## Malleability of RSA moduli

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Santander, February, 2019

Problem. (Malleability of Factoring) Given and RSA modulus $n$ find another integer $n^{\prime}$ so that the factorization of $n^{\prime}$ will help to factorize $n$.

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$n^{\prime}=2^{n}-1$

## A particular case

## Theorem (L. Dieulefait and J. Jiménez Urroz, 2009)

Let $n=p q z<p, q<2 z$, be and RSA modulus such that either we have $2^{p-1} \not \equiv 1(\bmod q)$ or $2^{q-1} \not \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ and let $n^{\prime}=2^{n}-1$. Then, with the factorization of $n^{\prime}$ we can find a prime divisor of $n$ in polynomial time.

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Proof To factor $n$ we use an oracle $\mathcal{O}$ that allow us to factor any given $n^{\prime}$ coprime to $n$. Let $S=\left\{r(\bmod n) \neq 1, r \mid n^{\prime}\right.$, prime $\}$

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## Algorithm.

- Send $n^{\prime}$ in binary form to $\mathcal{O}$.
- Take $r \in S$ and compute $(r-1, n)=p$.

Step 1. There exist such $r$. Indeed if every prime of $2^{n}-1$ is 1 modulo $n$ then $2^{n}-1 \equiv 1(\bmod n)$ or $2^{n-1} \equiv 1(\bmod n)$

$$
2^{n-1} \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod p), \text { and } 2^{n-1} \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod q)
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But

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2^{n-1}=2^{(p-1) q+q-1} \equiv 2^{q-1} \quad(\bmod p)
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So,

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Step 2. $2^{n} \equiv 1(\bmod r)$ and $2^{r-1} \equiv 1(\bmod r)$ Hence

$$
2^{(n, r-1)} \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod r)
$$

and $(n, r-1) \neq 1, n$. Note that $(n, r-1)=(n, r(\bmod n)-1)$

## Pseudoprimes

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Are there infinitely many pseudoprimes?
Theorem. (Alford, Granville, Pomerance, 1994) There are infinitely many Charmichael numbers.

A Charmichael number is a composite number $n$ such that $b^{n-1} \equiv 1(\bmod n)$ for all $\left.(b, n)\right)=1$. Example $561=3 \cdot 11 \cdot 17$.

Theorem. (Pomerance, 1981) Given $x>0$, the number of pseudoprimes up to $x$ is less than

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x \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \log x \log \log \log x / \log \log x\right)
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Proposition For large $z$, the number of RSA moduli $n=p q$, $z<p, q<2 z$ pseudoprimes are less than

$$
\left(\frac{z}{\log z}\right)^{2} \frac{(\log \log \log z)^{2}}{\log z}
$$

## Proof.

$2^{(p-1, q-1)} \equiv 1(\bmod n)$ not possible if $(p-1, q-1)<\log z$. Let $\pi(d, z)=\mid\{p \equiv 1(\bmod d), z<p<2 z$ prime $\} \mid$.

$$
\sum_{\substack{z<p, q<2 z \\(p-1, q-1)>\log z}} 1=\sum_{\log z<d<z} \pi(d, z)^{2} \sim \sum_{\log z<d<z}\left(\frac{z}{\varphi(d) \log z}\right)^{2}
$$

Since

$$
\begin{gathered}
\varphi(d)=d \prod_{p \mid d}\left(1-\frac{1}{p}\right)>d \prod_{p<\log d}\left(1-\frac{1}{p}\right)>\frac{C d}{\log \log d} \\
\sum_{\log z<d<z} \frac{1}{\varphi(d)^{2}}<c \sum_{\log z<d<z} \frac{\log \log d}{d^{2}}<\frac{c(\log \log \log z)^{2}}{\log z}
\end{gathered}
$$

Theorem. (Barban-Davenport-Halberstam, 1963-1966)

$$
\sum_{d \leq z^{1-\varepsilon}}\left|\psi(d, z)-\frac{z}{\varphi(d)}\right|^{2} \ll \frac{z^{2}}{(\log z)^{A}}
$$

with a constant depending only in $\varepsilon$ and $A$.

## Primitive roots and the general case.

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Definition. Given a prime $p$, a primitive root modulo $p$ is an integer so that $<m>=\mathbb{F}_{p}^{*} . m^{d} \not \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ for any $d<p-1$.

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If $n=p q, q<p$ and $m$ is a primitive root modulo $p, m^{n-1} \not \equiv 1$ $(\bmod n)$, since $m^{q-1} \not \equiv 1(\bmod p)$.

Question. How difficult is to find a primitive root modulo $p$ without knowing $p$ ?.

There are $\varphi(p-1)$ primitive roots modulo $p$. Hence the probability to find one is

$$
\frac{\varphi(p-1)}{p-1}=\prod_{q \mid p-1}\left(1-\frac{1}{q}\right)>\prod_{q<\log p}\left(1-\frac{1}{q}\right)>\frac{c}{\log \log p}
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$$

In particular a random set of size $C \log \log p$ should have positive probability to contain a primitive root modulo $p$. Since $p<n$ a set of size $C \log \log n$ should have positive probability to contain a primitive root modulo $p$. The probability for a set of this size to contain no primitive roots is

$$
\left(1-\frac{c}{\log \log p}\right)^{C \log \log p} \sim e^{-C c}
$$

## Results.

(E. Bach, 1997) Let $g(p)$ the least primitive root modulo $p$.

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g(p) \leq e^{\gamma} \log p(\log \log p)^{2}(1+\varepsilon)
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Theorem. (Heath-Brown, 1986) Among 3, 5, 7 there is a primitive root for infinitely many $p$

For each integer $m$ set $n_{m}^{\prime}=\left(m^{n}-1\right) /(m-1)$, and $S_{m}=\left\{r(\bmod n) \neq 1: r\right.$ prime $\left.r \mid n_{m}^{\prime}\right\}$.

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Algorithm The $m$-ary representation of $n$ is $c$ independent of $m$

- $m=2$
- Send $(c, m)$ to $\mathcal{O}$
- $S=m=m+1$. Return
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## Theorem (L. Dieulefait and J. Jiménez Urroz)

Let $n=p q z<p, q<2 z$, be and RSA modulus. Then, under GRH the previous algorithm gives a prime divisor of $n$ in polynomial time.

## Proof

Lemma Let $n=p q$ and RSA modulus and $m$ such that $(m-1, n)=1$. Then $\left(n_{m}^{\prime}, m-1\right)=1$. If $r \mid\left(n_{m}^{\prime}, m-1\right)$, then $n_{m}^{\prime}=\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} m^{j} \equiv n(\bmod r)$.

Step 1. There exist such $r$. Indeed if every prime of $n_{m}^{\prime}$ is 1 modulo $n$ then $m_{n}^{\prime} \equiv 1(\bmod n)$ or $m^{n-1} \equiv 1(\bmod n)$

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Defintion. Given a field $K$. An elliptic curve over $K$ is the set

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E / K:=\left\{(x, y) \in K \times K: y^{2}=x^{3}+a x+b, a, b \in K\right\} \cup\{O\} \\
& 4 a^{3}+27 b^{2} \neq 0
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Theorem. $E / \mathbb{F}_{q}$ is an abelian group of size

$$
\left|E / \mathbb{F}_{q}\right|=q+1-a_{q}
$$

where

$$
\left|a_{q}\right| \leq 2 \sqrt{q}
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Defintion. Given an integer $n=p q$ an elliptic curve modulo $n$ is the set

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$$

Lemma. Let $n=p q$ with $p \approx q$. Then,

$$
\left|\left|E_{n}\right|-n\right| \leq c n^{3 / 4} .
$$

## Theorem (L. Dieulefait and J. Jiménez Urroz, 2019)

Let $n=p q$, and $E_{n}$ and elliptic curve modulo $n$. Then knowing $\left|E_{n}\right|$ we can factor $n$ in polynomial time.

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## Proof.

## Theorem (J. Cilleruelo-J. Jiménez Urroz)

In an arc of lenght $c n^{1 / 4}$ of the hyperbola $x y=n$ with $x, y \geq n^{1 / 2}$ there are at most 4 points of integer coordinates.

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So, we ask the oracle for the factor of $E_{n}$ of size $n^{1 / 2}$. Note that $p+1-a_{p}$ and $q+1-a_{q}$ are two of those points.

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So, we ask the oracle for the factor of $E_{n}$ of size $n^{1 / 2}$. Note that $p+1-a_{p}$ and $q+1-a_{q}$ are two of those points. Use Coppersmith algorithm to find $p$.

## Theorem (Coppersmith)

If we know an integer $n=p q$ and we know the high order $\log _{2} N$ bits of $p$, then in polynomanl time in $\log (n)$ we can recover $p$ and $q$.

## Theorem

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Let $\hat{E}, \tilde{E}, \bar{E}$ the three possible twists of $E$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E=\left(p-a_{p}\right)\left(q-a_{q}\right)=n-p a_{q}-q a_{p}+a_{p} a_{q} \\
& \hat{E}=\left(p+a_{p}\right)\left(q+a_{q}\right)=n+p a_{q}+q a_{p}+a_{p} a_{q}, \\
& \tilde{E}=\left(p-a_{p}\right)\left(q+a_{q}\right)=n+q a_{q}-q a_{p}-a_{p} a_{q}, \\
& \bar{E}=\left(p+a_{p}\right)\left(q-a_{q}\right)=n-p a_{q}+q a_{p}-a_{p} a_{q} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Lemma

$$
\begin{aligned}
& |E|+|\hat{E}|+|\tilde{E}|+|\bar{E}|=4 n \\
& E \hat{E}=\tilde{E} \bar{E} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then, knowing $E$ and $\hat{E}$, we compute its product, $M=E \hat{E}$ and its sum $L=E+\hat{E}$, and we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \tilde{E} \bar{E}=M \\
& \tilde{E}+\bar{E}=4 n-L
\end{aligned}
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so $\tilde{E}$ and $\bar{E}$ are the solutions of the quadratic polynomial $X^{2}-(4 n-L) X+M$.

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$\operatorname{gcd}(E+\bar{E}, n)=p$

