# A new attack on RSA and CRT-RSA 

Abderrahmane Nitaj<br>Laboratoire de Mathématiques Nicolas Oresme<br>Université de Caen, France<br>abderrahmane.nitaj@unicaen.fr<br>http://www.math.unicaen.fr/~nitaj


#### Abstract

In RSA, the public modulus $N=p q$ is the product of two primes of the same bit-size, the public exponent $e$ and the private exponent $d$ satisfy $e d \equiv 1(\bmod (p-1)(q-1))$. In many applications of RSA, $d$ is chosen to be small. This was cryptanalyzed by Wiener in 1990 who showed that RSA is insecure if $d<N^{0.25}$. As an alternative, Quisquater and Couvreur proposed the CRT-RSA scheme in the decryption phase, where $d_{p}=d(\bmod (p-1))$ and $d_{q}=d(\bmod (q-1))$ are chosen significantly smaller than $p$ and $q$. In 2006, Bleichenbacher and May presented an attack on CRT-RSA when the CRT-exponents $d_{p}$ and $d_{q}$ are both suitably small. In this paper, we show that RSA is insecure if the public exponent $e$ satisfies an equation $e x+y \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ with $|x||y|<N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}}$ and $e x+y \not \equiv 0(\bmod N)$. As an application of our new attack, we present the cryptanalysis of CRT-RSA if one of the private exponents, $d_{p}$ say, satisfies $d_{p}<\frac{N \frac{\sqrt{2}}{4}}{\sqrt{e}}$. This improves the result of Bleichenbacher and May on CRT-RSA where both $d_{p}$ and $d_{q}$ are required to be suitably small.


Keywords: RSA, CRT-RSA, Cryptanalysis, Linear Modular Equation

## 1 Introduction

In the RSA cryptosystem, the modulus $N=p q$ is the product of two primes of the same bit-size. The public and private exponents $e$ and $d$ are positive integers satisfying $e d \equiv 1(\bmod (p-1)(q-1))$. The encryption and decryption in RSA require taking heavy exponential multiplications modulo a large integer $N$. To reduce the encryption time, one may be tempted to use a small public exponent $e$. Unfortunately, it has been proven to be insecure against some small public exponent attacks [8]. Conversely, to reduce the decryption time, one may also be tempted to use a short secret exponent $d$. However, it is well-known that RSA is vulnerable with a small private exponent. In 1990, Wiener [17] showed that RSA is insecure if $d<N^{0.25}$, which was extended to $d<N^{0.292}$ by Boneh and Durfee [3. Wiener [17] proposed to use the Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT) for decryption and Quisquater and Couvreur made this explicit in [14]. In CRT-RSA, the public exponent $e$ and the private CRT-exponents $d_{p}$ and $d_{q}$ satisfy $e d_{p} \equiv 1(\bmod (p-1))$ and $e d_{q} \equiv 1(\bmod (q-1))$. One can further
reduce the decryption time by carefully choosing $d$ so that both $d_{p}$ and $d_{q}$ are small. Combining $d_{p}$ and $d_{q}$, the CRT finds $d$ such that $d \equiv d_{p}(\bmod (p-1))$ and $d \equiv d_{q}(\bmod (q-1))$. The best known attack on CRT-RSA runs in time complexity $\mathcal{O}\left(\min \left\{\sqrt{d_{p}}, \sqrt{d_{p}}\right\}\right)$ which is exponential in the bit-size of $d_{p}$ or $d_{q}$. At Crypto'07, Jochemsz and May [11] proposed the first polynomial time attack on CRT exponents that are smaller than $N^{0.073}$ when $p$ and $q$ are balanced and $e$ is full size, that is $\frac{e}{N} \approx 1$. In the special case when $e$ is much smaller than $N$, Bleichenbacher and May [1] proposed an attack that is applicable if both $d_{p}$ and $d_{q}$ are such that $d_{p}, d_{q}<\min \left\{\frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{N}{e}\right)^{\frac{2}{5}}, \frac{1}{3} N^{\frac{1}{4}}\right\}$.

In this paper, we present an attack on RSA and a second attack on CRTRSA. We consider RSA with a modulus $N=p q$ where $p, q$ are of the same bit-size. We present an attack on RSA if one of the primes, $p$ say, satisfies an equation $e x+y \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, where the unknown parameters $x, y$ satisfy

$$
|x||y|<N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}} \text { and } e x+y \not \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod N)
$$

Our attack is based on the method of Coppersmith [5] for finding small solutions of modular equations. In particular, we make use of a result from Herrmann and May [9] to solve linear equations modulo divisors. Moreover, we estimate a very conservative lower bound on the number of exponents for which our method works as $N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}-\varepsilon}$ where $\varepsilon>0$ is a small constant depending only on $N$. As an application of this method, we present the cryptanalysis of CRT-RSA with a private decryption exponent $d_{p}$ satisfying

$$
d_{p}<\frac{N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{4}}}{\sqrt{e}} .
$$

We notice that for balanced $p$ and $q$ and small $e$, the attack of Bleichenbacher and May [1] works when both $d_{p}$ and $d_{q}$ satisfy $d_{p}, d_{q}<\min \left\{\frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{N}{e}\right)^{\frac{2}{5}}, \frac{1}{3} N^{\frac{1}{4}}\right\}$ while in our new attack, only $d_{p}$ (or $d_{q}$ ) is required to be small.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we will state preliminaries on RSA, CRT-RSA, and bivariate linear equations modulo divisors. Section 3 will contain the description of the attack for exponents $e$ satisfying $e x+y \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ with suitably small parameters $x, y$ and give a lower bound for the number of such exponents. In Section 4, we will present an application of our attack to CRT-RSA with small CRT-exponent $d_{p}$ when $p$ and $q$ are balanced. In Section 5, we provide some experimental results. Finally, we conclude the paper in Section 6.

## 2 Preliminaries

### 2.1 The original RSA and CRT-RSA

We first review the original RSA [15] and CRT-RSA [14.

The original RSA. The RSA cryptosystem depends on two large primes $p$ and $q$ used to form the RSA modulus $N=p q$. Let $e$ and $d$ be two integers satisfying $e d \equiv 1(\bmod \phi(N))$, where $\phi(N)=(p-1)(q-1)$ is the Euler totient function of $N$. In general, $e$ is called the public exponent, and $d$ is the secret exponent. To encrypt a plaintext message $M$, one computes the corresponding ciphertext $C \equiv M^{e}(\bmod N)$. To decrypt the ciphertext $C$, the receiver computes simply $M \equiv C^{d}(\bmod N)$.

CRT-RSA. In CRT-RSA, the public exponent $e$ and the private CRT-exponents $d_{p}$ and $d_{q}$ satisfy $e d_{p} \equiv 1(\bmod (p-1))$ and $e d_{q} \equiv 1(\bmod (q-1))$. The CRTRSA decryption is as follows. Compute $M_{p} \equiv C^{d_{p}}(\bmod p), M_{q} \equiv C^{d_{q}}(\bmod q)$ and use the Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT) to find $M$ satisfying $M \equiv M_{p}$ $(\bmod p)$ and $M \equiv M_{q}(\bmod q)$.

### 2.2 Bivariate linear equations modulo divisors.

In our attack we will use a theorem of Herrmann and May [9] to factor an RSA modulus $N=p q$ using a linear equation $f(x, y)=a x+b y+c \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. Their method is based on Coppersmith's technique for finding small roots of polynomial equations 5 and consists in using the LLL algorithm 12 to obtain two polynomials $h_{1}(x, y)$ and $h_{2}(x, y)$ sharing the same solution $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$, that is $h_{1}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=h_{2}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=0$. If $h_{1}$ and $h_{2}$ are algebraically independent, then the resultant of $h_{1}$ and $h_{2}$ recovers the common root $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$. This relies on a heuristic assumption for multivariate polynomials as required by most applications of Coppersmith's algorithm [5].

Assumption 1 Let $h_{1}(x, y), h_{2}(x, y)$ be the polynomials that are found by Coppersmith's method. The resultant computations for the polynomials $h_{1}(x, y)$, $h_{2}(x, y)$ yield non-zero polynomials.

Theorem 1 (Herrmann-May [9]). Let $\varepsilon>0$ and let $N$ be a sufficiently large composite integer of unknown factorization with a divisor $p>N^{\beta}$. Furthermore, let $f(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ be a linear polynomial in two variables. Then, one can find all solutions $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ of the equation $f(x, y) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ with $\left|x_{0}\right|<N^{\gamma}$ and $\left|y_{0}\right|<N^{\delta}$ if

$$
\gamma+\delta \leq 3 \beta-2+2(1-\beta)^{\frac{3}{2}}-\varepsilon
$$

The time complexity of the algorithm is polynomial in $\log N$ and $\frac{1}{\varepsilon}$.
For completeness reasons, let us give a sketch of the proof. First we recall two important results. The first gives a bound on the smallest vectors of an LLLreduced lattice basis [12].

Theorem 2 (LLL [12]). Let $\mathcal{L}$ be a lattice with dimension $n$ and determinant $\operatorname{det}(\mathcal{L})$. Let $B=\left\langle b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right\rangle$ be an LLL-reduced basis. Then

$$
\left\|b_{1}\right\| \leq\left\|b_{2}\right\| \leq 2^{\frac{n}{4}}(\operatorname{det}(\mathcal{L}))^{\frac{1}{n-1}}
$$

The next result gives a link between the roots of a polynomial modulo some integer and the roots of the polynomial over the integers. For a multivariate polynomial $f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=\sum_{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}} a_{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}} x^{i_{1}} \cdots x^{i_{k}}$, the norm is defined as

$$
\left\|f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)\right\|=\left(\sum_{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}} a_{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}}^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}
$$

Theorem 3 (Howgrave-Graham [10]). Let $f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right]$ be a polynomial with at most $\omega$ monomials. Suppose that $f\left(x_{1}^{(0)}, \ldots, x_{k}^{(0)}\right) \equiv 0$ $(\bmod B)$ where $\left|x_{0}^{(0)}\right|<X_{1}, \ldots,\left|x_{k}^{(0)}\right|<X_{k}$ and $\left\|f\left(X_{1} x_{1}, \ldots, X_{k} x_{k}\right)\right\|<\frac{B}{\sqrt{\omega}}$. Then $f\left(x_{1}^{(0)}, \ldots, x_{k}^{(0)}\right)=0$ holds over the integers.

We assume that $f(x, y)=x+b y+c$ since otherwise we can multiply $f$ by $a^{-1}(\bmod N)$. To find a solution $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ such that $f\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, the basic idea consists in finding two polynomials $h_{1}(x, y)$ and $h_{2}(x, y)$ such that $h_{1}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=h_{1}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=0$ holds over the integers. Then the resultant of $h_{1}(x, y)$ and $h_{2}(x, y)$ will reveal the root $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$. To do so, we generate a collection of polynomials $g_{k, i}(x, y)$ as

$$
g_{k, i}(x, y)=y^{i} \cdot f(x, y)^{k} \cdot N^{\max \{t-k, 0\}}
$$

for $0 \leq k \leq m, 0 \leq i \leq m-k$ and integer parameters $t$ and $m$ with $t<m$ that will be specified later. Observe that for all $k$ and $i$, we have

$$
g_{k, i}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=y_{0}^{i} \cdot f\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)^{k} \cdot N^{\max \{t-k, 0\}} \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod p^{t}\right)
$$

We define the following ordering for the polynomials $g_{k, i}$. If $k<l$, then $g_{k, i}<g_{l, j}$. If $k=l$ and $i<j$, then $g_{k, i}<g_{k, j}$. On the other hand, each polynomial $g_{k, i}(x, y)$ is ordered in the monomials $x^{i} y^{k}$. The ordering for the monomials $x^{i} y^{k}$ is as follows. If $i<j$, then $x^{i} y^{k}<x^{j} y^{l}$. If $i=j$ and $k<l$, then $x^{i} y^{k}<x^{i} y^{l}$. Let $X$ and $Y$ be positive integers. Gathering the coefficients of the polynomials $g_{k, i}(X x, Y y)$, we obtain a matrix as illustrated in Table 1.

Let $\mathcal{L}$ be the lattice of row vectors from the coefficients of the polynomials $g_{k, i}(X x, Y y)$ in the basis $\left\langle x^{k} y^{i}\right\rangle_{0 \leq k \leq m, 0 \leq i \leq m-k}$. The dimension of $\mathcal{L}$ is

$$
n=\sum_{i=0}^{m}(m+1-i)=\frac{(m+2)(m+1)}{2}
$$

|  | 1 | $\cdots$ | $y^{m}$ | $x$ | $\cdots$ | $x y^{m-1}$ | $\ldots$ | $x^{t}$ | $\cdots$ | $x^{t} y^{m-t}$ | $\cdots$ | $x^{m}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $g_{0,0}$ | $N^{t}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\vdots$ |  | $\ddots$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $g_{0, m}$ |  |  | $N^{t} Y^{m}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $g_{1,0}$ | $*$ | $\cdots$ | $*$ | $N^{t-1} X$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\vdots$ | $*$ | $\cdots$ | $*$ |  | $\ddots$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $g_{1, m-1}$ | $*$ | $\cdots$ | $*$ | $*$ | $\ldots$ | $N^{t-1} X Y^{m-1}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\vdots$ | $*$ | $\vdots$ | $*$ | $*$ | $\vdots$ | $*$ | $\ddots$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| $g_{t, 0}$ | $*$ | $\cdots$ | $*$ | $*$ | $\cdots$ | $*$ | $\cdots$ | $X^{t}$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\vdots$ | $\vdots$ |  |  | $\vdots$ |  | $\vdots$ | $\ddots$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| $g_{t, m-t}$ | $*$ | $\cdots$ | $*$ | $*$ | $\cdots$ | $*$ | $\cdots$ | $*$ | $\ldots$ | $X^{t} Y^{m-t}$ |  |  |
| $\vdots$ | $*$ | $\vdots$ | $*$ | $*$ | $\vdots$ | $*$ | $\vdots$ | $*$ | $\vdots$ | $*$ | $\ddots$ |  |
| $g_{m, 0}$ | $*$ | $\cdots$ | $*$ | $*$ | $\cdots$ | $*$ | $\ldots$ | $*$ | $\ldots$ | $*$ | $\cdots$ | $X^{m}$ |

Table 1. Herrmann-May's matrix of the polynomials $g_{k, i}(X x, Y y)$ in the basis $\left\langle x^{r} y^{s}\right\rangle_{0 \leq r \leq m, 0 \leq s \leq m-r}$.

From the triangular matrix of the lattice, we can easily compute the determinant $\operatorname{det}(\mathcal{L})=X^{s_{x}} Y^{s_{y}} N^{s_{N}}$ where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& s_{x}=\sum_{i=0}^{m} i(m+1-i)=\frac{m(m+1)(m+2)}{6}, \\
& s_{y}=\sum_{i=0}^{m} \sum_{j=0}^{m-i} j=\frac{m(m+1)(m+2)}{6}, \\
& s_{N}=\sum_{i=0}^{t}(t-i)(m+1-i)=\frac{t(t+1)(3 m+4-t)}{6} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We want to find two polynomials with short coefficients that contain all small roots over the integer. This can be achieved by applying the LLL algorithm [12] to the lattice $\mathcal{L}$. From Theorem 2, we get two polynomials $h_{1}(x, y)$ and $h_{2}(x, y)$ satisfying

$$
\left\|h_{1}(X x, Y y)\right\| \leq\left\|h_{2}(X x, Y y)\right\| \leq 2^{\frac{n}{4}}(\operatorname{det}(\mathcal{L}))^{\frac{1}{n-1}} .
$$

To ensure that $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ is a root of both $h_{1}(x, y)$ and $h_{2}(x, y)$ over the integers, we apply Howgrave-Graham's Theorem 3 for $h_{1}(X x, Y y)$ and $h_{2}(X x, Y y)$ with $B=p^{t}$ and $\omega=n$. A sufficient condition is that

$$
\begin{equation*}
2^{n / 4}(\operatorname{det}(\mathcal{L}))^{1 /(n-1)} \leq \frac{p^{t}}{\sqrt{n}} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $X=N^{\gamma}, Y=N^{\delta}$ and $p>N^{\beta}$ with $\beta \geq \frac{1}{2}$. We have $n=\frac{(m+2)(m+1)}{2}$ and $\operatorname{det}(\mathcal{L})=X^{s_{x}} Y^{s_{y}} N^{s_{N}}=N^{s_{x}(\gamma+\delta)+s_{N}}$. Then the condition (1) transforms to

$$
\begin{equation*}
2^{\frac{(m+2)(m+1)}{8}} N^{\frac{2(\gamma+\delta) s_{x}+2 s_{N}}{m(m+3)}} \leq \frac{N^{\beta t}}{\sqrt{\frac{(m+2)(m+1)}{2}}} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Define $\varepsilon_{1}>0$ such that

$$
\frac{2^{-\frac{(m+2)(m+1)}{8}}}{\sqrt{\frac{(m+2)(m+1)}{2}}}=N^{-\varepsilon_{1}}
$$

Then, the condition (2) simplifies to

$$
\frac{2(\gamma+\delta) s_{x}+2 s_{N}}{m(m+3)} \leq \beta t-\varepsilon_{1}
$$

Neglecting the $\varepsilon_{1}$ term and using $s_{x}=\frac{m(m+1)(m+2)}{6}$ and $s_{N}=\frac{t(t+1)(3 m+4-t)}{6}$, we get

$$
\frac{m(m+1)(m+2)}{3}(\gamma+\delta)+\frac{t(t+1)(3 m+4-t)}{3}<m(m+3) \beta t
$$

It is shown in [9] that setting $t=(1-\sqrt{1-\beta}) m$ leads to the condition

$$
\gamma+\delta<3 \beta-2+2(1-\beta)^{\frac{3}{2}}-\varepsilon
$$

with a small constant $\varepsilon>0$ and that the method's complexity is polynomial in $\log (N)$ and $1 / \varepsilon$.

## 3 A New Class of Weak Public Exponents in RSA

In this section, we analyze the security of the RSA cryptosystem where the public exponent $e$ satisfies an equation $e x+y \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ with parameters $x$ and $y$ satisfying $e x+y \not \equiv 0(\bmod N)|x|<N^{\gamma}$ and $|y|<N^{\delta}$ with $\gamma+\delta \leq \frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}$. We firstly show that such exponents lead to the factorization of the RSA modulus and secondly that a very conservative estimate for the number of such weak exponents is $N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}-\varepsilon}$ where $\varepsilon>0$ is arbitrarily small for suitably large $N$.

Theorem 4. Let $N=p q$ be an RSA modulus with $q<p<2 q$. Let e be a public exponent satisfying an equation $e x+y \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ with $|x|<N^{\gamma}$ and $|y|<N^{\delta}$. If ex $+y \not \equiv 0(\bmod N)$ and

$$
\gamma+\delta \leq \frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}
$$

then, under Assumption 1, $N$ can be factored in polynomial time.

Proof. Let $N=p q$ be an RSA modulus with $q<p<2 q$. Then $N<p^{2}$ and $\sqrt{N}<p$. Hence $p=N^{\beta}$ for some $\beta>\frac{1}{2}$. Let $e$ be a public exponent satisfying an equation $e x+y \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, which is linear in the two variables $x$ and $y$. Assume that $|x|<N^{\gamma}$ and $|y|<N^{\delta}$ with $\gamma$ and $\delta$ satisfying

$$
\gamma+\delta \leq \frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}
$$

Then applying Theorem 1 with any $\beta>\frac{1}{2}$, we find $x$ and $y$ in polynomial time. Using $x$ and $y$, we get $e x+y=p z$ for some integer $z$. Moreover, assume that $e x+y \not \equiv 0(\bmod N)$. Then $\operatorname{gcd}(z, q)=1$. Hence

$$
\operatorname{gcd}(e x+y, N)=\operatorname{gcd}(p z, N)=p
$$

This terminates the proof.
Next, we estimate the number of exponents for which our method works.
Theorem 5. Let $N=p q$ be an RSA modulus with $q<p<2 q$. The number of exponents $e<N$ satisfying ex $+y \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ and $e x+y \not \equiv 0(\bmod N)$ where $\operatorname{gcd}(x, y)=1,|x|<N^{\gamma}$ and $|y|<N^{\delta}$, with

$$
\gamma+\delta \leq \frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}
$$

is at least $N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}-\varepsilon}$ where $\varepsilon$ is a small positive constant.
Proof. Consider the set

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{K}=\{e: & 2 \leq e<N, e=\alpha p+\left(-y x^{-1} \quad(\bmod p)\right), \text { with } \operatorname{gcd}(x, y)=1, \\
& \left.0 \leq \alpha<q,|x|<N^{\gamma},|y|<N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}-\gamma} \text { and } e x+y \not \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod N)\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Here $\left(-y x^{-1}(\bmod p)\right)$ represents the unique positive integer lying in the interval $(0, p-1)$. Each exponent $e \in \mathcal{K}$ satisfies $e x+y \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ where $x$ and $y$ fulfil the condition of Theorem 4 . Moreover, $e x+y \not \equiv 0(\bmod N)$. Hence, we can apply Theorem 4 to find the parameters $x$ and $y$ related to each exponent $e \in \mathcal{K}$. This shows that every exponent $e \in \mathcal{K}$ is vulnerable to the attack.

Next, let $e_{1} \in \mathcal{K}$ and $e_{2} \in \mathcal{K}$ with

$$
e_{1}=\alpha_{1} p+\left(-y_{1} x_{1}^{-1} \quad(\bmod p)\right), \quad e_{2}=\alpha_{2} p+\left(-y_{2} x_{2}^{-1} \quad(\bmod p)\right)
$$

Suppose $e_{1}=e_{2}$. Then $e_{1} \equiv e_{2}(\bmod p)$ and $-y_{1} x_{1}^{-1} \equiv-y_{2} x_{2}^{-1}(\bmod p)$. Equivalently, we get $y_{1} x_{1}^{-1}-y_{2} x_{2}^{-1} \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. Multiplying by $x_{1} x_{2}$ modulo $p$, we get $y_{1} x_{2}-y_{2} x_{1} \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. On the other hand, for $i=1,2$, we have $x_{i}, y_{i} \leq N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}}$. Hence, since $q<p<2 q$ and $\sqrt{N}<p$, we get

$$
\left|y_{1} x_{2}-y_{2} x_{1}\right| \leq\left|y_{1} x_{2}\right|+\left|y_{2} x_{1}\right| \leq 2 N^{2 \times \frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}}=2 N^{\sqrt{2}-1}<N^{\frac{1}{2}}<p
$$

This implies that $y_{1} x_{2}-y_{2} x_{1}=0$ and since $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)=1$ and $\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)=1$, then $x_{1}=x_{2}$ and $y_{1}=y_{2}$. Hence $e_{1}=e_{2}$ reduces to $\alpha_{1} p=\alpha_{2} p$ and $\alpha_{1}=\alpha_{2}$. This shows that each exponent $e \in \mathcal{K}$ is defined by a unique tuple $(\alpha, x, y)$. Observe that if $e$ satisfies $e x+y \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ and $e x+y \equiv 0(\bmod q)$ with $x<q$, then $e x+y \equiv 0(\bmod N)$ and $e \equiv-y x^{-1}(\bmod N)$. To find an estimation of $\# \mathcal{K}$, consider the set

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{K}^{\prime}=\{e: & 2 \leq e<N, e=\left(-y x^{-1} \quad(\bmod N)\right) \\
& \text { with } \left.\operatorname{gcd}(x, y)=1,|x|<N^{\gamma},|y|<N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}-\gamma}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

On the other hand, observe that the conditions $|x|<N^{\gamma}$ and $|y|<N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}-\gamma}$ imply that $|x||y|<N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}}$. Let

$$
M=\left\lfloor N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}}\right\rfloor .
$$

The number $\# \mathcal{K}$ of exponents $e \in \mathcal{K}$ is such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\# \mathcal{K} & \geq \sum_{\alpha=0}^{q-1} \sum_{|x|=1}^{M} \sum_{\substack{|y|=1 \\
(x, y)=1}}^{M /|x|} 1-\# \mathcal{K}^{\prime} \\
& \geq q \sum_{|x|=1}^{M} \sum_{\substack{|y|=1 \\
(x, y)=1}}^{M /|x|} 1-\sum_{|x|=1}^{M} \sum_{\substack{|y|=1 \\
(x, y)=1}}^{M /|x|} 1 \\
& \geq(q-1) \sum_{|x|=1}^{M} \sum_{\substack{|y|=1 \\
(x, y)=1}}^{M /|x|} 1 \\
& \geq(q-1) M .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $q-1=N^{\frac{1}{2}-\varepsilon_{1}}$ and $M=N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}-\varepsilon_{2}}$ for some $\varepsilon_{1}>0$ and $\varepsilon_{2}>0$, then

$$
\# \mathcal{K}>N^{\frac{1}{2}-\varepsilon_{1}} \times N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}-\varepsilon_{2}}=N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}-\varepsilon}
$$

where $\varepsilon>0$ is a small constant. This terminates the proof.

## 4 Application to CRT-RSA

In this section, we present a new attack on CRT-RSA. Let $N=p q$ be an RSA modulus. Let $e$ be a public exponent corresponding to the private exponent $d$. Since the attacks of Wiener [17] and Boneh and Durfee [3, we know that RSA with a small private key $d$ is vulnerable. As an alternative approach, Wiener proposed to use the Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT) for decryption. Then

Quisquater and Couvreur proposed a decryption scheme in [14. The scheme uses two private exponents $d_{p}$ and $d_{q}$ related to $d$ by

$$
d_{p} \equiv d \quad(\bmod (p-1)), \quad d_{q} \equiv d \quad(\bmod (q-1))
$$

Many attacks on CRT-RSA show that using small $d_{p}$ and $d_{q}$ is also dangerous. The best known result from Jochemsz and May [11] asserts that CRT-RSA is vulnerable if $d_{p}$ and $d_{q}$ are smaller than $N^{0.073}$.

Notice that the private exponents $d_{p}$ and $d_{q}$ satisfy the equations

$$
e d_{p} \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod (p-1)), \quad e d_{q} \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod (q-1))
$$

Rewriting the equation $e d_{p} \equiv 1(\bmod (p-1))$ as $e d_{p}=1+k_{p}(p-1)$ where $k_{p}$ is a positive integer, we get $e d_{p}=1-k_{p}+k_{p} p$, and $e d_{p}+k_{p}-1 \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. It follows that $\left(d_{p}, k_{p}-1\right)$ is a solution of the equation $e x+y \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ in the variables $(x, y)$. Hence one can apply Theorem 4 which leads to the following result.

Corollary 1. Let $N=p q$ be an RSA modulus with $q<p<2 q$. Let e be a public exponent satisfying $e<N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}}$ and $e d_{p}=1+k_{p}(p-1)$ for some $d_{p}$ with

$$
d_{p}<\frac{N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{4}}}{\sqrt{e}}
$$

Then, under Assumption 1, $N$ can be factored in polynomial time.
Proof. Starting with the equation $e d_{p}=1+k_{p}(p-1)$ with $e=N^{\alpha}, d_{p}=N^{\delta}$ and $p>N^{\frac{1}{2}}$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
k_{p}=\frac{e d_{p}-1}{p-1}<\frac{e d_{p}}{p-1}<N^{\alpha+\delta-\frac{1}{2}} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, we have $e d_{p} \equiv 1-k_{p}(\bmod p)$ with $d_{p}<N^{\delta}$ and

$$
\left|1-k_{p}\right|=k_{p}-1<k_{p}<N^{\alpha+\delta-\frac{1}{2}} .
$$

To apply Theorem 4 with the equation $e x+y \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ where $x=d_{p}<N^{\delta}$ and $y=k_{p}-1<N^{\alpha+\delta-\frac{1}{2}}$, the parameters $\alpha$ and $\delta$ must satisfy

$$
\delta+\alpha+\delta-\frac{1}{2} \leq \frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}
$$

This leads to $\delta<\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}-\alpha\right)$ and $d_{p}<N^{\delta}<\frac{N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{4}}}{\sqrt{e}}$. Observe that $\alpha+2 \delta<\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$. Plugging in (3), we get

$$
k_{p}<N^{\alpha+\delta-\frac{1}{2}}<N^{\alpha+2 \delta-\frac{1}{2}}<N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}-\frac{1}{2}}<q
$$

Hence, the parameters $d_{p}$ and $k_{p}$ are such that $e d_{p}+k_{p}-1=k_{p} p$ with $k_{p} \not \equiv 0$ $(\bmod q)$. Hence $e d_{p}-1+k_{p} \not \equiv 0(\bmod N)$ which implies that the method of Theorem 4 will give the factorization of $N$ in polynomial time.

Notice that our attack on CRT-RSA works for exponents $e<N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}}$, that is when $e$ is much smaller than $N$. This corresponds to a variant of RSA-CRT proposed by Galbraith, Heneghan and McKee [6] and to another variant proposed by Sun, Hinek and Wu [16]. We want to point out that our new attack improves Bleichenbacher and May's bound [1] where $d_{p}<\min \left\{\frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{N}{e}\right)^{\frac{2}{5}}, \frac{1}{3} N^{\frac{1}{4}}\right\}$ and $d_{q}<\min \left\{\frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{N}{e}\right)^{\frac{2}{5}}, \frac{1}{3} N^{\frac{1}{4}}\right\}$, that is when both $d_{p}$ and $d_{q}$ are suitably small. In other terms, our attack extends Bleichenbacher and May's attack in the sense that only $d_{p}$ (or $d_{q}$ ) is small with $d_{p}<\frac{N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{4}}}{\sqrt{e}}$. On the other hand, the existing results on cryptanalysis of CRT-RSA will directly work on the CRT-RSA variant called Dual CRT-RSA. Consequently, our result improves the latest bounds on dual CRT-RSA obtained by Sarkar and Maitra 13 .

Next, we consider an instance related to CRT-RSA when the public exponent $e$ satisfies an equation $e x=y+z(p-1)$ with suitably small parameters $x, y$ and $z$. We obtain the following result as a corollary of Theorem 4.

Corollary 2. Let $N=p q$ be an RSA modulus with $q<p<2 q$. Suppose $e$ is a public exponent satisfying $e<N$ and ex $=y+z(p-1)$ with

$$
x|z-y|<N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}} \text { and } \operatorname{gcd}(z, q)=1
$$

Then, under Assumption 1, $N$ can be factored in polynomial time.
Proof. Rewrite the equation $e x=y+z(p-1)$ as $e x+z-y=p z$. Assume that $\operatorname{gcd}(z, q)=1, x<N^{\gamma}$ and $|z-y|<N^{\delta}$. Then, by Theorem 4 we can find the factorization of $N$ in polynomial time if $\gamma+\delta \leq \frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}$, that is

$$
x|z-y|<N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}},
$$

which terminates the proof.

## 5 Experimental Results

We have implemented the attack described in Section 4 using the algebra system Maple on a $\operatorname{Intel}(\mathrm{R})$ Core(TM) 2 DUO CPU T5870 @ 2.00GHZ 2.00GHZ, 3.00Go RAM machine. Let us first present a detailed example.

### 5.1 A working example

We choose a 200 -bit $N$ which is a product of two 100 -bit primes $p$ and $q$ satisfying $q<p<2 q$. We also choose a 100-bit $e$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
N & =2746482122383906972393557363644983749146398460239422282612197 \\
e & =1908717316858446782674807627631
\end{aligned}
$$

We suppose that $e$ satisfies $e d_{p}=1+k_{p}(p-1)$ with $d_{p}<\frac{N \frac{\sqrt{2}}{4}}{\sqrt{e}}$. We rewrite this equation as $x_{0}+e y_{0} \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ where $x_{0}=k_{p}-1$ and $y_{0}=d_{p}$. Next, consider the polynomial $f(x, y)=x+e y$. We apply the lattice-based method of Herrmann and May with $m=5$ and $t=2$ as explained in Subsection 2.2. We find that the polynomials $h_{1}(x, y)$ and $h_{2}(x, y)$ share the common factor $407851 x-396114 y$. Solving over the integers, this leads to the solution $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=\left(k_{p}-1, d_{p}\right)=$ $(396114,407851)$. Hence $d_{p}=407851 \approx N^{0.09}$ and $k_{p}=396115 \approx N^{0.09}$. Using $\left(k_{p}, d_{p}\right)$, one can find $p, q$ as

$$
\begin{aligned}
p & =\operatorname{gcd}\left(e d_{p}+k_{p}-1, N\right)=1965268334695819089811552114253 \\
q & =\frac{N}{p}=1397509985733832541423163654649
\end{aligned}
$$

In connection with CRT-RSA, we observe that the private parameter $d_{q}$ satisfying $e d_{q} \equiv 1(\bmod (q-1))$ is $d_{q}=822446363998652526665788028903 \approx N^{0.49}$. This is greater than the bound $\min \left\{\frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{N}{e}\right)^{\frac{2}{5}}, \frac{1}{3} N^{\frac{1}{4}}\right\} \approx N^{0.2}$ obtained by Bleichenbacher and May in [1]. This shows that the technique of [1] will not work here.

### 5.2 Massive experiments

We generated 1000 RSA moduli $N=p q$ with 512-bit primes. For each modulus $N$, we generated a 512-bit exponent $e$ such that $d_{p}<\frac{N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{4}}}{\sqrt{e}}$. The implementation was in all cases successful and it needs approximately 8 secondes to find the factors of the RSA modulus.

We also ran our experiments with random 1024-bit moduli $N=p q$ and various size of $d_{p}$ as follows. We randomly select two distinct 512 -bit primes $p$ and $q$ and a positive integer $d_{p}$ of prescribed size such that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d_{p},(p-1)(q-1)\right)=1$. The exponent $e$ is then calculated as $e \equiv d_{p}^{-1}(\bmod (p-1))$. Observe that $e$ is of size approximately $N^{\frac{1}{2}}$, so that the condition connecting $e$ and $d_{p}$ becomes

$$
d_{p}<\frac{N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{4}}}{\sqrt{e}} \approx N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{4}}
$$

Hence, for a 1024 -bit modulus $N$, the CRT-exponent $d_{p}$ is typically of size at most 110.

In Table 2, we give the details of the computations using the method described in Subsection 2.2 with the lattice parameters $m=4$ and $t=2$.

## 6 Conclusion

In this paper, we presented a new attack on the RSA cryptosystem when the public key $(N, e)$ satisfies an equation $e x+y \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ with the constraint that $|x||y|<N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}}$. We showed that the number of such exponents with $e<N$

| Size of $d_{p}$ | Size of $e$ | Size of $d_{q}$ | LLL execution time |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 10 | 511 | 510 | 5.35 sec |
| 20 | 511 | 508 | 6.49 sec |
| 40 | 511 | 508 | 6.49 sec |
| 80 | 510 | 511 | 11.45 sec |
| 90 | 510 | 510 | 11.80 sec |
| 95 | 512 | 507 | 11.51 sec |
| 100 | 511 | 511 | 11.74 sec |
| 105 | 511 | 511 | 12.18 sec |
| 110 | 502 | 511 | 11.06 sec |

Table 2. Experimental results for various size of $d_{p}$.
is at least $N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}-\varepsilon}$. As an application of our new attack, we presented the cryptanalysis of CRT-RSA if the private exponent $d_{p}$ satisfies $d_{p}<\frac{N^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{4}}}{\sqrt{e}}$ when $p$ and $q$ are of the same bit-size and $e$ is much smaller than $N$. This improves the former result of Bleichenbacher and May for CRT-RSA with small CRT-exponents and balanced primes in the case that the public exponent $e$ is significantly smaller than N .

## References

1. Bleichenbacher, D. and May, A.: New attacks on RSA with small secret CRTexponents. In: Yung, M., Dodis, Y., Kiayias, A., Malkin, T.G. (eds.) PKC 2006. LNCS, vol. 3958, pp. 1-13. Springer, Heidelberg (2006)
2. Blömer, J., May, A.: A generalized Wiener attack on RSA. In Public Key Cryptography - PKC 2004, volume 2947 of Lecture Notes in Computer Science, pp. 1-13. Springer-Verlag (2004)
3. Boneh, D., Durfee, G.: Cryptanalysis of RSA with private key $d$ less than $N^{0.292}$, Advances in Cryptology Eurocrypt'99, Lecture Notes in Computer Science Vol. 1592, Springer-Verlag, pp. 1-11 (1999)
4. Cohen, H.: A Course in Computational Number Theory, Graduate Texts in Mathematics, Springer (1993)
5. Coppersmith, D.: Small solutions to polynomial equations, and low exponent RSA vulnerabilities. Journal of Cryptology, 10(4), pp. 233-260 (1997)
6. Galbraith, S.D., Heneghan, C. and J.F. McKee. Tunable balancing of RSA. In Proceedings of ACISP'05, volume 3574 of Lecture Notes in Computer Science, pp. pp. 280-292 (2005)
7. Hardy, G.H., Wright, E.M.: An Introduction to the Theory of Numbers. Oxford University Press, London (1965)
8. Hastad, J.: Solving simultaneous modular equations of low degree, SIAM J. of Computing, Vol. 17, pp. 336-341 (1988)
9. Herrmann, M. and May, A.: Solving linear equations modulo divisors: On factoring given any bits. J. Pieprzyk (Ed.): ASIACRYPT 2008, LNCS 5350, pp. 406-424 (2008)
10. Howgrave-Graham, N.: Finding small roots of univariate modular equations revisited, In Cryptography and Coding, LNCS 1355, Springer-Verlag, pp. 131-142 (1997)
11. Jochemsz, E. and May, A.: A polynomial time attack on RSA with private CRTexponents smaller than $N^{0.073}$. In: Menezes, A. (ed.) CRYPTO 2007. LNCS, vol. 4622, pp. 395-411. Springer, Heidelberg (2007)
12. Lenstra, A.K., Lenstra, H.W. and Lovász, L.: Factoring polynomials with rational coefficients, Mathematische Annalen, Vol. 261, pp. 513-534 (1982)
13. Maitra, M., Sarkar, S.: Cryptanalysis of Dual CRT-RSA, WCC 2011 - Workshop on Coding and Cryptography, pp. 27-36 (2011)
14. Quisquater, J.J. and Couvreur, C.: Fast decipherment algorithm for RSA public key cryptosystem. Electronic Letters, 18 (21): pp. 905-907, October (1982)
15. Rivest, R., Shamir, A., Adleman, L.: A Method for obtaining digital signatures and public-key cryptosystems, Communications of the ACM, Vol. 21 (2), pp. 120-126 (1978)
16. Sun, H.-M., Hinek, M.J. and Wu, M.-E.: On the design of rebalanced CRT-RSA, Technical Report CACR 2005-35, University of Waterloo (2005)
17. Wiener, M.: Cryptanalysis of short RSA secret exponents, IEEE Transactions on Information Theory, Vol. 36, pp. 553-558 (1990)
