Circuits for integer factorization

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Small prime factors are easy to find.

Larger primes are harder.

"Elliptic-curve method" (ECM) scales surprisingly well. (1987 Lenstra)

ECM has found a prime $\approx 2^{219}$. (2005 Dodson; rather lucky; $\approx 3 \cdot 10^{12}$ Opteron cycles)

www.loria.fr/~zimmerma/records/p66

For worst-case integers with two very large prime factors, ECM does not scale as well as "number-field sieve" (NFS). (1988 Pollard, et al.)

Latest record: NFS has found two prime factors $\approx 2^{332}$ of "RSA-200" challenge. (2005 Bahr/Boehm/Franke/Kleinjung; $\approx 5 \cdot 10^{18}$ Opteron cycles)

How much more difficult is it to find prime factors $\approx 2^{512}$ of an integer $n \approx 2^{1024}$?

www.loria.fr/~zimmerma/records/rsa200

This talk focuses on scalability.

Example: Trial division finds primes $\leq y$ dividing n using $y^{1+o(1)}$ easy operations.

(Here o(1) means a function of ythat converges to 0 as $y \to \infty$; could be 1/y or $-1/\log y$ or $10^6 (\log \log \log y)^5 / \log \log y$.)

ho method (1975 Pollard), assuming standard conjectures: $y^{0.5+o(1)}$; therefore much faster than trial division once y is sufficiently large. ECM finds primes $\leq y$ in n using exp $\sqrt{(2 + o(1))\log y \log \log y}$ easy operations. (1987 Lenstra)

Compare to trial division and ho: $y^{1+o(1)} = \exp((1+o(1))\log y);$ $y^{0.5+o(1)} = \exp((0.5+o(1))\log y).$

Easily see from these formulas that ECM is much faster than trial division and ρ once y is sufficiently large.

(What is "sufficiently large"? Many papers analyzing details.) Extreme case, $y = \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$: ECM finds all primes in n using $\exp \sqrt{(1 + o(1))\log n \log \log n}$ easy operations as $n \to \infty$.

NFS has better scalability: NFS finds all primes in n using $L^{1.901...+o(1)}$ easy operations as $n \to \infty$, where L = $\exp((\log n)^{1/3}(\log \log n)^{2/3})$. (1/3, exponent 1.922...: 1993 Buhler/Lenstra/Pomerance; 1.901...: 1993 Coppersmith) These NFS operations take $L^{1.901...+o(1)}$ seconds

on a standard serial computer costing $L^{0.950...+o(1)} \in$.

"TWINKLE": another circuit costing $L^{0.950...+o(1)} \in$

that performs same operations in $L^{1.901...+o(1)}$ seconds.

(2000 Lenstra/Shamir)

A better-designed circuit costing $L^{0.950...+o(1)} \in$

can perform same operations in $L^{1.426...+o(1)}$ seconds.

(2001 Bernstein)

Better parameter choices:

Can find all primes in n using $L^{1.185...+o(1)}$ seconds

with an NFS circuit costing $L^{0.790...+o(1)} \in \mathbb{I}$

(2001 Bernstein)

Can vary circuit size, but $L^{1.976...+o(1)} \in \cdot$ seconds is

best price-performance ratio in this class of algorithms.

Also vary serial-computer size. Best price-performance ratio: $L^{2.760...+o(1)} \in \cdot$ seconds. (2002 Pomerance) Conclusion: Circuit factors *n* much more quickly than standard serial computer of the same size, once *n* is large enough.

(What about $n \approx 2^{1024}$? Much more difficult analysis. Many estimates in new papers, usually < 1 year for < $10^9 \in$.) How is this possible? How can a circuit be so much faster than a standard serial computer? Computational complexity

Start with simpler problem. How fast is sorting?

Input: array of n numbers. Each number in $\{1, 2, ..., n^2\}$, represented in binary.

Output: array of *n* numbers, in increasing order, represented in binary; same multiset as input.

A machine is given the input and computes the output. How much time does it use? The answer depends on how the machine works.

Possibility 1: The machine is a "1-tape Turing machine using selection sort."

Specifically: The machine has a 1-dimensional array containing $n^{1+o(1)}$ "cells." Each cell stores $n^{o(1)}$ bits.

Input and output are stored in these cells.

The machine also has a "head" moving through array. Head contains $n^{o(1)}$ cells.

Head can see the cell at its current array position; perform arithmetic etc.; move to adjacent array position.

Selection sort: Head looks at each array position, picks up the largest number, moves it to the end of the array, picks up the second largest, etc. Moving to adjacent array position takes $n^{o(1)}$ seconds.

Moving a number to end of array takes $n^{1+o(1)}$ seconds. Same for comparisons etc.

Total sorting time: $n^{2+o(1)}$ seconds.

Cost of machine: $n^{1+o(1)} \in$ for $n^{1+o(1)}$ cells. Negligible extra cost for head. Possibility 2: The machine is a "2-dimensional RAM using merge sort."

Machine has $n^{1+o(1)}$ cells in a 2-dimensional array: $n^{0.5+o(1)}$ rows, $n^{0.5+o(1)}$ columns. Machine also has a head.

Merge sort: Head recursively sorts first $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ numbers; sorts last $\lceil n/2 \rceil$ numbers; merges the sorted lists. Merging requires $n^{1+o(1)}$ jumps to "random" array positions.

Average jump: $n^{0.5+o(1)}$ moves to adjacent array positions.

Each move takes $n^{o(1)}$ seconds.

Total sorting time: $n^{1.5+o(1)}$ seconds.

Cost of machine: once again $n^{1+o(1)} \in \mathbb{R}$

Possibility 3: The machine is a "pipelined 2-dimensional RAM using radix-2 sort."

Machine has $n^{1+o(1)}$ cells in a 2-dimensional array.

Each cell in the array has network links to the 2 adjacent cells in the same column.

Each cell in the bottom row has network links to the 2 adjacent cells in the bottom row. Machine also has a CPU attached to bottom-left cell.

CPU can read/write any cell by sending request through network. While waiting for response, can send subsequent requests.

CPU can read an entire row of $n^{0.5+o(1)}$ cells in $n^{0.5+o(1)}$ seconds. Sends all requests, then receives responses. Radix-2 sort: CPU shuffles array using bit 0, even numbers before odd. $3\ 1\ 4\ 1\ 5\ 9\ 2\ 6\mapsto$ $4\ 2\ 6\ 3\ 1\ 1\ 5\ 9.$

Then using bit 1: 4 1 1 5 9 2 6 3.

Then using bit 2: 1 1 9 2 3 4 5 6.

Then using bit 3: 1 1 2 3 4 5 6 9.

etc.

Each shuffle takes $n^{1+o(1)}$ seconds.

 $n^{o(1)}$ shuffles.

Total sorting time: $n^{1+o(1)}$ seconds.

Cost of machine: once again $n^{1+o(1)} \in \mathbb{R}$

Possibility 4: The machine is a "2-dimensional mesh using Schimmler sort."

Machine has $n^{1+o(1)}$ cells in a 2-dimensional array. Each cell has network links to the 4 adjacent cells.

Machine also has a CPU attached to bottom-left cell. CPU broadcasts instructions to all of the cells, but cells do most of the processing. Sort row of $n^{0.5+o(1)}$ cells in $n^{0.5+o(1)}$ seconds:

Sort each pair in parallel. $3 1 4 1 5 9 2 6 \mapsto$ 1 3 1 4 5 9 2 6

Sort alternate pairs in parallel. $1 \underline{3 1} \underline{4 5} \underline{9 2} 6 \mapsto$ 1 1 3 4 5 2 9 6

Repeat until number of steps equals row length.

Sort *each* row, in parallel, in $n^{0.5+o(1)}$ seconds.

Schimmler sort:

Recursively sort quadrants

in parallel. Then four steps:

- Sort each column in parallel.
- Sort each row in parallel.
- Sort each column in parallel.
- Sort each row in parallel.

With proper choice of left-to-right/right-to-left for each row, can prove that this sorts whole array. For example, assume that this 8×8 array is in cells:

3	1	4	1	5	9	2	6
5	3	5	8	9	7	9	3
2	3	8	4	6	2	6	4
3	3	8	3	2	7	9	5
0	2	8	8	4	1	9	7
1	6	9	3	9	9	3	7
5	1	0	5	8	2	0	9
7	4	9	4	4	5	9	2

Recursively sort quadrants, top \rightarrow , bottom \leftarrow :

1	1	2	3	2	2	2	3
3	3	3	3	4	5	5	6
3	4	4	5	6	6	7	7
5	8	8	8	9	9	9	9
1	1	0	0	2	2	1	0
4	4	3	2	5	4	4	3
7	6	5	5	9	8	7	7
9	9	8	8	9	9	9	9

Sort each column in parallel:

1	1	0	0	2	2	1	0
1	1	2	2	2	2	2	3
3	3	3	3	4	4	4	3
3	4	3	3	5	5	5	6
4	4	4	5	6	6	7	7
5	6	5	5	9	8	7	7
7	8	8	8	9	9	9	9
9	9	8	8	9	9	9	9

Sort each row in parallel, alternately \leftarrow , \rightarrow :



Sort each column in parallel:

0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1
3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
4	4	4	5	4	4	4	4
6	5	5	5	6	5	5	5
7	8	7	7	6	6	7	7
9	8	8	8	9	9	8	8
9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9

Sort each row in parallel, \leftarrow or \rightarrow as desired:

0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5
5	5	5	5	5	5	6	6
6	6	7	7	7	7	7	8
8	8	8	8	8	9	9	9
9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9

Sort one row in $n^{0.5+o(1)}$ seconds.

All rows in parallel: $n^{0.5+o(1)}$ seconds.

Total sorting time: $n^{0.5+o(1)}$ seconds.

Cost of machine: once again $n^{1+o(1)} \in \mathbb{R}$

(*n*^{0.5+*o*(1)} on mesh: 1977 Thompson/Kung; this very simple algorithm: 1987 Schimmler) "VLSI algorithms" literature contains similar improvements in price-performance ratio ("AT") for many computations.

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Consider, e.g.,
multiplying two n-bit integers.
Time n^{1+o(1)}
on standard serial computer
with n^{1+o(1)} bits of memory.
(1971 Schönhage/Strassen,
using FFT; see also 2007 Fürer)
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Knuth: "we leave the domain of
conventional computer
programming..."
Time n^{1+o(1)}
on a 1-dimensional mesh
of size n^{1+o(1)}
(1965 Atrubin, elementary)
Time n^{0.5+o(1)}
on a 2-dimensional mesh
of size n^{1+o(1)}
(1981 Brent/Kung, using FFT)
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Some philosophical notes

1-tape Turing machines, RAMs, 2-dimensional meshes compute the same functions.

Prove this by proving that each machine can simulate computations on the others.

(We believe that *every* reasonable model of computation can be simulated by a 1-tape Turing machine. "Church-Turing thesis.") 1-tape Turing machines, RAMs, 2-dimensional meshes compute the same functions in polynomial time at polynomial cost.

Prove this by proving that simulations are polynomial.

(Is this true for every reasonable model of computation? Is it possible to build a large quantum computer? Poly-size quantum computer can factor in polynomial time. Can Turing machine do that?) 1-tape Turing machines, RAMs, 2-dimensional meshes do not compute the same functions within, e.g., time $n^{1+o(1)}$ and cost $n^{1+o(1)}$.

Example: 1-tape Turing machine cannot sort in $n^{1+o(1)}$ seconds. Too local.

Example: 2-dimensional RAM cannot sort in $n^{0.5+o(1)}$ seconds. Too sequential. Review of sorting times, measured in seconds, for machine costing $n^{1+o(1)} \in$:

 $n^{2.0+o(1)}$: 1-tape Turing machine. $n^{1.5+o(1)}$: 2-dimensional RAM. $n^{1.0+o(1)}$: pipelined RAM. $n^{0.5+o(1)}$: 2-dimensional mesh.

Why does anyone say that sorting time is $n^{1+o(1)}$? Why choose third machine? Silly! Once n is large enough, fourth machine is better. Myth:

Parallel computation cannot improve price-performance ratio; p parallel computers may reduce time by factor pbut increase cost by factor p. Reality: Can often convert a *large* serial computer into *p* small parallel cells with only mild slowdown. Cost does not increase by factor p.

Myth:

Designing a new machine cannot produce more than a small constant-factor speedup compared to, e.g., a Pentium. What matters is special-purpose streamlining, such as reducing instruction-decoding costs.

Reality: In 1997, DES Cracker was 1000 times faster than a set of Pentiums at the same price. What matters is parallelism. Future computers will be

massively parallel meshes.

Look at o(1) details to see that we've reached large enough n.

Computer designers will laugh at today's RAM-style machines, just as we laugh at a 1-tape Turing machine.

Older meshes such as MasPar had a limited market, but *n* is much larger now. See new wave of FPGA-based supercomputers from SRC etc.

New myth: We can continue designing algorithms and writing programs for conventional computers, and then put them on mesh computers to reduce cost. Reality: Optimizing AT on a 2-dimensional mesh has huge differences from optimizing "operations" on a conventional computer. Example: NFS circuits use completely different subroutines. Current algorithm-analysis culture —focus on operation counts; maybe mention machine size and communication complexity, but only as a secondary issue will eventually be considered shortsighted, archaic, obsolete.

Yes, it's fun, but it's doomed!

Have to redesign algorithms and rewrite programs from the ground up, analyzing communication cost and price-performance ratio.

NFS circuits in a nutshell

Most important NFS step: find all factors $\leq y$ of auxiliary numbers related to n.

Traditional method, "sieving": $AT \in L^{2.85...+o(1)}$.

Parallel: $AT \in L^{2.37...+o(1)}$.

Better scalability from many parallel ECM circuits: $AT \in L^{2.08...+o(1)}$.

Also parallel linear algebra: $AT \in L^{1.976...+o(1)}$.