# UC SANTA CRUZ

## Math 134: Cryptography

Lecture 9: Choosing primes for RSA

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**Last Time** 

We ended last time arguing that the security of RSA encryption is closely related to the problem of integer factorization:

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We could try to divide to divide n by  $1, 2, ..., \sqrt{n}$ . If n is composite, then there will be a prime number in this list.

If there are d digits in the binary expansion of n, then

$$2^{d-1} \le n < 2^d.$$

So this requires performing approximately  $2^{d/2} = \sqrt{2^d}$  divisions, giving  $\mathcal{O}(2^{d/2}d^2)$  bit operations in total.

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In general, all of these algorithms have some difficulty factoring large integers on modern computers.

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We'll start with the following problem:

### **Primality Decision Problem**

Let n > 1 be an integer. Determine if n is prime or composite.

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#### **Primality Decision Problem**

Let n > 1 be an integer. Determine if n is prime or composite.

#### Definition

An algorithm that solves the Primality Decision Problem is called a primality test.

Any algorithm that solves the Integer Factorization Problem also gives a solution to the Primality Decision Problem.

However, it's often easier to test for primality than it is to find a factorization of a given integer.

#### Recall the theorem:

#### Theorem (Fermat's Little Theorem)

Let p be a prime number. Then for any integer  $a\in\mathbb{Z}$  with  $p\nmid a,$  we have

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

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.

Using this we can get the following:

#### Fermat Primality Test

Let n > 1 be an integer. Suppose that there exists an integer  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{n}$  such that

$$a^{n-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$
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Then n is composite.

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#### Remark

Note that if there exists an integer  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{n}$  such that  $a^{n-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , then we have determined that n is composite without having determined a proper divisor of n.

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#### Remark

Strictly speaking, the Fermat Primality Test does not solve the Primality Decision Problem. Notably, if we find an integer a with  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  then we can not determine that n is prime.

### Example

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Let 
$$n = 33$$
. We have  $n - 1 = 32 = 2^5$ .

$$3^2 \equiv 9 \pmod{33}$$

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 $3^{32} \equiv 9$  (mod 33)

The Fermat Primality Test implies that n=33 is composite, which we knew since  $33=3\cdot 11$ .

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$$a^{n-1} \equiv 2^{560} \equiv 1 \pmod{561}$$

but we will see that n is composite (i.e.  $n = 3 \cdot 11 \cdot 17$ ).

There is an improvement of the Fermat Primality Test called the Miller-Rabin Primality Test.

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Before we see this improvement, we need the following lemma:

#### Lemma

Let n > 1 be an integer and suppose that there exists  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  with

$$x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$$
 and  $x \not\equiv \pm y \pmod{n}$ .

Then n is composite and gcd(x - y, n) gives a nontrivial factor of n.

#### Lemma

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Since  $x \not\equiv y \pmod{n}$ , we find  $x - y \not\equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ . So  $\gcd(x - y, n) < n$ .

If gcd(x - y, n) = 1, then we could divide to find  $x + y \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ . But, since  $x \not\equiv -y \pmod{n}$ , we must have  $x + y \not\equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ .

Miller-Rabin Primality Test	

### Miller-Rabin Primality Test

Let n > 1 be an odd integer. Write  $n - 1 = 2^k m$  with  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$  odd and  $k \ge 1$ . Let 1 < a < n - 1 be another integer. Set  $b_0 \equiv a^m \pmod{n}$ .

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If  $b_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  then n is composite. If  $b_2 \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$  then n is probably prime. Otherwise, set  $b_3 \equiv b_2^2 \pmod{n}$ .

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Else, let  $b_1 \equiv b_0^2 \pmod{n}$ . If  $b_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , then n is composite and  $gcd(b_0 - 1, n)$  gives a nontrivial factor of n. (Lemma)

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If  $b_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  then n is composite. If  $b_2 \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$  then n is probably prime. Otherwise, set  $b_3 \equiv b_2^2 \pmod{n}$ .

Continue until stopping or reaching  $b_{k-1}$ . If  $b_{k-1} \not\equiv -1 \pmod{n}$  and k > 1 then n is composite.

### Example

Let n = 561 and a = 2. Note  $n - 1 = 560 = 2^4 \cdot 35$ .

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$$2^{32} \equiv 103 \pmod{561}$$

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$$2^8 \equiv 256 \pmod{561}$$
$$2^{16} \equiv 460 \pmod{561}$$
$$2^{32} \equiv 103 \pmod{561}$$
$$2^{35} \equiv 8 \cdot 103 \equiv 263 \pmod{561}$$

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We set  $b_0 = 263$ .

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We set  $b_0=263$ . Since  $b_0\not\equiv\pm1$  (mod 561), we square to get  $b_1\equiv b_0^2\equiv166$  (mod 561).

### Example

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$$2^{32}\equiv 103\pmod {561}$$
 
$$2^{35}\equiv 8\cdot 103\equiv 263\pmod {561}$$

We set  $b_0=263$ . Since  $b_0\not\equiv\pm1$  (mod 561), we square to get  $b_1\equiv b_0^2\equiv166$  (mod 561). Continuing:

$$b_1 \equiv 166 \pmod{561}$$

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We set  $b_0 = 263$ . Since  $b_0 \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{561}$ , we square to get  $b_1 \equiv b_0^2 \equiv 166 \pmod{561}$ . Continuing:

$$b_1 \equiv 166 \pmod{561}$$
  
 $b_2 \equiv 67 \pmod{561}$ 

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We set  $b_0 = 263$ . Since  $b_0 \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{561}$ , we square to get  $b_1 \equiv b_0^2 \equiv 166 \pmod{561}$ . Continuing: 
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### Example

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We set  $b_0 = 263$ . Since  $b_0 \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{561}$ , we square to get  $b_1 \equiv b_0^2 \equiv 166 \pmod{561}$ . Continuing:

$$b_1 \equiv 166 \pmod{561}$$
  
 $b_2 \equiv 67 \pmod{561}$   
 $b_3 \equiv 1 \pmod{561}$ .

So gcd(67 - 1, 561) = 33 is a divisor of 561.

### Definition

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### Example

We saw that 561 was a pseudoprime to base 2 but not a strong pseudoprime to base 2.

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We saw that 561 was a pseudoprime to base 2 but not a strong pseudoprime to base 2.

### Example

4097 is a strong pseudoprime to base 8, but not to base 2 or 4.

Fix an integer n > 4. Let

 $W_n = \{b : 1 < b < n, \text{ and } n \text{ is a strong pseudoprime to base } b\}.$ 

Rabin<sup>1</sup> proved that if *n* is composite, then  $\#W_n \le n/4$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Probabalistic Algorithm for Testing Primality. Journal of Number Theory **12**, 128–138 (1980)

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### Corollary

Let n > 4 be a composite integer.

Assume that the integers  $b \in W_n$  are randomly and uniformly distributed among (1, n). Let  $a \in (1, n)$  be a random integer.

Then the Miller-Rabin Primality Test for a falsely claims that n is prime with probability at most 1/4.

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### Corollary

Let n > 4 be a composite integer.

Assume that the integers  $b \in W_n$  are randomly and uniformly distributed among (1, n). Let  $a_1, ..., a_k \in (1, n)$  be k randomly selected integers.

Then the Miller-Rabin Primality Test for  $a_1, ..., a_k$  falsely claims that n is prime with probability at most  $(1/4)^k$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Probabalistic Algorithm for Testing Primality. Journal of Number Theory **12**, 128–138 (1980)

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- If m is not confirmed to be composite, then Bob can run the Miller-Rabin Primality Test k times to gain assurance that, if m is composite, then m is composite with probability less than  $(1/4)^k$ .
- Bob continues until he finds an integer m which passes all k tests. Bob can then set p=m.

**Cautions** 

Bob is implementing an RSA encryption-decryption scheme. He has found one prime *p*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Small Solutions to Polynomial Equations, and Low Exponent RSA Vulnerabilities. Journal of Cryptology, **10**, 233–260 (1997)

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#### Theorem (Coppersmith<sup>2</sup>)

Let n = pq have d digits. Then, given either the first d/4 or the last d/4 digits of q, there is an efficient algorithm for factoring n.

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Consider when *N* is the collection of possible primes that any RSA program can produce, and *r* is the number of RSA moduli used.