Project proposal for Cpr E 583

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***Abstract*—This paper outlines a project proposal to hardware accelerate the generation of a chain of large prime numbers, known as a Cunningham chain, on an FPGA. The motivation for this project came from a cryptocurrency called Primecoin, specifically its proof-of-work. Primecoin accepts as a proof-of-work a Cunningham chain of the first or second kind, as well as a Bi-twin chain. Due to this proof-of-work, there have been little public success with hardware acceleration of the mining of this cryptocurrency, providing proof that such a problem is not an easy one to attempt.**

The core problems of this project would be the generation of Cunningham chain prime number candidates, and the validation of the candidates as being prime. Using the equation to describe Cunningham chains, the candidates can be generated very quickly. Validation would be performed using a probabilistic test of primality, specifically the Rabin-Miller primality test, as the team does not fully understand the math behind the fast deterministic algorithm to test for primality.

***Index Terms*—FPGA, primality test, Cunningham chain.**

I. Introduction

CRYPTOCURRENCIES have been around for some time, though it did not enter popular thought until the creation of Bitcoin, with the paper outlining Bitcoin being published in 2008. Since then many new and interesting cryptocurrencies have been created following Bitcoin's example. Cryptocurrencies such as Litecoin, Dogecoin, Vertcoin, and Primecoin, are a subset of what are called alt-coins, or alternative coins, so called for being an alternative to Bitcoin. In regards to this project proposal, the alt-coin Primecoin is of interest. In order to explain the interest given to Primecoin, it is imperative that the reader understand how cryptocurrencies work, at least at the conceptual level.

A. High level explanation of cryptocurrencies

Cryptocurrencies are a form of digital currency, that is similar to physical currency. Unlike physical currency, however, cryptocurrencies use programs, called wallets, as a means for individuals to transfer cryptocurrencies to each other. Each wallet has an address that is used for the sending and receiving of funds. Another thing that these wallets have is what is called the block chain. The block chain holds information of all the transactions using the specified cryptocurrency. For example, a wallet for Bitcoin will hold an address that can only receive Bitcoins, and it will contain the Bitcoin block chain. Similarly, a wallet for Primecoin or Vertcoin would have addresses specific to each coin, and contain their respective block chains.

Suppose an individual A wants to transfer an arbitrary amount of currency to another user B of the same coin, then A would generate a message that includes their wallet address, B's wallet address, the amount to send, and a few extra pieces of information. B checks the block chain to see if A has that amount to spend, if A does, then B would accept the transaction. A then appends this message to the end of the block chain. Once the message is appended, the updated block chain is broadcasted from A's wallet through the peer-to-peer network of wallets. Once the updated block chain is broadcasted, the network then attempts to verify the new transaction through what is called mining.

The details of the process of mining is potentially different between coins, but one aspect of mining is present in all cryptocurrencies and that is called proof-of-work. Proof-of-work is a way for the network to guarantee that the verification of transactions are not haphazard and that there was some effort put into the verification. Generally, the proof-of-work is an algorithm chosen by the developers of the coin with the property that the algorithm is hard or computationally intensive to perform, but very easy to verify.

This project is interested in the proof-of-work aspect of Primecoin. Where most cryptocurrencies define a specific algorithm, Primecoin defines its proof-of-work to be a result. Primecoin defines its proof of work to be a sequence of prime numbers, more specifically, Cunningham chains of the first or second kinds, and Bi-twin chains.[4] Due to such a proof-of-work, and its definition, there has been very little success at hardware acceleration of such a proof-of-work. The seemingly lack of success at hardware acceleration of such a proof-of-work is due in part to the lack of a defined algorithm to accelerate, along with the fact that verification of prime numbers is quite a hard problem in itself.

With such a problem in mind, the goal of this project is to attempt to perform hardware acceleration on the process of the generation of Cunningham chain prime number candidates and the validation of these candidates in the hopes of generating a Cunningham chain of the first kind.

II. Core Problems

After researching the topic of prime number generation and verification, we have identified three main core problems that need to be solved:

A. Generation of Cunningham Chains

A Cunningham chain, named after the mathematician A.J.C. Cunningham and sometimes called a chain of nearly doubled primes, is a certain sequence of prime numbers such that the following property is true:

$$a_{i+1} = (2^i)a_i \pm (2^i - 1)$$

Where a_0 is a prime number seed. Furthermore, Cunningham chains can be categorized as being of the first or second kind. Cunningham chains of the first kind are described as follows:

$$a_{i+1} = (2^i)a_i + (2^i - 1)$$

Again, a_0 is the prime number seed for the chain. Cunningham chains of the second kind are described as follows:

$$a_{i+1} = (2^i)a_i - (2^i - 1)$$

Cunningham chains of the first kind generate what are called Sophie Germain primes, which is defined as:

A prime number p is a Sophie Germain prime if 2p + 1 is also prime.

The value 2p + 1 that is generated from a Sophie Germain prime is called a safe prime. A Cunningham chain is called **complete** if the chain can no longer be extended. Using a Cunningham chain of the first kind, candidates can be quickly generated with very little computational overhead. This is due to the fact that each a_{i+1} is effectively $2a_i + 1$, or $2a_i - 1$. The simplest approach to this problem would be to take the previously generated candidate, shift it to the left by one bit, and add or subtract 1 to the result. This will be the approach to generating the candidates.

B. Generation of Prime Numbers

The problem of generating prime numbers ultimately boils down to determining if a given number has any factors apart from 1 and the number itself. Over the years, multiple factorisation algorithms have been developed to tackle this problem. Alternatively, sieve techniques don't require complex mathematics and are used to find prime numbers within a certain range. Since an immense amount of parallelization can be achieved with a seive-based technique, they are ideal for hardware implementation.

1) The sieve of Eratosthenes: The sieve of Eratosthenes is an ancient and simple algorithm to find all prime numbers up to any given limit. The following describes the algorithm:

1) Create a list of consecutive integers from 2 through n.
2) Let p equal to 2, the first prime number.
3) Starting from p, mark all the multiples of p in the list by counting to n in increments of p.
4) Find the number greater than p in the list that is NOT marked. If there was not such a number, stop. Otherwise, let p equal this new number which is the next prime number and repeat from step 3.

2) Related work: Using dynamic reconfigurable logic
M. Saleeba and R. Pose from Monash University in Australia implemented a sieve-based algorithm to generate prime numbers using dynamically reconfigurable logic[6]. This project was primarily implemented on the DRAMA research tool to demonstrate the tool's powerful features including runtime reconfigurability. In the algorithm of the implementation, prime numbers are essentially generated by checking each successive integer for divisibility by each prime number less than equal to its square root. Any integer with no primes is added to the list of potential primes. A re-sizeable logic array is used to append units that check divisibility of the number-in-test by prime factors discovered during the process.

The algorithm consists of two stages: candidate generation and candidate verification. In the candidate generation stage, algorithm counts upwards through the integers and tests the primality of a new integer on each clock cycle. At a given instance, primality is checked against prime factors that have been discovered by the algorithm thus far. Numbers that are not multiples of the factors present in the logic array are stored in a buffer for prime number candidates. The prime factors in the logic array are termed as "low-value primes." When the buffer for prime number candidates fills up, the candidate generation stage ends and the control is passed to the candidate verification stage. It enters the candidate verfication stage in which the candidate is tested against groups of "high-value primes." The candidates that are not multiples of these high-value primes are stored in the final destination buffer. With the detection of every new prime factor, a new unit that tests for divisibility by the new prime factor is added to the logic array during run time. The basic hardware structure for each of the stages has been described in the paper.

Using FPGA
P. Szecowka and W. Buszko from Wroclaw University of Technology in Poland designed a specialized digital hardware to implement prime number generation. Furthermore, they also integrated an ethernet interface to provide external control of the computing machine from a desktop computer. The system could either verify the primality of a given number or generate prime numbers from a given range. Their computational design was implemented on a Xilinx Spartan 3E FPGA operating at 54 MHz.

Their algorithm was a very straigtforward one. For a given number, a search for its factors is done and the upper limit of the search space is reduced to the square root of the given number. First, and odd-or-even check is performed on the given number. Then, using two variables, *a* and *b*, which are both initialized to 3, a series of computational iterations are performed. *b* is increased by 2 with *a* following its previous value until the square of *b* exceeds the input number. After a series of multiplication between *(*a) and incremental (by 2) values of *b*, another series of multiplaction operations are performed between decremental (by 2) values of *a* and *b*. If any of the multiplication results are not equal to the given number, the number is declared as prime[5].

For RSA encryption/decryption
C. Torng and Y. Lee from Cornell University implemented a prime nunmber generator and RSA encrypter/decrypter using the Altera DE2 FPGA. The prime number generation was based on the Miller-Rabin primality test to search for prime numbers. They fed in pseudo-randomly generated odd numbers to the test to "generate" prime numbers. We have described the Miller-Rabin test in the following section.

3) Proposed Approach: For our project, the ultimate aim is to generate a Cunningham chain and hence, the generaion of prime numbers would essentially mean computing 2*p* + 1 where *p* is the seed given by the user. All the prime number generation techniques described above are essentially verification techniques and hence conducting research on prime number generation techniques will serve useful in the prime number validation stage of our project.

C. Verification of Generated Prime Numbers

Since the prime number generators work on the principal of generating numbers that has a reasonably high probability of being prime, the numbers must be verified to insure that they are actually prime. This is a very resource intensive problem since it requires testing if the potential prime number number is evenly divisible by a set of numbers. Since it is prohibitively expensive to test if large prime numbers are definitively prime, probabilistic methods have been developed that will determine if a number is prime with a high probability. One of these probability methods of determining if a number is prime is called the Rabin-Miller primality test.

1) Rabin-Miller Primality Test: The Rabin-Miller primality test is a probabilistic method of determining if a number is prime. The algorithm is based around the idea of testing if a number in question is divisible by a subset of small primes. If it is not divisible by any of the small primes in the set then it is a prime number with a probability that is determined by the number of small primes in the set. The larger the set of small prime numbers is allows for the primality of the number in question to be determined with greater confidence. Since the probability of correctly identifying a prime number is directly related to the number of small primes tested again the test number, the accuracy of the Rabin-Miller primality test can be easily customized. [1]

Now to dive into the theory of the Rabin-Miller primality test. The Rabin-Miller theory is based on the contrapositive of Fermat's little theorem which states that for a prime number *n*:

$$a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

Therefore, the Rabin-Miller primality test can show that a number is not prime for a number *n* if we can find a number *a* such that:

$$a^d \bmod n \not\equiv 1 \; or \; (n-1)$$

and

$$a^{2^r d} \bmod n \not\equiv (n-1)$$

for all $0 \leq r \leq s-1$, then *n* is not prime if any such case is found. [3]

The Rabin-Miller Primality test is a good test to implement on hardware since the test can be parallelized by testing many small primes again the number in question concurrently and the math operations involved would be fairly expense in terms of cycles if implemented in software because of its sequential nature. Since we are attempting to implement this design in hardware let's first examine how to do the modulus operation in hardware.

One way to implement a modulus operation in hardware is to use the Montgomery algorithm to perform a modulo-multiply. These modulo-multiply operations can then be repeatedly run to perform an modular exponentiation. One potential issue with the modular exponentiation module is that it needs a pre-computed constant $(2^{2n} \bmod M)$ to function. This isn't the worst thing since M is the number we are testing if it is prime and n is simply the number of bits in the multiplier. Therefore, this constant will be reused plenty when testing if a single number is prime.

As it turns out there are multiple ways to implement a Montgomery algorithm. The two major approaches are performing the multiplication first and then taking the modulus of the result or the other option is to do the multiplication and module operations in parallel. Since we are trying to implement this as efficiently as possible in hardware we will just focus on the designs that perform the multiplication and module operations in parallel. There are also many different ways to implement the multipliers used in the Montgomery algorithm. For brevities sake I will just discuss one of them here. For more information on some of the other possible configurations for the multipliers, please refer to reference: [2].

Before I dive into the architecture for the Montgomery multiplier I am going to discuss, it is important to understand the theory behind its operation. A Montgomery multiplier works on the principal of using the fact that normal multiplication accumulates digit products in the intermediate steps of its operation and does modular reductions for this digit product as the multiplication operation is occurring. This is done by using the least significant bits of the intermediate result and performs an addition and shift operation on it to arrive at the next bit of the modular product result.

Here is one possible algorithm that can be used to perform modular multiplication when the operation is $(A*B)\ mod\ M$.

```
Montgomery_Mod_Mult(A,B,M)
{
```

```
    S[0] = 0;
    A = 2*A;

    for{i=1; i <= n+1; i++}{
      q[i] = S[i-1] mod 2; //LSB of S[i-1]
      S[i] = (S[i-1] + q[i]*M + b[i]*A)/2;
    }
    return S;
}
```

Now that we have some understanding for the algorithm behind a Montgomery multiplication we can move on to discussing a possible hardware implementation. One way to break this problem down is to focus on the two addition and two multiplication operations that are performed every round. We can break the problem down into an addition of $2A * b[i] + S[i-1]$ and $q[i] * M$ added to the sum of the previous operation. We can simplify the divide by two operation to simply eliminating the LSB from the next addition operation. Figure 1 portrays a block diagram for this particular implementation of the Montgomery multiplier.

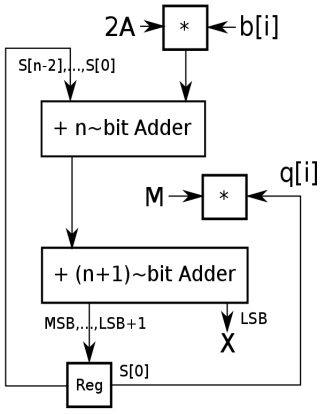

Fig. 1. Montgomery Multiplier Block Diagram

Once the Montgomery multiplier is built, it is fairly easy to use the use the design to do exponential modulus operations as well. This is done by feeding the end result from the Montgomery multiplier back in as an input and repeating this pattern as many times as needed to arrive at the correct answer for the desired power. This is most clearly shown with an example.

$$32^3 \ mod \ 7 = 32 * ((32 * 32) \ mod \ 7) \ mod \ 7$$

To perform the given operation with the Montgomery multiplier, the first round of inputs would be:

$$A = 32, \quad B = 32, \quad M = 7$$

For the second round:

$$A = (previous \ result), \quad B = 32, \quad M = 7$$

Therefore, to perform a exponential modulus operation requires $(exponential \ \ power) - 1$ operations to complete using a single Montgomery multiplier.

There is another advantage to the algorithm chosen for verifying prime numbers. The $a^{2^r d} \not\equiv (n-1)$ operation for all $0 \leq r \leq s-1$ can be performed by simply starting up the operation for $a^{2^{s-1} d}$ and comparing the results continuously at the correct cycle counts to determine if the number is prime. This saves the design from the penalty that would be occurred if the operation would have to be restarted for every new value of r.

III. Conclusion

Producing Cunningham chains is a very computationally intensive problem that can be greatly parallelized. This type of problem is perfectly suited for an FPGA. Also, there is great value in producing Cunningham chains. Cunningham chains are greatly valued for in the fields of prime number research and cryptocurrency. Also, very large validated prime numbers are critical in many areas of the security field. Through this project we hope to make our own small but meaningful contribution to these areas.

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