

Fast Parallel Molecular Algorithms for DNA-Based Computation: Factoring Integers

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Abstract—The RSA public-key cryptosystem is an algorithm that converts input data to an unrecognizable encryption and converts the unrecognizable data back into its original decryption form. The security of the RSA public-key cryptosystem is based on the difficulty of factoring the product of two large prime numbers. This paper demonstrates to factor the product of two large prime numbers, and is a breakthrough in basic biological operations using a molecular computer. In order to achieve this, we propose three DNA-based algorithms for parallel subtractor, parallel comparator, and parallel modular arithmetic that formally verify our designed molecular solutions for factoring the product of two large prime numbers. Furthermore, this work indicates that the cryptosystems using public-key are perhaps insecure and also presents clear evidence of the ability of molecular computing to perform complicated mathematical operations.

Index Terms—Biological parallel computing, DNA-based algorithms, DNA-based computing, factoring integers, RSA public-key cryptosystem.

I. INTRODUCTION

THE RSA public-key cryptosystem [34] is an algorithm that converts input data to an unrecognizable encryption, and converts the unrecognizable data back into its original decryption form. The construction of the RSA public-key cryptosystem is based on the ease of finding large prime numbers. The security for the cryptosystem using public-key is based on the difficulty of factoring the product of two large prime numbers. The RSA public-key cryptosystem is the most popular cryptosystem. No method in a reasonable amount of time can be applied to break the RSA public-key cryptosystem.

Feynman proposed molecular computation in 1961, but his idea was not implemented by experiment for a few decades [37]. In 1994 Adleman [2] succeeded in solving an instance of the Hamiltonian path problem in a test tube, just by handling DNA strands. Lipton [3] demonstrated that the Adleman techniques could be used to solve the satisfiability problem (the first NP-complete problem). Adleman *et al.* [14] proposed *sticker* for enhancing the error rate of hybridization.

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Through advances in molecular biology [1], it is now possible to produce roughly 10^{18} DNA strands that fit in a test tube. Those 10^{18} DNA strands can also be applied to represent 10^{18} bits of information. In the future (perhaps after many years) if biological operations can be applied to deal with a tube with 10^{18} DNA strands and they are run without errors, then 10^{18} bits of information can simultaneously be correctly processed. Hence, in the future, it is possible that biological computing can provide a huge amount of parallelism for dealing with many computationally intensive problems in the real world.

The fastest super computers currently available can execute approximately 10^{12} integer operations per second. This implies that (128×10^{12}) bits of information can be simultaneously processed in a second. The fastest super computers can process (128×10^{15}) bits of information in 1000 seconds. The *extract* operation is one of basic biological operations of the longest execution time. An *extract* operation could be approximately done in 1000 s [12]. In the future, if an *extract* operation can be used to deal with a tube with 10^{18} DNA strands and it is run without errors, then 10^{18} bits of information can simultaneously be correctly processed in 1000 s. If it becomes true in the future, then basic biological operations will perhaps be faster than the fastest super computer in the future. In [12], it was pointed out that storing information in molecules of DNA allows for an information density of approximately 1 bit/nm³. Videotape is a kind of traditional storage media and its information density is approximately 1 bit/10¹² nm³. This implies that an information density in molecules of DNA is better than that of traditional storage media.

In this paper, we first construct solution spaces of DNA strands for encoding every integer of k bits. By using basic biological operations, we then develop DNA-based algorithms for a parallel subtractor, a parallel comparator, and a parallel divider, respectively, to factor the product of two large prime numbers of k bits. We also show that cryptosystems based on the dramatic difference between the ease of finding large prime numbers of k bits and the difficulty of factoring the product of two large prime numbers of k bits can be broken. Furthermore, this work presents clear evidence of molecular computing ability to finish parallel mathematical operations.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section II first introduces DNA models of computation proposed by Adleman *et al.* and compares them with other models. Section III introduces the DNA program to factor the product of two large prime numbers of k bits for solution spaces of DNA strands. Discussion and conclusion are drawn in Section IV and Section V, respectively.

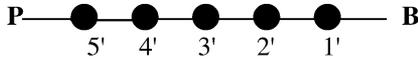


Fig. 1. A schematic representation of a nucleotide.

II. BACKGROUND

In this section we review the basic structure of the DNA molecule and then discuss available techniques for dealing with DNA that will be used to solve the problem of factoring integers. Simultaneously, several well-known DNA models are compared.

A. The Structure of DNA

From [1], [16], DNA (*DeoxyriboNucleic Acid*) is the *molecule* that plays the main role in DNA-based computing. In the biochemical world of large and small *molecules*, *polymers*, and *monomers*, DNA is a polymer, which is strung together from monomers called *deoxyriboNucleotides*. The monomers used for the construction of DNA are deoxyribonucleotides. Each deoxyribonucleotide contains three components: a *sugar*, a *phosphate* group, and a *nitrogenous* base. The sugar has five carbon atoms—for the sake of reference there is a fixed numbering of them. Because the base also has carbons, to avoid confusion the carbons of the sugar are numbered from 1' to 5' (rather than from one to five). The phosphate group is attached to the 5' carbon, and the base is attached to the 1' carbon. Within the sugar structure there is a *hydroxyl* group attached to the 3' carbon.

Distinct nucleotides are detected only with their bases, which come in two sorts: *purines* and *pyrimidines*. Purines include *adenine* and *guanine*, abbreviated *A* and *G*. Pyrimidines contain *cytosine* and *thymine*, abbreviated *C* and *T*. Because nucleotides are distinguished solely from their bases, they are simply represented as *A*, *G*, *C*, or *T* nucleotides, depending upon the kinds of base that they have. The structure of a nucleotide, cited from [16], is illustrated (in a very simplified way) in Fig. 1. In Fig. 1, B is one of the four possible bases (*A*, *G*, *C*, or *T*), P is the phosphate group, and the rest (the “stick”) is the sugar base (with its carbons enumerated 1' through 5').

Nucleotides can be linked together in two different ways [1], [16]. The first method is that the 5'-phosphate group of one nucleotide is joined with 3'-hydroxyl group of the other forming a *phosphodiester* bond. The resulting molecule has the 5'-phosphate group of one nucleotide, denoted as 5' end, and the 3'-OH group of the other nucleotide available, denoted as 3' end, for bonding. This gives the molecule the *directionality*, and we can talk about the direction of 5' end to 3' end or 3' end to 5' end. The second way is that the base of one nucleotide interacts with the base of the other to form a *hydrogen* bond. This bonding is the subject of the following restriction on the base pairing: *A* and *T* can pair together, and *C* and *G* can pair together—no other pairings are possible. This pairing principle is called the Watson–Crick complementarity (named after J. D. Watson and F. H. C. Crick, who deduced the famous double helix structure of DNA in 1953 and won the Nobel Prize for the discovery).

A DNA strand is essentially a sequence (polymer) of four types of nucleotides detected by one of four bases they contain. Two strands of DNA can form (under appropriate conditions) a double strand, if the respective bases are the Watson–Crick complements of each other—*A* matches *T* and *C* matches *G*;

also 3' end matches 5' end. The length of a single-stranded DNA is the number of nucleotides composing the single strand. Thus, if a single stranded DNA includes 20 nucleotides, then we say that it is a 20 mer (i.e., it is a polymer containing 20 monomers). The length of a double-stranded DNA (where each nucleotide is base paired) is counted in the number of base pairs. Thus, if we make a double-stranded DNA from a single stranded 20 mer, then the length of the double stranded DNA is 20 base pairs, also written 20 bp. Hybridization is a special technology term for the pairing of two single DNA strands to make a double helix and also takes advantages of the specificity of DNA base pairing for the detection of specific DNA strands. (For more discussions of the relevant biological background, refer to [1] and [16]).

B. Adleman's Experiment for Solving the Hamiltonian Path Problem

Assume a directed graph $G = (V, E)$, where V and E are the set of vertices and the set of edges respectively. In general, the Hamiltonian path problem consists of deciding whether G has a Hamiltonian path or not. G with designed vertices v_{in} and v_{out} is said to have a Hamiltonian path if and only if there exists a sequence of compatible “one way” edges e_1, \dots, e_z (that is, a “path”), which begins at v_{in} , ends at v_{out} , and enters every other vertex exactly once [2].

Adleman's experiment is used to solve the Hamiltonian path problem for a directed $G = (V, E)$, where $V = \{v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6\}$ and $E = \{(v_0, v_3), (v_0, v_1), (v_0, v_6), (v_2, v_3), (v_2, v_1), (v_3, v_2), (v_3, v_4), (v_4, v_1), (v_4, v_5), (v_5, v_2), (v_5, v_6)\}$ [2]. The first step of Adleman's experiment is to generate random paths through the directed graph G . To generate random paths, each vertex v_i in V for $0 \leq i \leq 6$ was associated with a random 20-mer sequence of DNA denoted O_i . For each edge (v_i, v_j) in E , an oligonucleotide $O_{(v_i, v_j)}$ was created which was the 3' 10 mer of O_i (unless $i = 0$, in which case it was all of O_i) followed by the 5' mer of O_j (unless $j = 6$, in which case it was all of O_j). The 20-mer sequence Watson–Crick complementary to O_i was denoted O_i^1 . For each vertex i in V (except $i = 0$ and $i = 6$) and for each edge (v_i, v_j) in E , large quantities of oligonucleotides O_i and $O_{(v_i, v_j)}$ were mixed together in a single ligation reaction. Here the oligonucleotides O_i^1 served as *splints* to bring oligonucleotides associated with compatible edges together for ligation. Consequently, the ligation reaction resulted in the formation of DNA molecules that can be viewed as encoding random paths through the directed graph G . From the random paths generated, basic biological operations are applied to remove illegal paths and select a Hamiltonian path [2].

C. The Sticker-Based Model

The sticker-based model employs two basic groups of single-stranded DNA molecules in its representation of a bit string [14]. Consider a *memory strand* N bases in length subdivided into K nonoverlapping regions each M bases long (thus, $N \geq M * K$). Each region is identified with exactly one bit position (or equivalently one Boolean variable) during the course of the computation. Adleman *et al.* [14] also designed K different *sticker strands* or *simply stickers*. Each sticker is M bases long and is complementary to one and only one of

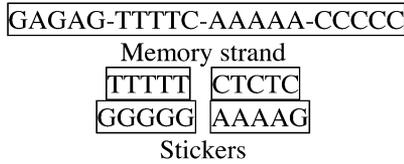


Fig. 2. An example of a sticker memory.

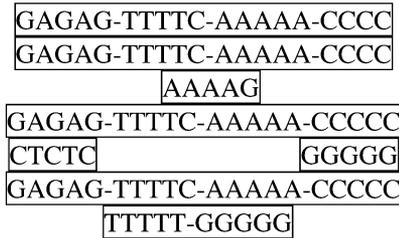


Fig. 3. Examples of memory complexes.

the K memory regions. If a sticker is annealed to its matching region on a given memory strand, then the bit corresponding that particular region is on for that strand. If no sticker is annealed to a region, then that region’s bit is off. Each memory strand along with its annealed stickers (if any) represents one bit string. Such partial duplexes are called *memory complexes*. A large set of bit strings is represented by a large number of identical memory strands each of which has stickers annealed only at the required bit positions. Such a collection of memory complexes is called as a tube.

In this model, a unique association of memory strands and stickers represents each possible bit string. In the illustration given in Fig. 2, we consider a memory strand of length $n = 20$, divided into $k = 4$ regions, each of length $m = 5$. Thus, in this case the necessary complexes are interpreted as containing four bits of information. In particular, consider the memory complexes depicted in Fig. 3. In the first memory complex, all regions are off, whereas in the last complex the last two regions are on. The binary numbers represented by these four memory complexes are 0000, 0100, 1001, and 0011, respectively.

D. Adleman’s Experiment for Solution of a Satisfiability Problem

Adleman *et al.* [22], [46] performed experiments that were applied to, respectively, solve a six-variable 11-clause formula and a 20-variable 24-clause three-conjunctive normal form (3-CNF) formula. A Lipton encoding [3] was used to represent all possible variable assignments for the chosen six-variable or 20-variable SAT problem. For each of the six variables x_1, \dots, x_6 , two distinct 15 base value sequences were designed. One represents *true* (T), x_k^T , and another represents *false* (F), x_k^F for $1 \leq k \leq 6$. Each of the 2^6 truth assignments was represented by a *library sequence* of 90 bases consisting of the concatenation of one value sequence for each variable. DNA molecules with library sequences are termed *library strands* and a combinatorial pool containing library strands is termed a *library*. The six-variable library strands were synthesized by employing a mix-and-split combinatorial synthesis technique [24]. The library strands were assigned library sequences with x_1 at the 5’-end and x_6 at the 3’-end

($5' - x_1 - x_2 - x_3 - x_4 - x_5 - x_6 - 3'$). Thus synthesis began by assembling the two 15 base oligonucleotides with sequences x_6^T and x_6^F . This process was repeated until all 6 variables had been treated.

The probes used for separating the library strands have sequences complementary to the value sequences. Errors in the separation of the library strands are errors in the computation. Sequences must be designed to ensure that library strands have little secondary structure that might inhibit intended probe-library hybridization. The design must also exclude sequences that might encourage unintended probe-library hybridization. To help achieve these goals, sequences were computer-generated to satisfy the proposed seven constraints [22]. The similar method also is applied to solve a 20-variable of 3-SAT [46].

E. DNA Manipulations

In the past decade, there have been revolutionary advances in the field of biomedical engineering, particularly in recombinant DNA and RNA manipulating. Due to the industrialization of the biotechnology field, laboratory techniques for recombinant DNA and RNA manipulation are becoming highly standardized. Basic principles about recombinant DNA can be found in [47]–[50]. In this subsection we describe eight biological operations that are useful for solving the problem of factoring integers. The method of constructing DNA solution space for the problem of factoring integers is based on the proposed method in [22], [46].

A (test) tube is a set of molecules of DNA (a multiset of finite strings over the alphabet $\{A, C, G, T\}$). Given a tube, one can perform the following operations.

1. *Extract.* Given a tube P and a short single strand of DNA, S , the operation produces two tubes $+(P, S)$ and $-(P, S)$, where $+(P, S)$ is all of the molecules of DNA in P which contain S as a substrand and $-(P, S)$ is all of the molecules of DNA in P which do not contain S .
2. *Merge.* Given tubes P_1 and P_2 , yield $\cup(P_1, P_2)$, where $\cup(P_1, P_2) = P_1 \cup P_2$. This operation is to pour two tubes into one, without any change in the individual strands.
3. *Detect.* Given a tube P , if P includes at least one DNA molecule, we have “yes,” and if P contains no DNA molecule, we have “no.”
4. *Discard.* Given a tube P , the operation will discard P .
5. *Amplify.* Given a tube P , the operation $\text{Amplify}(P, P_1, P_2)$, will produce two new tubes P_1 and P_2 so that P_1 and P_2 are totally a copy of P (P_1 and P_2 are now identical) and P becomes an empty tube.
6. *Append.* Given a tube P containing a short strand of DNA Z , the operation will append Z onto the end of every strand in P .
7. *Append-head.* Given a tube P containing a short strand of DNA, Z , the operation will append Z onto the head of every strand in P .
8. *Read.* Given a tube P , the operation is used to describe a single molecule, which is contained in tube P . Even if P contains many different molecules each encoding a different set of bases, the operation can give an explicit description of exactly one of them.

F. Comparisons of Various Famous DNA Models

Based on solution space of *splint* in the Adleman–Lipton model, their methods [7], [17]–[20], [35] could be applied toward solving the traveling salesman problem, the dominating-set problem, the vertex cover problem, the clique problem, the independent-set problem, the three-dimensional matching problem, the set-packing problem, the set-cover problem, and the problem of exact cover by three-sets. Lipton *et al.* [51] indicated that DNA-based computing had been shown to easily be capable of breaking the data encryption standard from solution space of *splint*. The methods used for solving problems have exponentially increased volumes of DNA and linearly increased the time.

Bach *et al.* [33] proposed a $n1.89^n$ volume, $O(n^2 + m^2)$ time molecular algorithm for the three-coloring problem and a 1.51^n volume, $O(n^2m^2)$ time molecular algorithm for the independent set problem, where n and m are, subsequently, the number of vertices and the number of edges in the problems resolved. Fu [21] presented a polynomial-time algorithm with a 1.497^n volume for the three-SAT problem, a polynomial-time algorithm with a 1.345^n volume for the three-coloring problem, and a polynomial-time algorithm with a 1.229^n volume for the independent set. Though the size of those volumes [21], [33] is lower, constructing those volumes is more difficult and the time complexity is higher.

Quyung *et al.* [4] showed that enzymes could be used to solve the NP-complete clique problem. Because the maximum number of vertices that they can process is limited to 27, the maximum number of DNA strands for solving this problem is 2^{27} [4]. Shin *et al.* [8] presented an encoding scheme for decreasing the error rate of hybridization. This method [8] can be employed toward ascertaining the traveling salesman problem for representing integers and real values with fixed-length codes. Arita *et al.* [5] and Morimoto *et al.* [6] proposed a new molecular experimental technique and a solid-phase method to find a Hamiltonian path. Amos [13] proposed a parallel filtering model for resolving the Hamiltonian path problem, the subgraph isomorphism problem, the three-vertex-colorability problem, the clique problem, and the independent-set problem. The methods in [5], [6], and [13] have lowered the error rate in real molecular experiments. In [26], [27], and [30], the methods for DNA-based computing by self-assembly require the use of DNA nanostructures, called tiles, to own expressive computational power and convenient input and output (I/O) mechanisms. That is, DNA tiles have lower error rate in self-assembly.

One of the earliest attempts to perform arithmetic operations (addition of two positive binary numbers) using DNA is by Guarneiri *et al.* [38], utilizing the idea of encoding differently bit values zero and one as single-stranded DNAs, based upon their positions and the operands in which they appear. Gupta *et al.* [39] performed logic and arithmetic operations using the fixed bit encoding of the full corresponding truth tables. Qiu and Lu [40] applied substitution operation to insert results (by encoding all possible outputs of bit by bit operation along with second operand) in the operand strands. Ogihara and Ray [41], as well as Amos and Dunne [42] proposed methods to realize any Boolean circuit (with bounded fan in) using DNA strands in a constructive fashion. Other new suggestions to perform all basic arithmetic operations are by Atanasiu [43] using P systems and by Frisco [44] using splicing operation under gen-

eral H systems, and by Hubert and Schuler [45]. Barua *et al.* [31] proposed a recursive DNA algorithm for adding two binary numbers, which require $O(\log n)$ biosteps using only $O(n)$ different type of DNA strands, where n is the size of the binary string representing the larger of the two numbers.

Adleman *et al.* [14] proposed a sticker-based model to enhance the error rate of hybridization in the Adleman–Lipton model. Their model can be used for determining solutions of an instance in the set cover problem. Simultaneously, Adleman *et al.* [52] also pointed out that the data encryption standard could be easily broken from solution space of *stickers* in the sticker-based model. Perez-Jimenez *et al.* [15] employed the sticker-based model [14] to resolve knapsack problems. In our previous work, Chang *et al.* [25], [32], [36], [53] also employed the sticker-based model and the Adleman–Lipton model for dealing with Cook’s theorem [9], [10], the set-splitting problem, the subset-sum problem, and the dominating-set problem for decreasing the error rate of hybridization.

III. FACTORING THE PRODUCT OF TWO LARGE PRIME NUMBERS OF K BITS

A. RSA Public-Key Cryptosystem

In the RSA cryptosystem [34], a participant creates his public and secret keys with the following steps. The first step is to select at random two large prime numbers p and q , assuming that the length of p and q are both k bits. The second step is to compute n by the equation $n = p * q$. The third step is to select a small odd integer e that is relatively prime to $\phi(n)$, which is equal to $(p - 1) * (q - 1)$. The fourth step is to compute d as the multiplicative inverse of e , module $\phi(n)$. The fifth step is to publish the pair $P = (e, n)$ as his RSA public key. The sixth step is to keep secret the pair $S = (d, n)$ as his secret key. A method to factor n as $p * q$ in a reasonable amount of time has not been found.

B. Solution Space of DNA Strands for Every Unsigned Integer of k Bits

Suppose that an unsigned integer of k bits M is represented as a k -bit binary number, $m_k \dots m_1$, where the value of each bit m_j is either one or zero for $1 \leq j \leq k$. The bits m_k and m_1 represent, respectively, the most significant bit and the least significant bit for M . The range of the value to an unsigned integer of k bits is from 0 to $2^k - 1$. From [22], [46], for every bit m_j , two *distinct* 15 base value sequences are designed. One represents the value zero for m_j and the other represents the value one for m_j . For convenience, we assume that m_j^1 denotes the value of m_j to be one and m_j^0 defines the value of m_j to be zero. The following algorithm is used to construct the solution space of DNA strands for 2^k different unsigned integer values.

```

Procedure InitialSolution( $T_0$ )
(1) For  $j = k$  down to 1
    (1a) Amplify( $T_0, T_1, T_2$ ).
    (1b) Append( $T_1, m_j^1$ ).
    (1c) Append( $T_2, m_j^0$ ).
    (1d)  $T_0 = \cup(T_1, T_2)$ .
EndFor
EndProcedure

```

TABLE I
RESULT FOR TUBE T_0 IS GENERATED BY THE ALGORITHM
INITIALSOLUTION(T_0)

Tub e	The result is generated by InitialSolution(T_0)
T_0	$\{m_3^1 m_2^1 m_1^1, m_3^1 m_2^1 m_1^0, m_3^1 m_2^0 m_1^1, m_3^1 m_2^0 m_1^0, m_3^0 m_2^1 m_1^1, m_3^0 m_2^1 m_1^0, m_3^0 m_2^0 m_1^1, m_3^0 m_2^0 m_1^0\}$

Consider that the number of bits for M is 3 bits. Eight values for M are, respectively, 000, 001, 010, 011, 100, 101, 110, and 111. Tube T_0 is an empty tube and is regarded as an input tube for the algorithm InitialSolution(T_0). Because the value for k is three, Steps (1a) through (1d) will be run three times. After the first execution of Step (1a) is finished, tube $T_0 = \phi$, tube $T_1 = \phi$, and tube $T_2 = \phi$. Next, after the first execution for Step (1b) and Step (1c) is performed, tube $T_1 = \{m_3^1\}$ and tube $T_2 = \{m_3^0\}$. After the first execution of Step (1d) is run, tube $T_0 = \{m_3^1, m_3^0\}$, tube $T_1 = \phi$, and tube $T_2 = \phi$. Then, after the second execution of Step (1a) is finished, tube $T_0 = \phi$, tube $T_1 = \{m_3^1, m_3^0\}$, and tube $T_2 = \{m_3^1, m_3^0\}$. After the rest of operations are performed, tube $T_1 = \phi$, tube $T_2 = \phi$, and the result for tube T_0 is shown in Table I. Lemma 1 is applied to demonstrate correction of the algorithm InitialSolution(T_0).

Lemma 1: The algorithm InitialSolution(T_0) is used to construct the solution space of DNA strands for 2^k different unsigned integer values.

Proof: The algorithm InitialSolution(T_0) is implemented by means of the *amplify*, *append*, and *merge* operations. Each execution of Step (1a) is used to amplify tube T_0 and to generate two new tubes, T_1 and T_2 , which are copies of T_0 . Tube T_0 then becomes empty. Then, Step (1b) is applied to append a DNA sequence, representing the value one for m_j , onto the end of every strand in tube T_1 . This is to say that those integers containing the value one to the j th bit appear in tube T_1 . Step (1c) is also employed to append a DNA sequence, representing the value zero for m_j , onto the end of every strand in tube T_2 . That implies that these integers containing the value zero to the j th bit appear in tube T_2 . Next, Step (1d) is used to pour tubes T_1 and T_2 into tube T_0 . This indicates that DNA strands in tube T_0 include DNA sequences of $m_j = 1$ and $m_j = 0$. At the end of Step (1), tube T_0 consists of 2^k DNA sequences representing 2^k different unsigned integer values.

From InitialSolution(T_0), it takes k *amplify* operations, $2 * k$ *append* operations, k *merge* operations, and three test tubes to construct the solution space of DNA strands. A value sequence for every bit contains 15 bases. Therefore, the length of a DNA strand, encoding an unsigned integer value of k bits, is $15 * k$ bases consisting of the concatenation of one value sequence for each bit.

C. The Construction to the Product of Two Large Prime Numbers of k Bits

Assume that the length for n , the product of two large prime numbers of k bits, denoted in Section III-A, is $(2 * k)$ bits. Also suppose that the product n is used to represent the minuend (dividend) and the difference for successive compare, shift, and subtract operations in a divider. When n is divided by M , an

TABLE II
RESULT FOR TUBE T_0 IS GENERATED BY THE ALGORITHM
INITIALPRODUCT(T_0)

Tub e	The result is generated by InitialProduct(T_0)
T_0	$\{n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^1 m_2^1 m_1^1, n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^1 m_2^1 m_1^0, n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^1 m_2^0 m_1^1, n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^1 m_2^0 m_1^0, n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^0 m_2^1 m_1^1, n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^0 m_2^1 m_1^0, n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^0 m_2^0 m_1^1, n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^0 m_2^0 m_1^0\}$

unsigned integer of k bits denoted in Section III-B, M is one of two large prime numbers if the remainder is equal to zero. Assume that in a divider the length of a dividend is $(2 * k)$ bits and the length of a divisor is d bits, where $1 \leq d \leq k$. It is very obvious that the division instruction is finished through successive compare, shift, and subtract operations of at most $(2 * k)$ times. Therefore, suppose that n is represented as a $(2 * k)$ -bit binary number, $n_{o,(2*k)} \dots n_{o,1}$, where the value of each bit $n_{o,q}$ is either one or zero for $1 \leq o \leq (2 * k + 1)$ and $1 \leq q \leq (2 * k)$. The bits $n_{o,(2*k)}$ and $n_{o,1}$, respectively, represent the most significant bit and the least significant bit for n . One binary number $n_{o,(2*k)} \dots n_{o,1}$ and another binary number $n_{o+1,(2*k)} \dots n_{o+1,1}$ are, respectively, applied to represent the minuend and the difference for the successive compare, shift, and subtract operations of the o th time. This is to say that the binary number $n_{o+1,(2*k)} \dots n_{o+1,1}$ is the minuend for the successive compare, shift, and subtract operations of the $(o + 1)$ th time.

For every bit $n_{o,q}$, two *distinct* 15 base value sequences were designed. One represents the value zero for $n_{o,q}$ and the other represents the value one for $n_{o,q}$. For convenience, we assume that $n_{o,q}^1$ denotes the value of $n_{o,q}$ to be one and $n_{o,q}^0$ defines the value of $n_{o,q}$ to be zero. The following algorithm is used to construct a DNA strand for the value of n .

```

Procedure InitialProduct( $T_0$ )
(1) For  $q = 1$  to  $2 * k$ 
    (1a) Append-head( $T_0, n_{1,q}$ ).
EndFor
EndProcedure

```

Consider that the number of bits for n is 6 bits and the value for n is 001 111. Tube T_0 with the result shown in Table I is regarded as an input tube for the algorithm, InitialProduct(T_0). Because the value for $2 * k$ is six, Step (1a) will be executed six times. After each operation for Step (1a) is performed, the result is shown in Table II. Lemma 2 is used to prove correction of the algorithm InitialProduct(T_0).

Lemma 2: A DNA strand for the value of n can be constructed from InitialProduct(T_0).

Proof: Refer to Lemma 1.

From InitialProduct(T_0), it takes $(2 * k)$ *append-head* operations and one test tube to construct a DNA strand. The length of the DNA strand, encoding the value of n , is $30 * k$ bases consisting of the concatenation of one value sequence for each bit.

TABLE IV
RESULT IS GENERATED BY PARALLELCOMPARATOR($T_0, T_0^>, T_0^=, T_0^<, d, o$)

Tube	The result is generated by ParallelComparator($T_0, T_0^>, T_0^=, T_0^<, d, o$)
T_0	ϕ
$T_0^>$ and $T_0^=$	ϕ
$T_0^<$	$\{b_{1,0}^0 n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^1 m_2^1 m_1^1, b_{1,0}^0 n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^1 m_2^1 m_1^0, b_{1,0}^0 n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^1 m_2^0 m_1^1, b_{1,0}^0 n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^1 m_2^0 m_1^0\}$

Proof: Step (1) is the first loop and is used to compare the most significant $(o - 1)$ bits of the dividend with $(o - 1)$ zeros for the o th compare and shift operations. The first execution of Step (1a) employs the *extract* operation to form two test tubes: T_7 and T_8 . The first tube T_7 includes all of the strands that have $n_{o,(2*k)-(j-1)} = 1$. The second tube T_8 consists of all of the strands that have $n_{o,(2*k)-(j-1)} = 0$. In T_7 , the corresponding bit of the dividend is one and the shift bit of the divisor is zero, so the first execution of Step (1b) uses the *merge* operations to pour T_7 into $T_0^>$. The first execution of Step (1c) employs the *detect* operations to check whether tube T_8 contains any DNA strand or not. If a “yes” is returned, then the first execution of Step (1d) applies the *merge* operations to pour T_8 into T_0 . Otherwise, the algorithm is terminated in Step (1e). Repeat the execution of each step in the loop until the number of the execution for the loop is performed.

After each operation in the first loop is finished, tube T_0 contains the strands that have the comparative result (“=”) for the most significant $(o-1)$ bits of the dividend with $(o-1)$ zeros for the o th compare and shift operations. Step (2) uses the *merge* operation to pour T_0 into $T_0^=$. When the first execution of Step (3a) calls the algorithm OneBitComparator($T_0^>, T_0^=, T_0^<, d, o, j$) to finish the comparative result of the corresponding bit for the $(2 * k)$ -bit dividend and the d -bit divisor for $1 \leq d \leq k$ in a divider. After Step (3a) is performed, the comparative results are, respectively, represented in $T_0^>, T_0^=$, and $T_0^<$. On the first execution of Step (3b), it uses the detect operations to check whether there is any DNA sequence in $T_0^=$. If a “no” is returned, then the execution of Step (3c) is used to terminate the algorithm. Otherwise, Steps (3a) through (3b) are repeated to execute until the corresponding bits of the $(2 * k)$ -bit dividend and the d -bit divisor for $1 \leq d \leq k$ in a divider are all processed. Finally, tube $T_0^>$ contains the strands with the comparative result of greater than (“>”), tube $T_0^=$ includes the strands with the comparative result of equal (“=”) and tube $T_0^<$ consists of the strands with the comparative result of less than (“<”).

From ParallelComparator($T_0, T_0^>, T_0^=, T_0^<, d, o$), it takes $(3 * k - 3 * d + o + 2)$ *extract* operations, $(3 * k - 3 * d + 2 * o + 2)$ *merge* operations, $(k - d + o)$ *detect* operations, and 11 tubes to finish the function of a k -bit parallel comparator.

E. The Construction of a Parallel 1-Bit Subtractor

A 1-bit subtractor is a function that forms the arithmetic subtraction of three input bits. It consists of three inputs and two outputs. Two of the input bits, respectively, represent minuend

and subtrahend bits to be subtracted. The third input represents the borrow bit from the previous higher significant position. The first output gives the value of the difference for minuend and subtrahend bits to be subtracted. The second output gives the value of the borrow bit to minuend and subtrahend bits to be subtracted. The truth table of the 1-bit subtractor is as follows.

Suppose that a 1-bit binary number $n_{o,q}$ denoted in Section III-C is used to represent the first input of a 1-bit subtractor for $1 \leq o \leq (2 * k + 1)$ and $1 \leq q \leq (2 * k)$. Also assume that a 1-bit binary number $n_{o+1,q}$ denoted in Section III-C is applied to represent the first output of a 1-bit subtractor. Suppose that a 1-bit binary number m_j denoted in Section III-B is also employed to represent the second input of a 1-bit subtractor for $1 \leq j \leq k$. Also assume that a 1-bit binary number $b_{o,q}$ is employed to represent the second output of a 1-bit subtractor. Also suppose that a 1-bit binary number $b_{o,q-1}$ is employed to represent the third input of a 1-bit subtractor.

For every bit $b_{o,q-1}$ and $b_{o,q}$ to $1 \leq o \leq (2 * k + 1)$ and $1 \leq q \leq (2 * k)$, two *distinct* DNA sequences are designed to represent the value zero or one of every corresponding bit. For convenience, we assume that $b_{o,q}^1$ contains the value of $b_{o,q}$ to be one and $b_{o,q}^0$ contains the value of $b_{o,q}$ to be zero. Also suppose that $n_{o+1,q}^1$ denotes the value of $n_{o+1,q}$ to be one and $n_{o+1,q}^0$ defines the value of $n_{o+1,q}$ to be zero. Similarly, assume that $b_{o,q-1}^1$ contains the value of $b_{o,q-1}$ to be one and $b_{o,q-1}^0$ contains the value of $b_{o,q-1}$ to be zero. The following algorithm is proposed to finish the function of a parallel 1-bit subtractor.

Procedure ParallelOneBitSubtractor($T_0^>=, o, q, j$)

- (1) $T_1 = +(T_0^>=, n_{o,q}^1)$ and $T_2 = -(T_0^>=, n_{o,q}^1)$.
- (2) $T_3 = +(T_1, m_j^1)$ and $T_4 = -(T_1, m_j^1)$.
- (3) $T_5 = +(T_2, m_j^1)$ and $T_6 = -(T_2, m_j^1)$.
- (4) $T_7 = +(T_3, b_{o,q-1}^1)$ and $T_8 = -(T_3, b_{o,q-1}^1)$.
- (5) $T_9 = +(T_4, b_{o,q-1}^1)$ and $T_{10} = -(T_4, b_{o,q-1}^1)$.
- (6) $T_{11} = +(T_5, b_{o,q-1}^1)$ and $T_{12} = -(T_5, b_{o,q-1}^1)$.
- (7) $T_{13} = +(T_6, b_{o,q-1}^1)$ and $T_{14} = -(T_6, b_{o,q-1}^1)$.
- (8a) If (Detect(T_7) = “yes”) then
- (8) Append-head($T_7, n_{o+1,q}^1$) and
Append-head($T_7, b_{o,q}^1$).
- EndIf
- (9a) If (Detect(T_8) = “yes”) then
- (9) Append-head($T_8, n_{o+1,q}^0$) and
Append-head($T_8, b_{o,q}^0$).
- EndIf
- (10a) If (Detect(T_9) = “yes”) then
- (10) Append-head($T_9, n_{o+1,q}^0$) and
Append-head($T_9, b_{o,q}^0$).
- EndIf
- (11a) If (Detect(T_{10}) = “yes”) then
- (11) Append-head($T_{10}, n_{o+1,q}^1$) and
Append-head($T_{10}, b_{o,q}^0$).
- EndIf
- (12a) If (Detect(T_{11}) = “yes”) then
- (12) Append-head($T_{11}, n_{o+1,q}^0$) and
Append-head($T_{11}, b_{o,q}^1$).
- EndIf
- (13a) If (Detect(T_{12}) = “yes”) then
- (13) Append-head($T_{12}, n_{o+1,q}^1$) and
Append-head($T_{12}, b_{o,q}^1$).
- EndIf

(14a) If (Detect(T_{13}) = "yes") then

(14) Append-head($T_{13}, n_{o+1,q}^1$) and

Append-head($T_{13}, b_{o,q}^1$).

EndIf

(15a) If (Detect(T_{14}) = "yes") then

(15) Append-head($T_{14}, n_{o+1,q}^0$) and

Append-head($T_{14}, b_{o,q}^0$).

EndIf

(16) $T_0^{>=}$ = $\cup(T_7, T_8, T_9, T_{10}, T_{11}, T_{12}, T_{13}, T_{14})$.

EndProcedure

Consider that the first execution for the algorithm ParallelOneBitSubtractor($T_0^{>=}$, o, q, j) invokes tube

$$T_0^{>=} = \{b_{3,1}^0 n_{4,1}^1 b_{3,0}^0 b_{2,6}^0 n_{3,6}^0 b_{2,5}^0 n_{3,5}^0 b_{2,4}^0 n_{3,4}^0 b_{2,3}^0 n_{3,3}^0 b_{2,2}^0 n_{3,2}^0 b_{2,1}^0 n_{3,1}^0 b_{1,6}^0 n_{2,6}^0 b_{1,5}^0 n_{2,5}^0 b_{1,4}^0 n_{2,4}^0 b_{1,3}^0 n_{2,3}^0 b_{1,2}^0 n_{2,2}^0 b_{1,1}^0 n_{2,1}^0 b_{1,0}^0 n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^0 n_{1,3}^0 n_{1,2}^0 n_{1,1}^0 m_3^1 m_2^1 m_1^1, b_{3,1}^0 n_{4,1}^0 b_{3,0}^0 b_{2,6}^0 n_{3,6}^0 b_{2,5}^0 n_{3,5}^0 b_{2,4}^0 n_{3,4}^0 b_{2,3}^0 n_{3,3}^0 b_{2,2}^0 n_{3,2}^0 b_{2,1}^0 n_{3,1}^0 b_{1,6}^0 n_{2,6}^0 b_{1,5}^0 n_{2,5}^0 b_{1,4}^0 n_{2,4}^0 b_{1,3}^0 n_{2,3}^0 b_{1,2}^0 n_{2,2}^0 b_{1,1}^0 n_{2,1}^0 b_{1,0}^0 n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^0 n_{1,3}^0 n_{1,2}^0 n_{1,1}^0 m_3^1 m_2^1 m_1^0, b_{3,1}^0 n_{4,1}^0 b_{3,0}^0 b_{2,6}^0 n_{3,6}^0 b_{2,5}^0 n_{3,5}^0 b_{2,4}^0 n_{3,4}^0 b_{2,3}^0 n_{3,3}^0 b_{2,2}^0 n_{3,2}^0 b_{2,1}^0 n_{3,1}^0 b_{1,6}^0 n_{2,6}^0 b_{1,5}^0 n_{2,5}^0 b_{1,4}^0 n_{2,4}^0 b_{1,3}^0 n_{2,3}^0 b_{1,2}^0 n_{2,2}^0 b_{1,1}^0 n_{2,1}^0 b_{1,0}^0 n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^0 n_{1,3}^0 n_{1,2}^0 n_{1,1}^0 m_3^1 m_2^0 m_1^0, b_{3,1}^0 n_{4,1}^0 b_{3,0}^0 b_{2,6}^0 n_{3,6}^0 b_{2,5}^0 n_{3,5}^0 b_{2,4}^0 n_{3,4}^0 b_{2,3}^0 n_{3,3}^0 b_{2,2}^0 n_{3,2}^0 b_{2,1}^0 n_{3,1}^0 b_{1,6}^0 n_{2,6}^0 b_{1,5}^0 n_{2,5}^0 b_{1,4}^0 n_{2,4}^0 b_{1,3}^0 n_{2,3}^0 b_{1,2}^0 n_{2,2}^0 b_{1,1}^0 n_{2,1}^0 b_{1,0}^0 n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^0 n_{1,3}^0 n_{1,2}^0 n_{1,1}^0 m_3^0 m_2^1 m_1^1, b_{3,1}^0 n_{4,1}^0 b_{3,0}^0 b_{2,6}^0 n_{3,6}^0 b_{2,5}^0 n_{3,5}^0 b_{2,4}^0 n_{3,4}^0 b_{2,3}^0 n_{3,3}^0 b_{2,2}^0 n_{3,2}^0 b_{2,1}^0 n_{3,1}^0 b_{1,6}^0 n_{2,6}^0 b_{1,5}^0 n_{2,5}^0 b_{1,4}^0 n_{2,4}^0 b_{1,3}^0 n_{2,3}^0 b_{1,2}^0 n_{2,2}^0 b_{1,1}^0 n_{2,1}^0 b_{1,0}^0 n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^0 n_{1,3}^0 n_{1,2}^0 n_{1,1}^0 m_3^0 m_2^0 m_1^0\}$$

and it is regarded as an input tube. The values for o, q, j and i are, respectively, three, two, and one. After each operation in the algorithm is performed, the result is shown in Table VI. Lemma 5 is applied to show correction of the algorithm ParallelOneBitSubtractor($T_0^{>=}$, o, q, j).

Lemma 5: The algorithm ParallelOneBitSubtractor($T_0^{>=}$, o, q, j) can be applied to finish the function of a parallel 1-bit subtractor.

Proof: The algorithm ParallelOneBitSubtractor($T_0^{>=}$, o, q, j) is implemented by means of the *extract*, *append-head*, and *merge* operations. The execution of Step (1) employs the *extract* operation to form two test tubes: T_1 and T_2 . The first tube T_1 includes all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 1$. The second tube T_2 consists of all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 0$. In Step (2), the *extract* operation is used to form two test tubes: T_3 and T_4 . The first tube T_3 includes all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 1$ and $m_j = 1$. The second tube T_4 consists of all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 1$ and $m_j = 0$. Next, the execution of Step (3) uses the *extract* operation to form two test tubes: T_5 and T_6 . The first tube T_5 includes all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 0$ and $m_j = 1$. The second tube T_6 consists of all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 0$ and $m_j = 0$. The execution of Step (4) uses the *extract* operation to form two test tubes: T_7 and T_8 . The first tube T_7 includes all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 1, m_j = 1$ and $b_{o,q-1} = 1$. The second tube T_8 consists of all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 1, m_j = 1$ and $b_{o,q-1} = 0$. Then, on the execution of Step (5), it applies the *extract* operation to form two test tubes: T_9 and T_{10} . The first tube T_9 includes all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 1, m_j = 0$ and $b_{o,q-1} = 1$. The second tube

TABLE V
TRUTH TABLE OF A 1-BIT SUBTRACTOR

Minuen d bit	Subtrahen d bit	Previous borrow bit	Difference bit	Borrow bit
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	1
0	1	0	1	1
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1

T_{10} consists of all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 1, m_j = 0$ and $b_{o,q-1} = 0$. On the execution of Step (6), it employs the *extract* operation to form two test tubes: T_{11} and T_{12} . The first tube T_{11} includes all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 0, m_j = 1$ and $b_{o,q-1} = 1$. The second tube T_{12} consists of all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 0, m_j = 1$ and $b_{o,q-1} = 0$. Next, the execution of Step (7) uses the *extract* operation to form two test tubes: T_{13} and T_{14} . The first tube T_{13} includes all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 0, m_j = 0$ and $b_{o,q-1} = 1$. The second tube T_{14} consists of all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 0, m_j = 0$ and $b_{o,q-1} = 0$. After finishing Steps (1) to (7), eight different inputs of a 1-bit subtractor in Table V, respectively, have been poured into tubes T_7 through T_{14} .

Steps (8a), (9a), (10a), (11a), (12a), (13a), (14a), and (15a) are, respectively, used to check whether contains any DNA strand for tubes $T_7, T_8, T_9, T_{10}, T_{11}, T_{12}, T_{13}$, and T_{14} or not. If any "yes" is returned for those steps, then the corresponding *append-head* operations will be run. Next, the execution of Step (8) uses the *append-head* operations to append $n_{o+1,q}^1$ and $b_{o,q}^1$ onto the head of every strand in T_7 . On the execution of Step (9), it applies the *append-head* operations to append $n_{o+1,q}^0$ and $b_{o,q}^0$ onto the head of every strand in T_8 . Then, the execution of Step (10) employs the *append-head* operations to append $n_{o+1,q}^0$ and $b_{o,q}^0$ onto the head of every strand in T_9 . On the execution of Step (11), it uses the *append-head* operations to append $n_{o+1,q}^1$ and $b_{o,q}^0$ onto the head of every strand in T_{10} . Next, the execution of Step (12) uses the *append-head* operations to append $n_{o+1,q}^0$ and $b_{o,q}^1$ onto the head of every strand in T_{11} . On the execution of Step (13), it uses the *append-head* operations to append $n_{o+1,q}^1$ and $b_{o,q}^1$ onto the head of every strand in T_{12} . Then, the execution of Step (14) applies the *append-head* operations to append $n_{o+1,q}^1$ and $b_{o,q}^1$ onto the head of every strand in T_{13} . On the execution of Step (15), it employs the *append-head* operations to append $n_{o+1,q}^0$ and $b_{o,q}^0$ onto the head of every strand in T_{14} . After finishing Steps (8) to (15), eight different outputs of a 1-bit subtractor in Table V, respectively, are appended into tubes T_7 through T_{14} . Finally, the execution of Step (16) applies the *merge* operation to pour tubes T_7 through T_{14} into $T_0^{>=}$. Tube $T_0^{>=}$ contains the strands finishing the subtraction of a bit.

From ParallelOneBitSubtractor($T_0^{>=}$, o, q, j), it takes seven *extract* operations, 16 *append-head* operations, 16 *detect* operations, one *merge* operation, and 15 test tubes to compute the subtraction of a bit. Two output bits of a 1-bit subtractor encode

TABLE VIII
RESULT IS GENERATED BY BINARYPARALLELDIVIDER(T_0, d)

Tube	The result is generated by BinaryParallelDivider(T_0, d)
T_0	$\{b_{4,6}^0 n_{5,6}^0 b_{4,5}^0 n_{5,5}^0 b_{4,4}^0 n_{5,4}^0 b_{4,3}^0 n_{5,3}^0 b_{4,2}^0 n_{5,2}^0 b_{4,1}^0 n_{5,1}^0 b_{4,0}^0, b_{3,6}^0 n_{4,6}^0 b_{3,5}^0 n_{4,5}^0 b_{3,4}^0 n_{4,4}^0 b_{3,3}^0 n_{4,3}^0 b_{3,2}^0 n_{4,2}^0 b_{3,1}^0 n_{4,1}^0 b_{3,0}^0, b_{2,6}^0 n_{3,6}^0 b_{2,5}^0 n_{3,5}^0 b_{2,4}^0 n_{3,4}^0 b_{2,3}^0 n_{3,3}^0 b_{2,2}^0 n_{3,2}^0 b_{2,1}^0 n_{3,1}^0 b_{2,0}^0, b_{1,6}^0 n_{2,6}^0 b_{1,5}^0 n_{2,5}^0 b_{1,4}^0 n_{2,4}^0 b_{1,3}^0 n_{2,3}^0 b_{1,2}^0 n_{2,2}^0 b_{1,1}^0 n_{2,1}^0 b_{1,0}^0, n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^0 n_{1,3}^0 n_{1,2}^0 n_{1,1}^0 m_3^1 m_2^1 m_1^1\}$ $\{b_{4,6}^0 n_{5,6}^0 b_{4,5}^0 n_{5,5}^0 b_{4,4}^0 n_{5,4}^0 b_{4,3}^0 n_{5,3}^0 b_{4,2}^0 n_{5,2}^0 b_{4,1}^0 n_{5,1}^0 b_{4,0}^0, b_{3,6}^0 n_{4,6}^0 b_{3,5}^0 n_{4,5}^0 b_{3,4}^0 n_{4,4}^0 b_{3,3}^0 n_{4,3}^0 b_{3,2}^0 n_{4,2}^0 b_{3,1}^0 n_{4,1}^0 b_{3,0}^0, b_{2,6}^0 n_{3,6}^0 b_{2,5}^0 n_{3,5}^0 b_{2,4}^0 n_{3,4}^0 b_{2,3}^0 n_{3,3}^0 b_{2,2}^0 n_{3,2}^0 b_{2,1}^0 n_{3,1}^0 b_{2,0}^0, b_{1,6}^0 n_{2,6}^0 b_{1,5}^0 n_{2,5}^0 b_{1,4}^0 n_{2,4}^0 b_{1,3}^0 n_{2,3}^0 b_{1,2}^0 n_{2,2}^0 b_{1,1}^0 n_{2,1}^0 b_{1,0}^0, n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^0 n_{1,3}^0 n_{1,2}^0 n_{1,1}^0 m_3^1 m_2^1 m_1^0\}$ $\{b_{4,6}^0 n_{5,6}^0 b_{4,5}^0 n_{5,5}^0 b_{4,4}^0 n_{5,4}^0 b_{4,3}^0 n_{5,3}^0 b_{4,2}^0 n_{5,2}^0 b_{4,1}^0 n_{5,1}^0 b_{4,0}^0, b_{3,6}^0 n_{4,6}^0 b_{3,5}^0 n_{4,5}^0 b_{3,4}^0 n_{4,4}^0 b_{3,3}^0 n_{4,3}^0 b_{3,2}^0 n_{4,2}^0 b_{3,1}^0 n_{4,1}^0 b_{3,0}^0, b_{2,6}^0 n_{3,6}^0 b_{2,5}^0 n_{3,5}^0 b_{2,4}^0 n_{3,4}^0 b_{2,3}^0 n_{3,3}^0 b_{2,2}^0 n_{3,2}^0 b_{2,1}^0 n_{3,1}^0 b_{2,0}^0, b_{1,6}^0 n_{2,6}^0 b_{1,5}^0 n_{2,5}^0 b_{1,4}^0 n_{2,4}^0 b_{1,3}^0 n_{2,3}^0 b_{1,2}^0 n_{2,2}^0 b_{1,1}^0 n_{2,1}^0 b_{1,0}^0, n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^0 n_{1,3}^0 n_{1,2}^0 n_{1,1}^0 m_3^1 m_2^0 m_1^1\}$ $\{b_{4,6}^0 n_{5,6}^0 b_{4,5}^0 n_{5,5}^0 b_{4,4}^0 n_{5,4}^0 b_{4,3}^0 n_{5,3}^0 b_{4,2}^0 n_{5,2}^0 b_{4,1}^0 n_{5,1}^0 b_{4,0}^0, b_{3,6}^0 n_{4,6}^0 b_{3,5}^0 n_{4,5}^0 b_{3,4}^0 n_{4,4}^0 b_{3,3}^0 n_{4,3}^0 b_{3,2}^0 n_{4,2}^0 b_{3,1}^0 n_{4,1}^0 b_{3,0}^0, b_{2,6}^0 n_{3,6}^0 b_{2,5}^0 n_{3,5}^0 b_{2,4}^0 n_{3,4}^0 b_{2,3}^0 n_{3,3}^0 b_{2,2}^0 n_{3,2}^0 b_{2,1}^0 n_{3,1}^0 b_{2,0}^0, b_{1,6}^0 n_{2,6}^0 b_{1,5}^0 n_{2,5}^0 b_{1,4}^0 n_{2,4}^0 b_{1,3}^0 n_{2,3}^0 b_{1,2}^0 n_{2,2}^0 b_{1,1}^0 n_{2,1}^0 b_{1,0}^0, n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^0 n_{1,3}^0 n_{1,2}^0 n_{1,1}^0 m_3^1 m_2^0 m_1^0\}$

BinaryParallelDivider(T_0, d) are performed, tube $T_1 = \phi$, tube $T_2 = \phi$, $T_0^> = \phi$, tube $T_0^= = \phi$, tube $T_0^< = \phi$, tube $T_0^{>=} = \phi$, and the result for tube T_0 is shown in Table VIII. Lemma 7 is used to show correction of the algorithm BinaryParallelDivider(T_0, d).

Lemma 7: The algorithm BinaryParallelDivider(T_0, d) can be applied to finish the function of a binary parallel divider.

Proof: The division to a dividend of $(2 * k)$ bits and a divisor of d bits for $1 \leq d \leq k$ is finished through of successive compare, shift, and subtract operations of at most $(2 * k)$ times. When the first compare, shift, and subtract operations, the least significant position for the dividend and the divisor is subtracted, the input borrow bit must be zero. Step (1) is the main loop and is applied to finish the function of a binary parallel divider. So each execution of Step (1a0) uses the *append-head* operation to append 15-based DNA sequences for representing $b_{0,0}^0$ onto the head of every strand in T_0 . On each execution of Step (1a), it calls ParallelComparator($T_0, T_0^>, T_0^=, T_0^<, d, o$) to compare the divisor with the corresponding bits of the dividend. After it is finished, three tubes are generated and are, respectively, $T_0^>$, $T_0^=$, and $T_0^<$. The first tube $T_0^>$ includes the strands with the comparative result of greater than (" $>$ "). The second tube $T_0^=$ includes the strands with the comparative result of equal (" $=$ "). The third tube $T_0^<$ consists of the strands with the comparative result of less than (" $<$ "). Next, each execution of Step (1b) employs the *merge* operation to pour tubes $T_0^>$ and $T_0^=$ into $T_0^{>=}$. On each execution Step (1c) applies the *detect* operation to check whether tube $T_0^{>=}$ contains any DNA strand or not. If a "yes" is returned, then Step (2) through Step (4a) will be run. Otherwise, those steps will not be executed. Step (2) is a loop and is used mainly to reserve the least significant $((2 * k) - (o - 1) - (k - d) - 1)$ bits of the dividend. This implies

that the least significant $((2 * k) - (o - 1) - (k - d) - 1)$ bits of the minuend (dividend) for the o th compare, shift, and subtract operations are reserved. And they are equal to the least significant $((2 * k) - (o - 1) - (k - d) - 1)$ bits of the difference for the same operations. Therefore, on each execution of Step (2a), it uses the *extract* operation to form two test tubes: T_1 and T_2 . The first tube T_1 includes all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 1$. The second tube T_2 consists of all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 0$. On each execution Step (2a1) uses the *detect* operation to test if tube T_1 contains any DNA strand. If a "yes" is returned, then Step (2b) will be run. Otherwise, that step will not be executed. Next, each execution of Step (2b) uses the *append-head* operations to append $n_{o+1,q}^1$ and $b_{o,q}^0$ onto the head of every strand in T_1 . Each execution of Step (2b1) applies the *detect* operation to examine if tube T_2 contains any DNA strand. If a "yes" is returned, then Step (2c) will be run. Otherwise, that step will not be executed. On each execution of Step (2c), it applies the *append-head* operations to append $n_{o+1,q}^0$ and $b_{o,q}^0$ onto the head of every strand in T_2 . Then, each execution of Step (2d) employs the *merge* operation to pour tubes T_1 and T_2 into $T_0^{>=}$. Tube $T_0^{>=}$ contains the strands finishing compare, shift, and subtract operations of a bit. Repeat execution of Steps (2a) through (2d) until the least significant $((2 * k) - (o - 1) - (k - d) - 1)$ bits of the minuend (dividend) are processed. Tube $T_0^{>=}$ contains the strands finishing compare, shift, and subtract operations of the least significant $((2 * k) - (o - 1) - (k - d) - 1)$ bits of the minuend (dividend).

Next, when each execution of Step (3) calls the algorithm BinaryParallelSubtractor($T_0^{>=}, d, o, q$) to finish compare, shift, and subtract operations of $(k - d + 1)$ bits. Step (4) is a loop and it is used to finish compare, shift, and subtract operations of the most significant $(o - 1)$ bits in the minuend (dividend). Because the most significant $(o - 1)$ bits in the minuend (dividend) for the o th compare, shift, and subtract operations are all zero, the most significant $(o - 1)$ bits of the difference to the o th compare, shift, and subtract operations are equal to the most significant $(o - 1)$ bits of the minuend to the same operations. On each execution of Step (4a), it applies the *append-head* operations to append $n_{o+1,q}^0$ and $b_{o,q}^0$ onto the head of every strand in $T_0^{>=}$. Repeat execution of Step (4a) until the most significant $(o - 1)$ bits of the minuend are processed. Tube $T_0^{>=}$ contains the strands finishing the o th compare, shift, and subtract operations of the comparative result of greater than or equal to (" $>=$ ").

Next, each execution of Step (4b) applies the *detect* operation to check whether tube $T_0^<$ contains any DNA strand or not. If a "yes" is returned, then Step (5) through Step (5d) will be run. Otherwise, those steps will not be executed. Since $T_0^<$ consists of all of the strands with the comparative result of less than (" $<$ "). This implies that the $(2 * k)$ bits of the difference to the o th compare, shift, and subtract operations are equal to the $(2 * k)$ bits of the minuend to the same operations. Step (5) is a loop and is employed to finish the o th compare, shift, and subtract operations for tube $T_0^<$. On each execution of Step (5a), it employs the *extract* operation to form two test tubes: T_1 and T_2 . The first tube T_1 includes all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 1$. The second tube T_2 consists of all of the strands that have $n_{o,q} = 0$. On each execution Step (5a1) uses the *detect* operation to test if tube T_1 contains any DNA strand. If a "yes" is returned, then Step (5b) will be run. Otherwise, that step will not be executed.

Next, each execution of Step (5b) uses the *append-head* operations to append $n_{o+1,q}^1$ and $b_{o,q}^0$ onto the head of every strand in T_1 . Each execution of Step (5b1) applies the *detect* operation to examine whether tube T_2 contains any DNA strand or not. If a “yes” is returned, then Step (5c) will be run. Otherwise, that step will not be executed. On each execution of Step (5c), it applies the *append-head* operations to append $n_{o+1,q}^0$ and $b_{o,q}^0$ onto the head of every strand in T_2 . Then, each execution of Step (5d) applies the *merge* operation to pour tubes T_1 and T_2 into $T_0^<$. Tube $T_0^<$ contains the strands finishing compare, shift, and subtract operations of a bit. Repeat execution of Steps (5a) through (5d) until the $(2 * k)$ bits are processed. Tube $T_0^<$ contains the strands finishing compare, shift, and subtract operations of the $(2 * k)$ bits for the o th compare, shift, and subtract operations to the comparative result of less than (“<”).

Next, each execution of Step (6) applies the *merge* operation to pour tubes $T_0^{>=}$ and $T_0^<$ into T_0 . Tube T_0 contains the strands finishing the o th compare, shift, and subtract operations of $(2 * k)$ bits for the comparative results of greater than or equal to or less than. Repeat execution of the steps above until successive compare, shift, and subtract operations of at most $(2 * k)$ times are processed. Tube T_0 contains the strands finishing a division for a dividend of $(2 * k)$ bits and a divisor of d bits for $1 \leq d \leq k$.

From BinaryParallelDivider(T_0), it takes $(13 * k^2 + 4 * k * d + 9 * k - 9 * d^2 + 9 * d)$ *extract* operations, $(27 * k^2 + 14 * k * d + 13 * k - 13 * d^2 + 13 * d + 1)$ *append-head* operations, $(7 * k^2 + 4 * k * d + 6 * k - 3 * d^2 + 6 * d)$ *merge* operations, $((29 * k^2 + 14 * k * d + 19 * k - 15 * d^2 + 19 * d) \div 2)$ *detect* operations, and 22 tubes to compute the division operation. The length of a DNA strand, encoding the difference bits and the borrow bits, is $(60 * k^2 + 60 * k * d + 15)$ bases.

H. Finding Two Large Prime Numbers of k Bits

The following DNA algorithm is applied to find two large prime numbers of k bits.

Algorithm 1: Finding two large prime numbers of k bits

```

(1) InitialSolution( $T_0$ ).
(2) InitialProduct( $T_0$ ).
(3) For  $d = 1$  to  $k$ 
  (3a)  $T_0 = +(T_0, m_{k-d+1}^1)$  and
 $T_{off} = -(T_0, m_{k-d+1}^1)$ .
  (3b) BinaryParallelDivider( $T_0, d$ ).
  (3c) For  $q = 1$  to  $k - d + 1$ 
    (3d)  $T_0 = +(T_0, n_{k+d+1,q}^0)$  and
 $T_{bad} = -(T_0, n_{k+d+1,q}^0)$ .
    (3e) Discard( $T_{bad}$ ).
    (3f) If (Detect( $T_0$ ) = “no”) then
      (3g) Terminate the execution of the
      second (inner) loop.
    EndIf
  EndFor
(3h) If (Detect( $T_0$ ) = “yes”) then
  (3i) Read( $T_0$ ) and then terminate
  the algorithm.
EndIf
(3j)  $T_0 = U(T_0, T_{off})$ .
EndFor
EndAlgorithm

```

Consider that the value for n is 001 111. Algorithm 1 is used to factor n into three and five. Tube T_0 is an empty tube and is regarded as an input tube for Algorithm 1. After the execution for Step (1) is performed, the result for tube T_0 is shown in Table I. Next, after the execution for Step (2) is finished, the result for tube T_0 is shown in Table II. Because the value for k is three, each operation embedded in Step (3) will be at most run three times. After the first execution for Step (3a) is performed, tube

$$T_0 = \{n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^1 m_2^1 m_1^1, n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^1 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^1 m_2^1 m_1^0, n_{1,6}^1 n_{1,5}^1 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^1 m_2^0 m_1^0, n_{1,6}^1 n_{1,5}^1 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^0 m_2^0 m_1^0\}$$

and tube

$$T_{OFF} = \{N_{1,6}^0 N_{1,5}^0 N_{1,4}^1 N_{1,3}^1 N_{1,2}^1 N_{1,1}^1 M_3^0 M_2^1 M_1^1, N_{1,6}^0 N_{1,5}^1 N_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^0 m_2^1 m_1^0, n_{1,6}^1 n_{1,5}^1 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^0 m_2^0 m_1^1, n_{1,6}^1 n_{1,5}^1 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^0 m_2^0 m_1^0\}.$$

Next, after the first execution of Step (3b) is finished, the result for tube T_0 is shown in Table VIII.

Since the value of the upper bound in Step (3c) is three, each operation embedded in Step (3c) will be at most run three times.

Next, after the first execution of Step (3d) is run, tube

$$T_0 = \{b_{4,6}^0 b_{4,5}^0 b_{4,4}^1 b_{4,3}^1 b_{4,2}^1 b_{4,1}^1 n_{5,1}^0 b_{4,0}^1 b_{3,6}^0 n_{4,6}^0 b_{3,5}^0 n_{4,5}^0 b_{3,4}^1 b_{3,3}^1 b_{3,2}^1 b_{3,1}^1 n_{4,1}^1 b_{3,0}^1 b_{2,6}^0 n_{3,6}^0 b_{2,5}^0 n_{3,5}^0 b_{2,4}^1 b_{2,3}^1 b_{2,2}^1 b_{2,1}^1 n_{3,1}^1 b_{2,0}^1 b_{1,6}^0 n_{2,6}^0 b_{1,5}^0 n_{2,5}^0 b_{1,4}^1 b_{1,3}^1 b_{1,2}^1 b_{1,1}^1 n_{2,1}^1 b_{1,0}^1 n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^1 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^1 m_2^0 m_1^1\}$$

and tube

$$T_{bad} = \{b_{4,6}^0 n_{5,6}^0 b_{4,5}^0 n_{5,5}^0 b_{4,4}^1 n_{5,4}^0 b_{4,3}^1 n_{5,3}^0 b_{4,2}^1 n_{5,2}^0 b_{4,1}^1 n_{5,1}^0 b_{4,0}^1 b_{3,6}^0 n_{4,6}^0 b_{3,5}^0 n_{4,5}^0 b_{3,4}^1 b_{3,3}^1 n_{4,3}^0 b_{3,2}^1 n_{4,2}^0 b_{3,1}^1 n_{4,1}^0 b_{3,0}^1 b_{2,6}^0 n_{3,6}^0 b_{2,5}^0 n_{3,5}^0 b_{2,4}^1 b_{2,3}^1 b_{2,2}^1 b_{2,1}^1 n_{3,1}^1 b_{2,0}^1 b_{1,6}^0 n_{2,6}^0 b_{1,5}^0 n_{2,5}^0 b_{1,4}^1 b_{1,3}^1 b_{1,2}^1 b_{1,1}^1 n_{2,1}^1 b_{1,0}^1 n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^1 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^1 m_2^1 m_1^1, b_{4,6}^0 n_{5,6}^0 b_{4,5}^0 n_{5,5}^0 b_{4,4}^1 n_{5,4}^0 b_{4,3}^1 n_{5,3}^0 b_{4,2}^1 n_{5,2}^0 b_{4,1}^1 n_{5,1}^0 b_{4,0}^1 b_{3,6}^0 n_{4,6}^0 b_{3,5}^0 n_{4,5}^0 b_{3,4}^1 b_{3,3}^1 n_{4,3}^0 b_{3,2}^1 n_{4,2}^0 b_{3,1}^1 n_{4,1}^0 b_{3,0}^1 b_{2,6}^0 n_{3,6}^0 b_{2,5}^0 n_{3,5}^0 b_{2,4}^1 b_{2,3}^1 b_{2,2}^1 b_{2,1}^1 n_{3,1}^1 b_{2,0}^1 b_{1,6}^0 n_{2,6}^0 b_{1,5}^0 n_{2,5}^0 b_{1,4}^1 b_{1,3}^1 b_{1,2}^1 b_{1,1}^1 n_{2,1}^1 b_{1,0}^1 n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^1 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^1 m_2^1 m_1^0, b_{4,6}^0 n_{5,6}^0 b_{4,5}^0 n_{5,5}^0 b_{4,4}^1 n_{5,4}^0 b_{4,3}^1 n_{5,3}^0 b_{4,2}^1 n_{5,2}^0 b_{4,1}^1 n_{5,1}^0 b_{4,0}^1 b_{3,6}^0 n_{4,6}^0 b_{3,5}^0 n_{4,5}^0 b_{3,4}^1 b_{3,3}^1 n_{4,3}^0 b_{3,2}^1 n_{4,2}^0 b_{3,1}^1 n_{4,1}^0 b_{3,0}^1 b_{2,6}^0 n_{3,6}^0 b_{2,5}^0 n_{3,5}^0 b_{2,4}^1 b_{2,3}^1 b_{2,2}^1 b_{2,1}^1 n_{3,1}^1 b_{2,0}^1 b_{1,6}^0 n_{2,6}^0 b_{1,5}^0 n_{2,5}^0 b_{1,4}^1 b_{1,3}^1 b_{1,2}^1 b_{1,1}^1 n_{2,1}^1 b_{1,0}^1 n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^1 n_{1,4}^1 n_{1,3}^1 n_{1,2}^1 n_{1,1}^1 m_3^1 m_2^0 m_1^1\}.$$

Next, after the first execution for Step (3e) is performed, tube $T_{bad} = \phi$. A “yes” is returned from the first execution of Step (3f), so the first execution for Step (3g) is not run.

Next, after the rest of operations for Steps (3d) through (3f) are performed, tube

$$T_0 = \{b_{4,6}^0 n_{5,6}^0 b_{4,5}^0 n_{5,5}^0 b_{4,4}^0 n_{5,4}^0 b_{4,3}^0 n_{5,3}^0 b_{4,2}^0 n_{5,2}^0 b_{4,1}^0 n_{5,1}^0 b_{4,0}^0 b_{3,6}^0 n_{4,6}^0 b_{3,5}^0 n_{4,5}^0 b_{3,4}^0 n_{4,4}^0 b_{3,3}^0 n_{4,3}^0 b_{3,2}^0 n_{4,2}^0 b_{3,1}^0 n_{4,1}^0 b_{3,0}^0 b_{2,6}^0 n_{3,6}^0 b_{2,5}^0 n_{3,5}^0 b_{2,4}^0 n_{3,4}^0 b_{2,3}^0 n_{3,3}^0 b_{2,2}^0 n_{3,2}^0 b_{2,1}^0 n_{3,1}^0 b_{2,0}^0 b_{1,6}^0 n_{2,6}^0 b_{1,5}^0 n_{2,5}^0 b_{1,4}^0 n_{2,4}^0 b_{1,3}^0 n_{2,3}^0 b_{1,2}^0 n_{2,2}^0 b_{1,1}^0 n_{2,1}^0 b_{1,0}^0 n_{1,6}^0 n_{1,5}^0 n_{1,4}^0 n_{1,3}^0 n_{1,2}^0 n_{1,1}^0 n_{1,0}^0 m_3^0 m_2^0 m_1^0\}$$

and tube $T_{\text{bad}} = \phi$. A “yes” is returned from the first execution of Step (3h). Next, the answer is five from the first execution of Step (3i) and Algorithm 1 is terminated from the first execution of Step (3i). Since one of two primers is five, another primer is equal to three. Theorem 1 is used to show correction of Algorithm 1.

Theorem 1: From those steps in Algorithm 1, the difficulty of factoring the product of two large prime numbers of k bits is solved.

Proof: On the execution of Step (1), it calls InitialSolution(T_0) to construct solution space of DNA strands for every unsigned integer of k bits. This means that tube T_0 includes strands encoding 2^k different integer values. Next, the execution of Step (2) calls InitialProduct(T_0) to append DNA sequences of encoding n , the product of two large prime numbers of k bits, onto the head of every strand in tube T_0 . This implies that the front ($2 * k$) bits and the last k bits of every strand in T_0 , respectively, represent the dividend and the divisor of a division instruction after Step (2) is performed.

Step (3) is two level loops and is mainly used to factor the product of two large prime numbers of k bits. On each execution of Step (3a), it uses the *extract* operation to form two tubes: T_0 and T_{off} . The first tube T_0 includes all of the strands that have $m_{k-d+1} = 1$. This is to say that the $(k - d + 1)$ th bit of every divisor in T_0 is equal to one. The second tube T_{off} consists of all of the strands that have $m_{k-d+1} = 0$. This indicates that the $(k - d + 1)$ th bit of every divisor in T_{off} is equal to zero. Because the front d bits of every divisor in T_{off} are all zeros, therefore, the d th division instruction is not applied to compute the remainder of every strand in T_{off} . Next, each execution of Step (3b) calls BinaryParallelDivider(T_0, d). The procedure is used to finish a division instruction. After Step (3b) is performed, the remainder of every strand in T_0 is computed. Step (3c) is the inner loop and is mainly employed to judge whether the remainder of a division operation is equal to zero. On each execution of Step (3d), it uses the *extract* operation to form two tubes: T_0 and T_{bad} . The first tube T_0 includes all of the strands that have $n_{k+d+1,q} = 0$. This means that the q th bit of every remainder in T_0 is equal to zero. The second tube T_{bad} consists of all of the strands that have $n_{k+d+1,q} = 1$. This implies that the q th bit of every remainder in T_{bad} is equal to one. Since the strands in T_{bad} encode every remainder that is not equal to zero, Step (3e) is used to discard T_{bad} . Then, each execution of Step (3f) applies the *detect* operation to check whether tube T_0 contains any DNA strand or not. If a “no” is returned, then this indicates that all of the remainders in T_0 for the d th division operation are not equal to zero. Therefore, Step (3g) is employed to terminate the execution of the inner loop. If a “yes” is returned, then repeat the steps until the number of the execution of the inner loop is performed.

After the inner loop is performed, Step (3h) is applied to detect whether T_0 contains any DNA strands or not. If it returns a “yes,” then DNA sequences in T_0 represent the remainders that are equal to zero. Hence, Step (3i) is used to find the answer (one of two large prime numbers) from T_0 . Simultaneously, the algorithm is terminated. If it returns a “no,” then Step (3j) is employed to pour tube T_{off} into tube T_0 . This is to say that T_0 reserves the strands that have $m_{k-d+1} = 0$. Repeat the steps until the number of the execution of the outer loop is performed. Finally, the strands in T_0 encode every strand that is zero. This indicates that the only two large prime numbers of k bits are in T_0 . Therefore, it is inferred that the difficulty of factoring the product of two large prime numbers of k bits is solved from those steps in Algorithm 1.

I. Breaking the RSA Public-Key Cryptosystem

The RSA public-key cryptosystem can be used to encrypt messages sent between two communicating parties so that an eavesdropper who overhears the encrypted message will not be able to decode them. Assume that the encrypted message overheard is represented as C (the corresponding cipher-text). An eavesdropper only needs to use the following algorithm to decode them.

Algorithm 2: Breaking the RSA Public-key Cryptosystem

- (1) Call Algorithm 1.
 - (2) Compute the secret key d , from the multiplicative inverse of e , module $(p - 1) * (q - 1)$ on a classical computer.
 - (3) Decode the messages overheard through the decryption function, C^d (module n) on a classical computer.
- EndAlgorithm

Theorem 2: From the steps in Algorithm 2, an eavesdropper can decode the encrypted message overheard.

Proof: Refer to Algorithm 1.

J. The Complexity of Algorithm 1

Lemma 8: Suppose that the length of n , the product of two large prime numbers of k bits is $(2 * k)$ bits. The difficulty of factoring n can be solved with $O(k^3)$ biological operations solution space of DNA strands.

Proof: Refer to Algorithm 1.

Lemma 9: Suppose that the length of n , the product of two large prime numbers of k bits, is $(2 * k)$ bits. The difficulty of factoring n can be solved with $O(2^k)$ library strands from solution space of DNA strands.

Proof: Refer to Algorithm 1.

Lemma 10: Suppose that the length of n , the product of two large prime numbers of k bits, is $(2 * k)$ bits. The difficulty of factoring n can be solved with $O(1)$ tubes from solution space of DNA strands.

Proof: Refer to Algorithm 1.

Lemma 11: Suppose that the length of n , the product of two large prime numbers of k bits, is $(2 * k)$ bits. The difficulty of factoring n can be solved with the longest library strand, $O(k^2)$, from solution space of DNA strands.

Proof: Refer to Algorithm 1.

IV. DISCUSSION

The proposed algorithm (Algorithm 1) for factoring the product of two large prime numbers of k bits is based on biological operations from solution space of DNA strands. This algorithm has several advantages from biological operations and solution space of DNA strands. First, the Adleman program [22], [46] was used to generate good DNA sequences to construct the solution space of DNA strands. Good DNA sequences were applied to decrease a rate of errors for hybridization. This indicates that the proposed algorithm actually has a lower rate of errors for hybridization.

Second, basic biological operations were employed to finish the function of a k -bit parallel comparator, the function of a parallel subtractor, and the function of a parallel divider. This means that the proposed algorithm has the computational capability of mathematics to finish subtraction (“−”) and division (“÷”). Basic biological operations had been performed in a fully automated manner in their lab. The full automation manner is essential not only for the speedup of computation but also for error-free computation.

Third, in Algorithm 1 for factoring the product of two large prime numbers of k bits, the number of tubes, the longest length of DNA strands, the number of DNA strands, and the number of biological operations, respectively, are $O(1)$, $O(k^2)$, $O(2^k)$, and $O(k^3)$. This implies that the proposed algorithm can be easily performed in a fully automated manner in a lab. Fourthly, after n is factored as $p * q$ from Algorithm 1, decoding an encrypted message overheard is performed on a classical computer. This is to say that decoding an overheard encrypted message can be easily implemented on a classical computer after n is factored as $p * q$.

V. CONCLUSION

A general *digital* computer mainly contains the CPU and memory. The main function for the CPU is to perform mathematical computational tasks and the main function to memory is to store each data needed for mathematical computational tasks. However, on a general molecular computer, each data needed for mathematical computational tasks is encoded by means of a DNA strand and performing mathematical computational tasks is by means of a DNA algorithm (including a series of basic biological operations) on those DNA strands. The execution time for any basic biological operation is very longer than that of a *digital* mathematical instruction. Hence, in order to significantly improve the execution time for any basic biological operation, Adleman [2] indicated that exponential DNA strands are necessary. This implies that by means of a basic biological operation on exponential DNA strands can be used to perform exponential *digital* mathematical instructions.

The paper is the first paper that demonstrates that the difficult problem for factoring the product of two large prime numbers of k bits can be solved on a DNA-based computer. The proposed algorithm takes a number of steps that is polynomial in the input size, e.g., the number of binary digits of the product (integer) to be factored. Simultaneously, the paper also shows that humans' mathematical operations can directly be performed with basic biological operations. The property for the difficulty of factoring

the product of two large prime numbers is the basis of cryptosystems using public key. However, the property seems to be incorrect on a molecular computer. This indicates that the cryptosystems using public key are perhaps insecure. Furthermore, the first example of *molecular cryptanalysis* for cryptosystems based on public key is proposed in the paper.

Currently the future of molecular computers is unclear. It is possible that in the future molecular computers will be the clear choice for performing massively parallel computations. However, there are still many technical difficulties to overcome before this becomes a reality. We hope that this paper helps to demonstrate that molecular computing is a technology worth pursuing.

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