

Introduction to Number Theory

Math 110 | Winter 2023

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What we have seen last week

- Dirichlet's approximation theorem.
- Higher Diophantine equations *rational pts on curves*
- Modular arithmetic
- Modular dynamic
 - Additive dynamic
 - Multiplicative dynamic χa $a \in \underline{\phi(m)}$
 - Euler's totient φ
 - Euler-Fermat theorem

$$a^{\varphi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$$

Today's topics

- Primality testing
- Modular exponential
- Primitive roots
- Discrete logarithm
- Some cryptography

Primality testing

Primality testing

Question

Given a positive integer N , determine whether N is a prime number.

- Test each $1 < x < N$. If none of them divides N , then N is prime.
- (**Trial division method**) Just test $1 < x \leq \sqrt{N}$.

$$x \mid N \quad N = xy \quad \text{saying } x \leq y$$

↓ smaller one

$$x^2 \leq xy = N$$

Definition 14.1 (Fermat's primality testing)

If you can find an integer $1 < x < N$ such that

$$x^{N-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{N}.$$

N is prime
 $\Rightarrow a^{N-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$
 $0 < a < N$

Then N cannot be prime (by Fermat's little theorem, ??). Such an integer x is called a **Fermat witness** for the compositeness of N .

Note that, even N is composite, it is still possible that

$$x^{N-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}.$$

If this is the case, we say x is a **Fermat liar**.

Primality testing

To disprove N is prime, we only need one Fermat witness

- Divisors are Fermat witness $\because d|N \Rightarrow \gcd(d, N) \neq 1 \Rightarrow d$ not invertible
 $\Rightarrow d^{N-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{N}$.

At first glance, it does not make the primality testing any easier:

- We need to compute an exponential, which seems not easy.
- There are Fermat liars. Hence, applying the testing to only one integer $1 < x < N$ maybe not enough. (Clearly, if x is not coprime to N , then it is a Fermat witness, but it is possible that all integers that are coprime to N are Fermat liars. Such a composite N is called a Carmichael numbers.)

for which, Fermat witness = divisors so are rare.

Primality testing

At first glance, it does not make the primality testing any easier:

- We need to compute an exponential, which seems not easy.
- There are Fermat liars. Hence, applying the testing to only one integer $1 < x < N$ maybe not enough. (Clearly, if x is not coprime to N , then it is a Fermat witness, but it is possible that all integers that are coprime to N are Fermat liars. Such a composite N is called a **Carmichael numbers**.)

But it is in fact way faster than the trial division method, which has time complexity $O(\sqrt{N})$. While the Fermat's primality testing has time complexity $O(K \cdot \log(N))$ (K is the number of x you used in the testing).

Primality testing

Theorem 14.2

If there is a Fermat witness in $\Phi(N)$ for the compositeness of N , then at least half of the numbers in $\Phi(N)$ are Fermat witnesses.

Proof. Let a be a Fermat witness. If there is no Fermat liar, we are done. Otherwise, if there is a Fermat liar b , then $ab \pmod{N}$ is a Fermat witness:

$$b^{N-1} \equiv 1$$

$$(ab)^{N-1} = a^{N-1}b^{N-1} \equiv a^{N-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{N}.$$

Moreover, since $a \in \Phi(N)$, $\boxed{\cdot a \pmod{N}}$ is invertible. Hence, we get an injective map from Fermat liars to Fermat witnesses in $\Phi(N)$.

Consequently, at least half of $\Phi(N)$ are Fermat witnesses. \square

$$|\dots| \leq |\dots|$$

So if we know the composite N is not a Carmichael number**, then the chance for it to pass K Fermat's primality testing is less than $(\frac{1}{2})^K$. So we don't need many K in general.

The time complexity $O(\log N)$ for exponential computation can be achieved by *binary exponentiation algorithms*.

**We don't know N a priori. But we can take the distribution of Carmichael numbers into account. For instance, there are only 8220777 Carmichael numbers under 10^{20} .

Primality testing

Question (Modular exponential)

Fix the modulus m and the base b , effectively compute the natural representative of b^x modulo m .

The basic idea of binary exponentiation algorithms is:

1. Write the exponent in binary digits: $x = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i 2^i$ $n \approx \log_2 x$
 $a_i \rightarrow 0 \text{ or } 1$

2. Then we have

$$b^x = b^{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i 2^i} = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (b^{2^i})^{a_i}$$

$\rightarrow 0 \text{ or } 1 \Leftrightarrow \text{no effect or has a factor}$

3. The natural representative of b^{2^i} can be computed by iterating squares:

$$b \mapsto b^2 \mapsto (b^2)^2 = b^{2^2} \mapsto \dots \mapsto (b^{2^{i-1}})^2 = b^{2^i}$$

n times

Primality testing

Example 14.3

Apply Fermat's primality testing to 91 with the base 2.

We first write the exponent $91 - 1 = \underline{90}$ into binary digits:

$$90 = 2^6 + 2^4 + 2^3 + 2. \quad (1011010)_2$$

We can compute natural representatives of 2^{2^i} as follows:

	2	2^2	2^{2^2}	2^{2^3}	2^{2^4}	2^{2^5}	2^{2^6}
modulo 91	2	4	16	74	16	74	16

have

-17

Then we have

$2^{90} = 2^{2^6} \cdot 2^{2^4} \cdot 2^{2^3} \cdot \cancel{2^{2^2}} \cdot 2^2 \equiv 16 \cdot 16 \cdot 74 \cdot 4 \equiv 64 \pmod{91}$

witness 91 being a composite.

So 2 witness 91 being a composite.

Some remarks for binary exponentiation algorithms:

- We do not need natural representatives of b^{2^i} . Instead, using *minimal representatives*^{††} maybe more effective.
- The dynamic of $\boxed{(\cdot)^2 \pmod{m}}$ will eventually fall in a circle since \mathbb{Z}/m is finite. So we only need a finite step to generating all the natural representatives of b^{2^i} .
- We still need to do the multiplication of n congruence classes, but we may do it in a clever way (such as: pairing a square).

^{††}The **minimal representative** of a congruence class α (modulo m) is the representative a of α such that $-\frac{m}{2} < a \leq \frac{m}{2}$.

Relation between additive and multiplicative dynamics

Relation between additive and multiplicative dynamics

Corollary 14.4 (Of Euler-Fermat, ??)

Let m be a modulus and $a \in \Phi(m)$. Then for any integers b, c such that $b \equiv c \pmod{\varphi(m)}$, we have

$$a^b \equiv a^c \pmod{m}.$$

$$a^b = a^{c + k \cdot \varphi(m)} \quad a^{\varphi(m)} \equiv 1$$

N.B. It is NOT TRUE that $b \equiv c \pmod{m} \Rightarrow a^b \equiv a^c \pmod{m}$ even given $a \in \Phi(m)$. E.g. $2 \in \Phi(7)$. $10 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$ but $2^{10} \not\equiv 2^3 \pmod{7}$.

$$\begin{array}{cc} 10 & 24 \\ 3 & 8 \\ \cdot & 1 \end{array}$$

Relation between additive and multiplicative dynamics

The corollary ?? relates the additive dynamics on $\mathbb{Z}/\varphi(m)$ and the multiplicative dynamics on $\Phi(m)$:

$$\begin{aligned} \exp_{\mathbf{a} \pmod m} : \mathbb{Z}/\varphi(m) &\longrightarrow \Phi(m) \\ \bar{x} &\longmapsto \mathbf{a}^x \pmod m. \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, this map is a *homomorphism* from the abelian group $(\mathbb{Z}/\varphi(m), +, \mathbf{0})$ to the abelian group $(\Phi(m), \cdot, 1)$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{addition} & \rightarrow & \text{multiplication} \\ \bar{0} & \rightarrow & 1 \end{array}$$

Relation between additive and multiplicative dynamics

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Moreover, this map is a *homomorphism* from the abelian group $(\mathbb{Z}/\varphi(m), +, \mathbf{0})$ to the abelian group $(\Phi(m), \cdot, 1)$.

But it may not be bijective! E.g. Let 14 be the modulus and consider the base 9. Then $\Phi(14) = \{1, 3, 5, 9, 11, 13\}$ and hence, $\varphi(14) = 6$. However, although $[1]_6$ and $[4]_6$ are different classes in $\mathbb{Z}/\varphi(14)$, 9^1 and 9^4 have the same natural representative in $\Phi(14)$.

Relation between additive and multiplicative dynamics

Just as in \mathbb{Z}_m
 (a, m) coprime $\Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_m = \{ \text{multiples of } [a] \}$
 ↙ generator

$\exp_{a \bmod m}$ is bijective!

Definition 14.5

Let m be a modulus. Then a **primitive root modulo m** is an element a in $\Phi(m)$ such that the dynamic of $\boxed{\cdot a \pmod{m}}$ consists of only one circle. Namely, any element of $\Phi(m)$ can be expressed as a power of a modulo m .

Example 14.6

3 is a primitive root modulo 14.

$$\Phi(14) = \{1, 3, 5, 9, 11, 13\} \approx \mathbb{Z}_6 \leftarrow \varphi(14)$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} 1 & \rightarrow & 3 & \rightarrow & 9 & \rightarrow & 13 & \rightarrow & 11 & \rightarrow & 5 & \rightarrow & 1 \\ \parallel & & \parallel & & \parallel & & \parallel & & \parallel & & \parallel & & \\ 3^0 & & 3^1 & & 3^2 & & 3^3 & & 3^4 & & 3^5 & & \end{array}$$

Relation between additive and multiplicative dynamics

However, primitive roots do not always exist.

Example 14.7

There is no primitive root modulo **12**.

First, $\Phi(12) = \{1, 5, 7, 11\}$. For each of them, we investigate the multiplicative dynamic.

- $\ell_{12}(1) = 1$. $a \mapsto a$
- $\ell_{12}(5) = 2$. $1 \mapsto 5 \rightarrow 1$, $7 \mapsto 11 \rightarrow 7$
- $\ell_{12}(7) = 2$. $1 \mapsto 7 \rightarrow 1$, $5 \mapsto 11 \rightarrow 5$
- $\ell_{12}(11) = 2$. $1 \mapsto 11 \rightarrow 1$, $5 \mapsto 7 \rightarrow 5$

Relation between additive and multiplicative dynamics

When a primitive root g modulo m exists, we have an *isomorphism* between abelian groups:

$$\begin{aligned} \exp_{g \pmod{m}} : \mathbb{Z}/\varphi(m) &\longrightarrow \Phi(m) \\ \bar{x} &\longmapsto g^x \pmod{m}. \end{aligned}$$

In particular, any element a of $\Phi(m)$ can be expressed as a power of g modulo m . Then exponent, which is a congruence class modulo $\varphi(m)$, is called the **discrete logarithm of a to the base g modulo $\varphi(m)$** . Notation: $\log_{g \pmod{m}}(a)$.

After Class Work

Pingala's algorithm on computing modular exponential $b^x \pmod{m}$:

1. Write the exponent in binary digits: $x = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i 2^i$

2. Instead of think b^x as $\prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (b^{2^i})^{a_i}$, we think it as

$$b^x = (((b^2 \cdot b^{a_{n-2}})^2 \cdot b^{a_{n-3}})^2 \dots)^2 \cdot b^{a_0}.$$

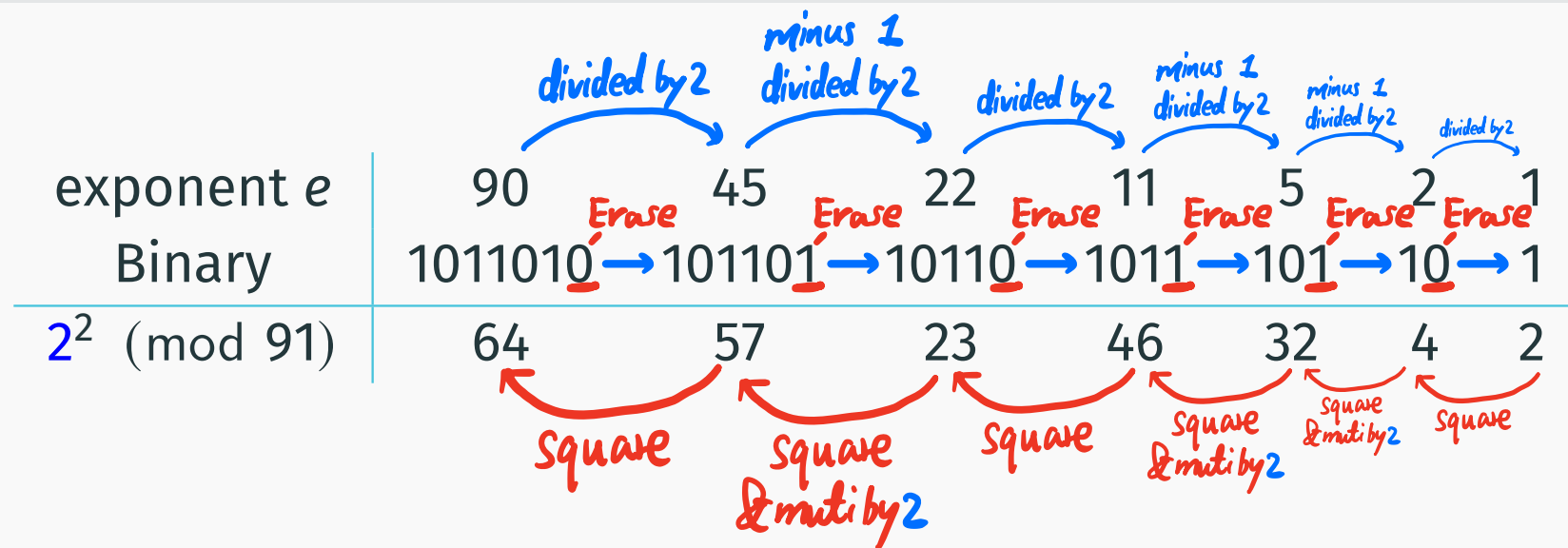
3. Then the algorithm can be understood as:

- Start with b ;
- In each step k , take square (modulo m) of the previous one and then multiply it with $b^{a_{n-k}}$ (namely, multiply it with b if $a_{n-k} = 1$ and do nothing if not).

After Class Work

Example 14.8

Find the natural representative of 2^{90} modulo 91.



Exercise 14.1

Is 119 a prime number?

Terminology

A group $(G, *, e)$ is called a **cyclic group** if it is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z}/m, +, \mathbf{0})$ for some m (called its **order**). The name comes from the fact that you can arrange elements in G in a single cycle $e \mapsto g \mapsto g^2 \mapsto \dots \mapsto g^m = e$ under the function “ $- * g$ ”. Such an element g is called a **primitive root** of the cyclic group G .

Terminology

A congruence class $\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}/m$ is a primitive root of the additive group $(\mathbb{Z}/m, +, \mathbf{0})$ if and only if a coprime to m . (by theorem ??)

An element $a \in \Phi(m)$ is a primitive root of the multiplicative group $(\Phi(m), \cdot, 1)$ if and only if a is a primitive root modulo m .