

# Testing for Compositeness

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# Overview

- Miller-Rabin vs Support Vector Machine Classification

# Prime and Composite Numbers

## Definition (Prime)

Let  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $p > 1$ . Then  $p$  is prime if and only if for every  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $p = ab$  implies  $a = 1$  or  $b = 1$ . [?]

## Definition (Composite)

Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $n > 1$ . Then  $n$  is composite if and only if there exists  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $n = ab$ ,  $1 < a, b < n$ . [?]

# Divisibility

## Definition (Divide [?])

Let  $a, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ . We say that  $d$  divides  $a$  if there exists  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $a = qd$ . We express this in symbols as  $d \mid a$  (which is read “ $d$  divides  $a$ ”).

# The Set of All Congruence Classes I

## Definition (Congruent [?])

Let  $a, b, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $n > 0$ . We say that  $a$  is congruent to  $b$  modulo  $n$  if  $n \mid (a - b)$ , denoted  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ .

## Example

Is it true that 34 is congruent to 144 modulo 10? Subtracting 144 from 34, we have  $34 - 144 = -110$ . Now, does 10 divide this difference? Yes, since  $-110 = -11 \cdot 10$ . Thus,  $34 \equiv 144 \pmod{10}$ .

# The Set of All Congruence Classes II

## Definition (Congruence Class)

Let  $a, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $n > 0$ . We define the congruence class of  $a$  modulo  $n$  as the set of all integers congruent to  $a$  modulo  $n$ ; that is,

$$\bar{a} := \{x \in \mathbb{Z} : x \equiv a \pmod{n}\}.$$

## Definition ( $\mathbb{Z}_n$ )

Let  $n > 0$  be any integer. We define  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  to be the set of all congruence classes modulo  $n$ , i.e.

$$\mathbb{Z}_n := \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \dots, \overline{n-1}\}.$$

# Algebraic Structures I

## Definition (Binary operation)

Let  $S$  be a set. We define a binary operation on  $S$  to be a function  $f : S \times S \rightarrow S$  that assigns to each pair  $(a, b) \in S \times S$  a unique element  $a \circ b \in S$ .

A binary operation  $\circ$  with the property that  $(a \circ b) \circ c = a \circ (b \circ c)$  for all  $a, b, c \in S$  is called associative.

	Associative	Identity	Inverses	Commutative
<b>Magma</b>	Unneeded	Unneeded	Unneeded	Unneeded
<b>Semigroup</b>	Required	Unneeded	Unneeded	Unneeded
<b>Monoid</b>	Required	Required	Unneeded	Unneeded
<b>Group</b>	Required	Required	Required	Unneeded

# Algebraic Structures II

## Definition (Ring)

Let  $R$  be an abelian group. Then  $R$  is a ring if it satisfies the following axioms:

- 1  $R$  forms a monoid under a second binary operation  $\circ$  that distributes over the group operation, and
- 2 the additive identity  $0 \in R$  satisfies  $0 \circ a = 0$  for all  $a \in R$ .

## Definition (Field)

Let  $F$  be a ring under two commutative binary operations. If every nonzero element in  $R$  has a multiplicative inverse, then we say  $F$  is a field.



# The Structure of $\mathbb{Z}_n$ I

Table: Multiplication in  $\mathbb{Z}_7$

$\cdot$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{1}$	$\bar{2}$	$\bar{3}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{5}$	$\bar{6}$
$\bar{0}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{0}$
$\bar{1}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{1}$	$\bar{2}$	$\bar{3}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{5}$	$\bar{6}$
$\bar{2}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{2}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{6}$	$\bar{1}$	$\bar{3}$	$\bar{5}$
$\bar{3}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{3}$	$\bar{6}$	$\bar{2}$	$\bar{5}$	$\bar{1}$	$\bar{4}$
$\bar{4}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{1}$	$\bar{5}$	$\bar{2}$	$\bar{6}$	$\bar{3}$
$\bar{5}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{5}$	$\bar{3}$	$\bar{1}$	$\bar{6}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{2}$
$\bar{6}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{6}$	$\bar{5}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{3}$	$\bar{2}$	$\bar{1}$

Table: Multiplication in  $\mathbb{Z}_8$

$\cdot$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{1}$	$\bar{2}$	$\bar{3}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{5}$	$\bar{6}$	$\bar{7}$
$\bar{0}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{0}$
$\bar{1}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{1}$	$\bar{2}$	$\bar{3}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{5}$	$\bar{6}$	$\bar{7}$
$\bar{2}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{2}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{6}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{2}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{6}$
$\bar{3}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{3}$	$\bar{6}$	$\bar{1}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{7}$	$\bar{2}$	$\bar{5}$
$\bar{4}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{4}$
$\bar{5}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{5}$	$\bar{2}$	$\bar{7}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{1}$	$\bar{6}$	$\bar{3}$
$\bar{6}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{6}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{2}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{6}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{2}$
$\bar{7}$	$\bar{0}$	$\bar{7}$	$\bar{6}$	$\bar{5}$	$\bar{4}$	$\bar{3}$	$\bar{2}$	$\bar{1}$

# Fermat's Little Theorem I

## Theorem (Fermat's Little Theorem [?])

*Let  $p$  be prime, and let  $\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_p, \bar{a} \neq \bar{0}$ . Then*

$$\bar{a}^{p-1} = \bar{1}.$$

# Fermat's Little Theorem II

## Proof.

Let  $p$  be prime, and let  $\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_p, \bar{a} \neq \bar{0}$ . By ??, we know that  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  contains a unique inverse for each of its elements. Furthermore,  $\bar{1}^{-1} = \bar{1}$  and  $\overline{p-1}^{-1} = \overline{p-1}$  by ??. Thus,  $\bar{1} \cdot \bar{2} \cdot \bar{3} \cdots \overline{p-1} = \bar{1} \cdot \overline{p-1} = \overline{p-1}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} (\bar{a} \cdot \bar{1})(\bar{a} \cdot \bar{2}) \cdots (\bar{a} \cdot \overline{p-1}) &= \underbrace{\bar{a} \cdot \bar{a} \cdots \bar{a}}_{p-1 \text{ times}} \cdot \bar{1} \cdot \bar{2} \cdots \bar{a} \cdots \bar{a}^{-1} \cdots \overline{p-1} \\ &= \bar{a}^{p-1} \cdot \overline{p-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, since this multiplication is a binary operation, we know that each product is equal to a unique element in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ . Thus,

$(\bar{a} \cdot \bar{1})(\bar{a} \cdot \bar{2}) \cdots (\bar{a} \cdot \overline{p-1}) = \bar{1} \cdot \bar{2} \cdots \overline{p-1}$ , where the right-hand side is some permutation of the elements in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ .

# Fermat's Little Theorem III

## Proof (Cont.)

Hence,

$$\bar{a}^{p-1} \cdot \overline{p-1} = \bar{1} \cdot \bar{2} \cdots \overline{p-1}$$

$$\bar{a}^{p-1} \cdot \overline{p-1} = \overline{p-1}$$

$$\bar{a}^{p-1} \cdot \overline{p-1} \cdot \overline{p-1} = \overline{p-1} \cdot \overline{p-1}$$

$$\bar{a}^{p-1} \cdot \bar{1} = \bar{1}$$

$$\bar{a}^{p-1} = \bar{1}.$$

Therefore, if  $p$  is prime, then  $\bar{a}^{p-1} = \bar{1}$  for all  $\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_p, \bar{a} \neq \bar{0}$ .

# Miller-Rabin Test for Compositeness I

## Algorithm (Miller-Rabin Test for Compositeness)

Let  $n > 0$  be any odd integer. Then there exists an integer  $k > 0$  such that  $2^k$  is that largest power of two that divides  $n - 1$ . If there exists  $\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  such that

$$\bar{a}^{\frac{n-1}{2^k}} \neq \bar{1}$$

and

$$\bar{a}^{\frac{n-1}{2^h}} \neq -\bar{1},$$

for all  $h \in \mathbb{Z} : 1 \leq h \leq k$ , then  $n$  is composite. In this case, the integer  $a$  is called a Miller-Rabin witness to the compositeness of  $n$ .

# Miller-Rabin Test for Compositeness II

## Example

We would like to test the compositeness of 169. Since  $2^3$  is the largest power of two that divides 168, we must find an  $\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_{169}$  such that  $\bar{a}^{\frac{168}{2^3}} \neq \bar{1}$  and  $\bar{a}^{\frac{168}{2^h}} \neq -\bar{1}$  for all  $h, h = 1, 2, 3$ . So, we randomly choose  $\overline{19} \in \mathbb{Z}_{169}$  and find that

$$\overline{19}^{\frac{168}{2^3}} = \overline{70}$$

$$\overline{19}^{\frac{168}{2^2}} = -\bar{1}$$

$$\overline{19}^{\frac{168}{2^1}} = \bar{1}.$$

# Miller-Rabin Test for Compositeness III

## Example

Because  $\overline{19}^{\frac{168}{2^2}} = -\overline{1}$ , we cannot conclude that 169 is composite. So we randomly select a different  $\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_{169}$ , namely  $\bar{a} = \overline{145}$ , and this time discover that

$$\overline{145}^{\frac{168}{2^3}} = \overline{18}$$

$$\overline{145}^{\frac{168}{2^2}} = \overline{155}$$

$$\overline{145}^{\frac{168}{2^1}} = \overline{27}.$$

Hence, 145 is a Miller-Rabin witness to the compositeness of 169 and we conclude that 169 is not prime.

# Effectiveness of the Miller-Rabin Test



# Machine Learning Algorithms

- Target function — underlying function that maps inputs to outputs (if it exists)
- Solution — estimate of the target function by learning algorithm (also called the decision function in classification algorithms)
- Hypothesis space — a set or class of candidate solutions (known as hypotheses)
- Learning algorithm — uses training data to select a hypothesis
- Features — the quantities used to describe the data
- Attributes — original quantities from data

# Linear Classification

# Support Vector Machine

# Feature Space

Let  $b \in \mathbb{Z} : b \geq 2$ . Then every  $N \in \mathbb{Z} : N > 0$  can be expressed uniquely in the form  $N = a_k b^k + a_{k-1} b^{k-1} + \dots + a_1 b + a_0$ , where  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_k$  are nonnegative integers less than  $b$ ,  $a_k \neq 0$ , and  $k \geq 0$ . [?]

# Training Methodology

## Definition (Training Set)

A **training set** is a collection of training examples, which are also called training data. It is usually denoted by

$S = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\} \subset X \times Y$ , where  $n$  is the number of examples. We refer to  $x_i$  as examples or instances and  $y_i$  as their labels.[?]

# Comparison

# References

# Acknowledgements