

Factoring and Continued Fractions

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Parts based on slides by Mario Lamberger

Outline

- Preliminaries
 - Connections between RSA and Factoring
 - − Pollard's p − 1 Method
 - Dixon's Random Squares Method
- 2. Factoring with Continued Fractions
 - Continued Fractions
 - CFRAC factoring
 - Wiener's attack on RSA
- 3. Factoring with Elliptic Curves
 - Elliptic Curve Group
 - Lenstra's ECM

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RSA and Factoring I

Integer Factorization Problem (IFP)

Given $n \in \mathbb{N}$, find pairwise distinct primes $p_i \in \mathbb{P}$ and $e_i \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n = p_1^{e_1} \cdot p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$

- IFP is believed to be intractable (no proof).
- If we can solve IFP, we can break RSA.

RSA Problem (RSAP)

Given modulus $n = p \cdot q$ with $p, q \in \mathbb{P}$, exponent $e \in \mathbb{N}$ with $\gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$, and ciphertext $c \in \mathbb{Z}$, find $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $m^e \equiv c \pmod{n}$ ("the e-th root of $c \pmod{n}$ ").

- RSAP is believed to be intractable (no proof).
- RSAP is believed to be computationally equivalent to IFP.

RSA and Factoring II

Theorem

Finding $\varphi(n)$ is equivalent to factoring $n = p \cdot q$.

Proof:

- \Leftarrow If we know $n = p \cdot q$ then $\varphi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$.
- \Rightarrow If we know $\varphi(n)$ and n, then we can compute p and q: Set q = n/p and substitute this in the formula for $\varphi(n)$. Then, we get a quadratic equation:

$$p^2 - (n+1-\varphi(n))p + n = 0.$$

Solving this equation gives p and thus also q.

RSA and Factoring III

Theorem

Finding $\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{e}^{-1} \mod \varphi(\mathbf{n})$ is equivalent to factoring $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{q}$.

Proof \Rightarrow :

- Choose a random value x. Fermat: $x^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.
- Since $\varphi(n)|ed-1$, we also get $x^{ed-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.
- The exponent is an even number, write $ed 1 = 2^s \cdot k$.
- Compute $y_1 = \sqrt{x^{ed-1}} = x^{(ed-1)/2}$, so $y_1^2 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$:
 - If $y_1 \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{n}$, factor n by computing $\gcd(y_1 1, n)$.
 - If $y_1 = -1$, we have to choose another x.
 - If $y_1 = 1$, we can compute another root: $y_2 = \sqrt{y_1} = x^{(ed-1)/4}$.
- Repeat until a factor is found.

Factoring Methods

Fastest general factoring algorithms (take with a grain of salt):

- 1 General number field sieve
- 2 Multiple polynomial quadratic sieve
- 3 Lenstra elliptic curve factorization

You already know the conceptual forerunners of these methods:

- Dixon's random squares method
- Pollard's p − 1 method

Pollard's p-1 Method

B-Smooth Numbers

n is *B*-(power-)smooth if every prime factor p^e of *n* is $\leq B$.

Example: The number $n = 2^5 \cdot 3^3$ is 33-power-smooth.

Pollard's p-1 Method to factor $n=p \cdot q$

- Suppose that we have guessed a number B such that p 1 is B-power-smooth (but q 1 is not)
- Then, p-1 divides k = B! (but q-1 does not)
- Pick some a. Fermat: $a^k \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.
- Since $p \mid n$ and $p \mid a^k 1 \rightarrow p \mid \gcd(a^k 1, n)$.
- If $gcd(a^k 1, n) \neq 1, n$: Success!

But: for large prime p, the probability that p-1 is B-smooth is too small.

Dixon's Random Squares Method

The base of modern factoring methods is a century-old idea:

Difference of Squares

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Find x, y with x \neq \pm y \pmod{n} such that x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}.
Then (x - y)(x + y) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}, and \gcd(x + y, n) \in \{p, q\}.
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Question: How to find such a quadratic congruence?

Random Squares Method:

- 1 Select factor base $\mathcal{B} = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k\}$
- **2** Collect relations (a_i, b_i) with $a_i^2 = b_i \pmod{n}$ and $b_i = \prod_t p_t^{e_{it}}$ (select random a_i , test if b_i is smooth wrt. \mathcal{B})
- Solve: select subset of b_i 's such that their product is square (all factors p_t occur an even number of times)
- 4 $x = \prod a_i$ and $y = \sqrt{\prod b_i}$

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Continued fractions to represent real numbers

Definition: Continued fraction expansion

The continued fraction expansion of $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^+$ is

$$\alpha = a_0 + \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{a_2 + \frac{1}{a_3 + \cdots}}} = [a_0; a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots].$$

• The values a_i can be successively computed via:

$$a_0 = \lfloor \alpha \rfloor$$
 $\qquad \qquad \varepsilon_0 = \alpha - a_0$ $a_1 = \lfloor 1/\varepsilon_0 \rfloor$ $\qquad \qquad \varepsilon_1 = 1/\varepsilon_0 - a_1$ $a_2 = \lfloor 1/\varepsilon_1 \rfloor$ $\qquad \qquad \varepsilon_2 = 1/\varepsilon_1 - a_2$ $\qquad \qquad \vdots$

• If $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$, the a_i can also be obtained via Euclid's Algorithm.

Continued fractions: Example I

Find the continued fraction expansion of $\alpha = \frac{45}{89}$:

Solution 1

$$a_{0} = \lfloor \alpha \rfloor = \lfloor \frac{45}{89} \rfloor = 0 \qquad \varepsilon_{0} = \alpha - a_{0} = \frac{45}{89} - 0 = \frac{45}{89}$$

$$a_{1} = \lfloor \frac{1}{\varepsilon_{0}} \rfloor = \lfloor \frac{89}{45} \rfloor = 1 \qquad \varepsilon_{1} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon_{0}} - a_{1} = \frac{89}{45} - 1 = \frac{44}{45}$$

$$a_{2} = \lfloor \frac{1}{\varepsilon_{1}} \rfloor = \lfloor \frac{45}{44} \rfloor = 1 \qquad \varepsilon_{2} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon_{1}} - a_{2} = \frac{45}{44} - 1 = \frac{1}{44}$$

$$a_{3} = \lfloor \frac{1}{\varepsilon_{2}} \rfloor = \lfloor \frac{44}{1} \rfloor = 44 \qquad \varepsilon_{3} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon_{2}} - a_{3} = \frac{44}{1} - 44 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \frac{45}{89} = [0; 1, 1, 44] = 0 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1}}}$$

Continued fractions: Example II

Find the continued fraction expansion of $\alpha = \frac{45}{89}$:

Solution 2 (Euclid's Algorithm)

Apply Euclid's Algorithm to 45, 89 to get the a_i :

$$45 = 89 \cdot 0 + 45$$
 $\Rightarrow a_0 = 0$
 $89 = 45 \cdot 1 + 44$ $\Rightarrow a_1 = 1$
 $45 = 44 \cdot 1 + 1$ $\Rightarrow a_2 = 1$
 $44 = 1 \cdot 44 + 0$ $\Rightarrow a_3 = 44$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \frac{45}{89} = [0; 1, 1, 44] = 0 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{44}}}$$

Continued fractions: Example III

More examples for irrational numbers:

$$\varphi = [1; 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, \dots]$$

$$\sqrt{2} = [1; 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, \dots]$$

$$\sqrt{19} = [4; 2, 1, 3, 1, 2, 8, 2, 1, 3, 1, 2, 8, \dots]$$

$$e = [2; 1, 2, 1, 1, 4, 1, 1, 6, 1, 1, 8, \dots]$$

$$\pi = [3; 7, 15, 1, 292, 1, 1, 1, 2, 1, 3, 1, \dots]$$

Continued fractions to approximate real numbers

Definition: n-th convergent

The *n*-th convergent of $\alpha = [a_0; a_1, a_2, \ldots] \in \mathbb{R}^+$ is

$$\frac{p_n}{q_n} = [a_0; a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n]$$

• Convergents can be computed by recursion:

$$\frac{p_0}{q_0} = \frac{a_0}{1}, \quad \frac{p_1}{q_1} = \frac{a_0a_1 + 1}{a_1}, \quad \dots, \quad \frac{p_n}{q_n} = \frac{a_np_{n-1} + p_{n-2}}{a_nq_{n-1} + q_{n-2}}$$

• Convergents are in a sense the "best" approximation of α :

$$\left| rac{p_n}{q_n} - lpha
ight| < \left| rac{p}{q} - lpha
ight| \qquad ext{for all } \left| rac{p}{q} \in \mathbb{Q} ext{ with } rac{p}{q}
eq rac{p_n}{q_n} ext{ and } q \leq q_n.$$

Factoring with continued fractions I

Remember factoring of *n* via factor bases:

- Goal: Find x, y such that $x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$ and $x \not\equiv \pm y$. Then, gcd(x + y, n) is a nontrivial divisor of n.
- Use a factor base $\mathcal{B} = -1 \cup \{r_1, \dots, r_L\}$
- Collect squares that are \mathcal{B} -smooth: $a_k^2 \pmod{n} = b_k = \prod_t p_t^{e_{kt}}$
- Use linear algebra to find x and y.

Continued fraction factoring

Consider the square candidates $p_k^2 - nq_k^2 \equiv p_k^2 \pmod{n} \equiv b_k$, where $\frac{p_k}{q_k}$ is the k-th convergent of \sqrt{n} .

Factoring with continued fractions II

This choice is motivated by...

Fact 1

Let p_{ℓ}/q_{ℓ} be the convergents of $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^+$. Then for all ℓ :

$$\left| p_{\ell}^2 - \alpha^2 q_{\ell}^2 \right| < 2\alpha.$$

... which implies ...

Fact 2

If $n \in \mathbb{N}$ is not a square $(\sqrt{n} \notin \mathbb{N})$, and \sqrt{n} has convergents $\frac{p_\ell}{q_\ell}$, then the smallest absolute residue of $(\pm)p_\ell^2 \pmod{n}$ is $< 2\sqrt{n}$.

... which ensures that the candidates b_k are fairly small!

Factoring with continued fractions: Example I

Task

Factor n = 9073 with the continued fraction method.

• Compute convergents for $\sqrt{9073} = 95.2523...$:

$$\frac{p_0}{q_0} = \frac{95}{1}, \quad \frac{p_1}{q_1} = \frac{286}{3}, \quad \frac{p_2}{q_2} = \frac{381}{4}, \quad \frac{p_3}{q_3} = \frac{10192}{107}, \quad \frac{p_4}{q_4} = \frac{20765}{218}$$

• Smallest absolute residue b_i of p_i^2 mod 9073:

$$b_0 = -48, \ b_1 = 139, \ b_2 = -7, \ b_3 = 87, \ b_4 = -27$$

Factoring with continued fractions: Example II

- Choose factor base $\mathcal{B} = \{-1, 2, 3, 5, 7\}$
- Check smoothness of the *b_i* and factorize:

$$b_0 = (1, 4, 1, 0, 0), \quad b_2 = (1, 0, 0, 0, 1), \quad b_4 = (1, 0, 3, 0, 0).$$

Combine to get squares x and y:

$$x = b_0 \cdot b_4 = -1 \cdot 2^2 \cdot 3^2 = -36$$

 $y = p_0 \cdot p_4 = 95 \cdot 20765 \equiv 3834 \pmod{9073}$

with $(-36)^2 \equiv 3834^2 \pmod{9073}$.

■ Factor n: $gcd(3834 + 36,9073) = 43 \Rightarrow 9073 = 43 \cdot 211$

Wiener's attack on RSA

RSA Reminder:

- Private exponent d and primes p, q,
- Public exponent *e*, modulus N = pq, with $ed \equiv 1 \mod \varphi(N)$.

Wiener's attack

- Goal: Find private d in RSA with N = pq.
- Idea: Prove that d appears in convergents of $\frac{p}{q}$ if ...
 - primes q ,
 - public exponent e < \(\varphi(N) \).</p>
 - small private exponent $d < \frac{1}{3}\sqrt[4]{N}$.

Then, d can be recovered by trying convergent candidates.

Wiener's attack on RSA: Wiener's theorem

Wiener's theorem

Let N = pq with $q and <math>d < \frac{1}{3}\sqrt[4]{N}$. Given N and e with $ed \equiv 1 \mod \varphi(N)$, d can be found efficiently.

Based on the following property of continued fractions:

Fact 3

Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ and $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, such that

$$\left|\alpha - \frac{a}{b}\right| < \frac{1}{2b^2}.$$

Then $\frac{a}{b}$ is a convergent of the continued fraction expansion of α .

Wiener's attack on RSA: Proof of Wiener's theorem I

- Idea: there exists some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $ed k\varphi(N) = 1$, so $\left| \frac{e}{\varphi(N)} \frac{k}{d} \right| = \frac{1}{d\varphi(N)}$; that means, $\frac{e}{\varphi(N)}$ approximates $\frac{k}{d}$.
- $\varphi(N) = (p-1)(q-1) = N-q-p+1$ is private, but $|N-\varphi(N)| = |p+q-1| < 3\sqrt{N}$ (from p and q's property).
- We use N instead of $\varphi(N)$ and estimate

$$\left| \frac{e}{N} - \frac{k}{d} \right| = \left| \frac{ed - kN}{dN} \right| = \left| \frac{ed - k\varphi(N) - kN + k\varphi(N)}{dN} \right| = \left| \frac{1 - k(N - \varphi(N))}{dN} \right| \le \frac{3k}{d\sqrt{N}}$$

Wiener's attack on RSA: Proof of Wiener's theorem II

- From $ed k\varphi(N) = 1$ and $e < \varphi(N)$, we know k < d.
- With $d < \frac{1}{3} \sqrt[4]{N}$, we get

$$\left|\frac{e}{N} - \frac{k}{d}\right| \leq \frac{3k}{d\sqrt{N}} < \frac{3}{\sqrt{N}} < \frac{3}{9d^2} < \frac{1}{2d^2}.$$

- Fact 3 now says that $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{k}{d}$ is a convergent of $\alpha = \frac{e}{N}$.
- Attack: Compute continued fraction convergents of $\frac{e}{N}$ and test all candidates d for $(m^e)^d \equiv m \pmod{N}$ with some m.

Wiener's attack on RSA: Example

- Public: N = 9449868410449 and e = 6792605526025. Assume that d satisfies $d < \frac{1}{3} \sqrt[4]{N} \approx 584$.
- \blacksquare Perform Wiener's attack by computing the convergents of $\frac{e}{N}$:

$$\begin{split} \frac{p_0}{q_0} &= \frac{1}{1}, \quad \frac{p_1}{q_1} = \frac{2}{3}, \quad \frac{p_2}{q_2} = \frac{3}{4}, \quad \frac{p_3}{q_3} = \frac{5}{7}, \\ \frac{p_4}{q_4} &= \frac{18}{25} \quad \frac{p_5}{q_5} = \frac{23}{32}, \quad \frac{p_6}{q_6} = \frac{409}{569}, \quad \frac{p_7}{q_7} = \frac{1659}{2308}, \dots \end{split}$$

Testing each denominator as possible d reveals d = 569.

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Pollard's p-1 Method, Revisited

Recall Fermat's theorem for element *a* of group *G*:

$$a^{|G|} = 1$$

Recall Pollard's p-1 method to factor $n=p \cdot q$:

- Pick $\underline{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ and some $\underline{k} \in \mathbb{N}$ (e.g., $\underline{k} = \underline{B}$! for bound \underline{B})
- If $p-1 \mid k$ and $p \nmid a$, then

$$a^k = 1 \pmod{p}$$
.

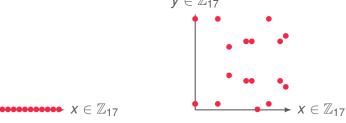
To detect this, compute

$$p=\gcd(a^k-1,n).$$

Using different groups

Pollard's p-1 operates in subgroup $\operatorname{mod} p$ (of structure $\operatorname{mod} n$). It only works if group order $\left|\mathbb{Z}_p^*\right|=p-1$ is smooth.

Idea: \mathbb{Z}_p^* isn't the only group we know \to Elliptic Curve Group!



Modular group \mathbb{Z}_{17}^* (order 16)

Elliptic curve group $E(\mathbb{Z}_{17})$ $y^2 = x^3 + x + 1$ (order 18)

Elliptic Curve Group

Elliptic curve

= solutions (x, y) of equation in Weierstrass Form

$$y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$$

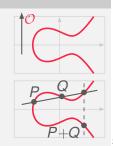
where
$$\Delta = -16(4a^3 + 27b^2) \neq 0$$
.



Elliptic Curve Group

Neutral element \mathcal{O} : Special point " $(0,\infty)$ "

Addition P + Q: Chord rule



How many points are in an EC group?

Order of the group E

The number of points (x, y) on E (incl. \mathcal{O}) is its order |E|.

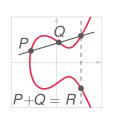
Hasse's Theorem

The order of $E(\mathbb{Z}_p)$ is |E| = p + 1 - t for some $|t| \le 2\sqrt{p}$.

In other words: $|E(\mathbb{Z}_p)| \approx |\mathbb{Z}_p^*|$, but exact value depends on curve! By trying different curve equations, we get different orders! This gives us many "candidate orders" that might be smooth.

Addition in $E(\mathbb{Z}_p)$

Points
$$P = \begin{pmatrix} x_P \\ y_P \end{pmatrix}$$
, $Q = \begin{pmatrix} x_Q \\ y_Q \end{pmatrix}$, $P = \begin{pmatrix} x_R \\ y_R \end{pmatrix}$



$$P + Q = \begin{cases} Q & \text{if } P = \mathcal{O} \\ P & \text{if } Q = \mathcal{O} \\ 0 & \text{if } P = -Q \text{ } (x_P = x_Q, y_P = -y_Q) \end{cases}$$

$$P + Q = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{3x_P^2 + a}{2y_P}\right)^2 - 2x_P \\ \left(\frac{3x_P^2 + a}{2y_P}\right)(x_P - x_R) - y_P \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } P = Q \text{ } (x_P = x_Q, y_P = y_Q) \\ \left(\frac{y_Q - y_P}{x_Q - x_P}\right)^2 - x_P - x_Q \\ \left(\frac{y_Q - y_P}{x_Q - x_P}\right)(x_P - x_R) - y_P \end{pmatrix} & \text{else} \end{cases}$$
Addition involves computing inverses $\frac{u}{v}$ (mod p) (=Euclid)!

Addition involves computing inverses $\frac{u}{v}$ (mod p) (=Euclid)!

Addition in $E(\mathbb{Z}_n)$, $n = p \cdot q$

Idea: Simply perform the same computations mod n (if possible).

What can go wrong when computing $\frac{u}{v}$ (mod n)?

- If gcd(v, n) = 1: everything ok
- If gcd(v, n) = n (and gcd(u, n) = 1): Means P = -Q, result O
- If $gcd(v, n) \neq n, 1$: Addition failed, but...

We've found a factor of *n*!

Lenstra's Elliptic Curve Method for Factorization

Repeat until successful:

- 1 Pick random curve $E(\mathbb{Z}_n): y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$, point $P = (x_0, y_0)$ Hint: First pick $x_0, y_0, a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$, compute $b = y_0^2 - x_0^3 - ax_0 \pmod{n}$
- 2 Pick number k with many small prime factors, e.g., k = B!
- 3 Compute $k \cdot P = P + P + \ldots + P$ Hint: Step by step: 2P, then 3(2P), then 4(3!P), ...
 - If all computations successful...bad luck, next curve
 - If intermediate result \mathcal{O} ... bad luck, next curve
 - If addition fails with $gcd(v, n) = p \neq n, 1$: Success!