

Primes

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Prime Numbers

Prime numbers: divisors of 1 and itself

- They cannot be written as a product of other numbers

Prime: 2,3,5,7

Not primes: 4,6,8,9,10

$$\begin{aligned} 4 &= 2 \times 2 \\ 10 &= 2 \times 5 \\ 8 &= 2 \times 2 \times 2 \end{aligned}$$

List of prime number less than 200 is:

2 3 5 7 11 13 17 19 23 29 31 37 41 43 47 53 59
61 67 71 73 79 83 89 97 101 103 107 109 113
127 131 137 139 149 151 157 163 167 173 179
181 191 193 197 199

Prime Factorisation

Factorization: $n = a \times b \times c$

Note that factoring a number is relatively hard compared to multiplying the factors together to generate the number

The **prime factorisation** of a number n is **unique**
(a product of primes)

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{91} &= \underline{7} \times \underline{13} \\ 3600 &= 2^4 \times 3^2 \times 5^2 \end{aligned}$$

Relatively Prime Numbers & GCD

Two numbers a, b are **relatively prime** if the **common divisor is 1**

- Eg. 8 and 15 are relatively prime

since factors of 8 are 1,2,4,8 and
15 are 1,3,5,15 and
1 is the only common factor

- eg. $300 = 2^1 \times 3^1 \times 5^2$ and $18 = 2^1 \times 3^2$
 $\text{GCD}(18, 300) = 2^1 \times 3^1 \times 5^0 = 6$

Fermat's Little Theorem

Let p is prime and a is a positive integer not divisible by p, then

$$a^{p-1} \bmod p = 1$$

$$a > 0, p \nmid a$$

Eg. p=7, a=4, $4^{7-1} \bmod 7 = 1$

- In the above case, p divides exactly into $a^p - a$.

$$a^{p-1} \bmod p = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow a^p \bmod p = a$$

$$\Rightarrow (a^p - a) \bmod p = 0$$

Fermat's primality test is a necessary, but not sufficient test for primality.

- For example, let $a = 2$ and $n = 341$, then a and n are relatively prime and 341 divides exactly into $2^{341} - 2$.
- However, $341 = 11 \times 31$, so it is a composite number.
- Thus, 341 is a Fermat **pseudoprime** to the base 2

Euler Totient Function $\phi(n)$

Number of relatively primes to n from 0 to $(n-1)$.

- when doing arithmetic modulo n
- **Complete set of residues:** $\{0 \dots n-1\}$
- **E.g.** for $n=10$,
- Complete set of residues: $\{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9\}$
- Reduced set of residues: $\{1,3,7,9\}$

$$\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$$

Euler Totient Function $\phi(n)$:

- **number of elements** in reduced set of residues of n
- $\phi(10) = 4$

Euler Totient Function $\phi(n)$

To compute $\phi(n)$, we need to count number of elements to be excluded

In general, it needs prime factorization.

$$\phi(10) = \phi(2 \times 5)$$
$$10 = 2^1 \times 5$$

We know

- for p (p prime) $\phi(p) = p-1$
- for $p.q$ (p, q prime) $\phi(p.q) = (p-1)(q-1)$

E.g.

- $\phi(37) = \underline{36}$
- $\phi(21) = \underline{(3-1)} \times (7-1) = 2 \times 6 = 12$

Euler's Theorem

A generalisation of Fermat's Theorem

$$a^{\phi(n)} \bmod n = 1$$

where $\gcd(a, n) = 1$

E.g.

- $a=3; n=10; \phi(10)=4;$

$$\text{Hence } 3^4 = 81 = 1 \bmod 10$$

- $a=2; n=11; \phi(11)=10;$

$$\text{Hence, } 2^{10} = 1024 = 1 \bmod 11$$

Primality Testing

$\frac{160}{80}$ 2^{80} trials

Many cryptographic algorithms need large prime numbers

Traditionally, **sieve** using **trial division**

- divide by all numbers (primes) in turn less than the square root of the number
- **only works for small numbers**

Statistical primality tests

- all prime numbers satisfy property
- But, some composite numbers, called **pseudo-primes**, also satisfy the property, with a low probability.

Prime is in P: **Deterministic polynomial algorithm - 2002.**

Miller Rabin Algorithm

A test based on Fermat's Theorem

Handwritten red notes showing mathematical expressions related to the Miller-Rabin algorithm, including a^q , $a^{2^j q}$, and $a^{2^k q} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

TEST (n) is:

1. Find biggest k , $k > 0$, so that $(n-1) = 2^k q$
2. Select a random integer a , $1 < a < n-1$
3. if $a^q \bmod n = 1$ then return ("maybe prime");
4. for $j = 0$ to $k-1$ do
 5. if ($a^{2^j q} \bmod n = n-1$)
then return(" maybe prime ")
6. return ("composite")

TEST (n) is:

1. Find biggest $k, k > 0$, so that $(n-1) = 2^k q$
2. Select a random integer $a, 1 < a < n-1$
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4. for $j = 0$ to $k-1$ do
 5. if $(a^{2^j q} \bmod n = n-1)$
then return ("maybe prime")
6. return ("composite")

1) $n = 29, n-1 = 28 = 2^2 \times 7$
 $k = 2, q = 7$

2) $a = 10$

3) $a^q = 10^7 \bmod 29 = 17 \neq 1$ or $28 \bmod 29$

4) $j = 0, 1$
 $2^0 \times 7 = 7$
 $j = 0 \Rightarrow a^{2^0 \times 7} = 10^7 \bmod 29 = 17 \neq 28$
 $j = 1 \Rightarrow a^{2^1 \times 7} = 10^{14} \bmod 29 = 28$

\Rightarrow "29 may be a prime"

1) $n = 13 \times 17 \approx 221$

$n-1 = 2^2 \times 55$

$k = 2, q = 55$

2) $a = 21$

3) $a^q = 21^{55} \bmod 221 = 200$

$a^{2q} = 21^{55 \times 2} \bmod 221 = 220$

"may be prime"

$a = 5$

$a^q = 5^{55} \bmod 221 = 112$

$a^{2q} = (5^{55})^2 \bmod 221 = 168$

"return composite"

Q: $a = 47$
 $a = 15$

Probabilistic Considerations

- If Miller-Rabin returns “composite” the number is definitely not prime
- Otherwise, it is a prime or a pseudo-prime
- Chance to detect a pseudo-prime is $< \frac{1}{4}$
- Hence if repeat test with different random a then chances n is prime after t tests is:
 - $\Pr(n \text{ prime after } t \text{ tests}) = 1 - 4^{-t}$
 - eg. for $t=10$ this probability is > 0.99999

Prime Distribution

even, 5,
 n
 $\log n$
 $(0.4) \log n$

- There are infinite prime numbers
 - Euclid's proof
- Prime number theorem states that
 - primes near n occur roughly every $(\ln n)$ integers
- Since can immediately ignore evens and multiples of 5, in practice only need test $0.4 \ln(n)$ numbers before locate a prime around n
 - Note this is only the “average” sometimes primes are close together, at other times are quite far apart

THANK YOU

