

# Lecture 9: Modular Exponentiation; Primality Testing

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Problem: Compute  $a^m \pmod n$  efficiently.

Many applications:

- Solve problems like: "what are the last 5 digits of  $3^{52112}$ ?"
- Many primality tests; e.g.  $x \mid n$  prime  $\Rightarrow 2^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod n$   
(often)
- Public-key cryptography:
  - Diffie-Hellman key exchange
  - RSA cryptosystem

Dumbest algorithm:

(1)  $\underbrace{a \times a \times a \times \dots \times a}_{m \text{ times}}$  (huge number!)  
 $\sim m$  digits so if  $m \sim 10^{100}$ , in big trouble!

(2) reduce this huge number mod  $n$  by long division

Dumb algorithm:

(1)  $b = (a \times a) \pmod n$

$(b \times a) \pmod n$

multiply  $m$  times, reducing mod  $n$  each time. No big numbers.

But still takes  $m$  steps.

Hmm:

Example:

$$a^{2^k} \pmod n$$

$$\underbrace{a \times a \times a \times a \dots \times a}_{\parallel 2^k \text{ factors}} \pmod n$$

$$\left( \left( \left( \left( a^2 \right)^2 \right)^2 \right)^2 \right)^2 \dots \left( \right)^2 \text{ — } k \text{ squarings} \leftarrow \text{vastly better.}$$

$k$  much smaller than  $2^k$  !

15 versus  $2^{15} = 32768$   
 how many steps would you rather do?

This special case generalizes:

Algorithm: To compute  $a^m \pmod n$

(1) Write  $m = \sum_{i=0}^k \epsilon_i 2^i$  with  $\epsilon_i \in \{0, 1\}$   
 i.e. in binary.

(2) Then

$$a^m \equiv a^{\sum_{i=0}^k \epsilon_i 2^i} \equiv \prod_{\epsilon_i \neq 0} a^{2^i} \pmod n$$

where we compute  $a^{2^i} = \left( \left( \left( a^2 \right)^2 \right)^2 \right)^2 \dots$  by  $i$  squarings.

Algorithm: Write  $m$  in binary.

- As long as  $m$  is nonzero:
  - if  $m$  is odd: output a "1" digit
  - if  $m$  is even: output a "0" digit
  - $m = \lfloor \frac{m}{2} \rfloor$  ← floor division

Complete example:

$$7^{25} \pmod{100}$$

$a \equiv b \pmod{100}$   
means last two digits  
the same.

③

① Write 25 in binary

	$m$	digit $\epsilon_i$
0	25	1
1	12	0
2	6	0
3	3	1
4	1	1
5	0	

Indeed  $25 = 1 + 8 + 16$

②  $7^{25} = 7^{1+8+16} = 7 \cdot 7^{2^3} \cdot 7^{2^4} = 7 \cdot 43 \cdot 7 = 1 \cdot 7 = \boxed{7}$  Answer

$k$	$7^{2^k}$
0	7
1	49
2	43
3	1
4	7

$$\begin{array}{r} 6 \\ 49 \\ \underline{7} \\ 343 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} 2 \\ 43 \\ \underline{7} \\ 301 \end{array}$$

Applications:

• Primality test: If  $n$  prime then  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ .

Will show computer examples.

Amazing: Can tell  $n$  not prime, but factoring infeasible.

• Miller-Rabin: A better primality test.

## Miller - Robin:

Random algorithm

Input:  $n \geq 5$

OUTPUT: True or False

↓  
n probably  
prime

↓  
n definitely  
composite

Probability of true  
correctness goes  
up a lot on each  
successive call.

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### Algorithm: 1

- ① Write  $n-1 = 2^k \cdot m$  with  $m$  odd
- ② Choose random  $a$   
with  $1 < a < n$
- ③ Set  $b = a^m \pmod{n}$   
If  $b \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{n}$  output  
"n is probably prime"  
and terminate.
- ④ If  $b^{2^r} \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$  for some  
 $r$  with  $1 \leq r \leq k-1$ , output  
"n prob: prime".
- ⑤ Output "n definitely composite."

"If  $n$  is composite then M-R called  $k$  times  
declares  $n$  prime with probability  $\leq 4^{-k}$ ."

By making  $k$  big, e.g. around 1000,  
then prob. of error much less than  
weird hardware failures due to cosmic  
radiation.

[To understand requires stuff we haven't  
done yet — good project idea.]

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Agrowal, Kayal, Saxena (2002) Gave first ever deterministic  
polynomial time primality test. Also uses exponentiation,  
but in "cyclotomic rings".