Breaking RSA Generically is Equivalent to Factoring, with Preprocessing

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Abstract. We investigate the relationship between the classical RSA and factoring problems when preprocessing is considered. In such a model, adversaries can use an unbounded amount of precomputation to produce an "advice" string to then use during the online phase, when a problem instance becomes known. Previous work (e.g., [Bernstein, Lange ASI-ACRYPT '13]) has shown that preprocessing attacks significantly improve the runtime of the best-known factoring algorithms. Due to these improvements, we ask whether the relationship between factoring and RSA fundamentally changes when preprocessing is allowed. Specifically, we investigate whether there is a superpolynomial gap between the runtime of the best attack on RSA with preprocessing and on factoring with preprocessing.

Our main result rules this out with respect to algorithms in a careful adaptation of the generic ring model (Aggarwal and Maurer, Eurocrypt 2009) to the preprocessing setting. In particular, in this setting we show the existence of a factoring algorithm with polynomially related parameters, for any setting of RSA parameters.

1 Introduction

1.1 Motivation and Main Results.

Background. Use of the RSA function [27] $f_{N,e}(x) = x^e \mod N$ where N = pq is ubiquitous in practice, and attacks against it have been the subject of intensive study, see *e.g.* [4]. A key question about its security is its relationship to factoring N. While it is trivial to see that factoring N allows one to invert

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RSA, the converse is a major open problem. To make progress on this question, researchers have studied it in restricted (aka. idealized) models of computation. To our knowledge, this approach was initiated by Boneh and Venkatesan [5], who showed that a reduction from factoring to low-exponent RSA that is a straight-line program (SLP) gives rise to an efficient factoring algorithm. An SLP is simply an arithmetic program (performing only ring operations) that does not branch. A complementary approach, which we pursue in this work, is to consider RSA adversaries that are restricted. The best known result of this nature is due to Aggarwal and Maurer (which we abbreviate as AM) [1], who showed that breaking RSA and factoring are equivalent wrt. so-called "generic-ring algorithms" (GRAs), namely ones that treat the ring \mathbb{Z}_N like a black-box, only performing ring operations and equality checks that allow branching. Put another way, GRAs work in any efficient ring isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}_N . Note that SLPs are a special case of GRAs.

In the context of any cryptographic problem or protocol it is valuable to consider preprocessing attacks, because an adversary may be willing to perform highly intensive computation to break many instances of the problem, if that computation only has to be performed once. To model this, one considers an unbounded algorithm that produces a short "advice" string that can be used to efficiently solve a problem instance once it becomes known (much more efficiently than without the advice string). Note that above-mentioned attacks on RSA from [4] do not take advantage of preprocessing. However, in the preprocessing setting, Bernstein and Lange [3] describe a Number Field Sieve (NFS) with preprocessing, based on work by Coppersmith [7], which significantly reduces the exponent in the running-time compared to the standard NFS factoring algorithm, and they use this to get an improved attack on RSA. Thus, a natural question is:

Does the relationship between RSA and factoring fundamentally change in the preprocessing setting?

The Need for a New Model. To answer this question, we need to formalize a model of computation for this setting. First, we will briefly survey some related models in the literature. The generic ring model (GRM) of AM considers an algorithm (called a generic ring algorithm or GRA) to be a directed acyclic graph where nodes are labelled with constants (or the input indeterminate) in \mathbb{Z}_N and operations $(+, \times, \div)$; execution corresponds to a walk in the graph according to suitable rules. One can contrast this with Shoup's generic group model (GGM) [30], where the group representation is random and accessible only via an oracle; otherwise, an algorithm is allowed arbitrary computation. A Shoup-style GGM has also been considered by Dodis et al. [14] for the group \mathbb{Z}_N^* , but where the adversary additionally learns the modulus N. We consider a hybrid of this model and AM's over the ring \mathbb{Z}_N , wherein the ring representation is random and accessible via an oracle, but an algorithm is restricted (though more general than in AM). To understand the rationale, it is instructive to see why AM's model, extended to the preprocessing setting in the obvious way, is

not suitable. In this model, after the preprocessing stage the adversary outputs a GRA to run in the online stage. But then observe that the best the adversary could do in the preprocessing stage is to pick a single GRA of size at most some T that obtains optimal advantage, where the advantage is computed with respect to the random choice of N with bitlength at most security parameter κ and random choice of $y = x^e \pmod{N}$. The description of this optimal GRA would then be passed to the online stage. This process does not capture our intuition of what can be done with preprocessing. For example, the following simple algorithm would not be captured: Create a table of many input/output pairs $((y = x^e \pmod{N}, N), x)$ in the preprocessing stage, then, in the online stage, perform a lookup on the challenge input (y^*, N^*) . Output the trivial GRA that outputs the constant $x^* = y^{*1/e} \pmod{N}$ if (y^*, N^*) is found in the table, and output the aforementioned optimal GRA otherwise. This algorithm cannot be captured in AM's model since the table lookup (via a binary tree or hash table structure) requires use of the bit-representation of the input (y^*, N^*) , while a GRA is agnostic of the particular representation of the ring. While this is a simple example, it captures the techniques originating from Hellman's tables [18], which are common strategies for preprocessing algorithms in practice.

Our New "GRM-with-Preprocessing" Model. To allow these types of representation-specific strategies, we will associate integers y of bitlength at most κ with labels. This is somewhat analogous to moving Shoup's model of the GGM to the GRM setting. While Dodis et al. [14] made a significant step in this direction by extending Shoup's model to cover the group \mathbb{Z}_N^* (with N known to the adversary), a version of the GRM that is analogous to Shoup's GGM has not been previously considered in full generality to the best of our knowledge. In fact, arbitrary computation on labels seems extremely hard to analyze in the ring setting. We therefore consider an intermediate model that allows for representation-specific (using integer labels) yet structured algorithms (that only perform ring operations). In particular, using integer labels enables us to make use of compression arguments, while structure allows us to leverage the techniques of AM.

In our model, an injective mapping π takes every element in $\{0,1\}^{\kappa}$ to a unique random string in $\{0,1\}^m$, where $m > \kappa$. We let the unbounded preprocessing algorithm read the entire description π and perform arbitrary computation. It produces a short advice string st that is passed to the online phase. The online algorithm is split into two parts, an intermediate algorithm, and a GRA. The intermediate algorithm is bounded but not generic and gets the problem instance $(N, e, \pi(x^e))$, where N = pq has bit-length κ , but does not get access to π . This intermediate algorithm is crucial to our model, since this is what allows computation that depends on the input representation, and therefore allows the online part of the algorithm to leverage the advice from the preprocessing stage. Finally, this intermediate algorithm outputs an oracle-aided GRA that computes relative to π , and which we then run on the RSA problem instance. For example, an addition step of the oracle-aided GRA takes as input two strings

 $y_1, y_2 \in \{0, 1\}^m$ and outputs $\pi(\pi^{-1}(y_1) + \pi^{-1}(y_2) \pmod{N})$. (Multiplication and division proceed analogously.) We call $S = |\mathbf{st}|$ the space of the adversary and its running-time is specified by the pair (T_1, T_2) , where T_1 is the runtime of the *intermediate algorithm*, and T_2 is the run-time of the GRA output by the intermediate algorithm. (Note that we require that $T_2 \leq T_1$.) We refer to this model as the "GRM-with-preprocessing" for simplicity.

A Result in the Random Injective Function Model. We present two main results below, which both emanate from a more basic result in random injective function model (RIM). In the RIM, the adversary has access to a random injective function with suitable parameters. We show that in the GRM-with-preprocessing model, any RSA algorithm with preprocessing implies the existence of a factoring algorithm with preprocessing in the RIM, with polynomially related parameters. This gets us a long way in answering our question for RSA algorithms in the GRM-with-preprocessing model and shows that the relationship of RSA and factoring does not fundamentally change in this setting, as long as we permit the factoring algorithm to operate in the RIM.

Theorem 1. (Informal.) Suppose there is an RSA adverary in the GRM with preprocessing model with space S_r and running-time $(T_{1,r}, T_{2,r})$ that succeeds with probability ϵ_r . Then there is a factoring adversary in the random injective function model (RIM) with space $S_f = S_r + O(1)$ and running-time $T_f = \text{poly}(\kappa, T_{1,r}, T_{2,r}, 1/\epsilon_r)$ that succeeds with probability $\epsilon_f = \text{poly}(\epsilon_r)$.

See Theorem 6 for the formal statement. We will explain the bounds (which are identical) in the context of our random oracle model result below. Since our model allows an inefficient preprocessing phase, the RI function cannot easily be removed from our final factoring algorithm while maintaining the desired polynomially related space complexity and runtime from Theorem 1. The reason is that in the preprocessing phase of the factoring algorithm, the entire RI function could be queried and global information about it could be stored in the preprocessing advice. In this case, it is no longer possible for the online part of the factoring algorithm to simulate the RI "on the fly" since the responses generated by the simulator need to be consistent with the global information learned in the preprocessing phase. One approach to removing the RI would be to show that the global information about the random injective function (which has length S_f) can be simulated by fixing the input/output of some set of some q queries to the random injective function, and showing that any remaining queries not in this set can still be chosen "on the fly." This "bit-fixing" technique has been studied in a number of works, e.g. [9,13]. However, this line of work proved a lower bound that q must be larger than $S_f T_f/(\epsilon_f)^2$ for simulation by the plain-model adversary to be ϵ_f -indistinguishable to an RIM adversary making T_f queries (note that we require $\approx \epsilon_f$ -indistinguishability to guarantee that the factoring algorithm in the plain model still succeeds with probability $poly(\epsilon_f) = poly(\epsilon_r)$. For us, this would lead to trivial parameter settings.

Next, we extend the RIM result in two ways.

A result in the random oracle model. The RIM is much less natural to study factoring-with-preprocessing in than its counterpart the random oracle model (ROM) [2], hence we would like to obtain a result in the latter. The classical result of Luby and Rackoff shows that a 4-round Feistel network with random oracles in place of round functions is indistinguishable from a random permutation with forwards and backwards access. However, the distinguishing probability of an (unbounded) adversary is $\Omega(\frac{q^2}{2^{\kappa/2}})$, where $\kappa/2$ is the input/output length of the random oracle, and q is the number of queries made by the adversary, and this bound is known to be tight. In the preprocessing setting, the adversary can query the entire random oracle $q=2^{\kappa/2}$, and so the distinguishing probability becomes vacuous. We present a technique to lift the Luby-Rackoff result to the case of unbounded preprocessing by using a slight modification of a 4-round Feistel network to implement a random injective function, instead of a random permutation. This 4-round Feistel will use round functions with input/output length m/2 to implement an injective function with domain size of $2^{\kappa} \ll 2^{m/2}$ and will thus circumvent the issue discussed above. We thus obtain the following result (see Theorem 8 for the formal statement), with the same concrete bounds as the RIM result.

Theorem 2. (Informal.) Suppose there is an RSA adverary in the GRM with preprocessing model with space S_r and running-time $(T_{1,r}, T_{2,r})$ that succeeds with probability ϵ_r . Then there is a factoring adversary in the random oracle model (ROM) with space $S_f = S_r + O(1)$ and running-time $T_f = \text{poly}(\kappa, T_{1,r}, T_{2,r}, 1/\epsilon_r)$ that succeeds with probability $\epsilon_f = \text{poly}(\epsilon_r)$.

Note that the space complexity of our factoring algorithm is essentially the same as that of the RSA algorithm, namely S+O(1). In terms of time complexity and success probability, our bounds are similar to those achieved by AM, which is to be expected. We differ from AM in that the success probability of our factoring algorithm ϵ_f depends only on ϵ_r , and not on $T_{1,r}, T_{2,r}$. We discuss additional differences between the time complexity and success probability of our ROM factoring algorithm and that of AM in Section 5. We believe using the ROM for the above result is reasonable since prior work on space/time tradeoffs (such as the seminal results of Hellman [18] and Fiat-Naor [16]) either required a random oracle or achieved simplified algorithms/improved parameters in the random oracle model. Nevertheless, it begs the question of whether the situation could change in the plain model.

A result in the plain model. Above we explained why it is difficult to remove the RI function while maintaining the desired parameters. Nevertheless, by developing new techniques for our setting we are finally able to show the following theorem statement, which is in the *plain model*. The proof techniques center around another compression argument.

Theorem 3. (Informal.) Suppose there is an RSA adversary in the GRM with preprocessing model with space S_r and running-time $(T_{1,r}, T_{2,r})$ that succeeds with probability ϵ_r . Then there is a factoring adversary in the plain model with

space $S_f = O(S_r)$ and running-time $T_f = \mathsf{poly}(\kappa, T_{1,r}, T_{2,r}, 1/\epsilon_r)$ that succeeds with probability $\epsilon_f = \mathsf{poly}(\epsilon_r)$.

The main insight used for the above result is to note that the online stage of the RI factoring algorithm we obtain has a particular form in which only a single uniformly random query is made to the forward direction of π , and a set of non-adaptive queries is made to the backward direction of π^{-1} . Combining a compression argument with a new argument based on a lemma of Drucker [15] (which to the best of our knowledge has not been previously used in a generic model setting) we are able to show that the online portion of the RIM factoring algorithm can be efficiently simulated in the plain model. Note, however, that we still include the ROM result above as it is obtained en route to our plain model result, illustrating many of our main techniques, and it enjoys a tighter reduction.

On Interpretation of our Results. Our results above provide evidence that speed-ups in breaking RSA, even with a non-generic preprocessing phase and super-polynomial-time non-generic computation on N, must use non-generic techniques, lest they imply corresponding speed-ups on factoring. In other words, the "entire computation" needs to be non-generic for such a speed-up to be possible. We believe this agrees with practitioners' viewpoints. Both our model and main theorem are very general in the sense that they show existence of a factoring algorithm with polynomially related parameters for any setting of RSA parameters $T_{1,T}$, $T_{2,T}$, S_T , ϵ_T and for a general class of algorithms.

Our result does not restrict the relationship between $(T_{1,r}, T_{2,r}, S_r)$ (other than the requirement that $T_{1,r} \geq T_{2,r}$, which is implied by the model) and we show that generic RSA with preprocessing implies factoring with preprocessing, even for unconventional parameter settings (such as setting S_r to be larger than the time complexity of the best online factoring algorithm). We believe it is important to cover all parameter regimes, as this ensures that our result actually suggests a mathematical connection between the factoring and RSA problems themselves, rather than just showing that for the typical parameter settings used in practice the best factoring and RSA algorithms happen to have the same complexity.

On Using Bit-Fixing Instead of Compression. Another question is whether it is possible to rely on bit-fixing as alternative to our use of the compression technique (cf. [8]). That is, one would first show that an RSA algorithm of the form (A_0, A_1, A_2) with advice of size S_r , making at most T_r number of queries, and achieving success probability ϵ_r , implies the existence of an RSA algorithm of the form (A'_1, A'_2) making at most T'_r number of queries, and achieving success probability ϵ'_r in the bit fixing model, which fixes the labelling function π in q locations. It is possible that the AM reduction could then be applied more directly to (A'_1, A'_2) to obtain a factoring algorithm without going through a compression argument.

Unfortunately, similarly to the discussion above, this approach requires the number of fixed locations q to be at least $S_rT_r/(\epsilon_r)^2$. Since A_1 cannot itself make oracle queries, for it to be able to choose A_2 adaptively in the bit-fixing

model, the information about the q fixed locations would need to be given to A_1' as non-uniform advice. This would mean that the space of the RSA algorithm, and hence the resulting factoring algorithm, be at least $S_r T_r/(\epsilon_r)^2$, leading to trivial parameter settings.

1.2 Related Work

There is an extensive body of literature on the hardness of the RSA problem and is relationship to factoring. Boneh and Venkatesan [5] gave the first among these results. Their result shows that reducing low-exponent RSA from factoring using a straight-line reduction is as hard as factoring itself. A similar result by Joux et al. [19] shows that when given access to an oracle computing eth roots modulo N of integers x + c (where c is fixed and x varies), computing eth roots modulo N of arbitrary numbers becomes easier than factoring.

A more closely related line of work initiated by Brown [6] shows that for generic adversaries, computing RSA (or variants thereof), is as hard as factoring the modulus N. Brown's initial work considered only the case of SLPs without division and was subsequently extended by Leander and Rupp [21] to the case of GRAs without division. The work of Aggarwal and Maurer [1] finally showed that the problems are equivalent even for GRAs with division. A subsequent result of Jager and Schwenk showed that computing Jacobi symbols is equivalent to factoring for GRAs. Their result puts into question the soundness of the generic ring model (GRM), as it shows that there are problems which are hard in the GRM, but easy in the plain model. On the other hand, this result has no immediate implication for other computational problems like the RSA problems, which may still be meaningful to consider in the GRM. A recent work by Rotem and Segev also showed how the GRM can been used to analyze the security of verifiable delay functions [29].

The Generic Group Model (with Preprocessing). Starting with Nechaev [25], a long line of work has studied the complexity of group algorithm in the generic group model (GGM) [30, 23]. Algorithms in this model are restricted to accessing the group using handles and cannot compute on group elements directly. This makes it possible to prove information theoretic lower bounds on the running times and success probabilities of generic group algorithms for classic problems in cyclic groups (e.g., DLP, CDH, DDH). To the best of our knowledge, only two works have considered the RSA problem in idealized group models. The first of these work is due to Damgard and Koprowski [11] who ported Shoup's generic group model [30] to the setting of groups with unknown order and showed the generic hardness of computing eth roots in this model. The second work is that of Dodis et al. [14] who considered the instantiability of the hash function in FDH-RSA. On the one hand, unlike the GRA model that we use for online adversary, they only model the multiplicative group \mathbb{Z}_N^* as generic. In other words, they do not allow the adversary to take advantage of the full ring structure of \mathbb{Z}_N . On the other, their model allows the online adversary to perform arbitrary side computations. Recall that we do not allow such computations in our

model, as the online adversary is a GRA. We face many additional technical issues due to this point as well as preprocessing. Even more recently, the work of Corrigan-Gibbs and Kogan [10] initiated the study of preprocessing algorithms in the GGM. They considered generic upper and lower bounds for the discrete logarithm problem and associated problems. Their modelling approach is very similar to our own, in that the algorithm in the offline phase has access to the labelling oracle π and can pass an advice string of bounded size to the online phase of the algorithm. A key difference is that in their setting, the group is fixed together with the RSA instance only in the online phase. Moreover, they can also consider adversaries who, in the online phase, may perform arbitrary side computations.

The Algebraic Group Model. More recently, a series of works has explored the algebraic group model [17] as a means to abstract the properties of the groups \mathbb{QR}_N and \mathbb{Z}_N^* more faithfully. The work of Katz et al. [20] introduced a quantitative version of the algebraic group model called the strong algebraic group model to relate the RSW assumption [28] over \mathbb{QR}_N to the hardness of factoring (given that N is a product of safe primes p,q). Their model and ideas were extended to \mathbb{Z}_N^* by Stevens and van Baarsen [31] who gave a general framework for computational reductions in the (strong) algebraic group model over \mathbb{Z}_N^* .

2 Technical Overview

Our main result shows that any generic attack on RSA with preprocessing gives rise to a factoring algorithms with preprocessing in the random oracle model and plain models with polynomially related parameters. We begin by recapping the subclass of RSA algorithms we consider, and then discuss the high level approach of our proof of equivalence.

The RSA algorithm. Recall that we consider RSA adversaries that are split into two 'fixed' parts (A_0^{π}, A_1) and a third part G^{π} that is adaptively chosen by A_1 upon seeing the RSA instance. In more detail, A_0^{π} gets oracle access to $\pi: \{0,1\}^{\kappa} \to \{0,1\}^{m}$ and is completely unbounded both in terms of computation and number of queries to π . A_0^{π} finally outputs a state st of size S_r (called A's space). A_1 takes as input st and the RSA instance $(N, e, \pi(y) = \pi(x^e))$, runs in time $T_{1,r}$, and outputs a GRA G^{π} of size (and hence running-time) $T_{2,r}$. The GRA G^{π} is an oracle-aided program that computes relative to π . In other words, each multiplication (resp. division, addition) step of G^{π} with inputs y_1, y_2 outputs $\pi(\pi^{-1}(y_1) \cdot \pi^{-1}(y_2) \pmod{N})$ (resp. $\pi(\pi^{-1}(y_1) \cdot (\pi^{-1}(y_2))^{-1} \pmod{N})$), $\pi(\pi^{-1}(y_1) + \pi^{-1}(y_2) \pmod{N})$). A_1 is computationally bounded but may run for superpolynomial time. However, it may not make any queries to the oracle π . Finally, G^{π} takes as input $\pi(y)$ and evaluates $G^{\pi}(\pi(y))$. In the following, we fix π , a state st of some bounded size S_r output by A_0^{π} , as well as a modulus N and value e with $\gcd(e, \phi(N)) = 1$. We consider the success probability ϵ_r on input $\pi(y)$

of A_1 relative to these fixed values in outputting G^{π} such that $G^{\pi}(\pi(y)) = \pi(x)$ and $x^e = y \pmod{N}$. Here, the success probability is taken over random choice of $y \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$ and coins of A_1 . Fixing π, st, N, e simplifies our discussion and can easily be justified by an averaging argument. Our final analysis, however, considers these values drawn from an appropriate distribution. Our goal is to construct a factoring algorithm with preprocessing and with parameters S_f, T_f, ϵ_f (space, time, and success probability) that are polynomially related to $S_r, T_{1,r}, T_{2,r}, \epsilon_r$. Specifically, we require that $S_f = S_r + O(1)$, $T_f = \text{poly}(\kappa, T_{1,r}, T_{2,r}, 1/\epsilon_r)$ and $\epsilon_f = \mathsf{poly}(\epsilon_r)$, where $\kappa = \log(N)$ is security parameter. We consider algorithms with unbounded preprocessing. Moreover, the algorithm A_1 does not have access to π , but can perform arbitrary (and superpolynomially many) operations after learning the modulus N and the RSA instance $\pi(x^e)$. Only then does it hand over the remaining computation to the fully generic program G^{π} . In order for this to be possible, we must do several case analyses. To simplify this technical overview, we will henceforth conflate the online portion of algorithm's running times by setting $T_r = T_{r,1} + T_{r,2}$.

In the following, we first restrict our attention to the special case where A_1 outputs a straight-line program (SLP) with addition/multiplication *only* (i.e., without equality checks). This special case already requires most of the key ideas of our proof. We then briefly explain how to extend our result to the case where A_1 may output a generic ring algorithm (GRA).

First case analysis: Fiat-Naor argument. In the case that $T_r \cdot S_r \geq \epsilon_r \cdot 2^{\kappa}/4$, we will completely ignore the RSA algorithm, and construct a different Factoring algorithm in the RO model "from scratch." The idea is to use a theorem of Fiat and Naor [16], which extends Hellman's seminal result on space/time tradeoffs for inversion of a random function [18], to obtain space/time tradeoffs for inversion of any function f. Specifically, Fiat and Naor consider an arbitrary function $f:D\to D$ and show that f can be inverted with probability 1-1/|D| in the random oracle (RO) model with space S and time T, as long as $S^2 \cdot T \ge |D|^3 \cdot q(f)$, where q(f) is the probability that two random elements in D collide under f.⁴ We apply Fiat-Naor to the factoring problem by viewing f as the function that takes two $\kappa/2$ bit strings and multiplies them to obtain a κ -bit string, where $\kappa = \log(N)$. By carefully setting parameters and using properties of the second moment of the divisor function, to bound q(f) as $q(f) \in O(\frac{\kappa^3}{2^{\kappa}})$, we obtain a factoring algorithm $S_f = S_r$, $T_f = \text{poly}(\kappa) \cdot T_{2,r}^2$ and inversion probability $O(\epsilon_r)$. Note that all parameters are polynomial in the parameters of the RSA algorithm. See Section 8 for more details.

Factoring from RSA. We now consider the main parameter regime of interest, where $T_r \cdot S_r < \epsilon_r \cdot 2^{\kappa}/4$. In this parameter regime, we will show how to use the RSA algorithm to construct a factoring algorithm. However, before we can do that, we need to eliminate a crucial case in which the RSA algorithm is unhelpful for constructing a factoring algorithm. Let us first consider when and why the

⁴ Their final algorithm actually requires only k-wise independent hash functions instead of a RO. For this overview, we assume a RO with O(1) evaluation time.

RSA algorithm is useful for factoring. Then we will show how to eliminate the remaining case.

Note that if A is successful with probability ϵ_r , then with probability ϵ_r the SLP S output by A_1 is such that on a randomly chosen $y = x^e$, $S^{\pi}(\pi(y)) = \pi(x)$. We begin by defining an "inversion procedure" on SLP's that, given S^{π} with oracle access to π and such that $S^{\pi}(\pi(y)) = \pi(x)$, outputs an SLP \tilde{S} with no oracle access such that $\tilde{S}(y) = x$. (Crucially, the inversion procedure itself requires oracle access to π .) This, in turn, means that y is a root of the SLP $S(Y)^e - Y$, with respect to formal variable Y. In AM's analysis, they were able to conclude that if A is successful, then $\tilde{S}(Y)^e - Y$ must have many roots. Then, they showed an algorithm that successfully factors, given as input a nonzero SLP $S(Y)^e - Y$ with a sufficiently large fraction of roots. In our setting, however, we cannot necessarily conclude this. This is because we allow A_1 to output a different SLP $S^{\pi}_{\pi(y)}$ after seeing input $\pi(y)$ (we use the notation $S^{\pi}_{\pi(y)}$ to emphasize that the chosen SLP may depend on $\pi(y)$). This means that the SLP $S^{\pi}_{\pi(y)}$ output by A_1 can be tailored to succeed on $\pi(y)$ and on only few other inputs. Note that it is possible for A_1 to maintain an overall high success probability with this strategy. So while w.h.p. y itself must still be a root of the "inverted SLP" $\tilde{S}_{\pi(y)}(Y)^e - Y$, we are not guaranteed that $\tilde{S}_{\pi(y)}(Y)^e - Y$ has many roots overall. In this case, factoring fails.

The above reasoning leads to the second and third cases considered in our proof: The second case is that w.h.p. y is a root of $\tilde{S}_{\pi(y)}(Y)^e - Y$, and $\tilde{S}_{\pi(y)}(Y)^e - Y$ has at most J roots. The third case is that w.h.p. the SLP $\tilde{S}_{\pi(y)}(Y)^e - Y$, has at least J roots. The second case will lead to contradiction due to a compression argument. We will therefore be left with a (comparatively simple) third case which will imply existence of a factoring algorithm using the arguments of AM.

Second case analysis: Compression. For this case, we show how to construct an encoding routine that compresses the function table of a random injection π . Our main leverage to achieve this is the following idea. Suppose that y is a root of $\tilde{S}_{\pi(y)}(Y)^e - Y$, and $\tilde{S}_{\pi(y)}(Y)^e - Y$ has at most J roots. Then there is a space-efficient way for an encoding routine E^{π} (with oracle access to π) to transmit y to a decoder D (without oracle access to π) who knows only $\tilde{S}_{\pi(y)}$: Simply output the index of y among the J roots of $\tilde{S}_{\pi(y)}(Y)^e - Y$. (This takes $\log(J)$ bits.) Intuitively, we save space when $\log(J)$ is small compared to the trivial encoding of y, which specifies the index of y among all pre-images that are not yet mapped to an image in the encoding which is being constructed by E^{π} . Making this intuition rigorous, however, is quite challenging.

First, we must show how the encoder can efficiently transmit the description of $\tilde{S}_{\pi(y)}$ to the decoder. We may assume that A_1 and st will be known to the decoder (we can include st in the encoding). However, to obtain the correct SLP $\tilde{S}_{\pi(y)}$, the decoder must run A_1 on the correct random coins ρ and on the correct input $\pi(y)$. Furthermore, A_1 is only guaranteed to output an SLP $S^{\pi}_{\pi(y)}$ that is successful on $\pi(y)$ w.h.p., when $\pi(y) = \pi(x^e)$ and ρ are chosen uniformly at random. But we cannot afford to transmit the value of a random $\pi(y)$, nor the value of random coins ρ of A_1 , while still achieving compression. To solve both of

these problems, we rely, as prior work of Corrigan-Gibbs and Kogan [10] did, on a lemma of De, Trevisan, and Tulsiani [12]. This lemma proves incompressibility of an element x from a sufficiently large set \mathcal{X} in a setting that allows the encoder and decoder to pre-share a random string of arbitrary length. For our purposes, this random string will allow us to both (1) select a random $\pi(y)$ from the set of images whose preimages are not yet known and (2) select the random tape ρ for A_1 to use together with input $\pi(y)$. Thus, the successful randomness can simply be encoded by its index within the shared random string, thus saving space. We mention that Corrigan-Gibbs and Kogan avoided encoding successful $\pi(y)$ values by using the random self-reducibility property of the discrete log problem to obtain an adversary that succeeds w.h.p. on every input. Unlike Corrigan-Gibbs and Kogan, our argument does not require random self-reducibility, and rather uses the random tape to select a random image $\pi(y)$ instead. Thus, while RSA also enjoys random self-reducibility, our proof does not make use of it, potentially making our techniques applicable to broader settings.

The third challenge is that in order to obtain $\tilde{S}_{\pi(y)}$ from $S_{\pi(y)}$, the decoder must run the SLP inversion procedure, which requires access to π . Therefore, our encoder E^{π} includes all the responses of queries to π during evaluation of the SLP inversion procedure in the encoding, replacing any query to $\pi^{-1}(\pi(y))$ itself with the formal variable Y. The final challenge is the delicate setting of parameters needed for the result to go through. We must set the value J (the number of roots in the SLP $\tilde{S}_{\pi(y)}(Y)^e - Y$) such that compression is achieved when the number of roots is at most J and, looking ahead, such that efficient factoring (with parameters S_f, T_f, ϵ_f that are polynomially related to S_r, T_r, ϵ_r) is possible when the number of roots is at least J. We note that our techniques for analyzing the encoding length are significantly different from those used by Corrigan-Gibbs and Kogan and may be of independent interest. (See Section 6.2 for more details.)

Factoring and Extending to the GRA case. Once we have ensured that the the SLP $S_{\pi(y)}(Y)^e - Y$ has at least J roots w.h.p., we can directly apply a theorem of AM to obtain a factoring algorithm. Our final step will then be to extend the above discussion to a slightly broader setting in which A_1 outputs a GRA G^{π} rather than an SLP S^{π} . Here, we once again build on arguments of AM, although we need to put in some additional effort to make them work in our setting with preprocessing. In particular, the final factoring algorithm (with preprocessing) that we obtain is in the random injection (RI) model, where the algorithm requires access to both π and π^{-1} . This is because our factoring algorithm requires access to such a random injection in order to consistently simulate the oracle π to the RSA adversary over the preprocessing phase and the online phase in a space efficient manner. Thus, it remains to show how this oracle can be simulated in order to obtain a factoring algorithm in the plain model. For simplicity, we omit our intermediate result in the Random Oracle Model from this technical overview.

Obtaining our plain model result. In the following, we denote the random injective function by H and we denote by π the GRM oracle interface expected by

the RSA adversary. We note that using backwards and forwards access to H, one can easily simulate queries made to π . We show that with some additional work one can dispense with the RI in our result and obtain a result in the plain model. To do so, we first observe that the online portion of our factoring algorithm in the RI model makes only a *single* query to H in the forward direction (on a *uniformly random* input modulo N), and makes a series of non-adaptive queries to H^{-1} . We will first show that we can simulate all the responses to the queries to H^{-1} while adding only a small overhead to the non-uniform advice. We will then show that the single query to the forward direction of H can be simulated as well.

Simulating queries to H^{-1} . Recall that A_1 receives the non-uniform advice st and the input $(N, e, \pi(x^e \mod N))$ and outputs a GRA. The factoring algorithm will run the GRA inversion algorithm by evaluating π^{-1} on hardcoded labels in the GRA that are not equal to the input label $\pi(x^e \mod N)$. Intuitively, since π is expanding, and since A_1 may not query the oracle, the only way A_1 can hardcode a valid label into the GRA is if this label is somehow stored in st . To formalize this intuition, for a fixed π , we consider the $\mathsf{set}\ S_\pi$ of valid images of π that are hardcoded into a GRA outputted by A_1 with sufficiently high probability over choice of input $(N, e, \pi(x^e \mod N))$ and the random coins of A_1 .

We use a compression argument to show that for most choices of π , the set S_{π} is sufficiently small such that it can be added to A_1 's advice st. By definition, for a fixed π , it is unlikely for A_1 to hardcode images of π into its outputted GRA if these images are not part of S_{π} . Thus, queries to π^{-1} can be simulated without making a corresponding query to H by using st as a lookup table.

Simulating the query to H. There is still a single query to the forward direction of H that must be taken care of. This is the query made by the factoring algorithm when generating the input to A_1 . Specifically, it is a query with input y = $x^e \mod N$ and output $\pi(y) = \tilde{y}$. To simulate this query without accessing H, we construct a simulated plain model factoring algorithm as follows: In the preprocessing phase, the plain model algorithm internally samples a random injective function H, and the output of A_0 in the preprocessing stage is computed relative to this chosen H. Note that we can view A_0 's input in the preprocessing stage as the entire oracle, and in particular, this will include the input/output pair (y, \tilde{y}') , where $y = x^e \mod N$ corresponds to the input value that will be given to A_1 in the online phase. In the online phase, our plain model factoring algorithm will actually resample the output value of H on input y and replace it with a uniform random string \tilde{y} . This resampled value \tilde{y} will then be given to A_1 in the online phase as the supposed value of $\pi(y)$. A lemma of Drucker [15] implies that (on average) the output distribution of a compressing algorithm A_0 , which outputs st, does not change much when a single input in a randomly chosen location (location y) is switched from a fixed value to a randomly resampled value. This implies that the RI factoring algorithm will behave roughly the same when π is simulated in this manner. See Section 7 for further details.

3 Preliminaries

3.1 Notation and Conventions

We denote the sampling of a uniformly random element x from a set S as $x \leftarrow S$. Similarly, we denote the output y of a randomized algorithm A on input x as $y \leftarrow A(x)$. We sometimes also write $y := A(x; \omega)$ to denote that A deterministically computes y on input x and random coins ω . To denote that an algorithm A has access to an oracle O during runtime, we write A^O . We denote as \mathbb{Z}_N the ring of integers modulo N, and as [N] the set $\{1, ..., N\}$. We write $\nu_N(f)$ to denote the fraction of roots of a polynomial f over \mathbb{Z}_N , i.e.,

$$\nu_N(f) := \frac{|\{a \in \mathbb{Z}_N \mid f(a) = 0\}|}{N}.$$

Throughout, we denote the security parameter as κ . For $k, m \in \mathbb{N}$ we denote by $\operatorname{Func}[k,m]$ the set of functions $F \colon \{0,1\}^k \to \{0,1\}^m$. Denote by $\operatorname{Perm}[m]$ the set of permutations on $\{0,1\}^m$. We denote by $\operatorname{FuncInj}[k,m]$ the set of injective functions $I \colon \{0,1\}^k \to \{0,1\}^m$.

3.2 Incompressibility Lemmas

We use the following lemma by De et al. [12].

Lemma 1. (De, Trevisan, Tulsiani [12].) Let $\mathsf{E}: \mathcal{X} \times \{0,1\}^{\rho} \to \{0,1\}^{m}$ and $\mathsf{D}: \{0,1\}^{m} \to \mathcal{X} \times \{0,1\}^{\rho}$ be randomized encoding and decoding procedures such that, for every $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\Pr_{\mathsf{r} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{\rho}}[\mathsf{D}(\mathsf{E}(x,r),r) = x] \geq \gamma$. Then, $m \geq \log |\mathcal{X}| - \log 1/\gamma$.

Remark 1. As noted by [10], this lemma also holds when the encoding and decoding algorithms have access to a common random oracle.

The following lemma is from Drucker [15].

Lemma 2. (Drucker [15].) Let $N, S, m \ge 1$ be integers. Given a possibly-randomized mapping $A_0(\tilde{y}_0, \ldots, \tilde{y}_{N-1}) : \{0, 1\}^{N \times m} \to \{0, 1\}^S$, and a collection $\mathcal{D}_0, \ldots, \mathcal{D}_{N-1}$ of mutually independent distributions over $\{0, 1\}^m$, for $y \in \mathbb{Z}_N$, let

$$\gamma_{u} := \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{u} \sim \mathcal{D}_{u}}[||A_{0}(\mathcal{D}_{0}, \dots, \mathcal{D}_{u-1}, \tilde{y}, \mathcal{D}_{u+1}, \dots, \mathcal{D}_{N-1}) - A_{0}(\mathcal{D}_{0}, \dots, \mathcal{D}_{N-1})||_{\mathsf{stat}}],$$

where the notation $||\cdot - \cdot||_{\mathsf{stat}}$ denotes the statistical distance between two distributions.

We have that

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_N} \gamma_y \le \sqrt{\frac{\ln 2}{2} \cdot \frac{S+1}{N}}.$$

3.3 Relevant Problems

In this subsection, we introduce the main relevant problems: the RSA Problem, the Factoring Problem, and the general Function Inversion Problem (all with preprocessing). Algorithm RSAGen on input 1^{κ} generates (N, e, d, p, q) where N = pq and p, q are primes of bit-length $\kappa/2$ with leading bit 1. Finally, $ed = 1 \mod \phi(N)$.

Definition 1 (Factoring with Preprocessing). Let $F = (F_0, F_1)$ be an algorithm and RSAGen be an RSA generator. Consider the factoring-with-preprocessing game $\mathbf{fac}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}^{\mathsf{F}}$:

- Offline Phase. Run F_0 on input 1^{κ} to obtain an advice string st.
- **Online Phase.** Run RSAGen on input 1^{κ} to obtain(N, e, d, p, q). Then run F_1 on input (N, st) .
- Output Determination. When F_1 returns p', the experiment returns 1 if p = p' or q = p'. It returns 0 otherwise.

Define F's advantage in the above experiment as

$$\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathbf{fac}}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}(\mathsf{F}) = \Pr[\mathbf{fac}^\mathsf{F}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}} = 1]$$
.

We call F an (S,T)-factoring algorithm relative to RSAGen if F_0 outputs advice strings of size at most S and F_1 runs in time at most T.

Definition 2 (RSA with Preprocessing). Let $A = (A_0, A_1)$ be an adversary. Consider the RSA-with-preprocessing game $\mathbf{rsa}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}^A$:

- Offline Phase. Run A_0 on input 1^{κ} to obtain an advice string st.
- Online Phase. Run RSAGen on input 1^{κ} to obtain(N, e, d, p, q). Sample $x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$ and run A_1 on input $(N, e, \mathsf{st}, x^e \bmod N)$.
- Output Determination. When A_1 returns x', the experiment returns 1 if $x = x' \pmod{N}$. It returns 0 otherwise.

Define A's advantage in the above experiment as

$$\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathbf{rsa}}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}(\mathsf{A}) = \Pr[\mathbf{rsa}^{\mathsf{A}}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}} = 1] \; .$$

We call A an (S,T)-RSA algorithm relative to RSAGen if A_0 outputs advice strings of size at most S and A_1 runs in time at most T.

In the following, we consider a domain D of finite size along with a randomized point generator G that outputs points in D.

Definition 3 (Function Inversion with Preprocessing). Let D be a finite set and let $f: D \to D$ be a function. Let $I = (I_0, I_1)$ be an adversary and Gen a point generator. Consider the function-inversion-with-preprocessing game $\mathbf{func}_{f,\mathsf{Gen}}^I$:

- Offline Phase. Run I_0 on input 1^{κ} to obtain an advice string st.

- Online Phase. Run Gen on input 1^{κ} to obtain a point $y \in D$. Run I_1 on input (y, st)
- Output Determination. When l_1 returns x', the experiment returns 1 if f(x') = y. It returns 0 otherwise.

Define I's advantage in the above experiment as

$$\mathsf{Adv}_{f,\mathsf{Gen}}^{\mathbf{func}}(\mathsf{I}) = \Pr[\mathbf{func}_{f,\mathsf{Gen}}^{\mathsf{I}} = 1]$$
.

We call I an (S,T)-function-inversion algorithm relative to Gen if I_0 outputs advice strings of size at most S and I_1 runs in time at most T.

Definition 4 (Collision Probability). Let D be a finite set and let $f: D \to D$ be a function. For $z \in D$, $I_f(z)$ denotes the number of preimages for z under f, i.e.

$$I_f(z) := |\{u \in D : f(u) = z\}|.$$

The collision probability of $f: D \to D$, denoted by q(f) is defined as follows:

$$q(f) := \frac{\sum_{z \in D} I_f^2(z)}{|D|^2}.$$

Theorem 4 (Fiat-Naor [16]). For any D, f, Gen as in Definition 3 and any S, T such that $T \cdot S^2 = |D|^3 \cdot q(f)$, there is an (S, T)-function-inversion algorithm I such that $\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathbf{func}}_{f,\mathsf{Gen}}(I) \geq 1 - 1/|D|.^5$

4 Computational Models

In this section, we review some idealized models that will be relevant in our analyses and discuss their relationships to each other.

Random Oracle Model (ROM). In the random oracle model [2] all algorithms have oracle access to a uniformly random function from $\operatorname{Func}[m_1, m_2]$ for some $m_1, m_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ specified by the model.

Random Injection Model (RIM). In the random injection model all algorithms have forwards and backwards oracle access to a uniformly random function from Funclnj[n, m] for some $n \leq m$ specified by the model.

Random Permutation Model (RPM). In the random permutation model all algorithms have *forwards and backwards* oracle access to a uniformly random function from Perm[m] for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$ specified by the model.

⁵ This statement is weaker than the one proven in [16] but is sufficient for our purpose.

4.1 Switching from RIM to ROM

To switch from the RIM to the ROM, we need to show how to simulate oracle access to a random injection (forward and backward), given oracle access to a random function. We implement the random injection by padding the input and using Luby-Rackoff's strong pseudorandom permutation construction [22].

Luby-Rackoff. We first recall the Luby-Rackoff construction [22], which we view as a construction of a random permutation oracle from a random oracle. Formally, suppose ρ is a RO from $\{0,1\}^{m/2}$ to $\{0,1\}^{m/2}$ for $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Define oracle LubRac[ρ] on $\{0,1\}^m$ as follows:

- Parse x as $x_1||x_2|$ with $|x_1| = |x_2| = m/2$ and apply a 4-round balanced Feistel network with h as the round function to obtain y. Output y.

Oracle LubRack⁻¹[ρ] is defined accordingly.

Theorem 5 (Luby-Rackoff [22]). For any (even unbounded) adversary A making at most q queries it holds that

$$\begin{split} |\Pr_{\rho \leftarrow \mathsf{Func}[m/2, m/2]} [\mathsf{A}^{\mathsf{LubRack}[\rho](\cdot), \mathsf{LubRack}^{-1}[\rho](\cdot)} \ outputs \ 1] - \\ &\Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \mathsf{Perm}[m]} [\mathsf{A}^{\pi(\cdot), \pi^{-1}(\cdot)} \ outputs \ 1]| \in \mathcal{O}(q^2/2^{m/2}). \end{split}$$

Random Injection from Random Permutation. We next show a construction of a random injection oracle π from a random permutation oracle ψ . Suppose ψ is a random permutation oracle on m bits and ψ^{-1} is its inverse. For $n \leq m$, define $\pi[\psi] \colon \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}^m$ as $\pi[\psi](x) := \psi(\mathsf{pad}(x))$ where $\mathsf{pad}(x)$ is the function that pads the LSBs of x with m-n zeros. Define $\pi[\psi]^{-1}$ accordingly. It should be clear that $\pi[\psi]$ is a random injection oracle.

Now, composing the above constructions gives a construction of a random injection oracle from a random oracle. Namely, suppose $\rho \colon \{0,1\}^{m/2} \to \{0,1\}^{m/2}$ is a RO. Define the random injection oracle $\pi[\rho] \colon \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}^m$ as $\pi[\rho](x) = \mathsf{LubRac}[\rho](\mathsf{pad}(x))$ and $\pi[\rho]^{-1}$ accordingly. By a simple hybrid argument we have:

Proposition 1. (RIM-to-ROM.) For any (even unbounded) adversary A making at most q queries it holds that

$$\begin{split} &|\Pr_{\rho \leftarrow \operatorname{Func}[m/2,m/2]}[A^{\pi[\rho](\cdot),\pi[\rho]^{-1}(\cdot)} \ outputs \ 1] - \\ &\Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \operatorname{FuncInj}[n,m]}[A^{\pi(\cdot),\pi^{-1}(\cdot)} \ outputs \ 1]| \in \mathcal{O}(q^2/2^{m/2}). \end{split}$$

4.2 Straight-Line Programs and Generic Ring Algorithms

Let $N \in \mathbb{N}$ and assume that $m \geq \kappa$, where κ is the bit length of N. Below, we define two types of programs (aka. algorithms) that use oracles, namely genericing algorithms (GRAs) and straight-line programs (SLPs).

Program Graphs and Their Execution. The below is based on [1]. We consider deterministic programs that perform arithmetic operations \pmod{N} on indeterminate Y.

We associate a program on a single input with its program graph over \mathbb{Z}_N , a labelled graph where a label of a node represents a (binary) operation and the program implicitly stores all intermediate results. We only consider programs whose graphs are binary trees. Vertices can be either branching or non-branching.

Execution of a program corresponds to traversing a labelled path in its program graph over \mathbb{Z}_N . Non-branching vertices are used to execute arithmetic operations (mod N) or to load inputs and constants into the program. They are accordingly labelled with elements $a \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ corresponding to constants in the program, with a (unique) indeterminate Y corresponding the programs input, or with an arithmetic operation label (i, j, \circ, b) which applies the arithmetic ring operation \circ (mod N) to operands at indices i and j that the program previously stored. (The flag $b \in \{-1,1\}$ indicates inversion of the second operand.) Branching vertices are used to test two values i,j previously computed by the program for equality (mod N). A branching vertex has two outgoing edges that are labelled 0 (for left) and 1 (for right).

The program applies the operations indicated by the labels of the vertices and edges it encounters in the order of traversal as follows:

- The first three vertices are a path and are always labelled 0, 1, and Y. That is, they are used to load the constants 0 and 1, and the single input y of the program. The program stores the intermediate results $y_0 = 0, y_1 = 1, y_2 = y$ for these vertices, respectively, and continues execution along this path.
- For $k \geq 4$:
 - If the kth vertex v_k is labelled with $a \in \mathbb{Z}_N$, the program stores $y_k \leftarrow a$ as the intermediate result for this vertex. It continues execution along this path.
 - If the kth vertex v_k is labelled with (i, j, \circ, b) then the program does as follows. Here $\circ \in \{\cdot, +\}, b \in \{-1, 1\}$, and i, j < k correspond to the ith and jth vertices on the path of traversal, which must be non-branching. The program computes $y_k := y_i \circ y_j^b \pmod{N}$ and stores the intermediate result y_k for vertex v. In case $\circ = +$ and b = -1, then $y_j^b = -y_j \pmod{N}$. In case $\circ = \cdot$, b = -1, and $y_j = 0 \pmod{N}$, $y_k := \bot$. In case $y_i = \bot$ or $y_j = \bot$, $y_k := \bot$. It continues execution along this path.
 - If the kth vertex v_k is labelled (i, j) where i, j < k correspond to the ith and jth vertices on the path of traversal, which must be non-branching, the program makes an equality test whether $y_i = y_j \pmod{N}$. If the result is 1, the program continues its execution along the right edge; otherwise, along the left.
- Whenever v_k is the last vertex on the path, the program computes y_k and outputs it, terminating execution.

Oracle-Aided Programs. Apart from the types of programs we have discussed above, we are also interested in programs that can perform arithmetic operations via oracle access (as opposed to directly).

Hence, we define oracles π , eq, and op_{π} as follows. Oracle π initially samples a random function $\pi \in \operatorname{FuncInj}[\kappa,m]$ and on query $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ returns $y = \pi(x) \in \{0,1\}^m$. Here we refer to $y \in \{0,1\}^m$ as a label. We slightly abuse notation by referring to the oracle π and the internally sampled function indiscriminately. We also make the convention of parsing $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ as a κ -bit binary string. Given $\pi \in \operatorname{FuncInj}[\kappa,m]$, we first consider an oracle eq for testing equality. On input $y_1,y_2 \in \{0,1\}^m$, eq returns 1 iff $\pi^{-1}(y_1) = \pi^{-1}(y_2) \pmod{N}$, and 0 otherwise. Now, we define the behavior of the ring oracle op_{π} on input as $y_1,y_2 \in \{0,1\}^m$ as

$$\mathsf{op}_{\pi}(y_1, y_2, \circ, b) := \pi \left(\pi^{-1}(y_1) \circ \left(\pi^{-1}(y_2) \right)^b \bmod N \right)$$

for all $y_1, y_2 \in \{0, 1\}^m$, $o \in \{+, \cdot\}$, $b \in \{1, -1\}$, where the inverse is additive in case o = +, b = -1. We implicitly assume that in case $o = \cdot, b = -1$, op_{π} internally queries $\mathsf{eq}(y_2, 0)$. op_{π} returns \bot in case either of the operands is \bot or the call to eq returns 1, i.e., if $\pi^{-1}(y_2) = 0 \pmod{N}$.

Remark 2. Throughout the paper, when there is no possibility of confusion we abbreviate oracles op_{π} and eq_{π} by π . That is, for an oracle-aided program P we abbreviate $P^{\mathsf{op}_{\pi},\mathsf{eq}_{\pi}}$ by P^{π} .

Oracle-aided program graphs over \mathbb{Z}_N are labelled very similarly to plain program graphs over \mathbb{Z}_N . Roughly speaking, all values in \mathbb{Z}_N are now replaced with their labels, according to π . Thus, a non-branching vertex is now labelled in one of two ways. Either it is labelled with (i, j, \circ, b) where i and j correspond to the ith and jth non-branching vertex among the vertices previously encountered on the path and $oldsymbol{o} \in \{+, \cdot\}, b \in \{1, -1\}$. Otherwise, it is labelled with some m-bit label $oldsymbol{o}$ in the image of $oldsymbol{o}$.

As before, a branching vertex is labeled with (i, j), where i and j correspond to the ith and jth non-branching vertex among the vertices previously encountered on the path. It has two outgoing edges labelled 0 (for left edge) and 1 (for right edge). The only difference is that the program now has to invoke eq on the intermediate values y_i and y_j so as to test their equality (rather simply testing whether they are equal).

Execution of an oracle-aided program corresponds to its program graph by adapting the above correspondence in the straight forward manner:

- The first two nodes on a path are always labelled as $\pi(0)$, $\pi(1)$, respectively; that is, they are used to load the constants 0 and 1. The third node on a path is used to load the (single) input $\pi(y)$ to the program. It is labelled with a special label ϕ . The program stores the intermediate results $y_0 = 0, y_1 = 1, y_3 = \pi(y)$ for these vertices, respectively, and continues execution along this path.
- When the program encounters a non-branching vertex v:

- If v is labelled with (i, j, \circ, b) , where i, j are indices and $b \in \{0, 1\}$, and this is the kth non-branching vertex on the path of traversal for some $k \geq 4$, and, then the program invokes the oracle op_{π} on input (y_i, y_j, \circ, b) . It stores the output of op_{π} as y_k .
- If v is labelled with σ and this is the kth non-branching index on the path of traversal for some $k \geq 4$, store $y_k \leftarrow \sigma$ and continue the execution of the program along this path.
- If the program encounters a branching vertex v: if v is labelled (i, j), the program invokes the oracle eq on input (y_i, y_j) . If the result is 1, the program continues its execution along the right edge; otherwise, along the left.
- If k is the last vertex on the path, the program outputs y_k and terminates.

Types of Programs. We define two types of programs:

Definition 5. A T-step (possibly oracle-aided) straight line program (SLP) S over \mathbb{Z}_N is a program whose program graph over \mathbb{Z}_N is a labelled path v_0, \ldots, v_{T+3} .

A deterministic generic ring algorithm (GRA) is a generalization of SLPs that allows equality tests. As explained above, such queries are represented as branching vertices in our graph representation of a GRA. Thus, an SLP can be seen as special case GRA, where an SLP is a GRA that contains no branching vertices.

Definition 6. A T-depth deterministic (possibly oracle-aided) generic ring algorithm (GRA) G over \mathbb{Z}_N is a program whose program graph over \mathbb{Z}_N is a depth-(T+3) vertex-labelled and partially edge-labelled binary tree.

To keep the distinction between oracle aided vs. regular programs clear, we will always make the dependency on π explicit by superscripting oracle-aided programs with π , i.e., G^{π} .

The following definition applies only to non-oracle aided programs. It inductively defines the polynomial corresponding to an execution of a program on input $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N$. Essentially, if the program encounters a non-branching vertex v and v corresponds to an arithmetic operation, then we associate the resulting tuple $(P_v^G(x), Q_v^G(x))$ with vertex v. Here, $P_v^G(x)$ and $Q_v^G(x)$ are interpreted as the numerator and denominator of a rational function $P_v^G(x)/Q_v^G(x)$ that is the result of applying the arithmetic operation to the rational functions associated with prior vertices w, u.

Definition 7. For a GRA G (or SLP S) over \mathbb{Z}_N of size T and non-branching vertex v in its execution graph, the pair $(P_v^G(x), Q_v^G(x))$ of polynomials in $\mathbb{Z}_N[x]$ associated with v is defined inductively, as follows:

- 1. The root has associated the pair (0,1), the child of the root the pair (1,1), and the child of that child has the pair (x,1).
- 2. A vertex v labelled with $a \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ is associated with (a, 1).

3. For each non-branching vertex v, labelled with operation (u, w, +, b), we have:

$$\begin{split} &(P_v^G(x),Q_v^G(x)) := \\ & \begin{cases} (P_u^G(x) \cdot Q_w^G(x) + P_w^G(x) \cdot Q_u^G(x), Q_u^G(x) \cdot Q_w^G(x)) & b = 1 \\ (P_u^G(x) \cdot Q_w^G(x) - P_w^G(x) \cdot Q_u^G(x), Q_u^G(x) \cdot Q_w^G(x)) & b = -1 \end{cases} \end{split}$$

4. For each non-branching vertex v, labelled with operation (u, w, \cdot, b) , we have:

$$\begin{aligned} (P_v^G(x),Q_v^G(x)) &:= \\ & \begin{cases} (P_u^G(x) \cdot P_w^G(x),Q_u^G(x) \cdot Q_w^G(x)) & b = 1 \\ (P_u^G(x) \cdot Q_w^G(x),Q_u^G(x) \cdot P_w^G(x)) & b = -1,Q_u^G(x) \neq 0 \pmod{N} \\ \bot & b = -1,Q_u^G(x) = 0 \pmod{N} \end{aligned}$$

Note that $P_v^G(x)$ and $Q_v^G(x)$ can each be represented as an SLP of size at most T.

Definition 8. For an SLP S over \mathbb{Z}_N of size T, we denote by $(P^S(x), Q^S(x))$ the pair of polynomials in $\mathbb{Z}_N[x]$ associated with the final vertex on the evaluation path. If $Q^S(x) \equiv 1$, we denote by f_S the polynomial $P^S(x)$. Note that $P^S(x)$ and $Q^S(x)$ can each be represented as an SLP of size at most T.

Definition 9. For each non-branching vertex v in the program graph over \mathbb{Z}_N of an ℓ -step GRA G with corresponding pair of polynomials $(P_v^G(a), Q_v^G(a))$, we associate the function

$$f_v^G: \mathbb{Z}_N \to \mathbb{Z}_N \cup \{\bot\}: a \mapsto \frac{P_v^G(a)}{Q_v^G(a)}$$

where the function is undefined if $Q_v^G(a) = 0$, which is denoted as $f_v^G(a) = \bot$, and where $P_v^G(a)$ and $Q_v^G(a)$ are evaluated over \mathbb{Z}_N . Moreover, for an argument $a \in \mathbb{Z}_N$, the computation path from the root v_0 to a leaf $v_{\ell+3}(a)$ is defined by taking, for each equality test of the form (u, w), the edge labeled 0 if $f_v^G(a) = f_w^G(a)$, and the edge labeled 1 if $f_u^G(a) \neq f_w^G(a)$. The partial function f^G computed by G is defined as

$$f^G: \mathbb{Z}_N \to \mathbb{Z}_N \cup \{\bot\}: a \mapsto f_{v_{\ell+3}(a)}^G.$$

We define the output of G on input $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ as $G(x) := f^G(x)$.

4.3 Model Specific Versions of the RSA Assumption

We introduce a new variant of the RSA game with preprocessing model specifically tailored to the oracle-aided computational models from the previous section. In the following, we fix the security parameter κ and an integer $m \in \mathbb{Z}, m \geq \kappa$.

Definition 10 (Generic RSA Problem with Preprocessing). For a tuple of algorithms $A = (A_0^{\pi}, A_1)$ and an RSA instance generator RSAGen, define experiment $\mathbf{crsa}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}^{\mathsf{A}}$ as follows:

- Offline Phase. Sample $\pi \leftarrow \text{FuncInj}[\kappa, m]$. Run A_0^{π} on input 1^{κ} . Let st denote the return value of A_0^{π} .
- Online Phase. Compute $(N, e, d) \leftarrow \mathsf{RSAGen}(1^\kappa)$ and sample $x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$. Run A_1 on input $(N, e, \pi(x^e), \mathsf{st})$ and let G^π denote the output. If G^π does not correspond to the description of a GRA, abort. Note that A_1 does not get access to oracle π .
- Output Determination. Run G^{π} on input $(N, e, \pi(x^e))$. When G^{π} outputs $z \in \{0, 1\}^m$, the experiment evaluates to 1 iff $z = \pi(x)$.

Define A's advantage relative to RSAGen as

$$Adv_{RSAGen}^{crsa}(A) = Pr[crsa_{RSAGen}^{A} = 1]$$
.

We call $A = (A_0^{\pi}, A_1)$ an (S, T_1, T_2) -generic-RSA-with-preprocessing algorithm (GP-RSA) relative to RSAGen if A_0^{π} outputs advice strings st of size at most S, A_1 runs in time at most T_1 , and and any program G^{π} in the output of A_1 runs in time at most T_2 . Note that we require that $T_1 \geq T_2$.

We also give an alternative version of this game in which $\pi \in \mathsf{FuncInj}[\kappa, m]$ and $(N, e, d) \in \mathsf{RSAGen}(1^{\kappa})$ are a fixed.

Definition 11 (Fixed Generic RSA Problem with Preprocessing). Fix integers $(N, e, d) \in \mathsf{RSAGen}(1^\kappa)$, let $\pi \in \mathsf{Funclnj}[\kappa, m]$, and let st be of size at most S. Define experiment $\mathsf{fcrsa}^\mathsf{A}_{(N, e, d, \mathsf{st}, \pi)}$ as follows:

- Online Phase. Sample $x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$. Run A on input $(N, e, \pi(x^e), \mathsf{st})$ and let G^π denote the output. If G^π does not correspond to the description of a GRA, abort. Note that A does not have oracle access to π .
- Output Determination. Run G^{π} on input $(N, e, \pi(x^e))$. When G^{π} outputs $z \in \{0, 1\}^m$, the experiment evaluates to 1 iff $z = \pi(x)$.

Define A's advantage relative to (N, e, d, st, π) as

$$\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathbf{fcrsa}}_{(N,e,d,\mathsf{st},\pi)}(\mathsf{A}) = \Pr[\mathbf{fcrsa}^{\mathsf{A}}_{(N,e,d,\mathsf{st},\pi)}(1^\kappa) = 1],$$

We call A an (S, T_1, T_2) -fixed-generic-RSA-with-preprocessing (FGP-RSA) algorithm relative to $(N, e, d, \operatorname{st}, \pi)$ if A runs in time at most T_1 , and and any program G^{π} in the output of A runs in time at most T_2 .

Note that in the above definition we do not require the advice string st to be output by a preprocessor A_0^{π} . However, by a standard averaging argument, we obtain the following lemma:

Lemma 3. Let $A = (A_0^\pi, A_1)$ be an (S, T_1, T_2) -GP-RSA algorithm and suppose that $Adv_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}^{\mathbf{crsa}}(A) \geq \epsilon$. Then with probability at least $\epsilon/2$ over the coins of RSAGen, the choice of π , and coins of A_0^π , A_0^π outputs st and RSAGen outputs (N, e, d) s.t. $Adv_{(N, e, d, \mathsf{st}, \pi)}^{\mathbf{fcrsa}}(A_1) \geq \epsilon/2$.

5 Main Results

We begin by stating two theorems that will be used to obtain both our plain model and RO model results.

Theorem 6. Let $S_r := S_r(\kappa)$, $T_{1,r} := T_{1,r}(\kappa)$, $T_{2,r} := T_{2,r}(\kappa)$, $\epsilon = \epsilon(\kappa)$ such that for sufficiently large κ , $S_r \cdot T_{2,r} \le \epsilon/162^{\kappa}$. Let $A = (A_0^{\pi}, A_1)$ be an $(S_r, T_{1,r}, T_{2,r})$ -GP-RSA algorithm relative to RSAGen, and let $\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathbf{crsa}}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}(\mathsf{A}) = \epsilon$.

Then there exists a (S_f,T_f) -factoring algorithm B in the random injective function model relative to RSAGen such that

$$\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathbf{fac}}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}(\mathsf{B}) \in \Omega(\epsilon^3),$$

such that $T_f := \mathsf{poly}(\kappa) \cdot (T_{1,r} + T_{2,r}^5 + \frac{T_{2,r}^{7/2}}{\epsilon^{3/2}})$, and such that $S_f := S_r$.

This theorem is proved in Section 6.

Remark 3. We give a comparison here of the bounds we achieve in Theorem 6 versus those achieved by AM's factoring algorithm. First, we consider our runtime of $T_f := \mathsf{poly}(\kappa) \cdot (T_{1,r} + T_{2,r}^5 + \frac{T_{2,r}^{7/2}}{\epsilon^{3/2}})$, and focus on the $(T_{1,r} + T_{2,r}^5 + \frac{T_{2,r}^{7/2}}{\epsilon^{3/2}})$ part. The first term's dependence on $T_{1,r}$ is unavoidable, since the factoring algorithm must run the RSA algorithm at least once. The second term of $T_{2,r}^5$ comes from running the SLPFAC^{π} algorithm with $M' := poly(\kappa) \cdot (T_{2,r})^2$. This corresponds exactly to running AM's Algorithm 1 M' number of times, whereas they only run it once. The reason for one of the $T_{2,r}$ factors in M' is that the success probability of AM's Algorithm 1 depended linearly on $1/T_{2,r}$ (the size of the SLP) and we wanted to remove the dependence on $T_{2,r}$ from our factoring algorithm's success probability. The reason for the second $T_{2,r}$ factor is that the success probability of AM's Algorithm 1 also depends linearly on the fraction of roots in the SLP. For them, this is essentially equivalent to the RSA algorithm's success probability. But for us, due to our compression argument, the fraction of roots in the SLP is only guaranteed to be at least $J/N \approx \epsilon/T_{2,r}$. Since we want to remove the dependence on $T_{2,r}$ from the success probability of the factoring algorithm, this accounts for the second factor of $T_{2,r}$ in our runtime.

Moving to the third term of $\frac{T_{2,r}^{7/2}}{\epsilon^{3/2}}$, this comes from the runtime of Alg2AM which is essentially the same as Algorithm 2 of AM. We are able to reduce from $\epsilon^{3/2}$ to $\epsilon^{5/2}$ in the denominator, since we assume that $\epsilon > 1/N$ and since we ignore $\mathsf{polylog}(N) = \mathsf{poly}(\kappa)$ factors in our analysis.

Next we move on to our success probability. We have ϵ^3 compared to linear dependence on ϵ in AM because we only provide a factoring algorithm when a certain event occurs. The event that we consider is only guaranteed to occur with probability ϵ with respect to ϵ -fraction of oracles.

Remark 4. Note that achieving the desired factoring algorithm when $T_{r,2} \ge 2^{\kappa/10}$ or $\epsilon' \le 1/2^{\kappa/6}$ is trivial since there is a trivial factoring algorithm that

runs in time $T_f = O\left((2^{\kappa/10})^5\right) = O\left(2^{\kappa/2}\right)$, with zero pre-processing and success probability 1, as well as a trivial factoring algorithm that achieves success probability $\Omega\left((2^{-\kappa/6})^3\right) = \Omega\left(2^{-\kappa/2}\right)$ with zero pre-processing and $\operatorname{poly}(\kappa)$ time (which just guesses a random number in $[2^{\kappa/2}]$ as one of the factors of N). We therefore assume WLOG that $T_{r,2} < 2^{\kappa/10}$ and $\epsilon' > 2^{-\kappa/6}$.

The following theorem instantiates the algorithm of Fiat-Naor in the setting of factoring-with-preprocessing.

Theorem 7. Let $\tilde{S} = \tilde{S}(\kappa)$, $\tilde{T} = \tilde{T}(\kappa)$, $\tilde{\epsilon} = \tilde{\epsilon}(\kappa)$ such that for sufficiently large κ , $\tilde{S} \cdot \tilde{T} \geq \tilde{\epsilon} 2^{\kappa}$. Then there exists a plain-model (S_f, T_f) -factoring-with-preprocessing algorithm A such that for $\kappa \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathbf{fac}}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}(A) \in \Omega(\tilde{\epsilon}),$$

we further have that $S_f = \tilde{S}$, and $T_f = \text{poly}(\kappa) \cdot \tilde{T}^2$.

This theorem is proved in Section 8.

In Sections 5.1 and 5.2 we formally state our results for the RO and plain model and explain how Theorems 6 and 7 are used to obtain those results.

5.1 The RO model result

Theorem 8. Let $A = (A_0^{\pi}, A_1)$ be an $(S_r, T_{1,r}, T_{2,r})$ -GP-RSA algorithm relative to RSAGen, and let $\epsilon := Adv_{RSAGen}^{\mathbf{crsa}}(A)$.

Then there exists a (S_f, T_f) -factoring algorithm B in the random injective function model relative to RSAGen such that

$$\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathbf{fac}}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}(\mathsf{B}) \in \varOmega(\epsilon^3),$$

such that
$$T_f := \mathsf{poly}(\kappa) \cdot (T_{1,r} + T_{2,r}^5 + \frac{T_{2,r}^{7/2}}{\epsilon^{3/2}})$$
, and such that $S_f := S_r + O(1)$.

To prove Theorem 8 we first show that the RI-model factoring algorithm from Theorem 6 (which gets backwards and forwards access to the random injective function), can be converted into a factoring algorithm in the Random Oracle model with the same parameters.

Specifically, in Proposition 1 we take A to be our final factoring algorithm FAC^{π} (see Lemma 10) and $q=2^{\kappa}$. Now set L such that

$$2^{2\kappa}/L \in O(N^2/L) \le 1/(2N)$$
.

As $\epsilon_f \in \Omega(1/N)$ where ϵ_f is the advantage FAC^{π} relative to a random injection on [L], we have

$$\epsilon_f' \ge \epsilon_f/2$$

where ϵ'_f is the advantage of the factoring algorithm in RO model that runs FAC^π , answering its queries via Luby-Rackoff. This RO-model factoring algorithm is for the case that for sufficiently large κ , $S_r \cdot T_{2,r} \leq \epsilon/162^{\kappa}$.

Setting $\tilde{S} = S_r$, $\tilde{T} = T_{2,r}$, $\tilde{\epsilon} = \epsilon/16$ and applying Theorem 7, we obtain a plain model factoring algorithm with parameters $S_f = S_r$, $T_f = \mathsf{poly}(\kappa) \cdot T_{2,r}^2$, and advantage $\epsilon_f \in \Omega(\epsilon)$. This plain-model factoring algorithm is for the case that for sufficiently large κ , $S_r \cdot T_{2,r} \geq \epsilon/162^{\kappa}$.

Note that it is also possible that neither of the above cases is satisfied and that, rather, for infinitely many κ , $S_r(\kappa) \cdot T_{2,r}(\kappa) \geq \epsilon(\kappa) \cdot 2^{\kappa}/16$, and simultaneously, for infinitely many κ , $S_r(\kappa) \cdot T_{2,r}(\kappa) < \epsilon(\kappa) \cdot 2^{\kappa}/16$. If this occurs, we obtain our factoring algorithm by having the unbounded pre-processing stage of the factoring algorithm do the following: On fixed input κ , it will run the GP-RSA algorithm exhaustively on all possible random coins and inputs to determine the exact constants $S_r(\kappa), T_{r,2}(\kappa), \epsilon(\kappa)$. It will then check whether $S_r(\kappa) \cdot T_{r,2}(\kappa) \geq \epsilon(\kappa) \cdot 2^{\kappa}/16$ or $S_r(\kappa) \cdot T_{r,2}(\kappa) < \epsilon(\kappa) \cdot 2^{\kappa}/16$. If the former is true, it will append a "0" bit to the preprocessing advice st to tell the online portion of the factoring algorithm to run the factoring algorithm for the first case. If the latter is true, it will append a "1" bit to the preprocessing advice to tell the online portion of the factoring algorithm to run the factoring algorithm for the second case. Thus, the preprocessing advice increases by a single bit (so it still satisfies $S_f = S_r + O(1)$) and the other parameters T_f , $\operatorname{Adv}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}^{\mathsf{fac}}(\mathsf{B})$ remain the same and therefore satisfy the required constraints of Theorem 8.

5.2 The plain model result

Theorem 9. Let $A = (A_0^{\pi}, A_1)$ be an $(S_r, T_{1,r}, T_{2,r})$ -GP-RSA algorithm relative to RSAGen, and let $\epsilon := \mathsf{Adv}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}^{\mathbf{crsa}}(\mathsf{A})$.

Then there exists a (S_f, T_f) -factoring algorithm B in the plain model relative to RSAGen such that

$$\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathbf{fac}}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}(\mathsf{B}) \in \varOmega(\epsilon^6),$$

such that
$$T_f := \text{poly}(\kappa) \cdot (T_{1,r} + T_{2,r}^5 + \frac{T_{2,r}^{7/2}}{\epsilon^{3/2}})$$
, and such that $S_f := O(S_r)$.

To prove Theorem 9 we start from the RI model factoring algorithm obtained in Theorem 6 and prove the following theorem:

Theorem 10. Let $S_r:=S_r(\kappa),\ T_{1,r}:=T_{1,r}(\kappa), T_{2,r}:=T_{2,r}(\kappa), \epsilon=\epsilon(\kappa).$ Let $\mathsf{A}=(\mathsf{A}_0^\pi,\mathsf{A}_1)$ be an $(S_r,T_{1,r},T_{2,r})$ -GP-RSA algorithm relative to RSAGen, and let $\epsilon:=\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathtt{crsa}}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}(\mathsf{A}).$

There exists a constant c such that, if for sufficiently large κ , $S_r \cdot T_{2,r} \leq c \cdot \epsilon^6 2^{\kappa}$, then there exists a (S_f, T_f) -factoring algorithm B in the plain model relative to RSAGen such that

$$\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathbf{fac}}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}(\mathsf{B}) \in \varOmega(\epsilon^6),$$

such that
$$T_f := \operatorname{poly}(\kappa) \cdot (T_{1,r} + T_{2,r}^5 + \frac{T_{2,r}^{7/2}}{\epsilon^{3/2}})$$
, and such that $S_f := S_r$.

The proof of Theorem 10 appears in Section 7. To obtain an algorithm for the case that for sufficiently large κ , $S_r \cdot T_{2,r} \geq c \cdot \epsilon^6 2^{\kappa}$, we set $\tilde{S} = S_r$, $\tilde{T} = T_{2,r}$, $\tilde{\epsilon} = c \cdot \epsilon^6$ and apply Theorem 7. This yields a plain model factoring algorithm with parameters $S_f = S_r$, $T_f = \text{poly}(\kappa) \cdot T_{2,r}^2$, and advantage $\epsilon_f \in \Omega(\epsilon^6)$. Using the same argument as in Section 5.1, we obtain a single factoring algorithm that covers all cases in the plain model with the parameters of Theorem 9.

6 Proof of Theorem 6

6.1 Notation and Algorithms

We begin by introducing some additional notation, terminology, and useful algorithms. First, we denote by $\epsilon' := \epsilon/4$. Recall that at a branching vertex v with label (u,w) in the program graph of a GRA G, the program performs an equality test on rational functions P_u^G/Q_u^G and P_w^G/Q_w^G , evaluated at the input y of the program. As in AM, we refer to such a branching index as extreme if the test consistently yields either 0 or 1 for most possible inputs y of the program.

Definition 12 (Extreme Branching Vertex). Let $\delta \in [0,1]$ and $N \in \mathbb{Z}$. A (δ, N) -extreme branching vertex of a GRA G is a branching vertex v labeled with (u, w) such that $\nu_N(P_u^G \cdot Q_w^G - P_w^G \cdot Q_u^G) \in [0, \delta] \cup [1 - \delta, 1]$.

Definition 13 (Negative Orientation). Let $\delta \in [0,1]$, $N \in \mathbb{Z}$, and let f be a polynomial with $\nu_N(f) \in [0,\delta]$ (resp. $\nu_N(f) \in [1-\delta,1]$). We say that y is (δ, N) -negatively oriented with respect to f if $f(y) = 0 \pmod{N}$ (resp. $f(y) \neq 0 \pmod{N}$).

We now define algorithm $\operatorname{\mathsf{PreGRA}}^\pi$ in Figure 1. Intuitively, the purpose of this algorithm is to turn an oracle-aided GRA G^π into a GRA \tilde{G} that successfully computes the $\operatorname{\mathsf{eth}}$ root x of $y \pmod{N}$, whenever G^π successfully computes $\pi(x)$ on input $\pi(y)$. We prove this property of $\operatorname{\mathsf{PreGRA}}^\pi$ in Lemma 4. A crucial property of $\operatorname{\mathsf{PreGRA}}^\pi$ is that it never queries $\pi^{-1}(\sigma_y)$ when run on input σ_y .

Algorithm PreGRA $^{\pi}$

Input: A GRA G^{π} of size at most T, a label $\sigma_y \in \{0,1\}^{\kappa}$. **Output:** A GRA \tilde{G} .

- Traverse the nodes of the execution graph of G^{π} using a topological ordering. Let v_i be the *i*-th node.
 - If v_i corresponds to a non-branching vertex with label σ_y, then set
 the i-th node v̄_i of Ḡ with value Y, where Y is the indeterminant
 of the GRA Ḡ.
 - If v_i corresponds to a non-branching vertex with label σ_z , where $\sigma_z \neq \sigma_y$, then label the *i*-th node \tilde{v}_i of the GRA \tilde{G} with $\pi^{-1}(\sigma_z)$.
 - If v_i is a non-branching vertex labelled with (v_u, v_w, \circ, b) , where v_u and v_w are predecessor nodes of v_i (according to the topological order), label \tilde{v}_i with $(\tilde{v}_u, \tilde{v}_w, \circ, b)$.
 - If v_i is a branching vertex corresponding to the equality check of two nodes v_u, v_w , where v_u and v_w are predecessor nodes of v_i (according to the topological order), set \tilde{v}_i as the branching vertex labelled with (v_u, v_w)
- Output \tilde{G} .

Fig. 1: Inversion algorithm for GRAs.

Lemma 4. Let G^{π} be a T-depth oracle-aided GRA over \mathbb{Z}_N , and let $y = x^e \pmod{N}$. Suppose that $\tilde{G} := \mathsf{PreGRA}^{\pi}(G^{\pi}, \pi(y))$ and that $G^{\pi}(\pi(y)) = \pi(x)$. Then \tilde{G} is a T-depth GRA over \mathbb{Z}_N and $\tilde{G}(y) = x \pmod{N}$.

Proof. The claim on the number of steps is immediate. For the second claim, observe that for every intermediate value stored at a v node labeled with $\sigma_z = \pi(z)$ in the program graph of G^{π} , PreGRA^{π} stores the value $z \in \mathbb{Z}_N$, unless $z = y \pmod{N}$. In the latter case, PreGRA^{π} stores Y. Hence, for every operation $(\diamond, b) \in \{+, \cdot\} \times \{-1, 1\}$ or equality check performed by G^{π} on two labels $\pi(a)$ and $\pi(b)$ at some node v_i of its program graph, \tilde{G} performs the analogous operation on a and b. It follows that if $G^{\pi}(\pi(y)) = \pi(x)$ then $\tilde{G}(y) = x$.

Algorithm DomPath

Input: A GRA G over \mathbb{Z}_N of depth at most T, $\delta \in [0,1]$. Output: A list of Polynomials $R_1, \ldots, R_{\psi+1}$ over \mathbb{Z}_N , where $\psi \leq T-1$.

- Let G_{ex} be the tree obtained from G by truncating the sub-tree rooted at v for all non- (δ, N) -extreme branching verteces v (in particular, v must be branching). Thus the leaf vertices of G_{ex} are either non-branching or non-extreme branching vertices.
- Consider a traversal of G_{ex} starting from the root and, at the *i*-th extreme vertex v labeled with (u, w), going to the edge labeled 1 if $\nu_N(f_u^G f_w^G) \in [0, \delta]$ and to the edge labeled 0 if $\nu_N(f_u^G f_w^G) \in [1 \delta, 1]$. Let ψ be the number of extreme vertices encountered in the path from the root to a leaf. Note that $\psi \leq T 1$. For each extreme vertex labeled with (u, w), let R_i denote the polynomial $(P_u^G \cdot Q_w^G P_w^G \cdot Q_u^G)$. Let $\hat{R}_{\psi+1}$ denote the final SLP formed by the path from the root to the leaf (note that $f^{\hat{R}_{\psi+1}}$ is different from R_{ψ} , since the leaf is not an extreme branching vertex).
- If the last vertex of $\hat{R}_{\psi+1}$ is a non-branching vertex with $(P^{\hat{R}_{\psi+1}}, Q^{\hat{R}_{\psi+1}})$, then let $R_{\psi+1}(Y) := [P^{\hat{R}_{\psi+1}}(Y)]^e Y \cdot [Q^{\hat{R}_{\psi+1}}(Y)]^e$.
- If the last vertex of $\hat{R}_{\psi+1}$ is a non-extreme branching vertex labeled with (u,w), then let $R_{\psi+1}:=P_u^G\cdot Q_w^G-P_w^G\cdot Q_u^G$.

Fig. 2: Dominating Path Algorithm.

We next define the algorithm DomPath from AM in Figure 2. This algorithm extracts the path most likely to be taken from a GRA G over \mathbb{Z}_N , when G is run on a random input y, i.e., it extracts the 'dominating path' in G. When viewing a GRA as its program graph, the dominating path can be seen as corresponding to an SLP that corresponds to the nodes in this path. DomPath takes a sensitivity parameter $\delta \in [0,1]$ that determines how accurate its guess of the dominating path will be. On top of the SLP corresponding to this path, DomPath outputs all the SLPs induced by branching vertices encountered along the dominating path. That is, if a node along the dominating path is labeled (u, w), then DomPath, on input G, will include the SLP $P_u^G - P_w^G$ in its output.

Note that for all the SLP's $R_1, \ldots, R_{\psi+1}$ with corresponding pairs $(P^{R_1}(Y), Q^{R_1}(Y)), \ldots, (P^{R_{\psi+1}}(Y), Q^{R_{\psi+1}}(Y))$ returned by DomPath, we have that $Q^{R_1}(Y) \equiv \cdots \equiv Q^{R_{\psi+1}}(Y) \equiv 1$. We therefore denote by $f_{R_1}, \ldots, f_{R_{\psi+1}}$ the polynomials $P^{R_1}(Y), \ldots, P^{R_{\psi+1}}(Y)$.

Finally, we define the algorithm ComGRA^π (see Figure 3). This algorithm internally runs the online phase of an FGP-RSA algorithm to obtain the oracle aided GRA G^π . It then runs PreGRA on its input $\pi(y)$ to obtain a GRA \tilde{G} , from which it extracts the dominating path via $\mathsf{DomPath}$.

Algorithm ComGRA[A] $^{\pi}$

Input: A label $\pi(y)$, a sensitivity parameter $\delta \in [0,1]$. Denote the random coins as ρ .

Output: A list of polynomials $\{R_1, \ldots, R_{\psi+1}\}$ over \mathbb{Z}_N .

- Run A on input $(N, e, \pi(y), \operatorname{st})$ and randomness ρ . Let G^{π} denote the output. If G^{π} does not correspond to the description of a T_2 -depth GRA over \mathbb{Z}_N , abort. Let $\tilde{G} := \mathsf{PreGRA}(G^{\pi}, \pi(y))$.
- Return $\{R_1, \ldots, R_{\psi+1}\} \leftarrow \mathsf{DomPath}(\tilde{G}, \delta)$

Fig. 3: Combined Algorithm. A is an (S, T_1, T_2) FGP-RSA algorithm relative to N, e, st, π .

Lemma 5. Let A be an $(S_r, T_{1,r}, T_{2,r})$ -FGP RSA algorithm relative to N, e, π and st. Suppose that $\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathbf{fcrsa}}_{N,e,d,\mathsf{st},\pi}(\mathsf{A}) \geq \epsilon/2$ and let $\delta \in [0,1]$. Then with probability at least $\epsilon/2$ over the coins of $\mathsf{ComGRA}[\mathsf{A}]^{\pi}$ and $y \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$, at least one of the following two events occurs when running $\mathsf{ComGRA}[\mathsf{A}]^{\pi}$ on input $\pi(y)$, and $\delta \in [0,1]$.

- 1. ComGRA[A]^{π} returns $R_1, ..., R_{\psi+1}$ such that y is (δ, N) -negatively oriented with respect to R_i for some $i \in [\psi+1]$.
- 2. ComGRA[A]^{π} returns $R_1,...,R_{\psi+1}$ such that $\nu_N(R_{\psi+1}) \geq \delta$ and $R_{\psi+1} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{N}$.

Proof. Let G^{π} be the oracle aided GRA output by A on input $N, e, \pi(y)$, st, where $y = x^e \pmod{N}$. We will show that whenever the algorithm is successful (i.e. $G^{\pi}(\pi(y)) = \pi(x)$) then the conclusion of Lemma 5 must hold. This is sufficient to prove the lemma.

Let $\tilde{G} = \mathsf{PreGRA}(G^{\pi}, \pi(y))$. Consider the execution of $\mathsf{DomPath}(\tilde{G})$ and recall that for each extreme vertex labeled with (u, w), R_i denotes the SLP

$$(P_u^{\tilde{G}} \cdot Q_w^{\tilde{G}} - P_w^{\tilde{G}} \cdot Q_u^{\tilde{G}}).$$

Finally, recall that $\hat{R}_{\psi+1}$ denotes the final SLP formed by the path from the root to the leaf. If the last vertex of $\hat{R}_{\psi+1}$ is a non-extreme branching vertex

labeled with (u, w), then $R_{\psi+1}$ is defined as $R_{\psi+1} = P_u^{\tilde{G}} \cdot Q_w^{\tilde{G}} - P_w^{\tilde{G}} \cdot Q_u^{\tilde{G}}$ and by definition of non-extreme branching vertex, $\nu_N(R_{\psi+1}) \in (\delta, 1 - \delta)$. This implies that $\nu_N(R_{\psi+1}) \geq \delta$ and $R_{\psi+1} \not\equiv 0$. (If $R_{\psi+1} \equiv 0$ then $\nu_N(R_{\psi+1}) = 1$.). So the conclusion of Lemma 5 holds. We therefore assume w.l.o.g. that the last vertex of $\hat{R}_{\psi+1}$ is a non-branching vertex — in which case $R_{\psi+1}$ is defined as $R_{\psi+1} = [P^{\hat{R}_{\psi+1}}(Y)]^e - Y \cdot [Q^{\hat{R}_{\psi+1}}(Y)]^e$ — and that the algorithm is successful (i.e. $G^{\pi}(\pi(y)) = \pi(x)$).

Case 1: $\hat{R}_{\psi+1}(y) = x$. If $\nu_N(R_{\psi+1}) \geq \delta$ then the conclusion of Lemma 5 holds. Otherwise, $\nu_N(R_{\psi+1}) \in (0, \delta)$. In this case, y is a root of $R_{\psi+1}$, since by Lemma 4, $P^{\hat{R}_{\psi+1}}(y)/Q^{\hat{R}_{\psi+1}}(y) = x$ and $R_{\psi+1}(Y) = [P^{\hat{R}_{\psi+1}}(Y)]^e - Y \cdot [Q^{\hat{R}_{\psi+1}}(Y)]^e$. Moreover, $R_{\psi+1}(Y) \not\equiv 0$, which was shown by Aggarwal and Maurer [1] as part of the proof for their Corollary 1. Hence, y is negatively oriented with respect to $R_{\psi+1}$, and again the conclusion of Lemma 5 holds.

Case 2: $\hat{R}_{\psi+1}(y) \neq x$. Since the algorithm is successful, $G^{\pi}(\pi(y)) = \pi(x)$ and due to Lemma 4, we have that $\tilde{G}(y) = x$. Note that $\tilde{G}(y) = x$ but $\hat{R}_{\psi+1}(y) \neq x$ and the last vertex of $\hat{R}_{\psi+1}$ is a non-branching vertex. Hence, the execution of $\tilde{G}(y)$ takes a different branch than the execution of $\hat{R}_{\psi+1}(y)$ at some extreme branching vertex on the path from the root to the leaf corresponding to $\hat{R}_{\psi+1}$. But then this means that for some $i \in [\psi]$, either $\nu_N(R_i) \in (0,\delta)$ and $R_i(y) = 0$ or $\nu_N(R_i) \in (1-\delta,1)$ and $R_i(y) \neq 0$. By definition, this implies that for some $i \in [\psi]$, y is negatively oriented with respect to R_i , so again the conclusion of Lemma 5 holds.

This concludes the proof of Lemma 5.

Two Events. Fix A, N, e, π and st as in Lemma 5. We consider the probability of two events over the randomness of ComGRA and choice of $y \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$. Set $J := \frac{(1-\epsilon'/2)\epsilon' \cdot N}{8 \log N T_{2,r}} = \frac{(1-\epsilon'/2) \cdot N}{4R_1 T_{2,r}} = N \cdot \delta$, where $\delta := J/N$.

- Event $E[N, e, \operatorname{st}, \pi]_1$: ComGRA[A] $^{\pi}$ on input $\pi(y)$ returns a list of polynomials $\{R_1, \ldots, R_{\psi+1}\}$ s.t. y is negatively oriented with respect to one of $\{R_1, \ldots, R_{\psi+1}\}$.
- Event $E[N, e, \operatorname{st}, \pi]_2$: ComGRA[A] $^{\pi}$ on input $\pi(y)$ returns a list of polynomials $\{R_1, \ldots, R_{\psi+1}\}$ s.t. $\nu_N(R_{\psi+1}) \in (\delta, 1-\delta)$.

Corollary 1 (of Lemma 5). Suppose that the conditions of Lemma 5 hold. Then at least one of the events $E[N, e, \mathsf{st}, \pi]_1$ or $E[N, e, \mathsf{st}, \pi]_2$ occurs with probability at least $\epsilon/4$.

Looking ahead, if $E[N,e,\mathsf{st},\pi]_1$ occurs, then A will be useless for factoring. Our task, therefore, is to prove that $E[N,e,\mathsf{st},\pi]_1$ occurs with probability less than $\epsilon'=\epsilon/4$ (which we do next in Section 6.2 via a compression argument). We therefore conclude that $E[N,e,\mathsf{st},\pi]_2$ occurs with probability at least $\epsilon'=\epsilon/4$.

6.2 Bounding the Probability of Event $E[N, e, st, \pi]_1$

In this section, we upper bound the probability of the event $E[N,e,\mathsf{st},\pi]_1$ as defined in the previous section, given that $S_r \cdot T_{2,r} \leq \epsilon' 2^{\kappa}/4$, where $\epsilon' := \epsilon/4$. In particular, we fix the values of N,e,st,π throughout most of this section. We also fix the length of the labels and interpret our labelling function as an injective mapping $\pi: \mathbb{Z}_N \to \mathbb{Z}_L$, where $L \geq N$ is chosen of appropriate size.

To achieve our upper bound, we will construct an encoding routine Enc^π (which is itself a "wrapped" version of Enc^π that includes the RSA instance generation and preprocessing steps)⁶ that compresses the function table of π whenever the event $E[N,e,\operatorname{st},\pi]_1$ is likely to happen. We also present a corresponding decoding routine Dec . Together, Enc^π , Dec will lead to a contradiction of Lemma 1, given $E[N,e,\operatorname{st},\pi]_1$ happens with too large of a probability. We present our encoding routine Enc^π and decoding routine Dec in Figures 4, 5, and 6 and argue their correctness. Here we set $r_1:=\lceil 2\log N/\epsilon'\rceil$, $r_2:=\lfloor \frac{\epsilon'N}{2T_2,r}\rfloor$, and J to be the maximum integer that satisfies $J\leq \frac{\lfloor N/T_2,r\rfloor-\lfloor \epsilon'N/(2T_2,r)\rfloor}{8R_1}$ and $r_1JT_{2,r}$ is a power of two. Note that we can lower bound J by $J\geq \frac{(1-\epsilon'/2)N}{32r_1T_2,r}$.

Lemma 6. Suppose $\widetilde{\mathsf{Enc}}^\pi$ with access to π and on random coins ρ outputs E . Then Dec on input E and on random coins ρ outputs the function table $\mathsf{Table}[\pi]$ of π .

Proof. The lemma follows by construction of Enc^π and Dec . Specifically, Enc^π stores one tuple of the form (ζ,ℓ,k) per iteration of the outer loop. As Enc^π stores the tuples E in the order in which they are found, it follows that Dec can deterministically recover the tuple corresponding to the jth iteration of the outer loop. Since both algorithms parse the random tape $\rho_{\operatorname{Enc}}^\pi[2]$ in the same manner, Dec can also recover the proper index $m=r_1\cdot j+k$ and (via $\rho_{\operatorname{Enc}}^\pi[1,m]$) the image $\pi(y)$ in order to run $\operatorname{ComGRA}[A_1]^\pi$. Moreover, Enc^π ensures that any call x to π that $\operatorname{ComGRA}[A_1]^\pi$ makes during its run can be answered by looking up the pair $(x,\pi(x))$ in E. Hence, Dec obtains from $\operatorname{ComGRA}[A_1]^\pi$ the same list of polynomials $\{R_1,\ldots,R_{\psi+1}\}$ as Enc^π does. It can now identify the correct polynomial R_ζ among them and use the ℓ root y as the preimage y of $\pi(y)$ in order to complete the pair $(y,\pi(y))$ in $\operatorname{Table}[\pi]$. Once Dec finds no further points, it can easily recover the remaining points of the function table by using the trivial encoding provided by Enc^π .

We next present the main technical lemma of this subsection. The proof of this lemma is deferred to Appendix A. Combining it with Lemma 8 below, we get that the encoding routine is *compressing* with high probability.

⁶ Separating them is convenient as otherwise, we could not keep N fixed while arguing about Enc^π . We also comment that $\widetilde{\mathsf{Enc}}^\pi$ uses more randomness than Enc^π and Dec . So when the non-wrapped routines read their shared random string ρ , they start at the position corresponding to the number of random bits used by $\widetilde{\mathsf{Enc}}^\pi$.

Algorithm Enc^{π}

Interface: Enc^{π} takes as input (N,e,st) . Denote Enc^{π} 's random coins as ρ . Enc^{π} outputs an encoding E of the labelling function $\pi:\mathbb{Z}_N\to\mathbb{Z}_L$. Initialization: Initialize a set $\mathsf{E}=\{\operatorname{st},N,e\}$ and an (empty) table Table that stores rows of the form $(x,\pi(x))$ for $x\in\mathbb{Z}_N$. Split random tape ρ into $\rho[1]||\rho[2]$ of appropriate size. Let $\mathcal{I}\subseteq\mathbb{Z}_L$ denote the image of $\pi:\mathbb{Z}_N\to\mathbb{Z}_L$. Add to E an encoding of \mathcal{I} (of length $\log\binom{L}{N}$).

Set j := 0. Repeat the following steps while $j < r_2$:

- Set good := false. Parse $\rho[1]$ as $\rho[1] = \rho[1, 1], ..., \rho[1, r_1 \cdot r_2]$ and $\rho[2]$ as $\rho[2] = \rho[2, 1], ..., \rho[2, r_1 \cdot r_2]$.
- Set k := 0 and repeat the following steps while $k \le r_1$ and $\neg good$:
 - Set k := k + 1.
 - Use $\rho[1, j \cdot r_1 + k]$ to select a random image $\pi(y_k)$ from the images that are not yet contained in Table.
 - Run ComGRA^{π}[A₁] on random coins $\rho[2, j \cdot r_1 + k]$ and inputs $\delta, \pi(y_k)$.
 - If $\mathsf{ComGRA}^{\pi}[\mathsf{A}_1]$ returns $\{R_1, \dots, R_{\psi+1}\}$ such that y_k is negatively oriented with respect to R_{ζ} for some $\zeta \in [\psi+1]$, set $\mathsf{good} := \mathsf{true}$.
- If $\neg good$, abort. (Call this Failure Event 2.1; we will show it occurs with probability at most 1/2.)
- Denote by $1 \le \ell \le J$ the index of y_k among the J roots or non-roots of R_{ζ} , depending on which case of Definition 13 R_{ζ} , y_k falls into.
- Add to E the entry (ζ, ℓ, k) . Re-run $\mathsf{ComGRA}^{\pi}[\mathsf{A}_1]$ on random coins $\rho[2]_{j \cdot r_1 + k}$ and input $\delta, \pi(y_k)$. If $\mathsf{ComGRA}^{\pi}[\mathsf{A}_1]$ internally queries (during the execution of $\mathsf{PreGRA}^{\pi})$ $\pi^{-1}(z)$ s.t. $(\pi^{-1}(z), z)$ is not yet stored in Table add to E the trivial encoding of $\pi^{-1}(z)$ (of length $\log(N |\mathsf{Table}|)$) and add $(\pi^{-1}(z), z)$ to Table. Add $(y_k, \pi(y_k))$ to Table.
- Set j := j + 1.

At this point there is a set of pre-images S and images S' stored in Table. Add an encoding to E of π restricted to $(\mathbb{Z}_N \setminus S) \to (\mathcal{I} \setminus S')$.

Fig. 4: Non-wrapped encoding routine.

Algorithm Dec

Interface: Dec takes as input an encoding E and random coins ρ . It outputs the function table Table $[\pi]$ of a function $\pi \in \text{FuncInj}$.

- Initialize Table $[\pi] = \bot$ and done := false.
- Recover from E the image of π and add it to Table $[\pi]$.
- Interpret random coins ρ as $\rho_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}, \rho_{A_0}, \rho_{\mathsf{Enc}}^\pi$.
- Therefore random coms ρ as $\rho_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}, \rho_{A_0}, \rho_{\mathsf{Enc}}$.

 Split $\rho_{\mathsf{Enc}}^{\pi}$ into two parts $\rho_{\mathsf{Enc}}^{\pi}[1] | \rho_{\mathsf{Enc}}^{\pi}[2]$ and parse these parts as $\rho_{\mathsf{Enc}}^{\pi}[1] = \rho_{\mathsf{Enc}}^{\pi}[1, 1], ..., \rho_{\mathsf{Enc}}^{\pi}[1, r_1 \cdot r_2]$ and $\rho_{\mathsf{Enc}}^{\pi}[2] = \rho_{\mathsf{Enc}}^{\pi}[2, 1], ..., \rho_{\mathsf{Enc}}^{\pi}[2, r_1 \cdot r_2]$.

 Compute st = $A_0^{\pi}(1^{\kappa}; \rho_{A_0})$ and $(N, e, d) = \mathsf{RSAGen}(1^{\kappa}; \rho_{\mathsf{RSAGen}})$. Let $\delta := \frac{(1 e'/2)}{4r_1T_2,r}$.

 While \neg done do:
- - Find the next tuple $t = (\zeta, \ell, k)$ in E. If this is the jth tuple of this form, set $m \leftarrow r_1 \cdot j + k$.
 - Use random coins $\rho_{\mathsf{Enc}}^{\pi}[1,m]$ to select a point $\pi(y)$ in the image of
 - Run ComGRA[A₁]^{π} on input $(\delta, \pi(y))$ with random coins $\rho_{\mathsf{Enc}}^{\pi}[2, m]$.
 - If ComGRA[A₁]^{π} queries π on input x, find $\pi(x)$ in E and return it to $\mathsf{ComGRA}[\mathsf{A}_1]^\pi$.
 - When $\mathsf{ComGRA}[\mathsf{A}_1]^{\pi}$ returns $\{R_1,\ldots,R_{\psi+1}\}$, find the ℓ th root y
 - Add to Table $[\pi]$ the entry $(y, \pi(y))$.
 - Remove t from E. If no further tuple of the above form exists in E, set done := true.
- Add all remaining preimages stored in E to the appropriate positions in Table $[\pi]$.
- Return Table $[\pi]$

Fig. 5: Our decoding routine.

Lemma 7. Let $S_r \leq \epsilon' 2^{\kappa}/(4T_{2,r})$ and fix some N, e, π and st of size at most S_r . Let A be an $(S_r, T_{1,r}, T_{2,r})$ -FGP RSA algorithm. Suppose that $\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathbf{fcrsa}}_{(N,e,\mathsf{st},\pi)}(\mathsf{A}) \geq \epsilon/2$ and $\Pr\left[E[N,e,\mathsf{st},\pi]_1\right] \geq \epsilon'$ (over the random coins of $\mathsf{ComGRA}[\mathsf{A}_1]^{\pi}$ and random choice of $y \sim \mathbb{Z}_N$). Then with probability at least 1/2 over the coins of Enc^{π} , Enc^{π} , on input (N,e,st) , returns E of size at most $\log\binom{L}{N} + \log(N!) + 2\log(N) - \epsilon' N/(2T_{2,r}) + 2$.

Algorithm $\widetilde{\mathsf{Enc}}^\pi$

Interface: $\widetilde{\mathsf{Enc}}^{\pi}$ takes in random coins ρ . It outputs an encoding E of π .

- Parse ρ as $\rho = (\rho_{RSAGen}, \rho_{A_0}, \rho_{Enc})$.
- Compute st = $A_0^{\pi}(1^{\kappa}; \rho_{A_0})$ and $(N, e, d) = \mathsf{RSAGen}(1^{\kappa}; \rho_{\mathsf{RSAGen}})$.
- − Obtain an encoding E as E ← $\mathsf{Enc}^{\pi}(\mathsf{st}, N, e; \rho_{\mathsf{Enc}})$. If Enc^{π} aborts, abort.
- Output E.

Fig. 6: Our final, wrapped encoding routine.

Lemma 8. Let RSAGen be an RSA generator and let $A = (A_0, A_1)$ be an AG-RSA algorithm with $Adv_{RSAGen}^{crsa}(A) \ge \epsilon$ s.t. $S_r \cdot T_{2,r} < 2^{\kappa} \cdot \epsilon/16$. Then the following happens with probability less than $\epsilon/2$ over the choice of π , the random coins of A₀, and the random coins of RSAGen: A_0^{π} outputs st of size at most S_r and RSAGen outputs (N, e, d) s.t. $E[N, e, \operatorname{st}, \pi]_1$ occurs with probability at most $\epsilon/4$ (over the random coins of ComGRA[A₁]^{π} and random choice of $y \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$).

Proof. Let A be as in the lemma statement and assume toward a contradiction that with probability at least $\epsilon/2$ (over their internal coins and choice of π), A_n^{σ} and RSAGen output st and (N, e, d) s.t. $E[N, e, st, \pi]_1$ occurs with probability at least $\epsilon' = \epsilon/4$ over the randomness of ComGRA[A₁]^{π} and random choice of $y \sim \mathbb{Z}_N$. Then by Lemma 7, given that π , st, and N, e are such that $E[N, e, \mathsf{st}, \pi]_1$ occurs with probability at least $\epsilon' = \epsilon/4$ over the internal coins of ComGRA[A₁]^{π} and random choice of $y \sim \mathbb{Z}_N$, we have that, for sufficiently large κ , Enc^{π} outputs an encoding E of size at most $\log {L \choose N} + \log(N!) + 2\log(N) - \epsilon' N/(2T_{2,r}) +$ 2 with probability at least 1/2 over its choice of random coins. Moreover if Enc^{π} returns E, then running Dec on E reproduces the function table of π with probability 1 (when run with the same coins). Now consider the algorithm Enc^{π} depicted in Figure 5. Enc^{π} gets access to π and internally runs A_0 and RSAGen on input 1^{κ} to obtain st of size at most S_r and (N,e,d), respectively. It then runs Enc^{π} on input (N, e, st) with access to π . It returns the encoding E returned by Enc^{π} and aborts in case Enc^{π} aborts. We can view $(\mathsf{Enc}^{\pi},\mathsf{Dec})$ as a pair of encoding/decoding routines that produce, for any input π , an encoding E which successfully decodes to π with probability at least ϵ' over the random coins of $\operatorname{\mathsf{Enc}}^{\pi}$. We now use Lemma 1 where we set $E = \operatorname{\mathsf{Enc}}^{\pi}$ (here we give π as an oracle, but this is equivalent to giving it as input as in the Lemma since Enc^π can make an unbounded number of queries), $D=\mathsf{Dec}$, and $\mathcal{X}=\{0,1\}^{\log(\frac{L!}{(L-N)!})},$ $m=\log(N!)+2\log(N)-\epsilon'N/(2T_{2,r})+2,$ and $\gamma=\epsilon'.$ Note that our choice of \mathcal{X} is large enough to store the function table of π . Lemma 1 says that $\log\binom{L}{N}+\log(N!)+2\log(N)-\epsilon'N/(2T_{2,r})+2=m\geq\log|\mathcal{X}|-\log1/\gamma=\log(N!)-2+\log(\epsilon').$ Since $\log\binom{L}{N}+\log(N!)=\log(\frac{L!}{(L-N)!})=\log|\mathcal{X}|,$ we arrive at a contradiction whenever $\epsilon'>16N^2/2^{\epsilon'N/(2T_{2,r})}.$ Since we have assumed that $\epsilon'>2^{-\kappa/6}\geq(1/(2N)^{1/6})$ and $T_{2,r}<2^{\kappa/10}\leq(2N)^{1/10},$ we indeed have that for sufficiently large $\kappa,\,\epsilon'>16N^2/2^{\epsilon'N/(2T_{2,r})}\geq16N^2/2^{N^{3/5}/2^{19/15}}>16N^2/2^{\epsilon'N/(2T_{2,r})},$ which yields the desired contradiction.

6.3 Constructing a Factoring Algorithm in the RI Model

Recall that in Lemma 5 we showed that, for properly generated $N, e, \operatorname{st}, \pi$, at least one of the events $E[N, e, \operatorname{st}, \pi]_1$, $E[N, e, \operatorname{st}, \pi]_2$ occurs with probability at least $\epsilon/4$. Further, in Lemma 8 we showed that for a large fraction $\epsilon/2$ of $N, e, \operatorname{st}, \pi$, the event $E[N, e, \operatorname{st}, \pi]_1$ occurs with probability at most $\epsilon/4$, when $S_r \cdot T_{2,r} \leq \epsilon' 2^{\kappa}/4$. This means that (for $\epsilon/2$ -fraction of $N, e, \operatorname{st}, \pi$) event $E[N, e, \operatorname{st}, \pi]_2$ occurs with probability at least $\epsilon/4 = \epsilon'$, when $S_r \cdot T_{2,r} \leq \epsilon' 2^{\kappa}/4$. In this subsection, we will first present a factoring algorithm in the RI model that succeeds when event $E[N, e, \operatorname{st}, \pi]_2$ occurs with probability at least ϵ' . Put together with Lemmas 5 and 8, this means that the factoring algorithm presented in this section is guaranteed to succeed with high probability when $S_r \cdot T_{2,r} \leq \epsilon' 2^{\kappa}/4$. Looking ahead, at the end of this section, we will show how to switch the algorithm from the RI model (with backwards and forwards access to the random injective function) to the RO model. In Section 8, we will present a completely different factoring algorithm in the RO model that succeeds when $S_r \cdot T_{2,r} > \epsilon' 2^{\kappa}/4$.

We begin by recalling Algorithm 2 (denoted Alg2AM) from Aggarwal and Maurer in Figure 7.

This algorithm runs in polynomial time and takes as input a GRA G and an integer N. It outputs either a non-trivial factor of N or an SLP S with many roots. In the former case, we are done. In the latter case, the idea is to run Algorithm SLPFAC^{π} (see Supplementary Material B) on input S and N, which similarly produces a non-trivial factor of N in polynomial running time. SLPFAC^{π} corresponds to Algorithm 1 of Aggarwal and Maurer [1]. The only difference is that we repeat their algorithm M' times with independent random coins in order to improve the success probability. For our purposes, we will set the parameter M' as $M' := \log N \cdot (T_{2,r})^2$. We next consider a simple augmentation of Alg2AM in Figure 7. For sake of simplicity, in the following, we refer to an SLP S as functionally equivalent to a polynomial S if for all S is equivalent to a polynomial S is because an SLP has an efficient representation. Note that this need not be true for a polynomial in general.

Lemma 9. Let G^{π} be a GRA, let $y = x^e$, let $\tilde{G} = \mathsf{PreGRA}^{\pi}(G^{\pi}, \pi(y))$, and let $\{R_1, \ldots, R_{\psi+1}\}$ be the list of polynomials returned by $\mathsf{DomPath}(\tilde{G})$. Then with

Algorithm Alg2AM

Input: A GRA G over \mathbb{Z}_N . **Output:** A factor of N or an SLP S over \mathbb{Z}_N .

- Let $v_1, ..., v_4$ be the first 4 nodes on a path from the root of G.
- Initialize S to be a path of length 2 with v_1, v_2, v_3 . Let $v = v_4$.
- While v.right is defined do:
 - If v is a non-branching vertex, then append v with its label to S^{π} .
 - Else, let the label of v be (u, w).
 - For $i \leftarrow 1$ to $M := \log(N) \cdot \delta^{-3/2}$ do:

 - * Generate a uniformly random element $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ * Compute g as the gcd of $P_u^G(x) \cdot Q_w^G(x) P_w^G(x) \cdot Q_u^G(x)$ and
 - * If $g \notin \{1, N\}$, then return q
 - Generate a uniformly random element $x' \in Z_N$
 - If $P_u^G(x') \cdot Q_w^G(x') P_w^G(x') \cdot Q_u^G(x') = 0$ then v := v.left
 - Else, v := v.right
 - If the final vertex of S originated from a non-branching vertex v, let (P^S, Q^S) denote the SLP's computed by the path S from the root to v. Let $S_{\psi+1}(Y) := [P^S(Y)]^e - Y \cdot [Q^S(Y)]^e$. I.e. $S_{\psi+1}(Y)$ is the SLP obtained by exponentiating the outputs of SLP's $P^{S}(Y)$ and $Q^{S}(Y)$ (which can be done in $O(\log(e))$ steps, multiplying the second by indeterminate Y (which can be done in a single step) and subtracting the two (which can be done in a single step).
 - If the final vertex of S originated from a non-extreme branching vertex labeled with (u, w), set $S_{\psi+1} := P_u^G \cdot Q_w^G - P_w^G \cdot Q_u^G$. I.e. $S_{\psi+1}$ is the SLP obtained by multiplying the outputs of SLP's P_u^G, Q_w^G and P_w^G, Q_u^G (which can be done in two steps) and subtracting the two (which can be done in a single step).
 - Else, set $S_{\psi+1} := \bot$.
- Return $S_{\psi+1}$.

Fig. 7: Algorithm 2 from Aggarwal Maurer

probability $1 - T_{2,r} \cdot \delta = 1 - T_{2,r} \cdot \frac{(1 - \epsilon'/2)\epsilon'}{32\kappa T_{2,r}} \ge 1 - \epsilon/8$ over the random coins of ${\sf Alg2AM}, \ {\sf Alg2AM} \ \ on \ \ input \ \tilde{G} \ \ outputs \ \ a \ non-trivial \ factor \ g \ \ of \ N \ \ or \ outputs \ \ an$ SLP $S_{\psi+1}$ s.t. $S_{\psi+1}$ is functionally equivalent to $R_{\psi+1}$.

Proof. We consider the set \mathcal{V} of all vertices v encountered during a run of Alg2AM. Let p_1 denote the probability that there is some $v \in \mathcal{V}$ that is a non-extreme branching vertex. Let $p_2 = (1 - p_1)$ denote the probability that all $v \in \mathcal{V}$ are either non-branching vertices or extreme branching vertices. Let p_3 denote the probability that Alg2AM outputs a factor q conditioned on all $v \in \mathcal{V}$ being either non-branching vertices or extreme branching vertices. If there is some $v \in \mathcal{V}$ that is a non-extreme branching vertex then (invoking Lemma 2 of Aggarwal and Maurer [1]) Alg2AM outputs a factor g with probability at least $1-(1-\delta^{3/2})^M$. Further, conditioned on (1) all $v \in \mathcal{V}$ being either non-branching

vertices or extreme branching vertices, and (2) Alg2AM not outputting a factor g, we have that $S_{\psi+1}$ is functionally equivalent to $R_{\psi+1}$ with probability at least $1-T_{2,r}\delta$. This follows directly from the fact that Alg2AM performs an identical traversal of the nodes in \tilde{G} 's execution graph as does $\mathsf{DomPath}(\tilde{G})$.

Thus, the overall success probability is at least

$$p_1 \cdot (1 - (1 - \delta^{3/2})^M) + p_2 \cdot (p_3 + (1 - p_3)(1 - T_{2,r}\delta))$$

$$\geq p_1 \cdot (1 - (1 - \delta^{3/2})^M) + p_2(1 - T_{2,r}\delta)$$

$$= p_1 \cdot (1 - (1 - \delta^{3/2})^M) + (1 - p_1)(1 - T_{2,r}\delta)$$

$$\geq (1 - T_{2,r}\delta),$$

where the final inequality follows due to setting parameter $M = \log(N) \cdot \delta^{-3/2}$ so that $1 - (1 - \delta^{3/2})^M \ge 1 - e^{-M\delta^{3/2}} \ge (1 - 1/N) \ge (1 - T_{2,r}\delta)$.

Lemma 10. Let $A=(A_0^\pi,A_1)$ be an $(S_r,T_{1,r},T_{2,r})-$ FGP RSA algorithm. Fix (N,e,π) , let $\mathsf{st}\in A_0^\pi(1^\kappa)$ and suppose that $S_r\cdot T_{2,r}\leq 2^\kappa\cdot \epsilon'/4$. If $E[N,e,\mathsf{st},\pi]_2$ occurs with probability at least ϵ' over the randomness of ComGRA and random $y\sim \mathbb{Z}_N$, then Algorithm FAC $^\pi$ on input (N,e), st runs in time $O((\kappa^2\frac{\kappa T_{2,r}}{(1-\epsilon'/2)\epsilon'})^{3/2}+T_{2,r}^5\kappa^3+T_{1,r})$ and outputs a non-trivial factor of N with probability $\Omega((\epsilon')^2(1-\epsilon'/2))$ over its choice of random coins.

Algorithm FAC^{π}

Input: A tuple (N, e) and a state st. Output: A factor g of N.

- 1. Sample y at random.
- 2. Run A_1 on input $(N, \pi(y), st)$ and let G^{π} denote the output. If G^{π} does not correspond to the description of a GRA, abort.
- 3. Run $\tilde{G} := \mathsf{PreGRA}^{\pi}(G)$
- 4. Run Alg2AM(\hat{G}). If it returns a factor, return the factor and abort. Otherwise let $S_{\psi+1}$ be the returned SLP.
- 5. Return the output of SLPFAC^{π} on input $(S_{\psi+1}, N)$ with $M' := \log N \cdot (T_{2,r})^2$.

Fig. 8: Factoring Algorithm

Proof. We now analyze the success probability of the above algorithm in the case that $E[N, e, \mathsf{st}, \pi]_2$ occurs with probability at least ϵ' .

First, Lemma 9 implies that if $E[N,e,\mathsf{st},\pi]_2$ occurs with probability ϵ' , then with probability at least $\epsilon'/2$, $E[N,e,\mathsf{st},\pi]_2$ occurs and Alg2AM either returns a factor of N or $S_{\psi+1}$ that is functionally equivalent to $R_{\psi+1}$.

Algorithm $\widetilde{\mathsf{FAC}^\mathsf{H}}$

Offline Phase: Run A_0^{π} on input 1^{κ} to obtain state st of size S_r . Simulate the oracle for A_0^{π} by using random injective function H as the labelling function.

Online Phase:

- Choose a random e conditioned on N.
- Return the output of FAC^π run on input (N, e), st. Simulate the oracle π using oracle H.

Fig. 9: Wrapped Factoring Algorithm

Let p_1 denote the probability that $E[N,e,\mathsf{st},\pi]_2$ occurs and Alg2AM returns a factor of N Let p_2 denote the probability that $E[N,e,\mathsf{st},\pi]_2$ occurs and $S_{\psi+1}$ is functionally equivalent to $R_{\psi+1}$. Note that, by the above, $p_1+p_2 \geq \epsilon/8$.

If $E[N,e,\mathsf{st},\pi]_2$ occurs and $S_{\psi+1}$ is functionally equivalent to $R_{\psi+1}$, then it means that $\nu_N(S_{\psi+1}) \geq \delta$. Using Lemma 13 we have that SLPFAC^π factors successfully on input $S_{\psi+1}$ with probability $p_3 \in \Omega(M' \cdot \nu_N(f)/T_{2,r}) = \Omega(M' \cdot \frac{\epsilon'(1-\epsilon'/2)}{\log N(T_{2,r})^2}) = \Omega(\epsilon'(1-\epsilon'/2))$.

Thus, in total, the probability of factoring successfully is at least $p_1 + p_2 \cdot p_3 \ge p_3 (p_1 + p_2) \ge p_3 \cdot \epsilon'/2 \in \Omega((\epsilon')^2 (1 - \epsilon'/2))$. This concludes the proof.

Corollary 2. Let $A=(A_0^\pi,A_1)$ be an $(S_r,T_{2,r})-$ GP-RSA algorithm with advantage ϵ and let $S_r \cdot T_{2,r} < 2^\kappa/(16 \cdot \epsilon)$. Let $S_f = S_r$ and $T_f = O(\kappa^2 \frac{(\kappa T_{2,r})^{7/2}}{(1-\epsilon'/2)\epsilon')^{3/2}} + T_{2,r}^5 \kappa^3 + T_{1,r})$. Then FACH is an (S_f,T_f) -factoring algorithm and $\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathsf{fac}}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}(\mathsf{FACH}) \in \Omega(\epsilon^3)$ in the random invertible injective function model.

Proof. By Lemma 8, with probability at least $\epsilon/2$ over the random coins of A_0 , choice of π , and coins of RSAGen, A_0^{π} outputs st and RSAGen outputs (N,e,d) s.t.

$$\Pr_{\mathsf{ComGRA}, u \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N} \left(E[N, e, \mathsf{st}, \pi]_2 \right) \geq 1 - \epsilon/4 \geq \epsilon/2 = \epsilon'$$

By Lemma 10, we see that running Algorithm FAC^π on input N, e, st takes time $O((\kappa^2 \frac{\kappa T_{2,r}}{(1-\epsilon'/2)\epsilon'})^{3/2} + T_{2,r}^5 \kappa^3 + T_{1,r})$ and returns a non-trivial factor of N with probability at least $\Omega((\epsilon')^2(1-\epsilon'/2))$ over its choice of random coins. Overall, this implies that FAC^H runs in online time $O((\kappa^2 \frac{\kappa T_{2,r}}{(1-\epsilon'/2)\epsilon'})^{3/2} + T_{2,r}^5 \kappa^3 + T_{1,r})$ and returns a factor of N with probability at least $\Omega(\epsilon \cdot (\epsilon')^2(1-\epsilon'/2)) \in \Omega(\epsilon^3)$.

7 Proof of Theorem 10

Let $\mathsf{FAC^H}$ be the RI-model (S,T)-factoring-with-preprocessing algorithm with success probability ϵ constructed in Corollary 2. Let $\pi\colon \mathbb{Z}_{2^{\kappa}} \to \mathbb{Z}_L$ and let $\mathsf{st} \in$

 $A_0^{\pi}(1^{\kappa})$. For each $y \in \mathbb{Z}_L$ such that $y \in \mathsf{Img}(\pi)$ define

$$\hat{y} := \Pr[\widetilde{\mathsf{FAC^H}}(N, e, \mathsf{st}; \mathsf{coins}) \text{ makes query for } \pi^{-1}(y)]$$

where the probability is over $(N,e) \leftarrow \mathsf{RSAGen}$ and $\mathsf{coins} \leftarrow \mathsf{CoinSp}(1^\kappa)$. For each π , define $S_\pi := \{y \mid \hat{y} \geq \epsilon^3/(\kappa \cdot 2^\kappa)\}$. Note that for a fixed π , taking a union bound over all $\mathsf{Img}(\pi)$ gives us that for all $y' \in \mathsf{Img}(\pi) \setminus S_\pi$

$$\Pr[\widetilde{\mathsf{FAC}^\mathsf{H}}(N, e, \mathsf{st}; \mathsf{coins}) \text{ makes query for } \pi^{-1}(y')] \leq \epsilon^3/\kappa$$

again over the choices of $(N,e) \leftarrow \mathsf{RSAGen}$ and coins. Looking ahead, this will give us that the failure probability of our simulation of $\mathsf{FAC^H}$ will be the same as in the factoring-with-processing game. We have the following lemma which ensures that the size of S_π can not too be too large relative to the size of the preprocessing advice S of the factoring routine.

Lemma 11. It holds that
$$\Pr_{\pi}[|S_{\pi}| \leq (S+3\kappa)/\kappa] \geq 1 - \epsilon^3/\kappa$$
.

Proof. Considering the complement event to the above, assume towards contradiction $\Pr_{\pi}[|S_{\pi}| > (S+3\kappa)/\kappa] > \epsilon^3/\kappa$. For arbitrary but fixed π , let $S_{\pi} := \{y_1, \ldots, y_m\}$. For each $i \in [m]$, let $(N_i, e_i, u_i := \pi(z_i^e \mod N_i) \neq y_i)$ be an input of A_1^{π} for which

$$\Pr[A_1(N_i, e_i, \mathsf{st}, u_i) \text{ queries for } \pi^{-1}(y_i)] \ge \epsilon^3/(\kappa \cdot 2^{\kappa})$$

over the coins of $A_1^{\pi,8}$ Note there can be many such u_i and we choose one of them arbitrarily. Let $U := \{u_1, \ldots, u_m\}$. We claim that there exists the the following sets: (1) A set $S_1 := \{y_{i_1}, \ldots, y_{i_v}\} \subseteq S_{\pi}$. (2) A multiset S_2 of inputs with $w \le v$ distinct elements, defined as $S_2 := \{u_{i_1}, \ldots, u_{i_v}\}$. (3) $S_3 := \{y_{j_1}, \ldots, y_{j_z}\} \subseteq S_{\pi}$ and (4) $S_4 := \{u_{j_1}, \ldots, u_{j_z}\}$, such that it holds that v + w + z = m and

$$S_1 \cap S_2 = \emptyset$$
, $S_3 \cap (S_1 \cup S_2) = \emptyset$, $S_4 \subseteq S_1$.

We construct such S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4 as follows, where we assume w.l.o.g. that m is even.

```
Algorithm FindSets(S_{\pi}, U):

S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4 \leftarrow \emptyset

For i = 1 to m do:

If y_i \notin S_1 \cup S_2 and u_i \notin S_1 do:

S_1 \leftarrow S_1 \cup \{y_i\}; S_2 \leftarrow S_2 \cup \{u_i\}

If |S_1| + |S_2| = m + 1 then S_1 \leftarrow S_1 \setminus \{y_{i_1}\} and goto Return

If |S_1| + |S_2| = m then goto Return

For i = 1 to m do:

If y_i \notin S_1 \cup S_2 then

S_3 \leftarrow S_3 \cup \{y_i\}; S_4 \leftarrow S_4 \cup \{u_i\}

If |S_1| + |S_2| + |S_3| = m then break

Return (S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4)
```

⁷ We leave dependence of S_{π} on st implicit.

⁸ We may assume that at least one u_i exists for every $y_i \in S_{\pi}$, as the definition of S_{π} ensures that at least one such N_i must exist.

Given that $y_i \neq u_i$ for all $i \in [m]$, it is not hard to see that the sets S_1, S_2 and S_3 produced by FindSets are disjoint. Now, for every $u \in S_2$, let $Q(u) := \{y_i \in S_1 \mid u_i = u\}$. Note that $\bigcup_{i=1}^{i=w} Q(u_i) = S_1$. Setting $r = \kappa^2 \cdot 2^{\kappa}/\epsilon^3$, we have that the image of such π can be described using

$$S + 2\log(2^{\kappa}) + w(\log(L) + \log(2^{\kappa})) + v(3\log(2^{\kappa}) + 3\log(1/\epsilon) + \log(T) + 2\log(\kappa) + 3) + z(4\log(2^{\kappa}) + 3\log(1/\epsilon) + \log(T) + 2\log(\kappa) + 3) + \log\left(\frac{L - (v + w)}{2^{\kappa} - (v + w)}\right)$$
(1)

number of bits via the encoding routine in Figure 10. The corresponding decoding routine (where we ignore the Failure event occurring) is given in Figure 11.

Specifically, $2\log(2^{\kappa})$ bits come from encoding (w||z) at the beginning of the encoding routine. $w(\log(L))$ bits come from encoding the u values in the outer loop. $w(\log(2^{\kappa}))$ bits come from encoding value of |Q(u)| in the outer loop, since $|S_1| \leq 2^{\kappa}$. $v(2\log(2^{\kappa}))$ bits come from encoding (N,e) in the nested loop. $v(\log(2^{\kappa}) + 3\log(1/\epsilon) + \log(T) + 2\log(\kappa))$ bits comes from encoding the index, k, of the successful random coins in the innermost loop. $v(\log(T))$ bits comes from encoding the index ζ of the successful query in the k-th run in the innermost loop. $z(\log(2^{\kappa}))$ bits come from encoding the index of u_{ℓ} in the set S_1 . $z(2\log(2^{\kappa}))$ bits come from encoding (N,e) in the second part of the encoding routine. $z(\log(2^{\kappa}) + 3\log(1/\epsilon) + \log(T) + 2\log(\kappa))$ bits comes from encoding the index, k, of the successful random coins in the inner loop of the second part of the encoding routine. $z(\log(T))$ bits comes from encoding the index ζ of the successful query in the k-th run in the innermost loop.

Moreover, Failure Event 3 occurs with probability at most 1/2, which can be seen as follows. For every value of i, the innermost loop is run at most 2^{κ} many times and fails to set $\operatorname{good} = \operatorname{true}$ with probability at most $(1-\epsilon/(\kappa \cdot 2^{\kappa}))^r \leq e^{-2\kappa}$ after r iterations each time it is run. Thus, the probability that for a particular value of i, good is not set, is at most $2^{-\kappa} \cdot e^{-2\kappa}$. As there are at most 2^{κ} possible values for i, the probability that for any of them, $\operatorname{good} = \operatorname{true}$ is not ever set and thus Failure Event 3 occurs, is at most $(2/e)^{-2\kappa} \leq \frac{1}{2}$.

Assuming parameters are set such that $4\log(2^{\kappa}) + 3\log(1/\epsilon) + \log(T) + 2\log(\kappa) < \log(L)$, we have that (1) is maximized at z = 0, v = w = m/2. In Lemma 1, we set $\gamma = 1/2$ and \mathcal{X} to be any subset of all mappings π s.t. \mathcal{X} contains at least an ϵ^3/κ fraction of all π that satisfy $|S_{\pi}| > m$ (for some value of m). Note that \mathcal{X} is therefore of size at least $\kappa \cdot \binom{L}{2\kappa}/\epsilon^3$. Using the above encoding

on elements π of the set \mathcal{X} , we obtain contradiction to Lemma 1 when

$$\begin{split} S + 2\log(2^{\kappa}) \\ &+ m/2(\log(L) + 4\log(2^{\kappa}) + 3\log(1/\epsilon) + \log(T) + 2\log(\kappa)) \\ &+ \log\left(\frac{L - m}{2^{\kappa} - m}\right) \\ &< \log\left(\frac{L}{2^{\kappa}}\right) - 2 - 3\log(1/\epsilon) - \log(\kappa). \end{split}$$

This occurs when

$$S + 3\log(2^{\kappa}) < \log\left(\frac{L \cdots (L - m + 1)}{2^{\kappa} \cdots (2^{\kappa} - m + 1)}\right) - m/2(\log(L) + 4\log(2^{\kappa}) + 3\log(1/\epsilon) + \log(T) + 2\log(\kappa)).$$

As we have set $T \leq 2^{\kappa/10}$, $\epsilon \geq 2^{-\kappa/6}$, we obtain in particular that

$$S + 3\log(2^{\kappa}) < \log\left(\frac{L\cdots(L-m+1)}{2^{\kappa}\cdots(2^{\kappa}-m+1)}\right) - m/2(\log(L) + 4\log(2^{\kappa}) + 3\log(2^{\kappa/6}) + \log(2^{\kappa/10}) + 2\log(\kappa))$$

$$= \log\left(\frac{L\cdots(L-m+1)}{2^{\kappa}\cdots(2^{\kappa}-m+1)}\right) - m/2(\log(L) + \log(2^{4\kappa}) + \log(2^{\kappa/2}) + \log(2^{\kappa/10}) + 2\log(\kappa))$$

$$= \log\left(\frac{L\cdots(L-m+1)}{2^{\kappa}\cdots(2^{\kappa}-m+1)}\right) - m\cdot\left(\log\left((4\kappa L 2^{23\kappa/5})^{1/2}\right)\right). \tag{2}$$

Note that for $L \geq 2^{\kappa}$, we have that $\frac{L\cdots(L-m+1)}{2^{\kappa}\cdots(2^{\kappa}-m+1)} \geq (\frac{L}{2^{\kappa}})^{m}$. Thus, (2) is implied by

$$S + 3\log(2^{\kappa}) < m\log\left(\frac{L^{1/2}}{(4\kappa)^{1/2}2^{23\kappa/10}}\right).$$

Setting $L=2^{8\kappa}$ (so the number of bits in the output of π is 8 times the number of input bits), we have that for sufficiently large κ , $\log\left(\frac{L^{1/2}}{(4\kappa)^{1/2}2^{23\kappa/10}}\right) \geq \log(2^{\kappa}) = \kappa$. Thus, to avoid contradiction with Lemma 1, we see that for any subset $\mathcal X$ of size at least $\kappa \cdot \binom{L}{2\kappa}/\epsilon^3$ and for sufficiently large κ , it must hold that $m \leq \frac{S+3\kappa}{\kappa}$ and the bitlength required to store preimages/images for S_{π} s.t. $\pi \in \mathcal X$ is at most $9(S+3\kappa) \in O(S)$. To arrive at a contradiction, we can choose $\mathcal X$ as the set of all π s.t. $|S_{\pi}| > \frac{S+3\kappa}{\kappa}$. By assumption, $\mathcal X$ is of size at least $\kappa \cdot \binom{L}{2\kappa}/\epsilon^3$. Thus, it must contain at least one element π such that $|S_{\pi}| \leq \frac{S+3\kappa}{\kappa}$, which contradicts its definition.

Given Lemma 11, we now present a modified factoring algorithm (see Figure 12) in the RI model. Note that the online portion of this algorithm queries the forward direction of π a single time on an input that is chosen independently and uniformly at random. It never queries the backward direction of π .

Algorithm $EncIm^{\pi}$

Interface: EncIm^{π} outputs an encoding E of the *image* of labelling function $\pi: \mathbb{Z}_N \to \mathbb{Z}_L$. EncIm^{π} gets access to random tape ρ . Initialization:

- Initialize the encoding E to st and count = 0.
- Compute S_{π} and U.
- Use FindSets to find sets $S_2 = \{u_1, \ldots, u_w\}$, $S_1 = \bigcup_{i=1}^w Q(u_i)$, $S_3 = \{y_1, \ldots, y_z\}$ as above.
- Add encoding of (w||z) to E and parse ρ as $\rho = \rho[1], \ldots, \rho[m \cdot r]$.

Set i := 0. Repeat the following steps while i < w:

- Set i := i + 1. Add $(u_i, |Q(u_i)|)$ to encoding E. Let $Q(u_i) = (y_1, \ldots, y_{|Q(u_i)|})$.
- Set j = 0. Repeat the following while $j < |Q(u_i)|$:
 - Set j := j+1 and good := false. Let (N_j, e_j) be the value such that $A_1^{\pi}(\mathsf{st}, N_j, e_j, u_i)$ queries y_j with probability at least $\epsilon^3/(4 \cdot 2^{\kappa})$ over choice of random tape.
 - Set k := 0 and repeat the following steps while $k \le r$ and $\neg good$:
 - * Set k := k + 1.
 - * Run $A_1^{\pi}(\mathsf{st}, N_j, e_j, u_i)$ on random coins $\rho[(\mathsf{count}) \cdot r + k]$.
 - * If $A_1^{\pi}(\mathsf{st}, N_j, e_j, u_i)$ queries y_j , on the ζ -th query and $\mathsf{good} := \mathsf{false}$, then set $\mathsf{good} := \mathsf{true}$ and add (N_j, e_j, k, ζ) to the encoding.
 - Set count := count + 1.
 - If ¬good, abort. (Call this Failure Event 3; we will show it occurs with probability at most 1/2.)

At this point the sets of images S_1, S_2 of sizes v and w have been specified. Set $\ell := 0$. Repeat the following steps while $\ell < z$:

- Set $\ell := \ell + 1$. Let $(N_{\ell}, e_{\ell}, u_{\ell})$ be the value such that $A_{1}^{\pi}(\mathsf{st}, N_{\ell}, e_{\ell}, u_{\ell})$ queries y_{ℓ} with probability at least $\epsilon^{3}/(4 \cdot 2^{\kappa})$, where y_{ℓ} is the ℓ -th element in S_{3} , over choice of random tape.
- Recall that $u_{\ell} \in \mathcal{S}_1$, since $y_{\ell} \in \mathcal{S}_3$. Let ζ' be the index of u_{ℓ} in \mathcal{S}_1 . Add ζ' to the encoding.
- Set good := false.
- Set k := 0 and repeat the following steps while $k \le r$ and $\neg good$:
 - Set k := k + 1.
 - Run $A_1^{\pi}(\mathsf{st}, N_{\ell}, e_{\ell}, u_{\ell})$ on random coins $\rho[\mathsf{count} \cdot r + k]$.
 - If $A_1^{\pi}(\mathsf{st}, N_{\ell}, e_{\ell}, u_{\ell})$ queries y_{ℓ} , on the ζ -th query and good := false, then set good := true and add $(N_{\ell}, e_{\ell}, k, \zeta)$ to the encoding.
- Set count := count + 1.
- If ¬good, abort. (Call this Failure Event 3; we will show it occurs with probability at most 1/2.)

At this point the set of images $S_1 \cup S_2 \cup S_3$ of size m has been specified. Add an encoding to E of the remaining image of π by specifying the set of images of as a set of size N-m out of a total of L-m possible elements.

Fig. 10: Image encoding routine.

Algorithm Declm

Interface: Declm receives as input an encoding E and outputs a set corresponding to the image of π . Declm gets access to random tape ρ . Initialization: Initialize the sets S_1, S_2, S_3 to \emptyset . Intialize count := 0. Parse the first $2 \log 2^{\kappa}$ bits of E as (w||z). Parse ρ as $\rho = \rho[1], \ldots, \rho[m \cdot r]$.

Set i := 0. Repeat the following steps while i < w:

- Set i := i + 1. Parse the next $\log L + \log 2^{\kappa}$ bits of E as $(u_i, |Q(u_i)|)$. Add u_i to \mathcal{S}_2 .
- Set j = 0. Repeat the following while $j < |Q(u_i)|$:
 - Set j := j + 1. Parse the next $3 \log 2^{\kappa} + 3 \log \epsilon + \log \kappa + \log T$ bits of the encoding as (N_j, e_j, k, ζ) .
 - Run $A_1(\mathsf{st}, N_j, e_j, u_i)$ on random coins $\rho[\mathsf{count} \cdot r + k]$. Set y_j to be the ζ -th query made to π^{-1} . Add y_j to \mathcal{S}_1 .
 - Set count := count + 1.

At this point the sets of images S_1, S_2 of sizes v and w have been specified. Set $\ell := 0$. Repeat the following steps while $\ell < z$:

- Parse the next $\log 2^{\kappa}$ bits of E as ζ' . Set u_{ℓ} to be the ζ' -th lexicographical element in S_1 .
- Parse the next $3 \log 2^{\kappa} + \log T$ bits of E as $(N_{\ell}, e_{\ell}, k, \zeta)$.
- Run $A_1(\mathsf{st}, N_\ell, e_\ell, u_\ell)$ on random coins $\rho[\mathsf{count} \cdot r + k]$. Set y_ℓ to be the ζ -th query made to π^{-1} . Add y_ℓ to S_3 .
- Set count := count + 1.

At this point the set of images $S_1 \cup S_2 \cup S_3$ of size m has been specified. Parse the next $\log(\binom{L-m}{2^{\kappa}-m})$ bits of E as specifying the remaining set of images as a set of size $2^{\kappa}-m$ out of a total of L-m possible elements.

Fig. 11: Image decoding routine.

Algorithm FACAlmostPlain^H

Offline Phase: Run A_0 on input 1^{κ} to obtain state st of size S_r . Simulate the oracle for A_0 by using random injective function H as the labeling function.

Given st, compute the set S_{π} as defined in Lemma 11. Let $\mathsf{Table}_{S_{\pi}}$ consist of pairs (x,y), where $y \in S_{\pi}$ and $x = \mathsf{H}^{-1}(y)$.

The non-uniform advice consists of (st, $\mathsf{Table}_{S_{\pi}}$) and has size at most $9S_r$.

Online Phase:

- On input N, choose a random e conditioned on N.
- Run FAC^π run on input (N,e), st. FAC^π will query π at most once when it runs A_1 on $(N,e,\pi(x^e))$ on an input $y=x^e \mod N$ that is uniform random modulo N. When this occurs, return $\pi(y)$. Whenever FAC^π queries y to π^{-1} , perform a table lookup using Table_{S_π} to find the preimage. If y is not in the table, return \bot .
- Output whatever FAC^{π} outputs.

Fig. 12: Another wrapped Factoring Algorithm in the RI Model.

 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{Corollary 3.} \ \ Let \ A = (A_0^\pi, A_1) \ \ be \ \ an \ (S_r, T_{2,r}) \text{-}GP\text{-}RSA \ \ algorithm \ with \ } advantage \ \epsilon \ \ and \ \ let \ S_r \cdot T_{2,r} < 2^\kappa/(16 \cdot \epsilon). \ \ Let \ S_f = O(S_r) \ \ and \ T_f = O(\kappa^2 \frac{(\kappa T_{2,r})^{7/2}}{(1 - \epsilon'/2)\epsilon')^{3/2}} + \\ T_{2,r}^5 \kappa^3 + T_{1,r}). \ \ Then \ \ \ \ \text{FACAlmostPlain}^{\mathsf{H}} \ \ is \ \ an \ \ (S_f, T_f) \text{-}factoring \ \ algorithm \ \ and \ \ } \\ \mathsf{Adv}^{\mathbf{fac}}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}(\mathsf{FACAlmostPlain}^{\mathsf{H}}) \in \varOmega(\epsilon^3) \ \ in \ \ the \ RI \ \ model. \\ Specifically, \ \ S_f \leq 9 \cdot (S_r + 3\kappa) \ \ and \ \ there \ \ exists \ \ a \ \ constant \ \ c' \ \ such \ \ that \ for \ \ sufficiently \ \ large \ \kappa, \ \ \mathsf{Adv}^{\mathbf{fac}}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}(\mathsf{FACAlmostPlain}^{\mathsf{H}}) \geq c' \cdot \epsilon^3. \end{array}$

The above corollary holds since a run of $\widetilde{\mathsf{FAC}^\mathsf{H}}$ for H with corresponding $|S_\pi| \leq (S_f + 3\kappa)/\kappa$ differs from a run of $\mathsf{FACAlmostPlain}^\mathsf{H}$ only if FAC^π queries a valid image y that is not contained in Table_{S_π} . Using Lemma 11 and a union bound over all valid images relative to a fixed π , this occurs with at most $2\epsilon^3/\kappa \in o(\epsilon^3)$ probability. Since the success probability of FAC^H is $\Omega(\epsilon^3)$, the success probability of $\mathsf{FACAlmostPlain}^\mathsf{H}$ must therefore be at least $\Omega(\epsilon^3)$.

We next define two "mental experiments." They don't make sense as Factoring algorithms, since the modulus N and the input $\tilde{y} = \pi(x^e \mod N)$ are fixed in the pre-processing stage. However, we will argue the following:

The output distribution of the first mental experiment Algorithm
 FACMentalExp1^H (Figure 13) is identical to Algorithm FACAlmostPlain^H.
 This can be verified by inspection since the only difference between the two is the order in which the random variables are sampled.

- The success probabilities of the first and second mental experiment (Algorithm FACMentalExp2^H defined in Figure 14) differ by at most $c' \cdot \epsilon^3/2$.
- The output distribution of the second mental experiment is identical to the output distribution of a plain-model factoring algorithm (Algorithm FACPlain defined in Figure 15).

Taken together, this implies that Algorithm FACPlain is a factoring algorithm in the plain model with success probability at least $c' \cdot \epsilon^3/2 \in \Omega(\epsilon^3)$.

Algorithm FACMentalExp1^H

Offline Phase: Sample $(N, e) \leftarrow \mathsf{RSAGen}(1^{\kappa})$ and $x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N^*$. Query H on $y = x^e \mod N$, where this is the same y that will be queried by FAC^{π} in the Online Phase. Let \tilde{y} be the output.

Run A_0 on input 1^{κ} to obtain state st of size S_r . Simulate the oracle for A_0 by using random injective function H as the labelling function.

Given st, compute the set S_{π} as defined in Lemma 11. Let $\mathsf{Table}_{S_{\pi}}$ consist of pairs (x, y), where $y \in S_{\pi}$ and $x = \mathsf{H}^{-1}(y)$.

The non-uniform advice consists of (st, Table_{S_{π}}) and has size at most $9S_r$.

Online Phase:

- On input N, set e to be as in the preprocessing.
- Run FAC^π run on input $(N,e),\mathsf{st}$. FAC^π will query π on the same input $y=x^e\mod N$ as in the preprocessing. When this occurs, return \tilde{y} . Whenever FAC^π queries y to π^{-1} , perform a table lookup using Table_{S_π} to find the pre-image. If y is not in the table, return \bot .
- Output whatever FAC^{π} outputs.

Fig. 13: The first mental experiment in the RI Model.

Let $\mathsf{Adv}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}^{\mathbf{fac}}(\mathsf{FACMentalExp1}^\mathsf{H})$ denote the probability that factors of N are returned by $\mathsf{FACMentalExp1}^\mathsf{H}$, when $(N,e) \leftarrow \mathsf{RSAGen}(1^\kappa)$ and $x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N^*$. Note that $\mathsf{Adv}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}^{\mathbf{fac}}(\mathsf{FACMentalExp1}^\mathsf{H}) = \mathsf{Adv}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}^{\mathbf{fac}}(\mathsf{FACAlmostPlain}^\mathsf{H}) \geq c' \cdot \epsilon^3$.

The following algorithm fixes $\tilde{y} = \pi(y = x^e \mod N)$ to a randomly chosen value, but then runs A_0 on an oracle that randomly re-samples the value of $\pi(y = x^e \mod N)$.

Let $\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathbf{fac}}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}(\mathsf{FACMentalExp2}^\mathsf{H})$ denote the probability that factors of N are returned by $\mathsf{FACMentalExp1}^\mathsf{H}$, when $(N,e) \leftarrow \mathsf{RSAGen}(1^\kappa)$ and $x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N^*$.

Lemma 12. Let $A = (A_0^{\pi}, A_1)$ be an $(S_r, T_{2,r})$ -GP-RSA algorithm with advantage ϵ and let $S_r \cdot T_{2,r} < c \cdot \epsilon^6 2^{\kappa}$. Then

$$\mathsf{Adv}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}^{\mathbf{fac}}(\mathsf{FACMentalExp1}^{\mathsf{H}}) - \mathsf{Adv}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}^{\mathbf{fac}}(\mathsf{FACMentalExp2}^{\mathsf{H}}) \leq c' \cdot \epsilon^3/2.$$

Algorithm FACMentalExp2^H

Offline Phase: Sample $(N, e) \leftarrow \mathsf{RSAGen}(1^{\kappa})$ and $x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N^*$. Let $y = x^e \mod N$, where this is the same y that will be queried by FAC^{π} in the Online Phase. Choose $\tilde{y} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^m$.

Run A_0 on input 1^{κ} to obtain state st of size S_r . Simulate the oracle for A_0 by using random injective function H as the labelling function.

Given st, compute the set S_{π} as defined in Lemma 11. Let $\mathsf{Table}_{S_{\pi}}$ consist of pairs (x, y), where $y \in S_{\pi}$ and $x = \mathsf{H}^{-1}(y)$.

The non-uniform advice consists of $(st, \mathsf{Table}_{S_{\pi}})$ and has size at most $9S_r$.

Online Phase:

- On input N, set e to be as in the preprocessing.
- Run FAC^π run on input (N,e), st. FAC^π will query π on the same input $y=x^e \mod N$ as in the preprocessing. When this occurs, return \tilde{y} . Whenever FAC^π queries y to π^{-1} , perform a table lookup using Table_{S_π} to find the pre-image. If y is not in the table, return \bot .
- Output whatever FAC^{π} outputs.

Fig. 14: The second mental experiment in the RI Model.

The above implies that
$$\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathbf{fac}}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}(\mathsf{FACM}^{\mathbf{entalExp2}^H}) \geq c' \cdot \epsilon^3/2 \in \varOmega(\epsilon^3)$$
.

Proof. We first assume that the random injective function H is in fact selected uniformly at random from the set \mathcal{H} of all functions $\{0,1\}^{\kappa} \to \{0,1\}^{m}$. This distribution is denoted by $U_{\mathcal{H}}$. Due to our choice of $m = \Omega(\kappa)$, the probability that a uniformly selected function is not injective is less than $1/2^{\kappa}$ and so does not affect our result. Recall that x is chosen uniformly at random from \mathbb{Z}_{N} , which implies that $y = x^{e} \mod N$ is also uniformly random in \mathbb{Z}_{N} , since the RSA function is a bijection on \mathbb{Z}_{N} .

Further, let $U_{\mathcal{H}}^N$ denote the restriction of $U_{\mathcal{H}}$ to functions with domain \mathbb{Z}_N . Thus,

$$U_{\mathcal{H}}^N := (\mathcal{D}_0, \dots, \mathcal{D}_{N-1}),$$

where each \mathcal{D}_i , $i \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ is the uniform distribution over $\{0,1\}^{\kappa} \to \{0,1\}^m$. We further denote by $U_{\mathcal{H}}^N(y=\tilde{y})$ the distribution

$$U_{\mathcal{H}}^{N}(y=\tilde{y}) := (\mathcal{D}_{0}, \dots, \mathcal{D}_{j-1}, \tilde{y}, \mathcal{D}_{j+1}, \dots, \mathcal{D}_{N-1}).$$

While we have typically used the notation A_0^{H} and assumed that A_0 gets oracle access to H , since A_0 is computationally unbounded, we can WLOG assume that the entire oracle H is given to A_0 as input, and denote this by $A_0(\mathsf{H})$. We also slightly abuse notation since we will write $A_0(\mathsf{H})$ to denote a slightly modified A_0 that receives as input a partial oracle (defined only on \mathbb{Z}_N) sampled from U_{H}^N or U_{H}^N and uses its internal randomness to sample the oracle at positions in $\{0,1\}^{\kappa}\setminus\mathbb{Z}_N$ uniformly at random from $\{0,1\}^m$. Such an A_0 can be viewed as a

randomized mapping from $\{0,1\}^{N\times m} \to \{0,1\}^{S'}$, where $S' \leq 10(S_r + 3\kappa)$ is the size of the non-uniform advice in algorithm FACAlmostPlain^H.

We are now ready to prove the lemma. In fact, we will prove something stronger: that for every N in the support of RSAGen, the difference in success probabilities between FACMentalExp1^H and FACMentalExp2^H is at most $c' \cdot \epsilon^3/2$.

Assume towards contradiction that there is some N in the support of RSAGen for which the difference in probability that FAC^π succeeds in the first and second mental experiments is greater than $c' \cdot \epsilon^3/2$. Then there exists a distinguisher D such that

$$\begin{split} &\Pr_{\substack{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Y}} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N \\ \tilde{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Y}}} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^m}} [D(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Y}}},\mathsf{st}) = 1 : \mathsf{st} = A_0(\mathsf{H}), \mathsf{H} \sim U_{\mathcal{H}}^N(\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Y}} = \tilde{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Y}}})] \\ &- \Pr_{\substack{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Y}} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N \\ \tilde{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Y}}} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^m}} [D(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Y}}},\mathsf{st}) = 1 : \mathsf{st} = A_0(\mathsf{H}), \mathsf{H} \sim U_{\mathcal{H}}^N] > c' \cdot \epsilon^3/2. \end{split}$$

However, we also have

$$\begin{split} & \Pr_{\substack{y \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N \\ \tilde{y} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^m}} [D(\tilde{y}, \mathsf{st}) = 1 : \mathsf{st} = A_0(\mathsf{H}), \mathsf{H} \sim U_{\mathcal{H}}^N(y = \tilde{y})] \\ & - \Pr_{\substack{y \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N \\ \tilde{y} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^m}} [D(\tilde{y}, \mathsf{st}) = 1 : \mathsf{st} = A_0(\mathsf{H}), \mathsf{H} \sim U_{\mathcal{H}}^N] \\ & = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_N} \Pr_{\substack{\tilde{y} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^m \\ \tilde{y} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^m}} [D(\tilde{y}, \mathsf{st}) = 1 : \mathsf{st} = A_0(\mathsf{H}), \mathsf{H} \sim U_{\mathcal{H}}^N(y = \tilde{y})] \\ & - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_N} \Pr_{\substack{\tilde{y} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^m \\ \tilde{y} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^m }} [D(\tilde{y}, \mathsf{st}) = 1 : \mathsf{st} = A_0(\mathsf{H}), \mathsf{H} \sim U_{\mathcal{H}}^N(y = \tilde{y})] \\ & = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_N} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{y} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^m} [\Pr[D(\tilde{y}, \mathsf{st}) = 1 : \mathsf{st} = A_0(\mathsf{H}), \mathsf{H} \sim U_{\mathcal{H}}^N(y = \tilde{y})]] \\ & - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_N} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{y} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^m} [\Pr[D(\tilde{y}, \mathsf{st}) = 1 : \mathsf{st} = A_0(\mathsf{H}), \mathsf{H} \sim U_{\mathcal{H}}^N(y = \tilde{y})]] \\ & \leq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_N} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{y} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^m} [|\Pr[D(\tilde{y}, \mathsf{st}) = 1 : \mathsf{st} = A_0(\mathsf{H}), \mathsf{H} \sim U_{\mathcal{H}}^N(y = \tilde{y})]] \\ & - \Pr[D(\tilde{y}, \mathsf{st}) = 1 : \mathsf{st} = A_0(\mathsf{H}), \mathsf{H} \sim U_{\mathcal{H}}^N(y = \tilde{y})) - (A_0(\mathsf{H}), \mathsf{H} \sim U_{\mathcal{H}}^N)||_{\mathsf{stat}}] \\ & \leq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_N} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{y} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^m} [||(A_0(\mathsf{H}), \mathsf{H} \sim U_{\mathcal{H}}^N(y = \tilde{y})) - (A_0(\mathsf{H}), \mathsf{H} \sim U_{\mathcal{H}}^N)||_{\mathsf{stat}}] \\ & \leq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_N} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{y} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^m} [||(A_0(\mathsf{H}), \mathsf{H} \sim U_{\mathcal{H}}^N(y = \tilde{y})) - (A_0(\mathsf{H}), \mathsf{H} \sim U_{\mathcal{H}}^N)||_{\mathsf{stat}}] \\ & \leq \sqrt{\frac{10(S_r + 3\kappa) + 1}{N}}} \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

where (4) follows from the triangle inequality, (5) follows from the fact that the distinguishing advantage of two distributions by any distinguisher D is upper-bounded by their statistical distance, (6) follows from the definition of $U_{\mathcal{H}}^{N}$ and $U_{\mathcal{H}}^{N}$, (7) follows from Lemma 2, and (8) follows since we are in the case that $S_r \cdot T_r \leq c \cdot \epsilon^6 2^{\kappa}$, and c is set to be a constant such that

$$\sqrt{\frac{10(c \cdot \epsilon^6 2^{\kappa}) + 30\kappa + 1}{N}} \le \sqrt{\frac{10(c \cdot \epsilon^6 2^{\kappa}) + 30\kappa + 1}{2^{\kappa - 1}}}$$
$$= \sqrt{20(c \cdot \epsilon^6) + \frac{30\kappa + 1}{2^{\kappa - 1}}}$$
$$\le c' \cdot \epsilon^3 / 2.$$

We thus arrive at contradiction and so the lemma is proved.

The following plain model factoring algorithm is identical to the output of FACMentalExp2^H. Therefore, it must also succeed with probability at least $c' \cdot \epsilon^3/2$.

Algorithm FACPlain

Offline Phase: Choose an injective function H at random.

Run A_0 on input 1^{κ} to obtain state st of size S_r . Simulate the oracle for A_0 by using random injective function H as the labelling function.

Given st, compute the set S_{π} as defined in Lemma ??. Let $\mathsf{Table}_{S_{\pi}}$ consist of pairs (x,y), where $y \in S_{\pi}$ and $x = \mathsf{H}^{-1}(y)$.

The non-uniform advice consists of (st, Table_{S_{π}}) and has size at most $9S_r$.

Online Phase:

- Choose a prime e uniformly at random.
- Run FAC^{π} run on input (N, e), st. FAC^{π} will query π once on a uniform random input $y = x^e \mod N$. When this occurs, return $\tilde{y} \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^m$, chosen uniformly at random from the range. Whenever a query y to π^{-1} is made, do a table lookup using Table_{S_{π}} to find the pre-image. If y is not in the table, return \bot .
- Output whatever FAC^{π} outputs.

Fig. 15: Wrapped Factoring Algorithm in the Plain Model

Corollary 4. Let $A=(A_0^\pi,A_1^\pi)$ be an $(S_r,T_{2,r})-$ GP-RSA algorithm with advantage ϵ and let $S_r \cdot T_{2,r} < c \cdot \epsilon^6 2^\kappa$. Let $S_f = O(S_r)$ and $T_f = O(\kappa^2 \frac{(\kappa T_{2,r})^{7/2}}{(1-\epsilon'/2)\epsilon')^{3/2}} + T_{2,r}^5 \kappa^3 + T_{1,r})$. Then FACPlain is an (S_f,T_f) -factoring algorithm and $\operatorname{Adv}_{\mathsf{RSAGen}}^{\mathbf{fac}}(\mathsf{FACPlain}) \in \Omega(\epsilon^3)$ in the plain model.

8 Proof of Theorem 7

We begin by recapping Hellman's construction [18] for inverting a function $f: \{0,1\}^{\kappa} \to \{0,1\}^{\kappa}$ before presenting the main result of this section.

Hellman's Inversion Algorithm w.r.t. hash functions h_i . Hellman's algorithm is parameterized by (ℓ, m, t) and achieves space $S = \ell \cdot m$ and time $T = \ell \cdot t$.

Preprocessing Phase: The preprocessing phase outputs a table Table that consists of ℓ smaller tables Table = Table₁,..., Table_{ℓ}. For $i \in [\ell]$, each Table_i consists of m entries entries $[(sp_i^j,ep_i^j)]_{j\in[m]}$, where sp_i^j is chosen at random from $\{0,1\}^\kappa$, $ep_i^j=g_i^t(sp_i^j)$, and $g_i=h_i\circ f$, where each h_i is an independent hash function.

Online Phase: To invert an input $z \in \{0,1\}^{\kappa}$, for $i \in [\ell]$ do the following:

- 1. Set $u_i = h_i(z)$.
- 2. Repeat for $k \in [t]$: (a) Search for u_i in Table_i. If found (i.e. $u_i = ep_i^j$ for some j), compute $g_i^{t-k}(sp_i^j)$. If $f(g_i^{t-k}(sp_i^j)) = z$, then we have found a pre-image of z and we say that (i,j) is useful for z. Return $g_i^{t-k}(sp_i^j)$. (b) Set $u_i = g_i(u_i)$.

Proof (of Theorem 7). We first construct a factoring algorithm that succeeds with high probability and uses more space. We will then show how to reduce the space at the cost of reducing the success probability (but still achieving the required bounds).

We will invert the multiplication function $f:=\mathsf{Mult}_\kappa(x,y):=\langle x\rangle\cdot\langle y\rangle$, where the brackets indicate encodings of x,y as $\kappa/2$ -bit unsigned binary integers, for $x,y\in\{0,1\}^{\kappa/2}$. Our point generator for the function inversion problem with respect to $f=\mathsf{Mult}_\kappa(x,y)$ will be $G(1^\kappa)$ which outputs N=pq where p,q are random $\kappa/2$ -bit primes. Note that N outputted by RSAGen is identically distributed to N outputted by $G(1^\kappa)$. Further, for N=pq where N has length κ , and p,q are $\kappa/2$ -bit primes, $\mathsf{Mult}_\kappa^{-1}(N)=\{(p,q),(q,p)\}$; there are no other inverses. Therefore inverting $f=\mathsf{Mult}_\kappa$ reveals its correct factorization.

For $z \in \{0,1\}^{\kappa}$, recall that $I_f(z)$ denotes the number of preimages for z under $f = \text{Mult}_{\kappa}$. Note that $I_f(z) \leq d(z)$, where d is the divisor function—i.e. the function that returns the number of divisors of an integer (including 1 and the number itself). We upperbound the collision probability q(f) of f as follows:

$$q(f) := \frac{\sum_{z=0}^{2^{\kappa}-1} I_f^2(z)}{2^{2\kappa}} \le \frac{I_f^2(0)}{2^{2\kappa}} + \frac{\sum_{z=1}^{2^{\kappa}} d^2(z)}{2^{2\kappa}}.$$

An important line of work [24, 26, 32] proved that

$$\sum_{z=1}^{2^{\kappa}} d^2(z) = O(2^{\kappa} \cdot \kappa^3).$$

Combining the above two equations and using the fact that $I(0) \leq 2^{\kappa/2+1}$ yields

$$q(f) \le \frac{4}{2^{\kappa}} + O\left(\frac{\kappa^3}{2^{\kappa}}\right) \in O\left(\frac{\kappa^3}{2^{\kappa}}\right).$$
 (9)

Applying a theorem of Fiat and Naor (see Theorem 4), we have that for any choice of S'_f , T'_f such that $T'_f \cdot (S'_f)^2 \geq 2^{3\kappa} \cdot q(f)$, there exist settings of parameters (ℓ', m', t') such that Hellman's technique instantiated with these parameters (and with standard model hash functions) yields an algorithm that uses space $S'_f = \ell' \cdot m'$, time $T'_f = \ell' \cdot t'$, and achieves an inversion probability of $1 - 1/2^{\kappa}$; our analysis is agnostic to the hash function so it can be instantiated as in FN. Recall that by assumption, $\tilde{S} \cdot \tilde{T} \geq \tilde{\epsilon} 2^{\kappa}/4$, and that by (9) there is a constant c such that for sufficiently large κ , $q(f) \leq c \cdot \frac{\kappa^3}{2^{\kappa}}$. We set $S_{f'} := 1/\tilde{\epsilon} \cdot \tilde{S}$ and and $T_{f'} := 16 \cdot c \cdot \kappa^3 \cdot \tilde{T}$. This setting satisfies the requirement $T'_f \cdot (S'_f)^2 \geq 2^{3\kappa} \cdot q(f)$

when $\tilde{S} \cdot \tilde{T} \geq \tilde{\epsilon} 2^{\kappa}/4$, therefore yielding an inversion algorithm that succeeds with probability $1 - 1/2^{\kappa}$.

We now modify the output of the preprocessing stage to reduce the space requirements, at the cost of lowering the success probability. Let \mathcal{S} be the subset of $\{0,1\}^{\kappa}$ which consists of strings N of the form N=pq, where p, q are primes of length $\kappa/2$. Note that the algorithm described above inverts with some constant probability, p, on the set S (actually it can be made to succeed with higher advantage, but this is sufficient for our purposes). For $N \in \mathcal{S}$, consider the set \mathcal{U}_N of pairs (i, j) such that (i, j) is useful for N (see Step 2(a) of Hellman's algorithm at the beginning of the subsection for the definition of useful). Define entry(N) =(i,j), to be the lexicographically first pair in the set \mathcal{U}_N , if the set is nonempty, and define $entry(N) = \bot$ otherwise. Let indicator variable $I_{entry(N)=(i,j)}$ be equal to 1 if entry(N) = (i, j). Note that $\sum_{N \in \mathcal{S}} \sum_{(i, j) \in [\ell'] \times [m']} I_{\text{entry}(N) = (i, j)} = \sum_{(i, j) \in [\ell'] \times [m']} \sum_{N \in \mathcal{S}} I_{\text{entry}(N) = (i, j)} \ge p|\mathcal{S}|$. This implies that there must exist a set \mathcal{R} of $\tilde{\epsilon} \cdot \ell' \cdot m'$ number of entries (i, j) such that $\sum_{(i, j) \in \mathcal{R}} \sum_{N \in \mathcal{S}} I_{\text{entry}(N) = (i, j)} \ge p|\mathcal{S}|$. $\tilde{\epsilon}p|\mathcal{S}|$. Consider a modified preprocessing algorithm that generates the table as before, selects this set \mathcal{R} of entries, and then outputs the table consisting only of entries (sp_i^j, ep_i^j) such that $(i, j) \in \mathcal{R}$ to the online stage. Now, the online stage of the new algorithm is guaranteed to succeed with probability $p\tilde{\epsilon}$, where p is constant. Further the new running time T_f is equal to $T_{f'}$. However, $S_f =$ $\tilde{\epsilon} \cdot \ell' \cdot m' = \tilde{\epsilon} \cdot S_{f'} = \tilde{S}$. Note that, as desired, $S_f = \tilde{S}$, $T_f \in \mathsf{poly}(\kappa) \cdot \tilde{T}$, and $\epsilon_f = p \cdot \tilde{\epsilon} \in \Omega(\tilde{\epsilon}).$

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A Proof of Lemma 7

Proof. Let $A = (A_0^{\pi}, A_1)$ be as in the lemma statement. We set $r_1 := \lceil 2 \log N/\epsilon' \rceil$ and $r_2 := \lfloor \frac{\epsilon N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor$. We will now use A_1 to construct a compression algorithm Enc^{π} .

Analysis of Enc^π . The length of the encoding E can be calculated as follows. Enc^π initially stores st, N in E , which are of size at most S_r and $\log N$, respectively. It then stores an encoding of \mathcal{I} of length $\log \binom{L}{N}$. In each of the $r_2 = \lfloor \frac{\epsilon N}{2T 2_{r_r}} \rfloor$ runs of the outer loop, Enc^π stores a $\log(r_1)$ bit encoding of the index among the r_1 runs of the inner loop that sets the condition good to true. It also stores the index ℓ among the roots of the polynomial f s.t. f(y) = 0, where y is the value being encoded in that repetition of the outer loop. This takes another $\log(J)$ bits. It also stores the index $\zeta \in [\psi+1]$ of the polynomial with respect to which y is negatively oriented, and where $\psi+1 \leq T_{2,r}$. This takes another $\log(T_{2,r})$ bits. So, overall, the outer loop adds at most $r_2 \cdot (\log(r_1) + \log(J) + \log(T_{2,r})) = r_2 \log(r_1 \cdot J \cdot T_{2,r})$ bits to E in this manner. Note that we choose J in such a way to ensure that $r_1 \cdot J \cdot T_{2,r}$ is a power of 2.

Next, we consider the number of bits added to E via Table. Note that values are added to Table in the order of iterating through the loops and so we can encode them slightly more efficiently than using the trivial encoding by using values already stored in Table. More concretely, suppose that Table has size $|\mathsf{Table}|$ at the time when a new value is to be added to Table. Then we can store this value using only $\log(N-|\mathsf{Table}|)$ many (amortized) bits, (rather than N many) by excluding all of the values already in Table.

For $i \in [1, \ldots, r_2]$, let t_i be the number of table entries modified in the i-th run; define $t_0 := 0$. Note that $t_i \leq T_{2,r}$. During the ith run of the outer loop, Table will be of size $t_1 + \ldots + t_i + \ell - 1$ when adding the ℓ th value of run i to Table. This means that we can encode this value using $\log(N - (\ell + t_1 + \ldots + t_i - 1))$ many bits. Overall, we get at most $r_2 + \sum_{m=2}^{r_2} \sum_{\ell=0}^{t_m-1} \log(N - (\ell + t_1 + \cdots + t_{m-1}))$ for the size of Table, where the additive r_2 comes from packing the t_i entries into a single encoding with an integer number of bits.

Finally, we can add the remaining points of the mapping π to E using $\log(N-(t_1+\cdots+t_{r_2}))$ number of bits to specify the mapping, giving a final term of $\sum_{k=(t_1+\cdots+t_{r_2})}^{N-1}\log(N-k)$. Hence, we obtain overall:

$$\begin{split} |\mathsf{E}| &\leq \\ S_r + \log N + \log \binom{L}{N} + r_2 (\log(r_1 J T_{2,r}) + 1) + \sum_{k=t_1 + \dots + t_{r_2}}^{N-1} \log(N-k) \\ &+ \sum_{m=1}^{r_2} \sum_{\ell=0}^{t_m-1} \log(N - (\ell + t_1 + \dots + t_{m-1})) \\ &= S_r + \log N + \log \binom{L}{N} + \left\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2 T_{2,r}} \right\rfloor (\log(r_1 J T_{2,r}) + 1) + \sum_{k=t_1 + \dots + t_{\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2 T_{2,r}} \rfloor}}^{N-1} \log(N-k). \\ &+ \sum_{m=1}^{\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2 T_{2,r}} \rfloor} \sum_{\ell=0}^{t_m-1} \log(N - (\ell + t_1 + \dots + t_{m-1})) \end{split}$$

To upper bound this encoding length in the worst case, we examine the size of an element added to E as a result of the ith run of the outer loop. We distinguish two types of elements. The first type are entries of Table; these are added after the outer loop has terminated and they are size at least $\log(N-(t_1+\cdots+t_{r_2}))$ (amortized). The second type of element that is added are the pointers k, ℓ , and ζ ; they take up a combined space of at most $\log(r_1JT_{2,r})$. Since elements of the second type are larger than the size of the first type, it is clear that we want to add as few of the latter type as possible, while as adding as many of the former type as possible in order to maximize the size of E. Hence, we want to maximize the number of added elements t_i in each of these repetitions. We therefore set for $i \in [d], t_i = T_{2,r}$.

Thus, we have:

$$S_{r} + \log N + \log \binom{L}{N} + \left\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \right\rfloor (\log(r_{1}JT_{2,r}) + 1)$$

$$+ \sum_{m=1}^{\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor} \sum_{t_{m}-1}^{t_{m}-1} \log(N - (\ell - 1 + t_{1} + \dots + t_{m-1})) + \sum_{k=t_{1}+\dots+t_{\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor}}^{N-1} \log(N - k)$$

$$\leq S_{r} + \log N + \log \binom{L}{N} + \left\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \right\rfloor (\log(r_{1}JT_{2,r}) + 1) + \sum_{k=\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor}^{N-1} \sum_{T_{2,r}-1}^{N-1} \log(N - (\ell - 1 + (m-1)T_{2,r})) + \sum_{k=\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor}^{N-1} \log(N - k)$$

$$= S_{r} + \log N + \log \binom{L}{N} + \left\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \right\rfloor (\log(r_{1}JT_{2,r}) + 1)$$

$$= S_{r} + \log N + \log \binom{L}{N} + \left\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \right\rfloor (\log(r_{1}JT_{2,r}) + 1)$$

$$+ \sum_{m=1}^{\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor} \sum_{\ell=1}^{T_{2,r}-1} \log(N - (\ell - 1 + (m-1)T_{2,r})) + \sum_{k=1}^{N-\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor \cdot T_{2,r}} \log(k).$$

Note that if m=1, then $\log(N-(\ell+(m-1)T_{2,r}))=\log(N-\ell)$ takes values from $\log(N-1),\ldots,\log(N-T_{2,r}+1)$, as ℓ varies. Similarly, if m=2, then $\log(N-(\ell+T_{2,r}))=\log(N-\ell-T_{2,r})$ takes values $\log(N-1-T_{2,r}),\ldots,\log(N-2T_{2,r}+1)$, as ℓ varies. More generally, $\log(N-(\ell+(m-1)T_{2,r}))$ takes all values $\log(N-j)$

s.t.
$$j \in [\epsilon' N/2]$$
 and $T_{2,r} \nmid j$. Hence, we continue with

$$S_r + \log N + \log \binom{L}{N} +$$

$$\left\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \right\rfloor \left(\log(r_1 J T_{2,r}) + 1 \right) + \sum_{\substack{j \in [\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor \cdot T_{2,r}] \\ T_{2,r} \nmid j}} \log(N - j + 1) + \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k=1}}^{N - \lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor \cdot T_{2,r}} \log(k)$$

$$= S_r + \log N + \log \binom{L}{N} + \left\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \right\rfloor (\log(r_1 J T_{2,r}) + 1) + \sum_{j \in \lfloor \lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor \cdot T_{2,r} \rfloor} \log(N - j + 1)$$

$$-\sum_{\substack{j \in [\lfloor \frac{\epsilon'N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor \cdot T_{2,r}] \\ T_{2,r} \mid j}} \log(N-j+1) + \sum_{k=1}^{N-\lfloor \frac{\epsilon'N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor \cdot T_{2,r}} \log(k)$$

$$= S_r + \log N + \log \binom{L}{N} + \left\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \right\rfloor (\log(r_1 J T_{2,r}) + 1)$$

$$+ \sum_{j \in [N]} \log(N - j + 1) - \sum_{j \in [\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor \cdot T_{2,r}]} \log(N - j + 1)$$

$$\leq S_r + 2\log N + \log \binom{L}{N} + \left\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \right\rfloor (\log(r_1 J T_{2,r}) + 1)$$

$$+ \sum_{j \in [N]} \log(N - j + 1) - \sum_{j \in [\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor \cdot T_{2,r}]} \log(N - j)$$

$$= S_r + 2\log N + \log \binom{L}{N} + \left| \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \right| (\log(r_1 J T_{2,r}) + 1)$$

$$+ \sum_{j \in [N]} \log(N - j + 1) - \log \left(\prod_{\substack{j \in [\lfloor \frac{e'N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor \cdot T_{2,r}] \\ T_{2,r}|j}} (N - j) \right)$$

$$= S_r + 2\log N + \log \binom{L}{N} + \left\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \right\rfloor (\log(r_1 J T_{2,r}) + 1) + \sum_{j \in [N]} \log(N - j + 1)$$

$$-\log \left(\prod_{j \in [\lfloor \frac{\epsilon'N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor]} (N - j \cdot T_{2,r}) \right)$$

$$\leq S_r + 2\log N + \log \binom{L}{N} + \left\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \right\rfloor (\log(r_1 J T_{2,r}) + 1) + \sum_{j \in [N]} \log(N - j + 1)$$

$$-\log \left(\prod_{j \in [\lfloor rac{e'N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor]} \left(T_{2,r} \left(\lfloor rac{N}{T_{2,r}} \rfloor - j\right)\right) d$$

The second to last step in the above derivation follows from the fact that we can write any $m \in [\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor \cdot T_{2,r}]$ s.t. $T_{2,r} \mid m$ as $m = j \cdot T_{2,r}$, where $j \in [\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor]$. We continue with

$$\begin{split} &= S_r + 2\log N + \log \binom{L}{N} + \left\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \right\rfloor (\log(r_1 J T_{2,r}) + 1) + \sum_{j \in [N]} \log(N - j + 1) \\ &- \log \left((T_{2,r})^{\lfloor \epsilon' N / (2T_{2,r}) \rfloor} \prod_{j \in \lfloor \lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \rfloor} \left(\left\lfloor \frac{N}{T_{2,r}} \right\rfloor - j \right) \right) \\ &= S_r + 2\log N + \log \binom{L}{N} + \left\lfloor \frac{\epsilon' N}{2T_{2,r}} \right\rfloor (\log(r_1 J T_{2,r}) + 1) + \sum_{j \in [N]} \log(N - j + 1) \\ &- \log \left(\frac{\lfloor N / T_{2,r} \rfloor!}{(\lfloor N / T_{2,r} \rfloor - \lfloor \epsilon' N / (2T_{2,r} \rfloor))!} \cdot (T_{2,r})^{\lfloor \epsilon' N / (2T_{2,r} \rfloor)} \right) \\ &= S_r + 2\log N + \log \binom{L}{N} + (\log((r_1 J T_{2,r}) + 1)^{\lfloor \epsilon' N / (2T_{2,r}) \rfloor}) + \log(N!) \\ &- \log \left(\frac{\lfloor (N / T_{2,r}) \rfloor!}{(\lfloor N / T_{2,r} \rfloor - \lfloor \epsilon' N / (2T_{2,r}) \rfloor)!} \cdot (T_{2,r})^{\lfloor \epsilon' N / (2T_{2,r}) \rfloor} \right) \\ &= S_r + \log \binom{L}{N} + \log \left(\frac{N! N^2 (\lfloor N / T_{2,r} \rfloor - \lfloor \epsilon' N / (2T_{2,r}) \rfloor)! (2r_1 J T_{2,r})^{\lfloor \epsilon' N / (2T_{2,r}) \rfloor}}{\lfloor (N / T_{2,r}) \rfloor! \cdot (T_{2,r})^{\lfloor \epsilon' N / (2T_{2,r}) \rfloor}} \right) \\ &\leq \log \left(\frac{2^{S_r} \cdot N! \cdot N^2 (2r_1 J)^{\lfloor \epsilon' N / (2T_{2,r}) \rfloor}}{(\lfloor N / T_{2,r} \rfloor - \lfloor \epsilon' N / (2T_{2,r}) \rfloor} \right). \end{split}$$

Next, we analyze Enc^{π} 's failure probability.

Claim. Failure Event 2.1 occurs with probability at most 1/2 over the randomness of $\mathsf{Enc}^\pi.$

Proof. Recall that we have set $r_1 = 2 \log N/\epsilon'$. Moreover, we have assumed that $\Pr_{\mathsf{ComGRA}[\mathsf{A}_1], y \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N} [E[N, e, d, \mathsf{st}, \pi]_1] \geq \epsilon'$. To bound the probability of Event 2.1, we consider the binary matrix Q defined for fixed π , N, and the randomized algorithm $\mathsf{ComGRA}[\mathsf{A}_1]^{\pi}$ in the following manner:

- Row i of Q is labelled with $\pi(y)$, where $y \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ is such that $\pi(y)$ is the ith value in lexicographical order in the range of π .
- Column j of Q is labelled with the jth bitstring $\rho \in \{0,1\}^t$ in lexicographical order, where t denotes the number of random coins $\mathsf{ComGRA}[\mathsf{A}_1]^\pi$ takes in.
- Let $\pi(y)$ and ρ correspond to rows i and column j. $Q_{i,j} = 1$ if $\mathsf{ComGRA}[\mathsf{A}_1]^{\pi}$ on input $\pi(y)$ and random coins ρ outputs a set of SLPs over \mathbb{Z}_N such that y is (δ, N) -negatively oriented with respect to at least one of them. $Q_{i,j} = 0$ otherwise.

If $\mathsf{ComGRA}[\mathsf{A}_1]^\pi$ succeeds with probability ϵ' over random choice of $\pi(y), \rho$ then at least ϵ' fraction of Q's entries are 1. Furthermore, a random run of

ComGRA[A₁]^{π} on input $\pi(y)$ for random $y \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ corresponds to choosing a point in Q uniformly at random.

Consider a randomized procedure that in each step adds an entry $(y, \pi(y))$ to Table, where Table is initialized as empty.

Now consider the submatrix Q' of Q with rows labeled by values in \mathcal{Y} where $\pi(y) \in \mathcal{Y}$ if $y \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ and $(y, \pi(y)) \notin \mathsf{Table}$.

Then the submatrix Q' has at least $\epsilon' \cdot N \cdot 2^t - |\mathsf{Table}| \cdot 2^t = (\epsilon' \cdot N - |\mathsf{Table}|) 2^t$ number of 1's. If at each step of the randomized procedure, the size of Table is upper bounded by $\epsilon' N/2$, then at each step, the submatrix Q' corresponding to $\mathcal{Y} \times \{0,1\}^t$ has at least $(\epsilon' N/2) 2^t$ number of 1's. Further, the fraction of 1's in Q' is at least

$$\frac{(\epsilon' \cdot N - |\mathsf{Table}|)2^t}{(N - |\mathsf{Table}|)2^t} = \frac{\epsilon' \cdot N - |\mathsf{Table}|}{N - |\mathsf{Table}|} \geq \frac{\epsilon' \cdot N - \epsilon' N/2}{N} = \epsilon'/2.$$

Further, the fraction of 1's at each step is at least $\epsilon'/2$.

Thus, Failure Event 2.1 occurs with probability at most $(1-\epsilon'/2)^{r_1} \leq e^{(-\epsilon'r_1/2)} = e^{(-2\epsilon'\log(N)/(2\epsilon'))} \leq 1/N$ in any repetition of the inner loop. As $r_2 = \epsilon' N/(2T_{2,r})$, by a union bound, the probability that any of the r_2 repetitions of the outer loop produce Event 2.1, is at most $N\epsilon'/(2T_{2,r}) \cdot 1/N \leq 1/2$.

Recall that J is the maximum integer that satisfies $J \leq \frac{\lfloor N/T_{2,r} \rfloor - \lfloor \epsilon' N/(2T_{2,r}) \rfloor}{8r_1}$ and $r_1JT_{2,r}$ is a power of two. Note that we can lower bound J by $J \geq \frac{(1-\epsilon'/2)N}{32r_1T_{2,r}}$. Plugging the value of J gives us that the length of the encoding is upperbounded as follows:

$$\begin{split} &\log\left(\frac{2^{S_r}\cdot\binom{L}{N}\cdot N!\cdot N^2(2r_1J)^{\lfloor\epsilon'N/(2T_{2,r})\rfloor}}{(\lfloor N/T_{2,r}\rfloor-\lfloor\epsilon'N/(2T_{2,r})\rfloor)^{\lfloor\epsilon'N/(2T_{2,r})\rfloor}}\right)\\ &\leq \log\left(2^{S_r}\cdot\binom{L}{N}\cdot N!\cdot N^2(1/4)^{\lfloor\epsilon'N/(2T_{2,r})\rfloor}\right)\\ &= S_r + \log\binom{L}{N} + \log(N!) + 2\log(N) - \log\left(4^{\lfloor\epsilon'N/(2T_{2,r})\rfloor}\right)\\ &= S_r + \log\binom{L}{N} + \log(N!) + 2\log(N) - 2\lfloor\epsilon'N/(2T_{2,r})\rfloor. \end{split}$$

Thus, Enc^π does not fail with probability at least 1/2 over its randomness and returns an encoding E of the appropriate size. Since by assumption, $S_r \cdot T_{2,r} \le \epsilon' 2^{\kappa}/4$, and since $N \ge 2^{\kappa}/2$, we have $S_r \cdot T_{2,r} \le \epsilon' N/2$. Substituting $S_r \le \epsilon' N/(4T_{2,r})$ in the above expression yields, $|\mathsf{E}| < \log{L \choose N} + \log(N!) + 2\log(N) - \epsilon' N/(2T_{2,r})$.

B SLP Factoring Algorithm

In this section we present $SLPFAC^{\pi}$, which is a slightly modified version of Algorithm 1 due to Aggarwal and Maurer [1] and is used in one of the cases of

the proof of our main result. In this algorithm, we let H(b(x), c(x)) denote the non-trivial, non-invertible element output when Euclid's algorithm is executed on $\mathbb{Z}_N[x]$ with input b(x) and c(x). The only difference from Algorithm 1 of Aggarwal and Maurer [1] is that we repeat their entire algorithm M' times with independent random coins in order to improve the success probability.

Algorithm $SLPFAC^{\pi}$

Input: A T-step SLP S, a parameter M', and an integer N. **Output:** A factor of N.

- 1. Repeat M' times, each with a freshly chosen random tape:
 - (a) Choose a monic polynomial h(x) uniformly at random from all monic polynomials of degree T in $\mathbb{Z}_N[x]$.
 - (b) Compute h'(x), the derivative of h(x) in $\mathbb{Z}_N[x]$.
 - (c) Choose a random element $r(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_N[x]/(h(x))$.
 - (d) Compute z(x) = f(r(x)) in $\mathbb{Z}_N[x]/(h(x))$ using the instructions of SLP S (where f is the polynomial function computed by SLP S).
 - (e) Run Euclid's algorithm in $\mathbb{Z}_N[x]$ on h(x) and z(x). If this fails, return $\gcd(N, H(h(x), z(x)))$.
 - (f) Run Euclid's algorithm in $\mathbb{Z}_N[x]$ on h(x) and h'(x). If this fails, return gcd(N, H(h(x), h'(x))).

Fig. 16: Modified version of Algorithm 1 from Aggarwal and Maurer

Lemma 13. Algorithm SLPFAC^{π} takes as input N = pq where p, q > 3 are primes, as well as $T \in \mathbb{N}$, a T-step SLP S and, for any $M \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $M \cdot \nu_N(f)/(8T) \leq 1/2$, runs in time $O(M \cdot T^3 \kappa^2)$, and does the following: if $(P^S(x), Q^S(x)) = (f_S(x), 1)$, $f_S(x) \not\equiv 0 \mod N$, then SLPFAC^{π} outputs a nontrivial factor of N with probability at least $\Omega(M \cdot \nu_N(f_S)/(16T))$.

Proof. Algorithm 1 from [1] is identical to lines all lines of SLPFAC^π inside the loop (namely, lines 1.(a) through 1.(f)). The analysis of Algorithm 1 [1] gives us that each run of this loop takes $O(T^3\log^2 N)$ time, and if the given SLP S is such that $(P^S(x),Q^S(x))=(f_S(x),1)$ and $f(x)\not\equiv 0 \mod N$, then the algorithm returns a factor of N with probability at least $\frac{\nu_N(f_S)}{8T}$. Then the runtime of SLPFAC^π is $O(M\cdot T^3\log^2 N)$ and its failure probability is at most

$$\left(1 - \frac{\nu_N(f_S)}{8T}\right)^M = \left(1 - \frac{\nu_N(f_S)}{8T}\right)^{8T/\nu_N(f_S) \cdot M \cdot \nu_N(f_S)/(8T)}
= e^{-M \cdot \nu_N(f_S)/(8T)}
\le 1 - M \cdot \nu_N(f_S)/(16T),$$

where the inequality follows due to the fact that $e^{-2x} \le 1 - x$ for $x \le 1/2$. Thus the success probability is at least $M \cdot \nu_N(f_S)/(16T)$.