = -383 = -383,$$

$$1 - 4m = -511 = -7 \times 73,$$

$$1 - 5m = -639 = -3^2 \times 71,$$

$$2 - 1m = -126 = -2 \times 3^2 \times 7,$$

$$2 - 3m = -382 = -2 \times 191,$$

$$2 - 5m = -638 = -2 \times 11 \times 29,$$

$$3 - 1m = -125 = -5^3,$$

$$3 - 2m = -253 = -11 \times 23,$$

$$3 - 4m = -509 = -509,$$

$$3 - 5m = -637 = -7^2 \times 13,$$

$$4 - 1m = -124 = -2^2 \times 31,$$

$$4 - 3m = -380 = -2^2 \times 5 \times 19,$$

$$\begin{array}{l} 4-5m=-636=-2^2\times3\times53,\\ 5-1m=-123=-3\times41,\\ 5-2m=-251=-251,\\ 5-3m=-379=-379,\\ 5-4m=-507=-3\times13^2,\\ 6-1m=-122=-2\times61,\\ 6-5m=-634=-2\times317,\\ 7-1m=-121=-11^2,\\ 7-2m=-249=-3\times83,\\ 7-3m=-377=-13\times29,\\ 7-4m=-505=-5\times101,\\ 7-5m=-633=-3\times211,\\ 8-1m=-120=-2^3\times3\times5,\\ 8-3m=-376=-2^3\times47, \end{array}$$

On ne garde que ce qui est bon

$$\begin{array}{l} 1-2m=-255=-3\times5\times17,\\ 2-1m=-126=-2\times3^2\times7,\\ 2-5m=-638=-2\times11\times29,\\ 3-1m=-125=-5^3,\\ 3-2m=-253=-11\times23,\\ 3-5m=-637=-7^2\times13,\\ 4-1m=-124=-2^2\times31,\\ 4-3m=-380=-2^2\times5\times19,\\ 5-4m=-507=-3\times13^2,\\ 7-1m=-121=-11^2,\\ 7-3m=-377=-13\times29,\\ 8-1m=-120=-2^3\times3\times5,\\ 9-1m=-119=-7\times17,\\ 9-2m=-247=-13\times19, \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} 10 - 3m = -374 = -2 \times 11 \times 17, \\ 11 - 1m = -117 = -3^2 \times 13, \\ 11 - 2m = -245 = -5 \times 7^2, \\ 11 - 5m = -629 = -17 \times 37, \\ 12 - 1m = -116 = -2^2 \times 29, \\ 13 - 1m = -115 = -5 \times 23, \\ 13 - 2m = -243 = -3^5, \\ 13 - 5m = -627 = -3 \times 11 \times 19, \\ 14 - 1m = -114 = -2 \times 3 \times 19, \\ 14 - 3m = -370 = -2 \times 5 \times 37, \\ 16 - 1m = -112 = -2^4 \times 7, \\ 16 - 3m = -368 = -2^4 \times 23, \\ 16 - 5m = -624 = -2^4 \times 3 \times 13, \\ 17 - 1m = -111 = -3 \times 37, \end{array}$$

Côté algébrique

On fait pareil. Pour factoriser $a - b\alpha$, on commence par calculer la norme:

$$N(a - b\alpha) = (a - b\alpha)(a - b\overline{\alpha}) = b^{\deg f}f(a/b).$$

En fonction de la factorisation de la norme, on détermine les facteurs présents.

$$1 - \alpha = (1 - \alpha),$$

$$1 - 2\alpha = (1 - 2\alpha),$$

$$1 - 3\alpha = (2 - \alpha)^2,$$

$$1 - 4\alpha = (1 - \alpha)^2 \times (1 + \alpha),$$

$$1 - 5\alpha = (1 - 5\alpha),$$

$$2 - \alpha = (2 - \alpha),$$

$$2 - 3\alpha = -(1 + \alpha)^2,$$

$$2 - 5\alpha = (1 - \alpha) \times (5 - \alpha),$$

$$3 - \alpha = -(\alpha)^2,$$

$$\begin{array}{l} 3 - 2\alpha = -(\alpha) \times (1 + \alpha), \\ 3 - 4\alpha = -(\alpha)^2 \times (2 - \alpha), \\ 3 - 5\alpha = -(\alpha) \times (4 + \alpha), \\ 4 - \alpha = (1 - \alpha) \times (1 + \alpha), \\ 4 - 3\alpha = (4 - 3\alpha), \\ 4 - 5\alpha = (4 - 5\alpha), \\ 5 - \alpha = (5 - \alpha), \\ 5 - 2\alpha = -(1 - \alpha)^3, \\ 5 - 3\alpha = (5 - 3\alpha), \end{array}$$

Friabilité simultanée

$$\begin{array}{rl} 1+3m=5\times7\times11 & 1+3\alpha=(3\alpha+1),\\ 1-2m=-3\times5\times17 & 1-2\alpha=-(2\alpha-1),\\ 2+1m=2\times5\times13 & 2+1\alpha=-(-\alpha+1)^2,\\ 2-1m=-2\times3^2\times7 & 2-1\alpha=(-\alpha+2),\\ 2-5m=-2\times11\times29 & 2-5\alpha=(-\alpha+1)\times(-\alpha+5),\\ 3+2m=7\times37 & 3+2\alpha=-(\alpha)^3,\\ 3-1m=-5^3 & 3-1\alpha=-(\alpha)^2,\\ 3-2m=-11\times23 & 3-2\alpha=-(\alpha)\times(\alpha+1),\\ 3-5m=-7^2\times13 & 3-5\alpha=-(\alpha)\times(\alpha+4),\\ 4+5m=2^2\times7\times23 & 4+5\alpha=-(-\alpha+1)\times(-3\alpha+5),\\ 4+1m=2^2\times3\times11 & 4+1\alpha=(\alpha+4),\\ 4-1m=-2^2\times31 & 4-1\alpha=(-\alpha+1)\times(\alpha+1),\\ 4-3m=-2^2\times5\times19 & 4-3\alpha=(-3\alpha+4),\\ 5+1m=7\times19 & 5+1\alpha=(-\alpha+1)\times(2\alpha-1),\\ 7-1m=-11^2 & 7-1\alpha=-(-\alpha+1)^2\times(-\alpha+2), \end{array}$$

. . .

Trouver un carré

Soit:

$$p(x) = (2x+3) \times (-3x+7) \times (\alpha+8) \times (-2x+9) \\ \times (-\alpha+14) \times (-\alpha+16) \times (-\alpha+17) \times (-4x+19).$$

On a

$$\begin{split} p(m) &= 2^8 \times 3^2 \times 7^2 \times 13^2 \times 17^2 \times 19^2 \times 29^2 \times 37^2, \\ p(\alpha) &= (\alpha)^4 \times (-\alpha+1)^8 \times (\alpha+1)^2 \times (-\alpha+2)^6 \\ &\times (2\alpha-1)^2 \times (-3\alpha+5)^2. \end{split}$$

Beaucoup mieux:

$$p(x) = (7 - x) \times (17 + 4x).$$

Mais dans ce cas, on aurait $p(m) = -\Box$.

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The example above is too easy (on purpose, of course).

- The number N comes with an "obvious" f ;
- f is chosen so that $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ is the maximal order ;
- f is monic ;
- the unit group of K is $\{\pm 1\}$;
- the class group of K is trivial ;
- Z[α] is even a euclidean ring (although not even a UFD in general !);

How does it work in real life (but still for f monic, for clarity) ?

Teaser: factoring with cubic integers

General principle

Another rosy example (skipped)

Doing it seriously

Complexity analysis

NFS

Major obstruction: $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ not a UFD.

Outline of the algorithm:

• Do the setup. Choose a factor base bound B;

Relation search

Pick pairs a, b for coprime integers a and b;

- Expect *a bm* to be a smooth integer ;
- Expect also the ideal $(a b\alpha)$ to be smooth ;

• Do some combination work, recover an equality of squares.

Purpose of the next slides: • How the identity of squares appears ;

Analysis.

Living in number fields

The subring $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ lacks some desired properties.

- The "most \mathbb{Z} -like" ring in K is the ring of integers \mathcal{O}_K .
- *O_K* is unfortunately hard to compute in general, but can be approximated.
- Even \mathcal{O}_K lacks unique factorization.
 - Instead, try to factor ideals into prime ideals.
 - This also implies that \mathcal{O}_K is not principal.

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 - Instead, try to factor ideals into prime ideals.
 - This also implies that \mathcal{O}_K is not principal.

Prime ideals in $\mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{K}}$ are commonly written e.g. $\mathfrak{p}, \mathfrak{q}, \mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b}$.

Most ideals can be written in a simple form:

$$\mathfrak{p} = \langle \boldsymbol{p}, \alpha - \boldsymbol{r} \rangle.$$

• Computing the norm is a first step towards factoring, since:

 $Norm(\mathfrak{ab}) = Norm(\mathfrak{a}) Norm(\mathfrak{b}).$

Fetching smooth data

Finding a, b such that a - bm is smooth: easily stated.

Finding *a*, *b* such that $(a - b\alpha)\mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{K}}$ is a smooth ideal:

- When $I = \mathfrak{p}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{p}_k^{e_k}$, we have Norm $I = \prod_i (\operatorname{Norm} \mathfrak{p}_i)^{e_i}$.
- Look at Norm $((a-b\alpha)\mathcal{O}_{K}) = \operatorname{Norm}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(a-b\alpha) = b^{\deg f}f(a/b) \ (\in \mathbb{Z}).$
- If this norm is smooth, then $(a b\alpha)\mathcal{O}_K$ is a smooth ideal.
- Note: because $a b\alpha$ has degree 1 in α , ideals p are "simple".

Each pair a, b meeting these conditions yields a relation. For each relation, we focus on valuations at primes / prime ideals. To search for relations, NFS uses sieving. Old technique: line sieving.

- Decide on a search space for (a, b) values.
- For each prime p, mark (coprime) (a, b)'s s.t. $p \mid a bm$.
- Only a subset of the search space survives.
- For each prime ideal \mathfrak{p} , mark $\mathfrak{p} \mid a b\alpha$.

$$\mathfrak{p} = \langle p, \alpha - r \rangle \mid \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}\alpha,$$
$$\widehat{\mathfrak{p}}$$
$$\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}r \equiv 0 \mod p.$$

• Pairs which survive both sieves yield relations.

All large prime variants allowed.

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Lattice sieving

Newer technique: divide the computation into smaller ranges of interest based on a divisibility condition, e.g. $q \mid (a - b\alpha)$.

- The set of pairs (a, b) meeting the condition is a \mathbb{Z} -lattice.
- Pick a short basis, and take small combinations of the vectors (e.g. $i\vec{u} + j\vec{v}$, for small i, j).
- In (*i*, *j*) coordinates, sieve as before.

Lattice sieving is superior because:

- It is more cache-friendly,
- It can be optimized well,
- It allows stable yields.

All large prime variants still allowed.

Build a matrix where each row corresponds to an a, b pair.

- First set of columns: valuations (mod2) of a bm at primes p < B.
- Second set of columns: valuations (mod2) of $(a b\alpha)\mathcal{O}_K$ at unramified prime ideals \mathfrak{p} of norm < B (and residue class degree 1).
 - For simplicity, we completely forget about ramified ideals, and more generally, all "special ideals" (whose norm is not coprime to disc *K*).
 - Remaining problem: knowing ν_p(Norm_{K/Q}(a − bα)) = v, determine ν_p((a − bα)) for prime ideals above p.

Prop. For *a*, *b* coprime, exactly one ideal \mathfrak{p} above *p* has $\nu_{\mathfrak{p}}((a - b\alpha)) = v$. This \mathfrak{p} is the unique ideal $(p, \alpha - r)$ for which $a - br \equiv 0 \mod p$.

Consider for example the pair a = 61, b = 9, for the NFS setup given by $f = x^3 - 39$ and m = 1006. We have:

•
$$a - bm = 61 - 9 \times 1006 = -1 \times 17 \times 23^2$$
;

• Norm_{$$K/\mathbb{Q}$$} $(a - b\alpha) = 61^3 - 39 \times 9^3 = 2 \times 5^2 \times 11 \times 19^2$.

This yields the valuation vector:

Nullspace of the relation matrix

The left nullspace yields polynomials R(x) such that:

- $R(m) = \pm \Box$ (because for all p, $\nu_p(R(m))$ is even);
- (R(α)) is a product of special ideals times the square of an ideal J (for all non-special p, ν_p((R(α))) is even).

This, however, is not enough:

- We haven't kept track of the sign of R(m);
- $(R(\alpha))$ is not exactly the square of an ideal ;
- Even if it were, while (R(α)) is a principal ideal by construction, its square root has no reason for being principal ;
- Even assuming we have $(R(\alpha)) = (\gamma^2)$, this defines γ only up to a unit. The equation to solve is $R(\alpha) = \gamma^2 \epsilon$, and units are intractable.
- We have no guarantee that $\gamma \in \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$.

We know how to handle all this.

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Teaser: factoring with cubic integers

General principle

Another rosy example (skipped)

Doing it seriously

Complexity analysis

Some important improvements have no effect on the overall complexity.

- Polynomial selection.
- Large primes, cofactorization.
- Linear algebra optimizations.

OTOH, sieving does serve to eliminate the per-pair factoring.

Key figures for complexity analysis

There's one main theorem known as:

- Canfield-Erdős-Pomerance,
- Construction kit lemma,
- whatever credit people give... (Odlyzko / Balasubramanian)

It's also valid in various contexts.

Canfield-Erdős-Pomerance (CEP) Theorem

Let
$$x, y \to +\infty$$
 and $\epsilon > 0$ s.t. $(\log x)^{\epsilon} < \log y < (\log x)^{1-\epsilon}$

$$\frac{1}{x} \# \{n, \ 1 \le n \le x, \ n \text{ is } y \text{-smooth} \} \sim \rho(u) = u^{-u(1+o(1))}$$

where $u = \frac{\log x}{\log y}$, and ρ is the Dickman-de Bruijn function.

A gross estimate for analytic number theorists, but sufficient for us. $_{\mbox{Cours MPRI 2-12-2}}$

The *L* function

We introduce:

$$\mathcal{L}_{x}[a, \alpha] = \exp\left(\alpha(\log x)^{a}(\log\log x)^{1-a}\right).$$

CEP with the L function

A random integer $n \leq L_x[a, \alpha]$ is $L_x[b, \beta]$ -smooth with probability:

$$\pi = L_x \left[\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}, -\frac{lpha}{eta} (\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b})(1 + \mathbf{o}(1))
ight].$$

This formulation is very important for analyzing sieve algorithms.

Calculus with L

Basic formulae with L

$$L_{x}[a,\alpha] \times L_{x}[b,\beta] = \begin{cases} L_{x}[a,\alpha+o(1)] & \text{if } a > b, \\ L_{x}[b,\beta+o(1)] & \text{if } b > a, \\ L_{x}[a,\alpha+\beta] & \text{if } a = b. \end{cases}$$
$$L_{x}[a,\alpha] + L_{x}[b,\beta] = \begin{cases} L_{x}[a,\alpha+o(1)] & \text{if } a > b, \\ L_{x}[b,\beta+o(1)] & \text{if } b > a, \\ L_{x}[a,\max(\alpha,\beta)] & \text{if } a = b. \end{cases}$$
$$L_{L_{x}}[b,\beta][a,\alpha] = L_{x}[ab,\alpha\beta^{a}b^{1-a}+o(1)].$$
$$L_{x}[b,\beta]^{\log_{\log x}L_{x}[a,\alpha]} = L_{x}[a+b,\alpha\beta].$$

 Let d = log_{log N} L_N[Δ, δ] be the number field degree. The "trivial" polynomial selection yields:

$$m \approx f_i \approx N^{1/d+1} = L_N[1-\Delta, \frac{1}{d}].$$

• Let $S = L_N[s, \sigma]$ be the bound on the (a, b) pairs. Then Res(a - bx, f) and Res(a - bx, g) are bounded by:

$$S^{d} \times \|f\| = L_{N}[s + \Delta, \sigma\delta] \times L_{N}[1 - \Delta, \frac{1}{\delta}],$$
$$S \times m = L_{N}[s, \sigma] \times L_{N}[1 - \Delta, \frac{1}{\delta}].$$

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Minimize the norms (fix Δ)

Set
$$1 - \Delta = s + \Delta$$
, i.e. $\Delta = \frac{1-s}{2}$, whence $1 - \Delta = s + \Delta = \frac{1+s}{2}$.

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$$egin{aligned} S^d imes \|f\| &= L_N[rac{1+s}{2}, \sigma\delta+rac{1}{\delta}], \ S imes m &= L_N[rac{1+s}{2}, rac{1}{\delta}(1+o(1))]. \end{aligned}$$

Minimize the norms (fix Δ)

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Analysis (2)

Let $B = L_N[b, \beta]$ be the smoothness bound.

- Number of primes / prime ideals: $\widetilde{O}(B) = L_N[b, \beta + o(1)].$
- Smoothness probability:

$$\pi = L_N[\frac{1+s}{2} - b, -(\frac{1+s}{2} - b)\frac{1}{\beta}(\sigma\delta + \frac{2}{\delta}) + o(1)].$$

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Optimize the probability so as to fix δ

$$\begin{split} \sigma\delta &+ \frac{2}{\delta} \text{ minimal} \Rightarrow \delta = \sqrt{2/\sigma}, \\ &\Rightarrow \pi = L_N[\frac{1+s}{2} - b, -(\frac{1+s}{2} - b)\frac{1}{\beta}2\sqrt{2\sigma}]. \end{split}$$

Analysis (3)

Let $B = L_N[b, \beta]$ be the smoothness bound.

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- Number of relations obtained: $S^2\pi$.
- Number of relations needed: $\widetilde{O}(B)$.
- Total cost of sieving: $O(S^2)$.
- Cost of linear algebra: $O(B^2)$.

Equate sieving and linear algebra

$$S \approx B \Rightarrow b = s, \ \beta = \sigma.$$

Analysis (4)

Let $B = L_N[b, \beta]$ be the smoothness bound.

- Number of primes / prime ideals: $\widetilde{O}(B) = L_N[b, \beta + o(1)].$
- Smoothness probability:

$$\pi = L_N[rac{1-b}{2}, -(rac{1-b}{2})2\sqrt{2/eta} + o(1)].$$

- Number of relations obtained: $\tilde{O}(B^2\pi)$.
- Number of relations needed: O(B).

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Let $B = L_N[b, \beta]$ be the smoothness bound.

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- Number of relations obtained: $\widetilde{O}(B^2\pi)$.
- Number of relations needed: $\widetilde{O}(B)$.

Just enough relations

 $B^2\pi pprox B$, thus $1/\pi pprox B$. Two consequences.

$$(1-b)/2 = b \Rightarrow b = 1/3,$$

 $\Rightarrow \pi = L_N[\frac{1}{3}, -\frac{1}{3}2^{3/2}\sqrt{1/\beta} + o(1)],$

Analysis (4)

Let $B = L_N[b, \beta]$ be the smoothness bound.

- Number of primes / prime ideals: $\widetilde{O}(B) = L_N[b, \beta + o(1)].$
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Just enough relations

 $B^2\pipprox B$, thus $1/\pipprox B$. Two consequences ; b=1/3, and:

$$eta = rac{1}{3} 2^{3/2} \sqrt{1/eta},$$

 $(eta/2)^{3/2} = rac{1}{3},$
 $eta = 2\sqrt[3]{9} = \sqrt[3]{8/9}.$

For factoring an integer N, GNFS takes time:

$$L_{N}[1/3, (64/9)^{1/3}] = \exp\left((1+o(1))(64/9)^{1/3}(\log N)^{1/3}(\log\log N)^{2/3}\right)$$

This is sub-exponential.

Note: some special numbers allow for a faster variant NFS, with complexity

$$L_{N}[1/3, (32/9)^{1/3}] = \exp\left((1+o(1))(32/9)^{1/3}(\log N)^{1/3}(\log \log N)^{2/3}\right)$$

- The two norms are $L_N[2/3, \frac{1}{\delta}]$ and $L_N[2/3, \frac{1}{\delta} + \sigma \delta]$. The algebraic norm is intrisically larger in the GNFS case.
- The 4 steps of the analysis may be done in various orders, but lead to the same thing.

The SNFS case

SNFS numbers are those for which a polynomial f exists which leads to smaller norms than the GNFS.

Example: assuming the right degree, coeffs $\ll L_N[2/3, \sqrt[3]{3}]$.

Typical example: Cunnigham numbers

Assume
$$N = 2^{1039} - 1$$
. A good choice is: • $g = x - 2^{173}$.
• $f = 2x^6 - 1$.

Notes:

- In some cases, f is rather tiny.
- The rational norm may well become the largest one.
- Exceptional Galois groups are no longer exceptional. (e.g. above: D₆, not G₆).

Current record for GNFS: RSA-768 (2010). Current record for SNFS: 1024 bits (2007). NFS variants exist for the discrete logarithm problem.

- In finite fields of small characteristic and large degree.
- In finite fields of large characteristic and small degree.
- In "balanced" finite fields.
- Also for some classes of algebraic curves or large genus.