

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 $1 / 2$

Why prime testing is important: cryptography

## Complexity of number problems

- Run time based on size of input

RSA public key encryption

- Relies on factoring "being hard", $\mathrm{N}=\mathrm{pq}$ 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


## Announcements

- Today is the $21^{\text {st }}$ day of the $21^{\text {st }}$ year of the $21^{\text {st }}$ century

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, $284,597,690,724,762,898,279,841,570,128,623,506,757,165,008,658,334,072,162,989,430,299,242,002,399,263,948,157,60$
$7,441,618,354,889,045,484,455,604,450,713,181,265,743,757,650,808,578,235,094,058,535,442,090,523,274,067,570,229,4$ ,441,618,354,889,045,484,455,604,450,713,181,265,743,757,650,808,5
$06,671,451,796,017,542,179,880,527,768,546,296,447,905,493,082,191$

- A number $p$ is prime if its only proper divisors are 1 and $p$, and is composite otherwise
- Small primes $\{2,3,5,7,11,13,17,19,23,29,31,37,41,43,47, \ldots\}$
- Simple primality testing algorithms
- Trial division
- Sieve of Eratosthenes
- Input N has size $\log _{2} \mathrm{~N}$
- 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: $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n})$
- Multiplication of two n -bit numbers: $\mathrm{O}\left(\mathrm{n}^{2}\right)$ or $\mathrm{O}\left(\mathrm{n}^{3 / 2}\right)$ 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


## Exponentiation: Compute $\mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{N}}$

- Do the computation mod M
- $129038105814095380935^{8430981423091243809}$ MOD 10000000000000000000000
- Compute by repeated squaring
- A raised to $2^{\mathrm{K}}$ can be computed in K multiplications


## Greatest Common Divisor

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

|  | A: 33707, B: 15207 |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | A: 15207, B: 3293 |
| function $\operatorname{gcd}(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b})$ | A: 3293, B: 2035 |
| while $\mathrm{b} \neq 0$ | A: 2035, B: 1258 |
| $\mathrm{t}:=\mathrm{b}$ | A: $12578, \mathrm{~B}: 777$ |
| $\mathrm{b}:=\mathrm{a} \bmod \mathrm{b}$ | A: 481, B: 296 |
| a := t | A: $296, \mathrm{~B}: 185$ |
| return a | $\text { A: } 185, \mathrm{~B}: 111$ |
|  | A: $74, \mathrm{~B}: 37$ |
|  | A: 37, B: 0 |

Prime testing - Idea: Modular arithmetic

- Let P be prime
- Consider the set of integers $\{1,2,3, \ldots, P-1\} \quad 1 \begin{array}{lllllll} & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{llllllll}\text { with the operation }{ }^{*} \text {, where multiplication is } & 2 & 4 & 6 & 1 & 3 & 5\end{array}$ done $\bmod P$

Can the structure of modular multiplication be used to show P is prime?

- Set with multiplication mod $P$ referred to as $\begin{array}{llllll}4 & 1 & 5 & 2 & 6 & 3\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{llllll}5 & 3 & 1 & 6 & 4 & 2\end{array}$ $Z^{*}$ p


## Modular multiplication

| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 <br> 2 4 6 8 10 12 1 3 5 7 9 11 <br> 3 6 9 12 2 5 8 11 1 4 7 10 <br> 4 8 12 3 7 11 2 6 10 1 5 9 <br> 5 10 2 7 12 4 9 1 6 11 3 8 <br> 6 12 5 11 4 10 3 9 2 8 1 7 <br> 7 1 8 2 9 3 10 4 11 5 12 6 <br> 8 3 11 6 1 9 4 12 7 2 10 5 <br> 9 5 1 10 6 2 11 7 3 12 8 4 <br> 10 7 4 1 11 8 5 2 12 9 6 3 <br> 11 9 7 5 3 1 12 10 8 6 4 2 <br> 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 <br> 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 1 3 5 7 9 11 13 <br> 3 6 9 12 0 3 6 9 12 0 3 6 9 12 <br> 4 8 12 1 5 9 13 2 6 10 14 3 7 11 <br> 5 10 0 5 10 0 5 10 0 5 10 0 5 10 <br> 6 12 3 9 0 6 12 3 9 0 6 12 3 9 <br> 7 14 6 13 5 12 4 11 3 10 2 9 1 8 <br> 8 1 9 2 10 3 11 4 12 5 13 6 14 7 <br> 9 3 12 6 0 9 3 12 6 0 9 3 12 6 <br> 10 5 0 10 5 0 10 5 0 10 5 0 10 5 <br> 11 7 3 14 10 6 2 13 9 5 1 12 8 4 <br> 12 9 6 3 0 12 9 6 3 0 12 9 6 3 <br> 13 11 9 7 5 3 1 14 12 10 8 6 4 2 <br> 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 $A X=0 \bmod N$ for some $A!=0$
- Fact: X is a zero divisor if and only if $\operatorname{GCD}(\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{N})>1$
- $Z^{*}{ }_{N}=\{y$ in [1.. N-1] | GCD $(y, N)=1\}$
- $\left|Z^{*}{ }_{N}\right|=\Phi(N)$

| 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 |




Idea (that doesn't quite work)

- Theorem: if P is prime, $\mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{P}-1}=1(\bmod \mathrm{P})$
- Pick a bunch of numbers at random from [1 .. P-1]
- Compute $\mathrm{X}^{\mathrm{P}-1}$ mod 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 $561=3 * 11 * 17$

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


## Witnesses and Certificates

- Certificate C that can be used to prove a property
- To show $N$ is composite, find a number $A$ such that $1<G C D(A, N)<N$
- 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

- $\mathrm{N}-1 \bmod \mathrm{~N}=-1 \bmod \mathrm{~N}$, so we can think of $\mathrm{N}-1$ as -1 in $\mathrm{Z}^{*}{ }_{\mathrm{N}}$
- For P prime, $\mathrm{a}^{(\mathrm{p}-1) / 2}=1$ or $\mathrm{a}^{(\mathrm{p}-1) / 2}=-1$
- 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
- $2^{864}=1 \bmod 1729,3^{864}=1 \bmod 1729,4^{864}=1 \bmod 1729, \ldots$


## 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 $Z^{*}{ }_{N}, a^{(N-1) / 2}=-1 \bmod N$
- Let $S$ be the set of numbers $a$ in $Z^{*}{ }_{N}$ where $a^{(N-1) / 2}=-1 \bmod N$ or $a^{(N-1) / 2}=1 \bmod N$
- Then $|S|<=1 / 2\left|Z^{*}{ }_{N}\right|$
- 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
. Choose a bunch of random values $b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{t}$ from [1..n-1]
2. If $\mathrm{GCD}\left(\mathrm{b}_{\mathrm{j}}, \mathrm{N}\right)$ return Composite
3. $r_{j}=b_{j}^{(N-1) / 2}$
4. If $r_{j}!=1$ and $r_{j}!=-1$ return Composite
5. If $r_{j}=1$ for all $j$ return Composite
6. 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 $2^{-\mathrm{t}}$


## 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, $\operatorname{Miller}(\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{a})$ always says "maybe prime"
- For $n$ composite, Miller( $n, a)$ says "maybe prime" with probability at most $1 / 4$ 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 $n, a^{(n-1)}=1(\bmod n)$ 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 $n=2^{s} d+1, a^{d}=1(\bmod n)$ or $a^{\left(2^{\wedge} r\right) d}=-1(\bmod n)$ for some $0<=r<s$
- For a composite number at most $1 / 4$ 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 $2 \cdot \cdot d+1$ with d odd (by factoring out powers of 2 from $n-1$ )
WitnessLoop: repeat k times:
pick a random integer a in the range $[2, n-2]$
$x \leftarrow a^{d} \bmod n$
continue WitnessLoop
repeat $r-1$ times:
$x \leftarrow x^{2}$ mod $n$
$x=n$
$x \leftarrow x^{2} \bmod n$
if $x=n-1$ then
$x=n-1$ then
continue WitnessLoo
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 then 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 key is a number $n=p q$, 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 $1 / \log \mathrm{N}$ (Natural logarithm)
- For 300 digits, this is about 1 in 690

