

Crypto!

1. Now let's try a different factoring technique. Let  $p = 13$  and  $q = 31$ . Let  $B = 4$  be a so-called "smoothness" bound. Compute

$$M = \prod_{\ell \text{ prime } \leq B} \ell^{\lfloor \log_{\ell}(B) \rfloor}.$$

2. Continuing from the last step, we have  $n = 13 \cdot 31 = 403$ , but we'll pretend we don't know that factorization. Compute  $d = \gcd(2^M - 1, n)$ . (Note: you can compute  $2^M - 1 \pmod n$  before computing the gcd – this may be easier than computing that larger number in practice!) How does this<sup>1</sup> help us factor  $n$ ?
3. What happens if we tweak  $B$  a little? For example, if we set  $B = 5$  instead, or  $B = 3$ ? Why does this method work sometimes? As a hint, recall that  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod p$  when  $p$  is prime and  $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ .
4. Is it easier to factor  $n$  when  $p - 1$  has lots of small prime factors, or just a few large prime factors using this  $p - 1$  method?

The second technique illustrates just one pitfall to watch out for when implementing cryptosystems - not all primes are just as good for creating difficult numbers  $n$  to factor. In the crypto world, one may call Pollard's  $p - 1$  method an "attack" against RSA, whose security relies on the difficulty of factoring  $n = pq$  when the numbers are large. In practice, the numbers used are a bit too large for this attack to succeed, assuming  $p - 1$  and  $q - 1$  don't have that many small factors, so designers of actual cryptosystems need to keep these sort of technical points in mind.

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<sup>1</sup>This is called Pollard's  $p - 1$  method.