

RSA

en-/decrypt $m^e \bmod p, q \rightarrow c$

$p, q \sim 500$ bits $c^d \bmod p, q \rightarrow m$

complexity $\sim n^2$ or n^3 operations
for n -bit key

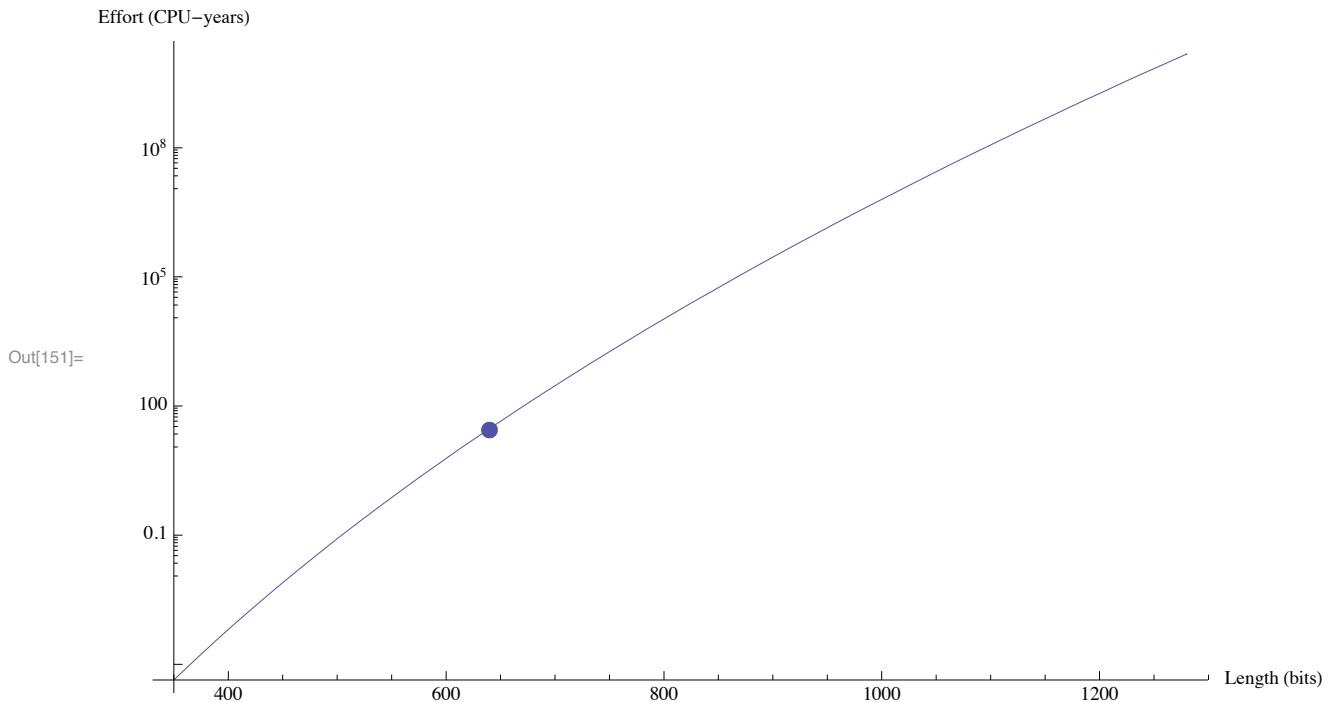
factoring seems to need factoring
& best $\sim e^{\sqrt[3]{c n (\log n)^2}}$

how?

"RSA-640", a 640 bit (193-digits) number was factored in 2005 using 30 CPU-years on a cluster of 2.2 GHz Opterons (5 months elapsed). The graph below extrapolates this to other lengths, assuming complexity scales as:

$$e \sqrt[3]{\frac{64}{9} n \log^2(n)}$$

```
In[150]:= f[n_] := Exp[(64/9 * n * Log[n]^2)^(1/3)]
Show[LogPlot[f[n] / f[640] * 30, {n, 350, 640 * 2},
  AxesLabel -> {"Length (bits)", "Effort (CPU-years)"},
  ListLogPlot[{{640, 30}}, PlotMarkers -> {Automatic, Medium}]]
```



If you're worried about someone spending 30 CPU-years to crack your email chatter, what could you do? *Double your key length.* That will slow en-/decryption by < 8 x (they're sub-cubic algorithms), but slow factoring by 10^8 x.

But ~~is~~ a breakthrough in factoring remains possible

Or a breakthrough in quantum computing
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$$x^{13} = \underbrace{\left(\underbrace{(x^2 \cdot x)^2}_{x^3} \right)^2}_{x^6} \cdot x$$

$$\underbrace{\left(\underbrace{\left(\underbrace{(x^2 \cdot x)^2}_{x^3} \right)^2}_{x^6} \right)^2}_{x^{12}} \cdot x$$

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$x^{(2^k)}$

take k squares

$\text{pow}(x, n, m)$

if $n = 0$ return 1

$y = \text{pow}(x, \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor, m)$

$y = y^2 \pmod m$

if n is odd $y = y \cdot x \pmod m$

return y

mod

Time: linear on length of n

Primality Testing

if n is prime $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
if $a^{n-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ then n is composite
if n is composite then usually $a^{n-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

for $a=2$ there are 22 ~~composites~~

$n < 10,000$ for which $2^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
Try other a ?

n is a Carmichael number

if it's composite and $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
for all a

255 C.N.'s $< 10^8$

composite \equiv "has a factor"

But here (and in many other algorithms) simple \neq best!

Other properties might help?

$$x^2 = 1 \Rightarrow x = \pm 1$$

if p is prime
 $(x^2 \equiv 1) \pmod{p}$ then $x \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
or $x \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$

~~1 + 1 = p~~

These are the only roots.

$$x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

$$p \mid (x^2 - 1)$$

$$p \mid (x-1)(x+1)$$

$$\text{either } p \mid (x-1) \text{ or } p \mid (x+1)$$

$$x \equiv 1 \quad \text{or} \quad x \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$$

$$4^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{15}$$

$$4 \not\equiv 1, \quad 4 \not\equiv -1 \pmod{15}$$

$\therefore 15$ is composite.

\forall composites n (even Carmichael)

① $\exists a$ st either

$$a^{n-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

or

$$y^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{n} \text{ for}$$

some ~~y~~ $y \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{n}$

turns up during

$$\text{pow}(a, n-1, n).$$

② Furthermore $\geq \frac{1}{2}$ of
 a 's $n \mid a \leq n-1$
have this property.

repeat k times,
pick random a
try above
if "composite" say so & quit

end

Declare n "probably Prime"

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Miller-Rabin
Primality
algorithm

Miller-Rabin is fast and simple - widely used.

It has the perhaps disturbing feature that numbers it declares to be "prime" may (with some small probability) actually be composite. But for, say, $k=100$, this error probability is $\leq 2^{-100}$; any algorithm run on a real computer in the real world with real cosmic rays, eg., might also give wrong answers with some small probability.

Final Note: A deterministic algorithm for primality is now known (Agrawal, Kayal, Saxena, 2002). It's somewhat more complex, and slower so less widely used in practice, despite its obvious theoretical advantage. 257