

Mathematical attack on RSA

If we know $\phi(n)$ and the public key (the modulus n and the encryption exponent e), then we can determine d because d is the inverse of $e \bmod n$. We can use the Extended Euclidean algorithm (in *Mathematica*, **ExtendedGCD**[integer, integer]) to determine e . Then we can read the message.

Now knowing $\phi(n)$ is mathematically equivalent to knowing p and q – the two prime factors of n . Why? Well, certainly if we know p and q we know $\phi(n)$ because $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$. Conversely, if we know n and $\phi(n)$, then

$$n - \phi(n) + 1 = pq - (p-1)(q-1) + 1 = pq - pq + p + q - 1 + 1 = p + q.$$

So, we know $n = pq$ and $n - \phi(n) + 1 = p + q$. This suggests a quadratic equation which has p and q as its roots.

$$X^2 - (n - \phi(n) + 1)X + n = (X - p)(X - q)$$

For example, if we know that $n = 27153383$ and $\phi(n) = 27142080$, then solving (by using the quadratic formula, TI-92, or *Mathematica*)

$$X^2 - 11304X + 27153383 = (X - 7841)(X - 3463)$$

$$n = 7841 * 3463.$$

So, knowing $\phi(n)$ and the public key (which allows us to break any message encrypted with that key) is equivalent to factoring n . There is no known efficient algorithm to factor large integers.

So, how might we factor n ?

We know that n is composite (in fact we know that it is the product of 2 large primes). One of the factors of n must be less than or equal to \sqrt{n} . The brute force attack is to try division by all positive integers less than or equal to \sqrt{n} . This is not recommended.

There is a factoring algorithm due to Fermat (1601 – 1665) that helps if the 2 primes are nearly the same size. Here is how it works.

Fermat factoring algorithm

The algorithm is based upon the being able to factor the difference of 2 squares.

$$x^2 - y^2 = (x + y)(x - y)$$

If $n = x^2 - y^2$, then n factors: $n = (x + y)(x - y)$. But, every positive odd integer can be written as the difference of two squares. In particular for the integers that we use of RSA moduli $n = pq$,

$$n = pq = \left(\frac{p+q}{2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{p-q}{2}\right)^2$$

Let k be the smallest positive integer so that $k^2 > n$, and consider $k^2 - n$. If this is a square, we can factor n : if $k^2 - n = h^2$, then $n = (k + h)(k - h)$. If $k^2 - n$ is not a square, increase the term on the left by one and consider $(k + 1)^2 - n$. If this is a square, n factors. If $(k + 1)^2 - n$ is not a square, consider $(k + 2)^2 - n$. Etc. Eventually, we will find an h so that $(k + h)^2 - n$ factors. That is so because $\left(\frac{n+1}{2}\right)^2 - n = \left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)^2$.

In this case, n factors as $n = n \times 1$. $k \leq k + h \leq \frac{n+1}{2}$.

Here is an example. $n = 6699557$. $\sqrt{n} \approx 2588.35$; so, $k = 2589$.

$k^2 - n^2 = 2589^2 - 6699557 = 58^2$. So,

$$6688557 = 2589^2 - 58^2 = (2589 + 58)(2589 - 58) = 2647 \times 2531$$

Fermat's factorization algorithm works well if the factors are roughly the same size.

Here is another example. $n = 26504551$. $\sqrt{26504551} \approx 5148.26$; so, $k = 5149$.

$5149^2 - 26504551$ is not a square.

$5150^2 - 26504551$ is not a square.

$5151^2 - 26504551$ is not a square.

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$$5840^2 - 26504551 = 2757^2$$

So, $26504551 = 5840^2 - 2757^2 = (5840 + 2757)(5840 - 2757) = 8597 \times 3083$.

The Pollard $p - 1$ factorization algorithm

Let's just consider the case of interest – factoring $n = pq$ where p and q are large primes. This algorithm works well if either $p - 1$ or $q - 1$ is a product of relatively small primes. Let's assume that $p - 1$ is the product of small primes.

First, we guess an r so that $p - 1$ divides r . Of course, in practice we will not know p , but for the moment assume that we do know p . It might be convenient to take r to be a factorial that is large enough that $p - 1$ divides r .

For example, $7001 - 1 = 2^3 \times 5^3 \times 7$; so, $15!$ Would work because 2^3 , 5^3 , and 7 each divide $15!$. $4536 - 1 = 2^3 \times 3^4 \times 7$; so, $9!$ would work. But, $5869 - 1 = 2^2 \times 3^2 \times 163$; so, we would need to use at least $163!$. This is what we mean by saying that we want to take $r = k!$ sufficiently large so that $p - 1$ divides r . But, remember that because we won't know p we are guessing that we have chosen r large enough. If r is not large enough, the algorithm will fail to find a factor. Assuming that $p - 1$ divides r , we can write $r = (p - 1)j$.

Also choose a positive integer a so that $1 < a < p - 1$. Once again, we're guessing that our a satisfies this inequality.

Say, we have r sufficiently large so that $p - 1$ divides r and a so that $1 < a < p - 1$. Then notice that

$$a^r = a^{(p-1)j} = (a^{p-1})^j = 1^j = 1 \pmod{p}$$

What this tells us is that p divides $a^r - 1$, and because $n = pq$, p divides $\gcd(a^r - 1, n)$. In fact, $\gcd(a^r - 1, n) = p$. (Unless, by chance, $a^r - 1 = 0 \pmod n$. In that case we choose another a .)

So, that's the algorithm. After choosing r large enough so that $p - 1$ divides r and a so that $1 < a < p$, we calculate $\gcd(a^r - 1 \pmod n, n)$. (We have good algorithms for gcd and for modular exponentiation.) If we have chosen r and a correctly, $\gcd(a^r - 1 \pmod n, n) = p$.

Example: Let $n = 70348807$, $a = 2$, and $r = 13!$.

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PowerMod[2, 13!, 70348807]
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17662502
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GCD[% - 1, 70348807]
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7723
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Which is one of the factors of $n = 70348807$. $70348807 = 7723 \times 9109$.

If we took r too small here's what happens. Say, $r = 10!$. (After the fact we can see that $7723 - 1 = 2 \times 3^3 \times 11 \times 13$; so $10!$ is too small.)

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PowerMod[2, 10!, 70348807]
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60592434
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GCD[% - 1, 70348807]
```

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1
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Factoring

RSA's public key consists of the modulus n (which we know is the product of two large primes) and the encryption exponent e . The private key is the decryption exponent d . Recall that e and d are inverses mod $\phi(n)$. Knowing $\phi(n)$ and n is equivalent to knowing the factors of n .

One attack on RSA is to try to factor the modulus n . If we could factor n , we could calculate $\phi(n)$ and (by using the extended Euclidean algorithm) determine d .

Here are some factoring techniques:

Trial division: Try all the primes that are $\leq \sqrt{n}$. It's not very elegant, but "in theory" it would work. The problem is that, like other brute force techniques, it's not practical.

Fermat (1601 – 1665) factorization: Not a bad technique if p and q are relatively equidistant from \sqrt{n} .

(1974) Pollard $p-1$ algorithm: Not bad if $p-1$ or $q-1$ is the product of small primes.

(1975) Pollard ρ -algorithm: The book discusses this algorithm.

(1981) Pomerance quadratic sieve algorithm QSA: Still fast for up to around 110 decimal digits.

(c 1993) Number field sieve NFS: The most efficient; based on work of Pollard (1988).

(c 1987) Elliptic curve method ECM: H. Lenstra.

(1994) Schor's algorithm: Needs a quantum computer. The existing 7 qubit quantum computer has factored 15.

The RSA factoring challenge numbers

<http://www.rsasecurity.com/rsalabs/node.asp?id=2092>