Factorization and Primality Testing Chapter 6 Primality and Probability

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Miller-Rabin

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- In its simplest form the Miller-Rabin test is a test for composites, although with some compromises it is also an effective test for primality.
- The basic question is how easy is it to find a witness a in the following theorem when n is composite and how easy is it to determine that there is no witness when n is prime?

Theorem 1

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be odd, $n > 1$ and take out the powers of 2 from $n-1$ so that

$$n - 1 = 2^u v$$

where v is odd. Choose $a \in \{2, 3, \ldots, n-2\}$. If

$$a^v \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n} \text{ and } a^{2^w v} \not\equiv -1 \pmod{n} \text{ for } 1 \le w \le u-1, \tag{1.1}$$

then n is composite and a is a **witness***.*

- **Theorem 1.** Let $2 \nmid n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n > 1$ and suppose $n - 1 = 2^u v$ and $2 \nmid v$. Choose $a \in \{2, 3, \ldots, n-2\}$. If $a^v \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ and

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- **Proof.** The proof of the theorem is quite simple.
- If $(a, n) > 1$, then (1.1) will hold and n will be composite. Suppose that $(a, n) = 1$ and n were to be prime. Then by Fermat-Euler we have $n | a^{n-1} - 1 =$

$$a^{2^u v} - 1 = (a^v - 1)(a^v + 1)(a^{2v} + 1) \ldots (a^{2^{u-1} v} + 1) \quad (1.2)$$

and n would have to divide one of the factors on the right, contradicting the hypothesis.

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- A. Check n for small prime factors p for, say, $p \le \log n$.
- B. Check that n is not a prime power, $n = p^k$. One can do this by checking to see if

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- Now if n is composite it will have to have two different prime factors.

- The next theorem tells us what is happening when n has at least two different prime factors.

Theorem 2

If n is odd and has at least two different prime factors p and q, then they can be chosen so that

$$p-1=2^jl,\ q-1=2^km, j\le k,$$

and then there are a with $(a,n)=1$ and

$$\left(1+\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)_L\right)\left(1-\left(\frac{a}{q}\right)_L\right)>0$$

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- In other words in this case witnesses to compositeness certainly exist.

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- As it stands this theorem only proves the existence of witnesses.
- Since we do not expect to have found numerical values for p or q, it does not tell us how to find the a.
- However it can be used to show that we do not have to search very far.

- Consider: a is a witness when $(a, n) = 1$ and
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- Thus the number of witnesses for n is at least
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- Hence $\displaystyle\sum_{\substack{a=1\\(a,n)=1}}^{n} \frac{1}{4}\left(1 + \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)_L\right)\left(1 - \left(\frac{a}{q}\right)_L\right) = \frac{\phi(n)}{4}.$

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- Hence we can proceed by picking N values of a at random.
- Then the probability that none of them are witnesses is at most $(3/4)^N$.
- Therefore if we pick, say, at least $10\log n$ numbers a at random, then we can be practically certain of finding a witness.

- If we want some kind of absolute certainty, then we can assume the truth of the Riemann hypothesis for the three functions $L(s;\chi) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{\chi(m)}{m^s}$ with
$$\chi(m) = \left(\frac{m}{p}\right)_L, \chi(m) = \left(\frac{m}{q}\right)_L, \chi(m) = \left(\frac{m}{pq}\right)_J,$$
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- This hypothesis implies that for $N=2(\log n)^2$ we have

$$\sum_{\substack{r\le N\\ r\text{ prime}}}\left(1-\frac{r}{N}\right)\left(1+\left(\frac{r}{p}\right)_L\right)\left(1-\left(\frac{r}{q}\right)_L\right)\log r>0.$$

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- In turn, this tells us that not only is there a witness $a\le 2(\log n)^2$, but we can suppose that it is prime.
- There is even some belief that one does not have to search beyond $C(\log n)\log\log n$.

- **Theorem 2.** If n is odd and has at least two different prime factors p and q, then they can be chosen so that $p-1=2^jl$, $q-1=2^km, j\le k$, and then there are a with $(a,n)=1$ and $\left(1+\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)_L\right)\left(1-\left(\frac{a}{q}\right)_L\right)>0$ and such an a is a witness.

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- **Proof.** Let p,q be as given. Choose a QR x modulo p and a QNR y modulo q. Then by the Chinese Remainder Theorem there are a with $a\equiv x \pmod{p}$, $\equiv y \pmod{q}$ and $(a,n)=1$ so that a satisfies the hypothesis.

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- We need to show that it is a witness. Recall from Theorem 1 that u and v are given by $n-1=2^uv$ where v is odd. We need to show that $a^v\not\equiv 1 \pmod n$ and

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- If $a^{n-1}\not\equiv 1 \pmod n$, then no factor on the right of

$$a^{n-1}-1=a^{2^uv}-1=(a^v-1)(a^v+1)(a^{2v}+1)\dots(a^{2^{u-1}v}+1)$$

can be divisible by n, which suffices.

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can be divisible by n, which suffices.
- Thus we can suppose that we have $a^{n-1}\equiv 1 \pmod n$.

- Recall $n-1=2^uv$ where v is odd, $a^{n-1}\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ and

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$$a^{2^wv}+1=(a^v-1+1)^{2^v}+1\equiv 2 \pmod{(a^v-1)}.$$
- Hence $\big(a^v-1, a^{2^wv}+1\big)|2.$
- Likewise when $0\le w<x\le u-1$
$$\begin{aligned}a^{2^xv}+1&=(a^{2^wv}+1-1)^{2^{x-w}}+1\\&\equiv(-1)^{2^{x-w}}+1\equiv 2 \pmod{a^{2^wv}+1}\end{aligned}$$

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- Therefore $\big(a^{2^w v}+1,a^{2^x v}+1\big)|2.$

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$$\begin{aligned}a^{2^xv}+1&=(a^{2^wv}+1-1)^{2^{x-w}}+1\\&\equiv(-1)^{2^{x-w}}+1\equiv 2 \pmod{a^{2^wv}+1}\end{aligned}$$

- Therefore $\big(a^{2^wv}+1,a^{2^xv}+1\big)|2$.
- Thus p and q, and *a fortiori* n, cannot divide two factors of $(a^v-1)(a^v+1)(a^{2v}+1)\dots(a^{2^{u-1}v}+1)$ and so it remains to consider the case when it divides exactly one.

- The hypothesis implies that $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)_L = 1$, $\left(\frac{a}{q}\right)_L = -1$.

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- Thus the best bound for a leads to questions which have a similar provenance to that concerning the least quadratic non-residue $n_2(p)$ discussed in Chapter 5.
- In particular Linnik's work quoted there suggests that any composite n with no small witnesses would be incredibly rare.

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- There is one further wrinkle that can be tried. Before doing the divisibility checks in 4, check that $(a,n)=1$ (or $a \nmid n$ if a is prime) because otherwise one has a proper divisor of n and not only is n composite but one has found a factor.

- A simple but illustrative example.

Example 3

Let $n = 133$. Then

$$n - 1 = 2^2 \times 33$$

and

$$2^{33} \equiv 50 \pmod{133},\ 2^{66} \equiv 106 \pmod{133}$$

so

$$n \nmid 2^{33} - 1,\ n \nmid 2^{33} + 1,\ n \nmid 3^{66} + 1$$

Thus n is composite and a is a witness.

- Primality in a non-trivial case is best left to a computer program. But to illustrate the method here is an example.

Example 4

Let $n = 11$. Then $n - 1 = 2 \times 5$ and we have the following

$$\begin{aligned} 2^5 &= 32 \equiv -1 \pmod{11}, & 3^5 &= 243 \equiv 1 \pmod{11} \\ 4^5 &\equiv (2^5)^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{11}, & 5^5 &= 3125 \equiv 1 \pmod{11} \\ 6^5 &= (-5)^5 \equiv -1 \pmod{11}, & 7^5 &= (-4)^5 \equiv -1 \pmod{11} \\ 8^5 &= (-3)^5 \equiv -1 \pmod{11}, & 9^5 &= (3^5)^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{11} \end{aligned}$$

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- Even for a number like 211 this would be heavy handed and is one of the reasons for an initial range of trial division. For large n one will only need to consider a relatively small range of a.

- We have already used the term “probabilistic” informally in the previous section without saying precisely what we mean.

Definition 5

Suppose that we have a finite set $\mathcal{A}$ of cardinality M, and a subset $\mathcal{B}$ of cardinality N. In general we will suppose that the elements of $\mathcal{B}$ have some special property that marks them out from those in the complement of $\mathcal{B}$ with respect to $\mathcal{A}$. If we pick an element of $a \in \mathcal{A}$ without fear or favour, then we define the probability that $a \in \mathcal{B}$ as

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- Fortunately we have no need of that here.

- This comes up frequently

Example 6

Let $\mathcal{A} = \{1, 2, \dots, M\}$, let $q \in \mathbb{N}$ and $0 \le r < q$ and let

$$\mathcal{B}(q,r) = \{a \in \mathcal{A} : a \equiv r \pmod q\}.$$

Then $$N = \operatorname{card} \mathcal{B}(q,r) = 1 + \left\lfloor \frac{M-r}{q} \right\rfloor.$$

Now $$\frac{M-r}{q} - 1 < \left\lfloor \frac{M-r}{q} \right\rfloor \le \frac{M-r}{q}$$

and so $$-1 < -\frac{r}{q} < N - \frac{M}{q} \le 1 - \frac{r}{q} < 1.$$

Therefore $$-\frac{1}{M} + \frac{1}{q} < \frac{N}{M} < \frac{1}{q} + \frac{1}{M}.$$

Thus if M is large compared with q, then we can see that the probability that an element of a is in $\mathcal{B}$ is close to $\frac{1}{q}$.

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- The fallacy here is that we are dealing with more than just pairs.

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- Then the second d_2 only has 364 choices for d_2, and so on.
- Thus the number of ways in which all the birthdays are different is the number of s-tuples in which the entries are different and this is (2.3).

- In how many of those s-tuples could all the entries (birthdays) be different?
- Let $\mathcal{B}$ be that subset of $\mathcal{A}$ and let $N = \operatorname{card}\mathcal{B}$. Then

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- Thus the probability that at least two members of the class share a birthday is

$$1-\rho(s) = 1-\left(1-\frac{1}{365}\right)\left(1-\frac{2}{365}\right)\dots\left(1-\frac{s-1}{365}\right).$$

-

s	$\rho(s)$	s	$\rho(s)$
21	.5563 . . .	22	.5243 . . .
23	.4927 . . .	24	.4616 . . .
25	.4313 . . .	26	.4017 . . .
27	.3731 . . .	28	.3455 . . .
29	.3190 . . .	30	.2936 . . .
31	.2695 . . .	32	.2466 . . .
33	.2250 . . .	34	.2046 . . .
35	.1856 . . .	36	.1678 . . .
37	.1512 . . .	38	.1359 . . .
39	.1217 . . .	40	.1087 . . .
41	.0968 . . .	42	.0859 . . .
43	.0760 . . .	44	.0671 . . .
45	.0590 . . .	46	.0517 . . .
47	.0452 . . .	48	.0394 . . .
49	.0342 . . .	50	.0296 . . .

The probability $\rho(s)$ that a class of size s has no two birthdays the same.

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- We need to generalize this.
- Let D be the number of possible values for each entry in the s-tuple - so we are now supposing that our year has D days!
- Then $M = \operatorname{card} A = D^s$ and $N = \operatorname{card} B$ is

$$N = D(D-1)\dots(D-N+1)$$

so that the probability that there are no coincidences in the entries in an arbitrary s-tuple is

$$\frac{N}{M} = \left(1-\frac{1}{D}\right)\left(1-\frac{2}{D}\right)\dots\left(1-\frac{s-1}{D}\right).$$

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- Since it is easier to work with sums than products, we can rewrite this as
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- In other words, if s is large compared with $\sqrt{D}$, then it will be almost certain that there will be coincidences.
- By the way, some attacks on security systems take advantage of this and we will make use of it later in one of the factoring attacks.