

# CSEP 521: Applied Algorithms

## Lecture 6 Randomized Primality Testing

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# Announcements

- Today is the 21<sup>st</sup> day of the 21<sup>st</sup> year of the 21<sup>st</sup> century

# Primality Testing

- Miller-Rabin test demonstrated importance of randomized algorithm
  - Break through result in 1980
- Depends on number theory (maybe a senior ugrad class)
  - But much of the algorithm can be appreciated without the theory
- The key concept is that of a witness
  - If something is true, a witness always says TRUE
  - If something is false, a witness says TRUE with probability less than  $\frac{1}{2}$

# Primality testing

Is the number:

38,448,590,786,041,766,459,732,220,363,801,744,241,896,763,259,493,887,920,989,231,800,007,262,253,532,084,767,190,  
284,597,690,724,762,898,279,841,570,128,623,506,757,165,008,658,334,072,162,989,430,299,242,002,399,263,948,157,60  
7,441,618,354,889,045,484,455,604,450,713,181,265,743,757,650,808,578,235,094,058,535,442,090,523,274,067,570,229,4  
06,671,451,796,017,542,179,880,527,768,546,296,447,905,493,082,191

prime?

- A number  $p$  is prime if its only proper divisors are 1 and  $p$ , and is composite otherwise
- Small primes {2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37, 41, 43, 47, ...}
- Simple primality testing algorithms
  - Trial division
  - Sieve of Eratosthenes

# Why prime testing is important: cryptography

- RSA public key encryption
  - Relies on factoring “being hard”,  $N = pq$  where  $p$  and  $q$  are prime
  - Recommendation is that  $N$  is 2048 bits with  $p$  and  $q$  roughly 1024 bits
  - 1024 bits is roughly 300 digits
- Need a way to generate “random primes”
  - Guess and check

# Complexity of number problems

- Run time based on size of input
- Input  $N$  has size  $\log_2 N$
- Polynomial time corresponds to polynomial in the size of the number
- Runtime polynomial in  $N$  is exponential in the number of bits

# Bignum computation

- Arithmetic computation on large numbers – hundreds or thousands or millions of digits
- Run time expressed as a function of the number of digits
- Addition of two  $n$ -bit numbers:  $O(n)$
- Multiplication of two  $n$ -bit numbers:  $O(n^2)$  or  $O(n^{3/2})$  or  $O(n \log n \log \log n)$
- Bignum arithmetic implemented by storing numbers in an array of ints
  - 1024 bit number would require an array of 32 ints



# Greatest Common Divisor

- $\text{GCD}(A, B) = D$ , where  $D$  is the largest number that divides both  $A$  and  $B$
- Runs in  $O(n^2)$  time for  $n$  bit numbers

```
function gcd(a, b)
  while b  $\neq$  0
    t := b
    b := a mod b
    a := t
  return a
```

A: 33707, B: 15207

A: 15207, B: 3293

A: 3293, B: 2035

A: 2035, B: 1258

A: 1258, B: 777

A: 777, B: 481

A: 481, B: 296

A: 296, B: 185

A: 185, B: 111

A: 111, B: 74

A: 74, B: 37

A: 37, B: 0

# Prime testing – Idea: Modular arithmetic

- Let  $P$  be prime
- Consider the set of integers  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, P-1\}$  with the operation  $*$ , where multiplication is done mod  $P$
- Can the structure of modular multiplication be used to show  $P$  is prime?
- Set with multiplication mod  $P$  referred to as  $Z_p^*$

|          |          |          |          |          |          |
|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| <b>1</b> | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>6</b> |
| <b>2</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>1</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>5</b> |
| <b>3</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>2</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>1</b> | <b>4</b> |
| <b>4</b> | <b>1</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>2</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>3</b> |
| <b>5</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>1</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>2</b> |
| <b>6</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>2</b> | <b>1</b> |

# Modular multiplication

|    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| 1  | 2  | 3  | 4  | 5  | 6  | 7  | 8  | 9  | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| 2  | 4  | 6  | 8  | 10 | 12 | 1  | 3  | 5  | 7  | 9  | 11 |
| 3  | 6  | 9  | 12 | 2  | 5  | 8  | 11 | 1  | 4  | 7  | 10 |
| 4  | 8  | 12 | 3  | 7  | 11 | 2  | 6  | 10 | 1  | 5  | 9  |
| 5  | 10 | 2  | 7  | 12 | 4  | 9  | 1  | 6  | 11 | 3  | 8  |
| 6  | 12 | 5  | 11 | 4  | 10 | 3  | 9  | 2  | 8  | 1  | 7  |
| 7  | 1  | 8  | 2  | 9  | 3  | 10 | 4  | 11 | 5  | 12 | 6  |
| 8  | 3  | 11 | 6  | 1  | 9  | 4  | 12 | 7  | 2  | 10 | 5  |
| 9  | 5  | 1  | 10 | 6  | 2  | 11 | 7  | 3  | 12 | 8  | 4  |
| 10 | 7  | 4  | 1  | 11 | 8  | 5  | 2  | 12 | 9  | 6  | 3  |
| 11 | 9  | 7  | 5  | 3  | 1  | 12 | 10 | 8  | 6  | 4  | 2  |
| 12 | 11 | 10 | 9  | 8  | 7  | 6  | 5  | 4  | 3  | 2  | 1  |

|    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| 1  | 2  | 3  | 4  | 5  | 6  | 7  | 8  | 9  | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |
| 2  | 4  | 6  | 8  | 10 | 12 | 14 | 1  | 3  | 5  | 7  | 9  | 11 | 13 |
| 3  | 6  | 9  | 12 | 0  | 3  | 6  | 9  | 12 | 0  | 3  | 6  | 9  | 12 |
| 4  | 8  | 12 | 1  | 5  | 9  | 13 | 2  | 6  | 10 | 14 | 3  | 7  | 11 |
| 5  | 10 | 0  | 5  | 10 | 0  | 5  | 10 | 0  | 5  | 10 | 0  | 5  | 10 |
| 6  | 12 | 3  | 9  | 0  | 6  | 12 | 3  | 9  | 0  | 6  | 12 | 3  | 9  |
| 7  | 14 | 6  | 13 | 5  | 12 | 4  | 11 | 3  | 10 | 2  | 9  | 1  | 8  |
| 8  | 1  | 9  | 2  | 10 | 3  | 11 | 4  | 12 | 5  | 13 | 6  | 14 | 7  |
| 9  | 3  | 12 | 6  | 0  | 9  | 3  | 12 | 6  | 0  | 9  | 3  | 12 | 6  |
| 10 | 5  | 0  | 10 | 5  | 0  | 10 | 5  | 0  | 10 | 5  | 0  | 10 | 5  |
| 11 | 7  | 3  | 14 | 10 | 6  | 2  | 13 | 9  | 5  | 1  | 12 | 8  | 4  |
| 12 | 9  | 6  | 3  | 0  | 12 | 9  | 6  | 3  | 0  | 12 | 9  | 6  | 3  |
| 13 | 11 | 9  | 7  | 5  | 3  | 1  | 14 | 12 | 10 | 8  | 6  | 4  | 2  |
| 14 | 13 | 12 | 11 | 10 | 9  | 8  | 7  | 6  | 5  | 4  | 3  | 2  | 1  |

# Zero divisors for integers mod N

- X is a zero divisor if  $AX = 0 \pmod N$  for some  $A \neq 0$
- Fact: X is a zero divisor if and only if  $\text{GCD}(X, N) > 1$

- $Z_N^* = \{ y \text{ in } [1 .. N-1] \mid \text{GCD}(y, N) = 1 \}$

- $|Z_N^*| = \Phi(N)$

|    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| 1  | 2  | 4  | 7  | 8  | 11 | 13 | 14 |
| 2  | 4  | 8  | 14 | 1  | 7  | 11 | 13 |
| 4  | 8  | 1  | 13 | 2  | 14 | 7  | 11 |
| 7  | 14 | 13 | 4  | 11 | 2  | 1  | 8  |
| 8  | 1  | 2  | 11 | 4  | 13 | 14 | 7  |
| 11 | 7  | 14 | 2  | 13 | 1  | 8  | 4  |
| 13 | 11 | 7  | 1  | 14 | 8  | 4  | 2  |
| 14 | 13 | 11 | 8  | 7  | 4  | 2  | 1  |

# Powers of elements

$$P = 7, 11, 13$$

- Compute  $A^1, A^2, A^3, \dots, A^{P-1}$

|   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 4 | 1 |
| 3 | 2 | 6 | 4 | 5 | 1 |
| 4 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 1 |
| 5 | 4 | 6 | 2 | 3 | 1 |
| 6 | 1 | 6 | 1 | 6 | 1 |

|    |   |    |   |    |   |    |   |    |   |
|----|---|----|---|----|---|----|---|----|---|
| 1  | 1 | 1  | 1 | 1  | 1 | 1  | 1 | 1  | 1 |
| 2  | 4 | 8  | 5 | 10 | 9 | 7  | 3 | 6  | 1 |
| 3  | 9 | 5  | 4 | 1  | 3 | 9  | 5 | 4  | 1 |
| 4  | 5 | 9  | 3 | 1  | 4 | 5  | 9 | 3  | 1 |
| 5  | 3 | 4  | 9 | 1  | 5 | 3  | 4 | 9  | 1 |
| 6  | 3 | 7  | 9 | 10 | 5 | 8  | 4 | 2  | 1 |
| 7  | 5 | 2  | 3 | 10 | 4 | 6  | 9 | 8  | 1 |
| 8  | 9 | 6  | 4 | 10 | 3 | 2  | 5 | 7  | 1 |
| 9  | 4 | 3  | 5 | 1  | 9 | 4  | 3 | 5  | 1 |
| 10 | 1 | 10 | 1 | 10 | 1 | 10 | 1 | 10 | 1 |

|    |    |    |   |    |    |    |   |    |    |    |   |
|----|----|----|---|----|----|----|---|----|----|----|---|
| 1  | 1  | 1  | 1 | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1 | 1  | 1  | 1  |   |
| 2  | 4  | 8  | 3 | 6  | 12 | 11 | 9 | 5  | 10 | 7  | 1 |
| 3  | 9  | 1  | 3 | 9  | 1  | 3  | 9 | 1  | 3  | 9  | 1 |
| 4  | 3  | 12 | 9 | 10 | 1  | 4  | 3 | 12 | 9  | 10 | 1 |
| 5  | 12 | 8  | 1 | 5  | 12 | 8  | 1 | 5  | 12 | 8  | 1 |
| 6  | 10 | 8  | 9 | 2  | 12 | 7  | 3 | 5  | 4  | 11 | 1 |
| 7  | 10 | 5  | 9 | 11 | 12 | 6  | 3 | 8  | 4  | 2  | 1 |
| 8  | 12 | 5  | 1 | 8  | 12 | 5  | 1 | 8  | 12 | 5  | 1 |
| 9  | 3  | 1  | 9 | 3  | 1  | 9  | 3 | 1  | 9  | 3  | 1 |
| 10 | 9  | 12 | 3 | 4  | 1  | 10 | 9 | 12 | 3  | 4  | 1 |
| 11 | 4  | 5  | 3 | 7  | 12 | 2  | 9 | 8  | 10 | 6  | 1 |
| 12 | 1  | 12 | 1 | 12 | 1  | 12 | 1 | 12 | 1  | 12 | 1 |







# Idea (that doesn't quite work)

- Theorem: if  $P$  is prime,  $A^{P-1} = 1 \pmod{P}$
- Pick a bunch of numbers at random from  $[1 .. P-1]$ 
  - Compute  $X^{P-1} \pmod{P}$  for each one
  - If all results are 1, then say Prime
  - If at least one of them is not 1, then say Composite

# Carmichael Numbers

What about  $561 = 3 * 11 * 17$

- $2^{560} = 1 \pmod{561}$
  - $4^{560} = 1 \pmod{561}$
  - $5^{560} = 1 \pmod{561}$
  - $7^{560} = 1 \pmod{561}$
  - $8^{560} = 1 \pmod{561}$
  - $10^{560} = 1 \pmod{561}$
  - $14^{560} = 1 \pmod{561}$
  - .....
- Carmichael numbers are rare (but there are an infinite number)
  - Either all numbers in  $Z_N^*$  satisfy  $x^{N-1} = 1 \pmod{N}$  or at most half the numbers in  $Z_N^*$  satisfy  $x^{N-1} = 1 \pmod{N}$

# Witnesses and Certificates

- Certificate  $C$  that can be used to prove a property
  - To show  $N$  is composite, find a number  $A$  such that  $1 < \text{GCD}(A, N) < N$
  - 178 is a Certificate that 11481 is composite
- Is there a certificate for primality?
- Prime Witness
  - A property that always holds for primes
  - A property that only sometimes holds for composites

# Euler Test

- $N - 1 \pmod N = -1 \pmod N$ , so we can think of  $N-1$  as  $-1$  in  $Z^*_N$
- For  $P$  prime,  $a^{(p-1)/2} = 1$  or  $a^{(p-1)/2} = -1$ 
  - Half of the values of  $a$  have  $a^{(p-1)/2} = 1$  and half have  $a^{(p-1)/2} = -1$
- But there are composite numbers that fool the Euler Test
  - $1729 = 7 * 13 * 19$
  - $2^{864} = 1 \pmod{1729}$ ,  $3^{864} = 1 \pmod{1729}$ ,  $4^{864} = 1 \pmod{1729}, \dots$

# Lemma 14.32 (Motwani-Raghavan)

- Let  $N$  an odd composite that is not a power of a prime and suppose that for some  $a$  in  $Z_N^*$ ,  $a^{(N-1)/2} = -1 \pmod N$
- Let  $S$  be the set of numbers  $a$  in  $Z_N^*$  where  $a^{(N-1)/2} = -1 \pmod N$  or  $a^{(N-1)/2} = 1 \pmod N$
- Then  $|S| \leq \frac{1}{2} |Z_N^*|$
- Or in English: if the Euler Test passes with a  $-1$ , then at most half the values fool the test

# Prime Testing Algorithm

1. If  $N$  is perfect power return Composite
2. Choose a bunch of random values  $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_t$  from  $[1..n-1]$
3. If  $\text{GCD}(b_j, N)$  return Composite
4.  $r_j = b_j^{(N-1)/2}$
5. If  $r_j \neq 1$  and  $r_j \neq -1$  return Composite
6. If  $r_j = 1$  for all  $j$  return Composite
7. Return prime

# What could go wrong

- Composite number could fail line 5 and fail line 6 and be called prime
- Prime could be reported as composite on line 6
- Double sided error with failure probability  $2^{-t}$

# Miller-Rabin test

- Determine if  $n$  is prime
- Given an integer  $a$ ,  $1 < a < n$ ,
  - Miller( $n, a$ ) returns either “maybe prime” or “definitely composite”
  - For  $n$  prime, Miller( $n, a$ ) always says “maybe prime”
  - For  $n$  composite, Miller( $n, a$ ) says “maybe prime” with probability at most  $\frac{1}{4}$  for a random  $a$
- By running the Miller test repeatedly, we can make it arbitrary high probability

# Fermat Test

- Fermat's little theorem
  - For prime  $n$ ,  $a^{(n-1)} = 1 \pmod{n}$  for all  $a$
- For most composite numbers, this fails most of the time
- Unfortunately, there are set of composite numbers (Carmichael numbers) that satisfy this
  - {561, 1105, 1729, 2465, 2821, 6601, 8911, 10585, 15841, 29341, 41041, 46657, 52633, 62745, 63973, 75361, 101101, 115921, 126217, 162401, 172081, 188461, 252601, 278545, 294409, 314821, 334153, ...}

# Miller-Rabin test

- For a prime number  $n$ , the only square roots of 1 modulo  $n$ , are 1 and -1
- For  $n = 2^s d + 1$ ,  $a^d = 1 \pmod{n}$  or  $a^{(2^r)d} = -1 \pmod{n}$  for some  $0 \leq r < s$
- For a composite number at most  $\frac{1}{4}$  of values  $a$  satisfy these conditions

# Pseudo-code

Input #1:  $n > 3$ , an odd integer to be tested for primality

Input #2:  $k$ , the number of rounds of testing to perform

Output: “composite” if  $n$  is found to be composite, “probably prime” otherwise

write  $n$  as  $2^r \cdot d + 1$  with  $d$  odd (by factoring out powers of 2 from  $n - 1$ )

WitnessLoop: repeat  $k$  times:

    pick a random integer  $a$  in the range  $[2, n - 2]$

$x \leftarrow a^d \bmod n$

    if  $x = 1$  or  $x = n - 1$  then

        continue WitnessLoop

    repeat  $r - 1$  times:

$x \leftarrow x^2 \bmod n$

        if  $x = n - 1$  then

            continue WitnessLoop

    return “composite”

return “probably prime”

# Other facts on Prime Testing

- Miller-Rabin test is deterministic if Extended Riemann Hypothesis is true
- 2002 a deterministic polynomial time test based on Cyclotomic Polynomials was discovered
  - Agrawal-Kayal-Saxena, IIT Kanpur
  - Not practical (termed galactic algorithm – see Wikipedia)
- Factoring is thought to be harder than primality testing
  - In practice, numbers of about 100 decimal digits are factorable in a few hours on a PC
  - 250 decimal digit (829 bit) RSA keys have been factored (2700 CPU Years)
  - Recommendation for RSA is 2048 bit keys

# RSA

- RSA key is a number  $n=pq$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are prime
- How do you generate random primes of 300 digits?
- Generate random number of 300 digits and test if they are prime
  - Of course, there are simple tricks to avoid small divisors
- Prime number theorem: Probability of a random number less than  $N$  is prime is about  $1/\log N$  (Natural logarithm)
- For 300 digits, this is about 1 in 690