

# Primality Tests and Factoring with the AKS polynomials

*Factoring with funny but exotic algorithms*  
Robert Erra  
LSE WEEK 2015

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Primality Tests  
and  
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## ① Introduction

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## Prime and Composite Numbers

- 1 *Prime numbers are ubiquitous in modern cryptography and fortunately a lot of probabilistic and deterministic primality tests exist. The most famous is the AKS algorithm that has proved that “Prime is in P”, a result that is one of the most important results in the last 30 years in computational number theory*
- 2 *On the other side, Factoring a large number is a hard problem*
- 3 *By the way:*
  - *Prime is in P (AKS Theorem)*
  - *Factoring: complexity is still unknown!*

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We propose here to analyze the following question:

*If we take a composite number what information can we obtain with (failed) primality tests?*

With an objective:

*Can we factor a composite number with the results of (some) primality tests?*

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## Our presentation: Work in Progress

- 1 We will explain how in some cases we can factor a number using some primality tests
- 2 We will for example explain why Charmichael numbers are easy to factor
- 3 And we will finish with the presentation of two new (and curious) factorization algorithms
  - One uses the AKS polynomials (but is still folkloric)
  - The other uses the Cipolla polynomials (and we hope it could be efficient for some special numbers)

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## — Some factorisation records: a stagnacy?

Bit-Size	Year	Algorithm
RSA-120 (399 bits)	1993	MQPS
RSA-129 (429 bits)	1994	MPQS
RSA-130 (432 bits)	1996	NFS
RSA-140 (466 bits)	1999	NFS
RSA-155 (512 bits)	1999	NFS
RSA-160 (532 bits)	2003	NFS
RSA-200 (665 bits)	2005	NFS
RSA-768 bits	2010	NFS
RSA-896 bits	2015?	NFS
RSA-1024 bits	2030?	??

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## Deterministic or Probabilistic ?

- Deterministic primality tests:
  - ① AKS, Goldwasser-Kilian (GK/ECPP), Atkin-Morain (AM/ECPP)
  - ② Expensive!
  - ③ But we have a *proof* of primality (a prime certificate).
- Probabilistic primality tests:
  - ① Fermat, Solovay-Strassen, Miller-Rabin, Muller (*via* Square Modular Roots)
  - ② Fast
  - ③ But they can fail!!!!

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# (Little) Fermat Theorems

## (Little) Fermat Theorem

Let  $n \geq 2$ , if for all  $a$  coprime with  $n$

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

then  $n$  is prime.

## (Little) Fermat Theorem: for polynomials

Let  $n \geq 2$ , if for all  $a$  coprime with  $n$

$$(x + a)^n \equiv x^n + a \pmod{n}$$

then  $n$  is prime.

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## Converse of Little Fermat Theorem

Unfortunately, the converse is false!

$$4^{15} \equiv 1 \pmod{15}$$

but 15 is composite.

From [2]: *There exist also infinitely many composite numbers  $n$  for which the converse of Fermat's theorem is "as false as possible", for these numbers we have  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  for every  $a$  with  $\text{GCD}(a, n) = 1$ . Such numbers are called **Charmichael numbers**; the smallest is 561.*

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## Pseudoprimes [2,3,4]

Definition: An odd composite  $n$  such that

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

is called a *pseudoprime* for the base  $a$ .

- They are also called Fermat pseudoprimes or liars
- The group of Fermat Liars  $F(n)$  is defined as  $F(n) = \{a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^* : a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}\}$
- There are  $\prod_{p|n} \text{GCD}(p-1, n-1)$  Fermat liars

Definition: If  $n$  is a composite number such that  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ , then  $n$  is said to be a Carmichael number.

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## Fermat's Test

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### Algorithm 1 : Fermat's Test

**Input:**  $n$  et  $T > 0$ ;

**Output:**  $n$  prime or  $n$  composite;

**Begin:**

**For**  $i = 1$  **To**  $T$

    Choose  $a_i$  randomly in  $\{2, \dots, n - 1\}$ ;

**If**  $a_i^{n-1} \neq 1 \pmod n$  **Return**  $n$  composite;

**EndOfFor**

**Return**  $n$  prime;

**End.**

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## Miller-Rabin Primality Test

- Modular Square Root Problem: let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ , solve  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$
- With  $a = 1$  and  $p$  prime:  $1$  et  $-1$  are trivial solutions
- If  $p$  is prime, then  $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  can be written  $(x - 1)(x + 1) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$
- and so  $p$  divides  $(x - 1)(x + 1)$ , so  $x \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{p}$
- But, if  $n$  is prime  $> 2$ , with  $n - 1 = 2^s d$  ( $d$  odd) then:
- $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ 
  - ①  $a^d \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
  - ② or  $a^{2^r d} \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$  for  $r$  such that  $0 \leq r \leq s - 1$

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## Miller-Rabin Primality Test

- If we find an  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$  such that:
  - ①  $a^d \not\equiv 1 \pmod n$
  - ②  $a^{2^r d} \not\equiv -1 \pmod n$  for  $r$  such that  $0 \leq r \leq s - 1$
- Then  $n$  is *composite* (not prime!)
- $a$  is a *compositeness witness*
- Probability of detection compositeness after  $T$  tests is  $> 1 - \frac{1}{4^T}$

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Probabilistic [but with GRH it is deterministic!]

## Algorithm 2: Miller-Rabin's Test

**Input:**  $n > 1$ ;

**Output:**  $n$  prime or  $n$  composite;

**Begin:**

$n - 1 = 2^s d$ ;

**Repeat For All**  $a \in [2, \min(n - 1, 2(\log n)^2)]$

**If**  $(a^d \not\equiv 1 \pmod n)$  &&  $(a^{2^r d} \not\equiv -1 \pmod n)$  **For**  $r \in [0, s - 1]$

**Return**  $n$  composite;

**EndOfRepeat;**

**Return**  $n$  prime;

**End.**

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# It is easy to factor a Carmichael number

## How to factor a Carmichael number ?

- Let  $n$  be a Carmichael number, so if  $\text{GCD}(a, n) = 1$  then  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod n$
- $n$  is a strong pseudoprime for at most  $1/4$  of all numbers  $a < n$
- So, we can find, probabilistically, a number  $a$  such that
  - ①  $a^k \not\equiv 1 \text{ or } -1 \pmod n$
  - ②  $a^{2k} \equiv 1 \pmod n$
- Let  $b = a^k \equiv 1 \pmod n$  then  $b^2 \equiv 1 \pmod n$
- So  $n$  divides  $(b + 1)(b - 1)$ , since  $b \not\equiv 1 \text{ or } -1 \pmod n$ ,  $n$  can not divide  $b - 1$  or  $b + 1$
- So  $\text{GCD}(b - 1, n) \neq 1$  and is a factor of  $n$

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# The AKS primality test [1]

Also known as Agrawal–Kayal–Saxena primality test and cyclotomic AKS test

... is a deterministic primality-proving algorithm created and published by Manindra Agrawal, Neeraj Kayal, and Nitin Saxena, computer scientists at the Indian Institute of Technology Kanpur, on August 6, 2002, in a paper titled "PRIMES is in P".

The algorithm determines whether a number is prime or composite within polynomial time. The authors received the 2006 Godel Prize and the 2006 Fulkerson Prize for this work.

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## Primality AKS Test in a nutshell

- 1 An integer  $n > 2$  is prime if and only if  $(x + a)^n \equiv x^n + a \pmod{n}$  holds for all  $a$  coprime with  $n$
- 2  $C_n^k \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$  for all  $0 < k < n$  if and only if  $n$  is a prime (Expensive!)
- 3 So AKS uses  $(x + a)^n \equiv \pmod{(n, x^r - 1)}$  with  $r$  a small integer
- 4 If  $n$  is prime  $(x + a)^n \equiv x^n + a \pmod{(n, x^r - 1)}$
- 5 Proof of correctness for AKS: show that there exists a suitably small  $r$  and suitably small set of integers  $A$  such that, if the congruence holds for all such  $a$  in  $A$ , then  $n$  must be prime
- 6 Complexity:  $O((\log(n))^{11.5})$  but lot of improvements from 2002 to now!

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### ④ Factoring with AKS polynomial?

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Well, our algorithm is simple.

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### Algorithm 3: Factoring with AKS polynomial

**Input:**  $n > 2$  composite with  $n = pq \cdots$  with  $p < q$ ;

**Output:** the smallest factor of  $n$ ;

**Begin:**

Compute  $R = \lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil$

*Comment: Square root rounded to the nearest integer*

Compute  $f(x) = (x + a)^n \bmod (n, x^R)$

*Comment: Use Fast Polynomial Modular Exponentiation*

**Return**  $f(x) = 1 + qx^p + \cdots$

**End.**

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## Example.

- $n = 253 = 11 \times 23$
- $R = 15$  (Square root rounded to the nearest integer)
- $f(x) = \text{PolynomialRemainder}[(x + 1)^n, x^R, x] =$   
 $35011874485950604011000x^{14} +$   
 $2042359345013785233975x^{13} +$   
 $110168761349291319675x^{12} +$   
 $5462913785915272050x^{11} + 247292393601102850x^{10} +$   
 $10134934163979625x^9 + 372303703982925x^8 +$   
 $12107437527900x^7 + 343125759900x^6 + 8301429675x^5 +$   
 $166695375x^4 + 2667126x^3 + 31878x^2 + 253x + 1$
- $f(x) \bmod n = 1 + 23x^{11}$

We can prove it but it is a folkloric method both for time and space complexity! So let us try heuristic variants.

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This algorithm is deterministic, but expensive! So ...

- We can use the following trick: during the computation of  $f(x) = (x + a)^n \bmod (n, x^R)$  we:
  - ➊ Define  $L_i = \text{CoefficientList}((x + a)^i \bmod (n, x^R), x)$   
[Comment: limited by your RAM]
  - ➋ Compute  $\text{GCD}(L_i, n)$
- Or we
  - ➊ Choose (randomly?)  $R$  a very low value
  - ➋ We use again  $f(x) = (x + a)^n \bmod (n, x^R)$
  - ➌ Define  $L_i = \text{CoefficientList}((x + a)^i \bmod (n, x^R), x)$  with  $i$  a low value
  - ➍ Compute  $\text{GCD}(L_i, n)$

Why does this (folkloric, till we will have found an efficient variant) "algorithm" work?

- $n = 15 = 3 \times 5$
- $C_{15}^3 = 5 \times 7 \times 13$
- So  $C_{15}^3 \equiv 5 \pmod{15}$
- And  $(x + a)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n C_n^i x^i a^{n-i}$
- *Funny property:* Let  $R$  be fixed, if the algorithm returns 0 then there is no factor of  $n < R$

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## 5 Factoring via Modular Square Root

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## Computing a modular square root

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### Algorithm 4: Cipolla algorithm

**Input:**  $p$  prime and  $a$  with  $\text{LegendreSymbol}(a/p) = 1$ ;

**Output:**  $r$  such that  $r^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ ;

**Begin:**

Choose a  $t$  such that  $\text{LegendreSymbol}(t^2 - 4a, p) = -1$

*Comment:  $t^2 - 4a$  is a quadratic nonresidue modulo  $p$*

Compute  $r = x^{(p+1)/2} \pmod{(p, x^2 - tx + a)}$

*Comment: Use Fast Polynomial Modular Exponentiation*

**Return**  $y$  (it is a integer)

**End.**

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## Algorithm 5: Factoring via modular "pseudosquare" root

**Input:**  $n$  composite;

**Output:** 1 or  $n$  or a factor of  $n$

**Begin:**

Choose a  $t$  such that  $\text{LegendreSymbol}(t^2 - 4a, n) = -1$

Compute  $r(x) = x^{(p+1)/2} \bmod (n, x^2 - tx + a)$

*Comment: Use Fast Polynomial Modular Exponentiation*

$L(r) = \text{CoefficientList}(r(x), x)$

**Return**  $\text{GCD}(L, n)$

**End.**

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## Example.

- $n = 649 = 11 \times 59$
- $a = 2, \dots, 16, 19, 20, 22, \dots, 28, 31 \dots$  it works
- For  $a = 2$  we have  $r(x) = 352 + 425x$
- $L(r) = \{352, 425\}$
- $\text{GCD}(L(r), n) = \{11, 1\}$ . Factored!
- For  $n = 649$  there are 383 value of  $a$  giving a correct factorization. Let's call them *good liars*
- What are the special numbers for which algorithm would be efficient ?
- Each iteration is fast (quite) but I don't know the exact time complexity (WIP) of the whole algorithm.
- We need to compute the exact number of *good liars*

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## Primality Tests and Factoring with the AKS polynomials

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## 6 Conclusion

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## So what?

- *Yes we can factor numbers with some primality tests*
- *We have to compute the exact complexity of the algorithms we have presented (WIP)*
- *We have to understand better when they works and so when they don't (WIP)*
- *Could Primality and Factoring be problems more "intricate" than expected?*
- *Open Conjecture: **Is Factoring in P ?***

# Some lectures:

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You can read for fun and profit:

- 1 [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/AKS\\_primality\\_test](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/AKS_primality_test)
- 2 Bach and Shallit: *Algorithmic Number Theory, vol 1., Efficient Algorithms*, The MIT Press.
- 3 Crandall and Pomerance, *Prime Numbers, a Computational perspective*, Springer.
- 4 S. Muller, On probable Prime Testing and the computation of Square Roots mod  $n$ , ANTS-IV, 2000, Springer.

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