SPCS Cryptography Class Lecture 7

June 30, 2015



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Is this good? No, because for a number n, in base 2 there are $\log_2 n$ digits, so these are all exponential time algorithms.

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Theorem

Given a positive integer n. If you can find x such that gcd(x, n) = 1, and $x^{n-1} \not\equiv 1 \mod n$, then n is NOT a prime.



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Example

What is 2¹⁴ mod 15?

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- Why just a few random x? Why not all x < n?



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- The smallest Carmichael number is 561.
- There are infinitely many Carmichael numbers. (Alford, Granville, Pomerance 1994)

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- We then check if $x^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod n$ or not. This takes O(1) time.
- Thus the total running time for ONE random x is

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Is this polynomial time? → ◆□ → ◆□ → □ → ◆ ○

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Does it tell you how $2^{2^5} + 1$ factors?

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Summary:

- Fermat test is a primality test based on Fermat's little theorem.
- It is probabilistic a number that passes the Fermat's test is probably prime, but still may not be prime.

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Question

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One can push it further, for example,

$$x^4 \equiv 1 \mod p \Leftrightarrow (x^2 - 1)(x^2 + 1) \equiv 0 \mod p$$

 $\Leftrightarrow x^2 \equiv 1 \mod p \text{ or } x^2 \equiv -1 \mod p$
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This generalizes to the following theorem.

Theorem

Given n. Factorize $n-1=2^st$, where t is an odd number. Then n is a prime if and only if for all 0 < x < n,

- $x^t \equiv 1 \mod n$ or
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 $\Leftrightarrow x^3 \equiv 1 \mod p \text{ or } x^3 \equiv -1 \mod p \text{ or } (x^3)^2 \equiv -1 \mod p$

This generalizes to the following theorem.

Theorem

Given n. Factorize $n-1=2^{s}t$, where t is an odd number. Then n is a prime if and only if for all 0 < x < n.

- $x^t \equiv 1 \mod n$ or
- $x^t \equiv -1 \mod n$ or
- $x^{2t} \equiv -1 \mod n$ or
- ...
- $x^{2^{s-1}t} \equiv -1 \mod n$

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Miller-Rabin test

To test whether n is a prime, choose a few random numbers $x \neq 0 \mod n$. Let $n-1=2^st$ where t is an odd number.

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- If for all x we tested, n passes the Miller-Rabin test, we declare that it is probably a prime.
- If for some x it does not pass the Miller-Rabin test, we declare that n is composite, with x a Miller-Rabin witness.

Example

Let's take n = 13. We factorize: $13 - 1 = 2^2 \cdot 3$. Let's take our x = 2.

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so it also passes Miller-Rabin for x=3. Of course, we know that 13 is a prime.



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$$2^{2^3 \cdot 35} \equiv 67^2 \equiv 1 \not\equiv -1 \mod 561$$

So 561 does not pass Miller-Rabin, and so it's not a prime!

Some issues:

Question

Are there numbers that would pass Miller-Rabin for all (x, n) = 1, yet is not a prime?

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- The answer is NO this time, because of the theorem before Miller-Rabin.
- As stated Miller-Rabin is still probabilistic, because it depends on whether you hit an x that happens to be a witness. This raises the question,

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How many random x do we need to guarantee detection of a composite number n?

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Theorem

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Conditional on Generalized Riemann Hypothesis (GRH), one can prove that for composite n, one of $2, 3, \dots, (\log n)^2$ gives a Miller-Rabin witness. So *conditionally* you only need to use $(\log n)^2$ witness, making it a (conditional) *deterministic polynomial time* test.

Other Primality Test?

 The two tests we mentioned both based on some characterization of primes using Fermat's little theorem.

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 Yes!

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- Examples: Lucas-Lehmer test (Lucas sequence), Solovay-Strassen test (Euler's criterion).
- Are there tests that are provably deterministic and polynomial time? Yes!The AKS test was proposed by Agrawal, Kayal, Saxena in 2002 at IIT Kanpur, coming out of an undergraduate research project (!)It is an $O((\log n)^{12})$ algorithm, which was later improved to $O((\log n)^6)$ by Lenstra and Pomerance.
- The currently fastest test is Elliptic Curve Primality Proving (ECPP), which runs heuristically in time $O((\log n)^{4+\epsilon})$, although the exact worst execution time is not known.

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- The real question here is then

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Question

For n large, what is the probability for a number of size around n to be a prime?

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Theorem (Prime Number Theorem)

If $\pi(x)$ is the number of primes up to x, then

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Riemann also suggested the

Riemann Hypothesis

If $\pi(x)$ is the number of primes up to x, then

$$\pi(x) = \int_2^x \frac{1}{\log x} dx + O\left(x^{1/2 + \epsilon}\right) \text{ as } x \to \infty$$

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- Recall that DLP is

Discrete Log Problem

Given prime p, primitive root g and $g^a \mod p$ for some unknown a, it is hard to know what a is.

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Naive way:

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• Compute $g^1, g^2, \dots, g^{p-1} \mod p$ and compare it with the public key we see.

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Can we do better?

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Can we do better?

We will describe two quicker algorithms - Shanks' baby-step-Giant-step algorithm, and Pohlig-Hellman algorithm.



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• compute $1, g^1, \cdots, g^{[\sqrt{p}]}$, and store it in a list. (This is the baby-step)

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When you find a match, you have found i,j so that $hg^{-in}=g^j$, so $h=g^{in+j}$.

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Suppose we want to find the discrete logarithm of h = 93, for primitive root g = 41 modulo p = 317. First compute $\left[\sqrt{317}\right] = 17$.

• The baby step: we need to compute the list $1, g^1, \dots, g^{17}$. We obtain the following numbers when doing this,

1, 41, 96, 132, 23, 309, 306, 183, 212, 133,

64, 88, 121, 206, 204, 122, 247, 300.

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Example

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We would then sort this list for the ease of searching in the giant step - for simplicity we are skipping this step for now.

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 - When i = 0, $hg^{-17.0} = h = 93$

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 - When i = 1, $hg^{-17.1} = h = 181$

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Example

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 - When i = 0, $hg^{-17.0} = h = 93$, and it is not on the list.
 - When i = 1, $hg^{-17\cdot 1} = h = 181$, also not on the list.

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(Giant step continued)

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• Keep doing this. Eventually we found that when i = 11, $hg^{-17\cdot 11} = 64$, which is on the list, corresponding to g^{10} .

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• Keep doing this. Eventually we found that when i=11, $hg^{-17\cdot 11}=64$, which is on the list, corresponding to g^{10} . This means that

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Thus, the discrete logarithm of h in this case is 197.



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• The second step is to check if $hg^{-[\sqrt{p}]}$ shows up in the above list,i.e. whether h shows up in

$$g^{[\sqrt{p}]}, g^{[\sqrt{p}]+1}, \cdots, g^{2[\sqrt{p}]}$$

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- Then each giant step takes only $O(\log p)$ time, meaning that giant steps contribute $O(p^{1/2} \log p)$ time in total.
- Thus the total running time is $O(p^{1/2+\epsilon})$, a significant improvement of the naive algorithm.

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- ullet Why would it help?The discrete log problem is really a problem modulo p-1.
- If we know the prime factorization of p-1, then by Chinese remainder theorem, we only need to understand the exponent mod each prime power factor of p-1.

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Example

Take p = 11251, g = 23 (a primitive root), and h = 9689. We wish to find k such that

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- We will first work out the baby case k mod 3.

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(Refined) Cube test

Let p be a prime such that 3|p-1, g be a primitive root mod p and $a=g^k\in\mathbb{F}_p^*$,

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Note: we are doing a simpler discrete log problem!

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• The smallest solution would be 4261 mod 11250. Therefore, the discrete log in this case is 4261, i.e.

 $23^{4261} \equiv 9689 \mod 11251.$

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- One can check that k' = 1 in this case. Therefore $k \equiv 1 + 3k' \mod 3^2 \equiv 4 \mod 3^2$.



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- For example, if $p-1=2^k$ for some k (Fermat prime), then the running time for Pohlig-Hellman would be $O(k)=O(\log p)$, i.e. polynomial time! This shows that one has to be careful in choosing the prime p.

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