# Théorie algorithmique des nombres Cours no. 10

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- Algorithmic number theory.
  - Probabilistic primality testing
  - Application to prime-number generation.

#### Goal

- Given an integer n, determine whether n is prime or composite.
- Simplest algorithm: trial division.
  - Test if *n* is divisible by 2, 3, 4, 5,... We can stop at  $\sqrt{n}$ .
  - Algorithm determines if *n* is prime or composite, and outputs the factors of *n* if *n* is composite.
- Very inefficient algorithm
  - Requires around  $\sqrt{n}$  arithmetic operations.
  - If *n* has 256 bits, then 2<sup>128</sup> arithmetic operations. If 2<sup>30</sup> operations/s, this takes 10<sup>22</sup> years !

- Goal: describe an efficient probabilistic primality test.
  - Can test primality for a 512-bit integer *n* in less than a second.
- Probabilistic primality testing.
  - The algorithm does not find the factors of *n*.
  - The algorithm may make a mistake (pretend that an integer *n* is prime whereas it is composite).
  - But the mistake can be made arbitrarily small (*e.g.* < 2<sup>-100</sup>, so this makes no difference in practice.

- Let  $\pi(x)$  be the number of primes in the interval [2, x].
- Theorem (Prime number theorem)
  - We have  $\pi(x) \simeq x/\log x$ .
- Fact (approximation of the *n*-th prime number)
  - Let  $p_n$  denote the *n*-th prime number. Then  $p_n \simeq n \cdot \log n$ . More explicitely,

 $n \log n < p_n < n(\log n + \log \log n)$  for  $n \ge 6$ 

## The Fermat test

- Fermat's little theorem
  - If *n* is prime and *a* is an integer between 1 and n-1, then  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod n$ .
  - Therefore, if the primality of n is unknown, finding a ∈ [1, n − 1] such that a<sup>n−1</sup> ≠ 1 mod n proves that n is composite.
- Fermat primality test with security parameter t.

For i = 1 to t do Choose a random  $a \in [2, n - 2]$ Compute  $r = a^{n-1} \mod n$ If  $r \neq 1$  then return "composite" Return "prime'

#### Analysis of Fermat's test

- Let  $L_n = \{a \in [1, n-1] : a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod n\}$
- Theorem:
  - If *n* is prime, then  $L_n = \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ . If *n* is composite and  $L_n \subsetneq \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ , then  $|L_n| \le (n-1)/2$ .
- Proof:
  - If *n* is prime,  $L_n = \mathbb{Z}_n^*$  from Fermat.
  - If n is composite, since L<sub>n</sub> is a sub-group of Z<sub>n</sub><sup>\*</sup> and the order of a subgroup divides the order of the group, |Z<sub>n</sub><sup>\*</sup>| = m ⋅ |L<sub>n</sub>| for some integer m.

$$|L_n| = \frac{1}{m} |\mathbb{Z}_n^*| \le \frac{1}{2} |\mathbb{Z}_n^*| \le \frac{n-1}{2}$$

- If *n* is composite and  $L_n \subsetneq \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ 
  - then  $a^{n-1} = 1 \mod n$  with probability at most 1/2 for a random  $a \in [2, n-2]$ .
  - The algorithm outputs "prime" wih probability at most  $2^{-t}$ .
- Unfortunately, there are odd composite numbers *n* such that  $L_n = \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ .
  - Such numbers are called Carmichael numbers. The smallest Carmichael number is 561.
  - Carmichael numbers are rare, but there are an infinite number of them, so we cannot ignore them.

### The Miller-Rabin test

- The Miller-Rabin test is based on the following fact:
  - Let n be a prime > 2, let n − 1 = 2<sup>s</sup> · r where r is odd. Let a be any integer such that gcd(a, n) = 1. Then either a<sup>r</sup> ≡ 1 mod n or a<sup>2<sup>j</sup> · r</sup> ≡ −1 mod n for some j, 0 ≤ j ≤ s − 1.

Proof:

- Since *n* is prime,  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod n$ .
- Consider the minimum  $0 \le j \le s 1$  such that  $a^{r \cdot 2^{j+1}} \equiv 1 \mod n$ . Let  $\beta := a^{r \cdot 2^j} \mod n$
- Then β<sup>2</sup> ≡ 1 mod n. We must have β = ±1 because a polynomial of degree 2 has at most two roots over Z<sub>n</sub> for n prime.

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Write n-1=2^s \cdot r for odd r.
For i = 1 to t do
  Generate a random a \in [2, n-2]. Let \beta \leftarrow a^r \mod n.
  If \beta \neq 1 and \beta \neq -1 do
     i \leftarrow 1.
     While i < s - 1 and \beta \neq -1 do
        Let \beta \leftarrow \beta^2 \mod n
        If \beta = +1 return "composite"
        i \leftarrow i+1
     If \beta \neq -1 return "composite"
Return "prime"
```

## The Miller-Rabin test

- Property
  - If *n* is prime, then the Miller-Rabin test always declares *n* as prime.
  - If n ≥ 3 is composite, then the probability that the Miller-Rabin test outputs "prime" is less than (<sup>1</sup>/<sub>4</sub>)<sup>t</sup>
- Most widely used test in practice.
  - With t = 40, error probability less than  $2^{-80}$ . Much less than the probability of a hardware failure.
  - Can test the primality of a 512-bit integer in less than a second.
  - Complexity:  $\mathcal{O}(\log^3 n)$

- $\bullet\,$  To generate a prime integer of size  $\ell\,$  bits
  - Generate a random integer n of size  $\ell$  bits
  - Test its primality with Miller-Rabin.
  - If *n* is declared prime, output *n*, otherwise generate another *n* again.