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Bill: Dan Boneh is a **much better theorist** than me. Email me the website and paper and I'll see whats up.

Well pierce my ears and call me drafty! In practice you SHOULD use $e = 2^{2^4} + 1$.

Recall that in RSA Bob must compute m^e . **Bill:** Can do m^e with repeated squaring in **roughly** $\lg_2(m)$ steps. **Practioner:** roughly $\lg_2(m)$ steps? Lets see: $e = 2^{2^4} + 1$: You do the usual repeated squaring m^2 , m^{2^2} , m^{2^3} , ..., $m^{2^{2^4}}$ in 16 steps. Total: 17 steps. $e = 2^{2^4} - 1$: You do the usual repeated squaring m^2 , m^{2^2} , m^{2^3} , ..., $m^{2^{2^4-1}}$ in 15 steps. Then 15 MORE mults. so roughly 30 steps.

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Bill: Only Cheyenne is allowed to call me a moron.

$e = 2^{2^4} + 1$ vs my fears

In Practice: Want to use $e = 2^{2^4} + 1$ since:

- 1. Only 15 mults.
- 2. $2^{2^4} + 1$ is big enough to ward off the low-e attackes
- 3. $2^{2^4} + 1$ is prime, so only way it fails to be rel prime to R = (p-1)(q-1). is if it divides R. Unlikely and easily tested.

In Theory: Do not want to use **the same** *e* over and over again for fear of this being exploited.

Who is Right: $e = 2^{16} + 1$ is right.

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An Early Idea on Factoring: Jevons' Number

In the 1870s William Stanley Jevons wrote of the difficulty of factoring. We paraphrase Solomon Golomb's paraphrase:

Jevons observed that there are many cases where an operation is easy but it's inverse is hard. He mentioned encryption and decryption. He mentioned multiplication and factoring. He anticipated RSA!

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Can the reader say what two numbers multiplied together will produce

$\mathbf{8,616,460,799}$

I think it is unlikely that anyone aside from myself will ever know.

J = 8,616,460,799

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We can now factor J easily. Was Jevons' comment stupid? **Discuss**

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Golomb's Method to Factor Jevons' Number

J = 8,616,460,799

We apply a method of Fermat (in the 1600's) to the problem of factoring J.

To factor J find x, y such that

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

So we must narrow our search for x, y.

Use Mods. Which Mod?

$$J = 8,616,460,799$$

J ends in 99. Hence

$$J \equiv 99 \equiv -1 \pmod{100}$$
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Ah-ha. -1 is small! Mod 100 might be useful.

Golomb's Method to Factor Jevons' Number

J = 8,616,460,799 $J = x^2 - y^2$

$$J \equiv x^2 - y^2 \pmod{100}$$

$$99 \equiv x^2 - y^2 \pmod{100}$$

$$y^2 + 99 \equiv x^2 \pmod{100}$$

$$y^2 \equiv x^2 - 99 \pmod{100}$$

$$y^2 \equiv x^2 + 1 \pmod{100}$$

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 $x^2 + 1 \equiv y^2 \pmod{100}$

Golomb's Works Mod 100

$$x^2 + 1 \equiv y^2 \pmod{100}$$

All squares mod 100:

 $\{00, 01, 04, 09, 16, 21, 24, 25, 29, 36, 41, 44, 49\} \cup$

 $\{56, 61, 64, 69, 76, 81, 84, 89, 96\}$

The only pairs which differ by 1 are (00,01) and (24,25). So either:

1. $x^2 \equiv 0$, so x mod 100 $\in \{10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90\}$, OR

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2. $x^2 \equiv 24$, so x mod $100 \in \{18, 32, 68, 82\}$.

Golomb Works Mod 1000

$$x^2 - J \equiv y^2 \pmod{1000}$$
, hence

$$x^2 + 201 \equiv y^2 \pmod{1000}$$

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If $x \pmod{100} \in \{10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90\}$ then x = 100a + 10bwhere $a \in \mathbb{N}$ and $b \in \{0, \dots, 9\}$. Easy but tedious to show that $b \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. Hence 1. $x^2 \equiv 0$, so $x \mod 100 \in \{20, 40, 60, 80\}$ 2. $x^2 \equiv 24$, so $x \mod 100 \in \{18, 32, 68, 82\}$

Recap

Combine the two sets for $x \pmod{100}$ to get

x (mod 100) \in {18, 20, 32, 40, 60, 68, 80, 82}

Since
$$J = x^2 - y^2$$
, $x^2 = J + y^2$, so
 $x \ge \left\lceil \sqrt{J} \right\rceil = 92824$

Since $J = x^2 - y^2$, $x^2 - J = y^2$, hence

 $x^2 - J = y^2$ a square

Welcome BACK

After those tedious slides we have the next slide.



Golomb's Method to Factor Jevons' Number: $x^2 \ge J$

1.
$$x \pmod{100} \in \{18, 20, 32, 40, 60, 68, 80, 82\}.$$

2. $x \ge \left\lceil \sqrt{J} \right\rceil = 92824.$
3. $x^2 - J = y^2$, a square.

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AH-HA! We take x = 92880, y = 3199.

$$92880^2 - 3199^2 = 8,616,460,799$$

(92880 - 3199)(92880 + 3199) = 8,616,460,799

(89681)(96079) = 8,616,460,799

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A lesson for us all!

Eric's Opinion

 $\mathsf{Eric},$ one of the TA's, when proof reading these slides, said the following:

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Eric's Opinion

Eric, one of the TA's, when proofreading these slides, said the following:

- 1. Reasonable that he didn't realize that computers would get so much better.
- Foolish since J = 8,616,460,799 isn't THAT big. Someone with enough determination could divide J by 2,3,..., [√J]. This is only [√J] = 92825 trial divisions. Leave it to you to see if this is reasonable to finish in (say) 1 year.

Eric's Opinion of Jevons

My TA Eric is double majoring in Math and Economics.



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When he proofread these slides he emailed me:

I've heard of Jevons before because he's also an economist. I am not surprised that he claimed J could not be factored, because the Modus Operandi of 19th century economists is to make bold predictions that are totally wrong.

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Conclusion

- His arrogance: assumed the world would not change much.
- Our arrogance: knowing how much the world did change.

Factoring Algorithms

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Recall Factoring Algorithm Ground Rules

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We only consider algorithms that, given N, find a non-trivial factor of N.

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We leave out the O-of but always mean O-of

Recall Factoring Algorithm Ground Rules

- We only consider algorithms that, given N, find a non-trivial factor of N.
- We measure the run time as a function of lg N which is the length of the input. We may use L for this.
- ▶ We count +, -, ×, ÷ as ONE step. A more refined analysis would count them as (lg x)² steps where x is the largest number you are dealing with.
- We leave out the O-of but always mean O-of
- We leave out the *expected time* but always mean it. Our algorithms are randomized.

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1. Input(N)

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 Input(N)
 For x = 2 to ⌊N^{1/2}⌋ If x divides N then return x (and jump out of loop!).

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This takes time $N^{1/2} = 2^{L/2}$.

 Input(N)
 For x = 2 to ⌊N^{1/2}⌋ If x divides N then return x (and jump out of loop!).

This takes time $N^{1/2} = 2^{L/2}$.

Goal Do much better than time $N^{1/2}$.

 Input(N)
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Goal Do much better than time $N^{1/2}$. **How Much Better?** Ignoring (1) constants, (2) the lack of proofs of the runtimes, and (3) cheating a byte, we have:

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• Easy:
$$N^{1/2} = 2^{L/2}$$
.

 Input(N)
 For x = 2 to ⌊N^{1/2}⌋ If x divides N then return x (and jump out of loop!).

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Goal Do much better than time $N^{1/2}$. **How Much Better?** Ignoring (1) constants, (2) the lack of proofs of the runtimes, and (3) cheating a byte, we have:

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• Easy:
$$N^{1/2} = 2^{L/2}$$
.

• Pollard-Rho Algorithm: $N^{1/4} = 2^{L/4}$.

 Input(N)
 For x = 2 to ⌊N^{1/2}⌋ If x divides N then return x (and jump out of loop!).

This takes time
$$N^{1/2} = 2^{L/2}$$
.

Goal Do much better than time $N^{1/2}$. **How Much Better?** Ignoring (1) constants, (2) the lack of proofs of the runtimes, and (3) cheating a byte, we have:

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• Easy:
$$N^{1/2} = 2^{L/2}$$
.

- Pollard-Rho Algorithm: $N^{1/4} = 2^{L/4}$.
- Quad Sieve: $N^{1/L^{1/2}} = 2^{L^{1/2}}$.

 Input(N)
 For x = 2 to ⌊N^{1/2}⌋ If x divides N then return x (and jump out of loop!).

This takes time
$$N^{1/2} = 2^{L/2}$$
.

Goal Do much better than time $N^{1/2}$. **How Much Better?** Ignoring (1) constants, (2) the lack of proofs of the runtimes, and (3) cheating a byte, we have:

• Easy:
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- Pollard-Rho Algorithm: $N^{1/4} = 2^{L/4}$.
- Quad Sieve: $N^{1/L^{1/2}} = 2^{L^{1/2}}$.

• Number Field Sieve (best known): $N^{1/L^{2/3}} = 2^{L^{1/3}}$.

BILL STOP RECORDING

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