Hardware-Based Implementations of Factoring Algorithms

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The Number Field Sieve Integer Factorization Algorithm

- Best algorithm known for factoring large integers.
- Subexponential time, subexponential space.
- Successfully factored a 512-bit RSA key (hundreds of workstations running for many months).
- Record: 530-bit integer (RSA-160, 2003).
- Factoring 1024-bit: previous estimates were trillions of \$xyear.
- Our result: a hardware implementation which can factor 1024-bit composites at a cost of about 10M \$×year.

NFS – main parts

- Relation collection (sieving) step: Find many integers satisfying a certain (rare) property.
- Matrix step: Find an element from the kernel of a huge but sparse matrix.

Previous works: 1024-bit sieving

Cost of completing all sieving in 1 year:

- Traditional PC-based: [Silverman 2000] 100M PCs with 170GB RAM each: \$5×10¹²
- TWINKLE: [Lenstra,Shamir 2000, Silverman 2000]*
 3.5M TWINKLES and 14M PCs: ~ \$10¹¹
- Mesh-based sieving [Geiselmann, Steinwandt 2002]* Millions of devices, \$10¹¹ to \$10¹⁰ (if at all?) Multi-wafer design – feasible?
- New device: \$10M

Previous works: 1024-bit matrix step

Cost of completing the matrix step in 1 year:

- Serial: [Silverman 2000]
 19 years and 10,000 interconnected Crays.
- Mesh sorting [Bernstein 2001, LSTT 2002]
 273 interconnected wafers feasible?!
 \$4M and 2 weeks.
- New device: \$0.5M

Review: the Quadratic Sieve

To factor n:

- Find "random" r_1, r_2 such that $r_1^2 \equiv r_2^2 \pmod{n}$
- Hope that $gcd(r_1 r_2, n)$ is a nontrivial factor of n. How?
- Let $f_1(a) = (a + \lfloor n^{1/2} \rfloor)^2 n$ $f_2(a) = (a + \lfloor n^{1/2} \rfloor)^2$
- Find a nonempty set $S \subset \mathbb{Z}$ such that

 $\prod_{a\in S} f_1(a) = r_1^2$, $\prod_{a\in S} f_2(a) = r_2^2$ over \mathbb{Z} for some $r_1, r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$.

• $r_1^2 \equiv r_2^2 \pmod{n}$

Í	he Qu	adra	ati	c S	Sie	ve	(COI	nt.)
H	low to find S	such t	hat	$\prod_{a\in S} J$	f ₁ (a) is	a squa	re?
L	ook at the fa	ctoriza	tion	of f_1	(a):			
	$f_1(0)=$ 102	= 2	3				17	
	$f_1(1)=33$	=	3	P		11		
	$f_1(2) =$ 1495	=		5			13	23
	$f_1(3)=$ 84	= 2 ²	3		7			
	$f_1(4) = 616$	= 2 ³	H		7	11		
	$f_1(5) =$ 145	=		5				29
	$f_1(6)=$ 42	= 2	3		7			
	$::: $ $ \prod_{a \in \{1,4,6\}} f_1(a) = $	= 2 ⁴	3 ²	5 ⁰	7 ²	11 ²	This is all exp	a square, because onents are even.

The Quadratic Sieve (cont.)

How to find S such that $\int f_1(a)$ is a square? $a \in S$

- Consider only the $\pi(B)$ primes smaller than a bound *B*.
- Search for integers a for which $f_1(a)$ is B-smooth. Relation collection For each such a, represent the factorization of $f_1(a)$ as a vector of b exponents:

$$f_1(a) = 2^{e_1} 3^{e_2} 5^{e_3} 7^{e_4} \cdots \mapsto (e_1, e_2, \dots, e_b)$$



step

• Once b+1 such vectors are found, find a dependency modulo 2 among them. That is, find S such that $\prod f_1(a) = 2^{e_1} 3^{e_2} 5^{e_3} 7^{e_4} \cdots$ where e_i all even. $a \in S$

Observations

[Bernstein 2001]

- The matrix step involves multiplication of a single huge matrix (of size subexponential in *n*) by many vectors.
- On a single-processor computer, storage dominates cost yet is poorly utilized.
- Sharing the input: collisions, propagation delays.
- Solution: use a mesh-based device, with a small processor attached to each storage cell.
 Devise an appropriate distributed algorithm.
 Bernstein proposed an algorithm based on mesh sorting.
- Asymptotic improvement: at a given cost you can factor integers that are 1.17 longer, when cost is defined as

throughput cost = *run time* X *construction cost*

AT cost

Implications?

- The expressions for asymptotic costs have the form $e^{(\alpha+\varrho(1))\cdot(\log n)^{1/3}\cdot(\log \log n)^{2/3}}$.
- Is it feasible to implement the circuits with current technology? For what problem sizes?
- Constant-factor improvements to the algorithm? Take advantage of the quirks of available technology?
- What about relation collection?

The Relation Collection Step

• Task:

Find many integers a for which $f_1(a)$ is B-smooth (and their factorization).

• We look for a such that $p|f_1(a)$ for many large p:

 $\sum_{p:\,p\mid f_1(a)}\log p > T \approx \log f_1(a)$

• Each prime p "hits" at arithmetic progressions:

$$egin{aligned} \{a:p|f_1(a)\}&=\{a:f_1(a)\equiv 0\ (ext{mod} p)\}\ &=igcup_i\{r_i+kp:k\in\mathbb{Z}\} \end{aligned}$$

where r_i are the roots modulo p of f_1 . (there are at most $deg(f_1)$ such roots, ~1 on average).



Three ways to sieve your numbers...



indices (a values)





Time



Time

Parallelization in TWIRL



Parallelization in TWIRL



Heterogeneous design

- A progression of interval p_i makes a contribution every p_i/s clock cycles.
- There are a lot of large primes, but each contributes very seldom.
- There are few small primes, but their contributions are frequent.

We place numerous "stations" along the pipeline. Each station handles progressions whose prime interval are in a certain range. Station design varies with the magnitude of the prime.

Example: handling large primes

- Primary consideration: efficient storage between contributions.
- Each memory+processor unit handle many progressions. It computes and sends contributions across the bus, where they are added at just the right time. Timing is critical.







- The memory contains a list of events of the form (p_i, a_i) , meaning "a progression with interval p_i will make a contribution to index a_i ". Goal: simulate a priority queue.
- The list is ordered by increasing a_i .
- At each clock cycle:
 - 1. Read next event (p_i, a_i) .
 - 2. Send a $\log p_i$ contribution to line $a_i \pmod{s}$ of the pipeline.
 - 3. Update $a_i \leftarrow a_i + p_i$
 - 4. Save the new event (p_i, a_i) to the memory location that will be read just before index a_i passes through the pipeline.
- To handle collisions, slacks and logic are added.

- The memory used by past events can be reused.
- Think of the processor as rotating around the cyclic memory:

Processor

- The memory used by past events can be reused.
- Think of the processor as rotating around the cyclic memory:

• By appropriate choice of parameters, we guarantee that new events are always written just behind the read head.

Processor

• There is a tiny (1:1000) window of activity which is "twirling" around the memory bank. It is handled by an SRAM-based cache. The bulk of storage is handled in compact DRAM.

Rational vs. algebraic sieves

- We actually have two sieves: rational and algebraic.
 We are looking for the indices that accumulated enough value in <u>both</u> sieves.
- The algebraic sieve has many more progressions, and thus dominates cost.

rational

• We cannot compensate by making *s* much larger, since the pipeline becomes very wide and the device exceeds the capacity of a wafer.

algebraic

Optimization: cascaded sieves

rational

ebraic

• The algebraic sieve will consider only the indices that passed the rational sieve.

- In the algebraic sieve, we still scan the indices at a rate of thousands per clock cycle, but only a few of these have to be considered. ⇒
 - much narrower bus *s* increased to 32,768

Performance

• Asymptotically: speedup of $s \approx \tilde{\Theta}(\sqrt{\# \text{progressions}})$

compared to traditional sieving.

 For 512-bit composites: One silicon wafer full of TWIRL devices completes the sieving in under 10 minutes (0.00022sec per sieve line of length 1.8×10¹⁰).

1,600 times faster than best previous design.

• Larger composites?

Estimating NFS parameters

- Predicting cost requires estimating the NFS parameters (smoothness bounds, sieving area, frequency of candidates etc.).
- Methodology:

[Lenstra, Dodson, Hughes, Kortsmit, Leyland 2003]

- Find good NFS polynomials for the RSA-1024 and RSA-768 composites.
- Analyze and optimize relation yield for these polynomials according to smoothness probability functions.
- Hope that cycle yield, as a function of relation yield, behaves similarly to past experiments.

1024-bit NFS sieving parameters

Smoothness bounds:

- Rational: 3.5×10^9
- Algebraic: 2.6×10^{10}
- Region:
 - $a \in \{-5.5 \times 10^{14}, \dots, 5.5 \times 10^{14}\}$
 - $b \in \{1, ..., 2.7 \times 10^8\}$
 - Total: $3 \times 10^{23} (\times 6/\pi^2)$

TWIRL for 1024-bit composites

- A cluster of 9 TWIRLS can process a sieve line (10¹⁵ indices) in 34 seconds.
- To complete the sieving in 1 year, use 194 clusters.



 After NRE, total cost of sieving for a given 1024-bit composite: ~10M \$×year (compared to ~1T \$×year).



The matrix step

We look for elements from the kernel of a sparse matrix over GF(2). Using Wiedemann's algorithm, this is reduced to the following:

- Input: a sparse $D \times D$ binary matrix A and a binary D-vector v.
- Output: the first few bits of each of the vectors $Av, A^2v, A^3v, ..., A^Dv \pmod{2}$.
- *D* is huge (e.g., ≈10⁹)

The matrix step (cont.)

 Bernstein proposed a parallel algorithm for sparse matrix-by-vector multiplication with asymptotic speedup

- Alas, for the parameters of choice it is inferior to straightforward PC-based implementation.
- We give a different algorithm which reduces the cost by a constant factor of 45,000.

Matrix-by-vector multiplication



A routing-based circuit for the matrix step [Lenstra,Shamir,Tomlinson,Tromer 2002]

Model: two-dimensional mesh, nodes connected to \leq 4 neighbours.

Preprocessing: load the non-zero entries of A into the mesh, one entry per node. The entries of each column are stored in a square block of the mesh, along with a "target cell" for the corresponding vector bit.

0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	
\bigwedge						1			
1				1				1	
		1	1				1		
	1			1		1			
1				1	1				
			1				1		
1					1				
		1				1	1		
\bigcup	1							1	

\bigcirc	2	\bigcirc	4	\bigcirc	3
 5	7	9		8	
\bigcirc	3	\odot	2	\odot	5
6		4	5	7	
\bigcirc	1	\bigcirc	3	\bigcirc	2
4	8	6	8	9	

Operation of the routing-based circuit

To perform a multiplication:

- Initially the target cells contain the vector bits. These are locally broadcast within each block (i.e., within the matrix column).
- A cell containing a row index *i* that receives a "1" emits an *i* value (which corresponds to a) at row *i*).
- Each i value is routed to the target cell of the *i*-th block (which is collecting O's for row *i*).
- Each target cell counts the number of *i* values it received.
- That's it! Ready for next iteration.



How to perform the routing?

Routing dominates cost, so the choice of algorithm (time, circuit area) is critical.

There is extensive literature about mesh routing. Examples:

- Bounded-queue-size algorithms
- Hot-potato routing
- Off-line algorithms
 None of these are ideal.

Clockwise transposition routing on the mesh

- One packet per cell.
- Only pairwise compare-exchange operations (
- Compared pairs are swapped according to the preference of the packet that has the farthest to go *along this dimension*.
- Very simple schedule, can be realized implicitly by a pipeline.
- Pairwise annihilation.
- Worst-case: m^2
- Average-case: ?
- Experimentally: 2m steps suffice for random inputs – optimal.
- The point: m^2 values handled in time O(m). [Bernstein]



Comparison to Bernstein's design

• Time:

- 2 A single routing operation (2m steps) vs. 3 sorting operations (8m steps each).
 - Circuit area:
 - Only the *i* move; the matrix entries don't.
 - Simple routing logic and small routed values
 - Matrix entries compactly stored in DRAM (~1/100 the area of "active" storage)
 - Fault-tolerance
- Flexibility

Improvements

- Reduce the number of cells in the mesh
 (for small μ, decreasing #cells by a factor of μ decreases throughput cost by ~μ^{1/2})
- Use Coppersmith's block Wiedemann
- Execute the separate multiplication chains of block Wiedemann simultaneously on one mesh (for small *K*, reduces cost by ~*K*)

Compared to Bernstein's original design, this reduces the throughput cost by a constant factor of 45,000.

Implications for 1024-bit composites:

- Sieving step: ~10M \$×year (including cofactor factorization).
- Matrix step: <0.5M \$×year
- Other steps: unknown, but no obvious bottleneck.
- This relies on a hypothetical design and many approximations, but should be taken into account by anyone planning to use 1024-bit RSA keys.
- For larger composites (e.g., 2048 bit) the cost is impractical.

Conclusions

- 1024-bit RSA is less secure than previously assumed.
- Tailoring algorithms to the concrete properties of available technology can have a dramatic effect on cost.
- Never underestimate the power of custom-built highly-parallel hardware.