### 2.1 The Prime Number Theorem

Let $\pi(x)$ be the number of primes $p \leq x$. Somewhat more generally let $\pi_{a, b}(x)$ be the number of primes $p \leq x$ of the form $p=a k+b$ (in other words: congruent to $b$ modulo $a$ ). The prime number theorem states the asymptotic relation ()

$$
\pi_{a, b}(x) \sim \frac{1}{\varphi(a)} \cdot \frac{x}{\ln (x)}
$$

provided $a$ and $b$ are coprime. The special case $a=1, b=0$, is:

$$
\pi(x) \sim \frac{x}{\ln (x)}
$$

There are many theoretical and empirical results concerning the quality of this approximation. An instance is a formula by Rosser and Schoenfeld:

$$
\frac{x}{\ln (x)} \cdot\left(1+\frac{1}{2 \ln (x)}\right)<\pi(x)<\frac{x}{\ln (x)} \cdot\left(1+\frac{3}{2 \ln (x)}\right) \quad \text { for } x \geq 59 .
$$

The prime number theorem helps for answering the following questions (albeit not completely exactly):

## How many prime numbers $<2^{k}$ do exist?

Answer: $\pi\left(2^{k}\right)$, that is about

$$
\frac{2^{k}}{k \cdot \ln (2)},
$$

at least (for $k \geq 6$ )

$$
\frac{2^{k}}{k \cdot \ln (2)} \cdot\left(1+\frac{1}{2 k \ln (2)}\right) .
$$

For $k=128$ this number is about $3.8 \cdot 10^{36}$, for $k=256$, about $6.5 \cdot 10^{74}$.

## How many $k$-bit primes do exist?

Answer: $\pi\left(2^{k}\right)-\pi\left(2^{k-1}\right)$, that is about

$$
\frac{2^{k}}{k \cdot \ln (2)}-\frac{2^{k-1}}{(k-1) \cdot \ln (2)}=\frac{2^{k-1}}{\ln (2)} \cdot \frac{k-2}{k(k-1)} \approx \frac{1}{2} \cdot \pi\left(2^{k}\right) .
$$

For $k=128$ this amounts to about $1.9 \cdot 10^{36}$, for $k=256$, to about $3.2 \cdot 10^{74}$. In other words, a randomly chosen $k$-bit integer is prime with probability

$$
\frac{\pi\left(2^{k}\right)-\pi\left(2^{k-1}\right)}{2^{k-1}} \approx \frac{\pi\left(2^{k}\right)}{2^{k}} \approx \frac{1}{k \cdot \ln (2)} \approx \frac{1.44}{k} .
$$

For $k=256$ this is about 0.0056 .
The inequality

$$
\pi\left(2^{k}\right)-\pi\left(2^{k-1}\right)>0.71867 \cdot \frac{2^{k}}{k} \quad \text { for } k \geq 21
$$

gives a reliable lower bound.
In any case the number of primes of size relevant for RSA is huge and makes an exhaustion attack completely obsolete.

## Special Primes

Often cryptologists want their primes to have special properties:
Definition A special prime (or safe prime) is a prime of the form $p=$ $2 p^{\prime}+1$ where $p^{\prime}$ is an odd prime (then $p^{\prime}$ is also called a Germain prime).

Remark Let $p$ be special. Then $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, for $p=2 p^{\prime}+1 \equiv 2 \cdot a+1$ where $a=1$ or 3 .

Definition A superspecial prime is a prime of the form $p=2 p^{\prime}+1$ where $p^{\prime}=2 p^{\prime \prime}+1$ is a special prime.

Examples The two smallest superspecial primes are $p=23$ (with $p^{\prime}=11$, $\left.p^{\prime \prime}=5\right)$ and $q=47\left(\right.$ with $\left.q^{\prime}=23, q^{\prime \prime}=11\right)$.

## Are there enough primes to fulfill these special or superspecial requests?

Frankly speaking, there is no exact answer. However we can give (unproven!) fairly exact estimates for these numbers:

- As we saw, a (positive) $k$-bit integer is prime with probability $\frac{\alpha}{k}$ where $\alpha \approx 1.44$.
- If $p=2 p^{\prime}+1$ is special, then $p^{\prime}$ is a $k / 2$-bit integer, and is prime (heuristically, but in fact unknown) with probability $\frac{2 \alpha}{k}$.
- Thus we estimate that a random $k$-bit integer is a special prime with probability $\frac{\alpha}{k} \cdot \frac{2 \alpha}{k}=\frac{2 \alpha^{2}}{k^{2}}$, and we expect that $\frac{\alpha^{2}}{k^{2}} \cdot 2^{k}$ of the $2^{k-1} k$-bit integers are special primes (assuming that the "events" $p$ prime and $(p-1) / 2$ prime are independent).
- Moreover $p^{\prime \prime}=\left(p^{\prime}-1\right) / 2$ is a $k / 4$-bit integer, hence prime with probability $\frac{4 \alpha}{k}$.
- This makes up for a probability of

$$
\frac{\alpha}{k} \cdot \frac{2 \alpha}{k} \cdot \frac{4 \alpha}{k}=\frac{8 \alpha^{3}}{k^{3}}
$$

for a $k$-bit integer to be a superspecial prime.

- By this consideration-although we have no mathematical proof for it-we expect that

$$
\frac{\alpha^{3}}{k^{3}} \cdot 2^{k+2}
$$

of the $2^{k-1} k$-bit integers are superspecial primes.

- For $k=256=2^{8}\left(\right.$ and $\left.\alpha^{2} \approx 2, \alpha^{3} \approx 3\right)$ we may hope for

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 2 \cdot 2^{256} \cdot 2^{-16} \approx 3.5 \cdot 10^{72} \quad \text { special primes, } \\
& 3 \cdot 2^{258} \cdot 2^{-24} \approx 8.3 \cdot 10^{70} \quad \text { superspecial primes. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Extensions

Let $p_{n}$ be the $n$-th prime, thus $p_{1}=2, p_{2}=3, p_{3}=5, \ldots$ Let $\vartheta(x)$ be the sum of the logarithms of the primes $\leq x$,

$$
\vartheta(x)=\sum_{p \leq x, p \text { prime }} \ln (p) .
$$

Then we have the asymyptotic formulas

$$
\begin{aligned}
p_{n} & \sim n \cdot \ln (n) \\
\vartheta(x) & \sim x
\end{aligned}
$$

and the error bounds due to Rosser/Schoenfeld:
$n \cdot\left(\ln (n)+\ln \ln (n)-\frac{3}{2}\right)<p_{n}<n \cdot\left(\ln (n)+\ln \ln (n)-\frac{1}{2}\right) \quad$ for $n \geq 20$,
(2) $\quad x \cdot\left(1-\frac{1}{\ln (x)}\right)<\vartheta(x)<x \cdot\left(1-\frac{1}{2 \ln (x)}\right) \quad$ for $n \geq 41$.

For a proof of the prime number theorem see any textbook on analytic number theory, for example

Apostol, T. M. Introduction to Analytic Number Theory. Springer-Verlag, New York 1976.

