## Breaking RSA

The public side of RSA consists of an encrypting exponent, $e$, and a modulus, $m$. The ciphertext, $C$, is found from the message by the formula

$$
C=M^{e} \bmod m
$$

It is decrypted by a secret exponent $d$, where

$$
e d=1 \bmod \phi(m)
$$

Then

$$
M=C^{d} \bmod m
$$

If we can manage to factor $m$, then computing $\phi(m)$ and $d$ becomes routine.

The security of RSA depends on the fact that it is difficult to factor large numbers. When RSA was introduced in 1977, it was recommended that $p$ and $q$ be on the order of 80 digits each. By 1987 it was recommended that they be 200 digits each. Presently, 400 digit numbers should be used!

## How can we factor $m$ ?

Check the primes between 2 and $\sqrt{m}$ to see if any divide $m$

For small $m$, this is the easiest and most efficient way of factoring an integer. On average it will take about $\sqrt{m} / 2$ calculations to factor $m$.

Unfortunately, this becomes very inefficient for large $m$. Is there a better way?

## Quadratic Sieve Factoring Algorithm

1. Pick random $a \in\{1,2, \ldots,(m-1) / 2\}$
2. If $g c d(a, m)>1$ then DONE!
3. Otherwise compute $a^{2} \bmod m$ and compare to other squares already computed. If there is another number $b \neq a$ such that

$$
a^{2} \equiv b^{2} \quad \bmod m
$$

then

$$
(a+b)(a-b)=a^{2}-b^{2} \equiv 0 \quad \bmod m
$$

This means that

$$
(a+b)(a-b)=k m
$$

for some $k$. Since both $a+b$ and $a-b$ are less than $m$, $m$ cannot divide either one. Therefore

$$
m=g c d(m, a+b) \times \operatorname{gcd}(m, a-b)
$$

## Quadratic Sieve

Example: $m=91$

| $a$ | 19 | 1 | 23 | 18 | 2 | 24 | 16 |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $a^{2}$ | 88 | 1 | 74 | 51 | 4 | 30 | 74 |

$$
\begin{aligned}
91 & =\operatorname{gcd}(91,23+16) \times \operatorname{gcd}(91,23-16) \\
& =\operatorname{gcd}(91,39) \times \operatorname{gcd}(91,7) \\
& =13 \times 7
\end{aligned}
$$

## Analysis of Quadratic Sieve

Claim: If $m=p q$ where $p, q>1$, then for all $a \in\{1,2, \ldots,(m-1) / 2\}$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}(a, m)=1$, there is an integer $b \in\{1,2, \ldots,(m-1) / 2\}$ such that $b \neq a$ and $b^{2} \equiv a^{2} \bmod m$.

Example: $m=21$

| $a$ | $g c d(a, m)$ | $a^{2} \bmod m$ | b |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| 2 | 1 | 4 | 5 |
| 3 | 3 | 9 |  |
| 4 | 1 | 16 | 10 |
| 5 | 1 | 4 | 2 |
| 6 | 3 | 15 |  |
| 7 | 7 | 7 |  |
| 8 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 9 | 3 | 18 |  |
| 10 | 1 | 16 | 4 |

Remark: Exactly $1 / 2$ of the $\phi(m)$ integers that are relatively prime to $m$ are between 1 and $(m-1) / 2$ since

$$
\operatorname{gcd}(a, m)=\operatorname{gcd}(m-a, m)
$$

Probability that a subset of $\{1,2, \ldots,(m-1) / 2\}$ $P(k)=$ of size $k$ that there is one number, $a$, that has $\operatorname{gcd}(a, m)>1$ or there are two integers $a \neq b$ such that $a^{2} \equiv b^{2} \bmod m$.

Probability that a subset of size $k$ such that $=1-$ for all $a, \operatorname{gcd}(a, m)=1$ and for all $a, b a^{2} \not \equiv b^{2}$ $\bmod m$.

$$
=1-\left(\frac{\frac{\phi(m)}{2}}{\frac{m-1}{2}} \cdot \frac{\frac{\phi(m)}{2}-2}{\frac{m-1}{2}-1} \cdot \frac{\frac{\phi(m)}{2}-4}{\frac{m-1}{2}-2} \cdots \frac{\frac{\phi(m)}{2}-2 k+2}{\frac{m-1}{2}-k+1}\right)
$$

Example: $m=6731$
$P(1)=.026 \quad P(10)=.24 \quad P(45)=.79 \quad P(90)=.98$

