

Number Theory

Book 3

Theorem Let p be an odd prime. Then

$$x^p - x = x(x^{p-1} - 1) = x \underbrace{(x^{\frac{p-1}{2}} - 1)}_{\text{Roots: all (nonzero) squares in } \mathbb{F}_p} \underbrace{(x^{\frac{p-1}{2}} + 1)}_{\text{Roots: all nonsquares in } \mathbb{F}_p} = x(x-1)(x-2)\dots(x-(p-1))$$

Every $a \in \mathbb{F}_p$ is a root of $x^p - x$.
(Fermat's Little Theorem)

Proof Let $a \in \mathbb{F}_p$, $a \neq 0$, so a^2 is a nonzero square in \mathbb{F}_p . Then a^2 is a root of $x^{\frac{p-1}{2}} - 1$ since $(a^2)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} - 1 = a^{p-1} - 1 = 0$ by Fermat's Little Theorem.
So by process of elimination, $x^{\frac{p-1}{2}} + 1$ has as its $\frac{p-1}{2}$ roots all the nonsquares in \mathbb{F}_p .

This gives a criterion for checking when an element $a \in \mathbb{F}_p$ is a square or a nonsquare. called Euler's Criterion: given $a \in \mathbb{F}_p$, p an odd prime,

$$a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \text{ is square nonzero} \\ -1 & \text{if } a \text{ is nonsquare} \\ 0 & \text{if } a = 0. \end{cases} \pmod{p}.$$

Eg. is 7 a square or a nonsquare in \mathbb{F}_{13} ? Use Euler's Criterion: $7^6 \equiv 10^3 \equiv 1000 \equiv 12 \equiv -1 \pmod{13}$.
So 7 is a nonsquare mod 13.

Definition Let p be an odd prime, $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$ is defined by

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \text{ is nonzero square mod } p; \\ -1 & \text{if } a \text{ is nonsquare mod } p; \\ 0 & \text{if } a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}. \end{cases}$$

So $a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \pmod{p}$.

eg. $\left(\frac{7}{13}\right) = -1$, $\left(\frac{10}{13}\right) = 1$, $\left(\frac{0}{13}\right) = 0$, $\left(\frac{39}{13}\right) = 0$, $\left(\frac{20}{13}\right) = -1$

$$\left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)\left(\frac{b}{p}\right) \quad \text{for all } a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad (\text{they don't need to be relatively prime})$$

The Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$ is a completely multiplicative function of a (where the odd prime p is fixed)

eg. $\underbrace{\left(\frac{20}{13}\right)}_{-1} = \underbrace{\left(\frac{4}{13}\right)}_{+1} \underbrace{\left(\frac{5}{13}\right)}_{-1} = -1$ so $20 \equiv 7 \pmod{13}$ is a nonsquare mod 13.

When is $-1 \equiv \square \pmod{p}$ a square mod p ? -1 is a $\begin{cases} \text{nonsquare mod } 3, 7, 11, \dots, 2003, \dots \\ \text{square mod } 5, 13 \end{cases}$

Is -1 a square or a nonsquare mod $p = 2003$? Nonsquare.

Theorem Let p be an odd prime. Then $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$

The quick proof uses $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}$

If $p = 4k+1$ then $\frac{p-1}{2} = 2k$, $(-1)^{2k} = 1$.

If $p = 4k+3$ then $\frac{p-1}{2} = 2k+1$, $(-1)^{2k+1} = -1$.

How hard is it to find a nonsquare mod p (given an odd prime p)?

Given $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, p odd prime, compute the Legendre symbol

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \text{ nonzero square mod } p \\ 0 & \text{if } a \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \\ -1 & \text{if } a \text{ nonsquare mod } p \end{cases}$$

We can use Euler's Criterion $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \equiv a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}$. Easy on a computer; not so easy by hand.
 But there is a method that works well by hand: the method of Quadratic Reciprocity (Ch. 22).

$$\left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \left(\frac{b}{p}\right)$$

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

$$\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p^2-1}{8}} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8} \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{8} \end{cases}$$

eg. $\left(\frac{2}{7}\right) = 1$ since $2 \equiv 3^2 \pmod{7}$
 $7 \equiv -1 \pmod{8}$ so ...

$\left(\frac{2}{5}\right) = -1$ 1,4 squares mod 5
 2,3 nonsquares ...

If $p \neq q$ odd primes then $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)$ and $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)$ are closely related:

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) \quad \text{if at least one of } p, q \text{ is } \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = -\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) \quad \text{if } p \equiv q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$$

i.e. $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2} \cdot \frac{q-1}{2}}$ (the law of Quadratic Reciprocity)

Eg. Compute $\left(\frac{14}{47}\right) = \underbrace{\left(\frac{2}{47}\right)}_{+1} \left(\frac{7}{47}\right) = \left(\frac{7}{47}\right) = -\left(\frac{47}{7}\right) = -\left(\frac{5}{7}\right) = -(-1) = 1$ i.e. 14 is a square mod 47.

Since $47 \equiv -1 \pmod{8}$ Since $7 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$

Eg. $\left(\frac{60}{89}\right) = \left(\frac{2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}{89}\right) = \underbrace{\left(\frac{2}{89}\right)}_{+1} \left(\frac{3}{89}\right) \left(\frac{5}{89}\right) = \left(\frac{3}{89}\right) \left(\frac{5}{89}\right) = \left(\frac{89}{3}\right) \left(\frac{89}{5}\right) = (-1) \left(\frac{4}{5}\right) = (-1)(+1) = -1$ i.e. 60 is a nonsquare mod 89.

$89 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$

Questions: If we compute $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 1$ (either by Euler's Criterion or Quadratic Reciprocity) we know $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ has two solutions (the two square roots of $a \pmod{p}$). Can we actually find these two solutions? (i.e. compute the square roots of $a \pmod{p}$)? Yes.

eg. $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = +1$. In this case we can find the two square roots of $-1 \pmod{p}$ rather easily even if p is thousands of digits long. As follows:

Pick $c \in \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ randomly. Compute $\left(\frac{c}{p}\right) \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}$ mod p .

If $\left(\frac{c}{p}\right) = -1$ (c is ~~not~~ square mod p) take $x \equiv c^{\frac{p-1}{4}}$ mod p , then $x^2 \equiv c^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$

If $\left(\frac{c}{p}\right) = +1$ (c square mod p) try again.

99.9% of the time, it takes at most ten tries to find x satisfying $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$.

How can we find $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfying $p = a^2 + b^2$? (assuming $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$)

This is as difficult as finding a solution of $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$.

If $p = a^2 + b^2$ then in \mathbb{F}_p , $a^2 + b^2 = 0$, $b^2 = -a^2$, $-1 = \left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^2$. The square roots of $-1 \pmod{p}$ are $\pm \frac{a}{b}$.

Theorem Let p be prime. Then p is a sum of two squares iff $p \not\equiv 3 \pmod{4}$.

Proof We already know that if $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ then p is not a sum of two squares. Conversely, suppose p is prime, $p \not\equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. There is more than one proof but we will give an algorithm solution which tells us how to find $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a^2 + b^2 = p$. This algorithm is very efficient in practice even for primes having hundreds or thousands of decimal digits. If $p=2$ then $p=1^2+1^2$. Henceforth $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Let $c \in \{1, \dots, p-1\}$ such that $c^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$. (See previous slide for a method to find c .) Then $c^2 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ i.e. $c^2 + 1 = mp$ for some $m \geq 1$. We can iterate the following descent step which leads from a large multiple of p as $\square^2 + \square^2$, to a smaller multiple of p of this form, repeating until we get $p = a^2 + b^2$, $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$.

(Fermat's Method of Descent)

Suppose $mp = a^2 + b^2$, $a, b \in \{\pm 1, \pm 2, \dots, \pm \frac{p-1}{2}\}$. So $mp = \alpha \bar{\alpha}$, $\alpha = a + bi \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$. After reducing $a, b \pmod{m}$ to get $\alpha \equiv \beta \pmod{m}$ where $\beta = a' + bi$, $|a'|, |b'| \leq \frac{m}{2}$ (choose $a', b' \in \{\frac{-m}{2}, \dots, \frac{m}{2}\}$ or $\{\frac{m+1}{2}, \dots, \frac{m-1}{2}\}$). Then $\alpha \bar{\beta} = m\gamma$ for some $\gamma \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$.
$$\begin{aligned} a &\equiv a' \pmod{m} \\ b &\equiv b' \pmod{m} \end{aligned}$$

Since $\alpha \bar{\beta} = (a+bi)(a'-b'i) = \underbrace{(aa' + bb')}_{\equiv a^2 + b^2 = mp \equiv 0 \pmod{m}} + \underbrace{(a'b - ab')}_{\equiv 0 \pmod{m}}$

$$\alpha \bar{\alpha} = mp$$

$$\alpha \bar{\alpha} \beta \bar{\beta} = mp \beta \bar{\beta}$$

$$(\alpha \bar{\beta})(\alpha \beta) = mp \beta \bar{\beta}$$

$$m\gamma \bar{\gamma} = mp \beta \bar{\beta}$$

$$m\gamma \bar{\gamma} = p \beta \bar{\beta}$$

$$m^2 k = p \beta \bar{\beta}$$

where p divides both sides
so $\gamma \bar{\gamma} = pk$

$$mk = \beta \bar{\beta}$$

$$m^2 \gamma \bar{\gamma} = mp \beta \bar{\beta} = mp \cdot mk$$

$$\gamma \bar{\gamma} = pk \quad \text{where we can check } 1 \leq k < m.$$

This can be checked carefully to finish the proof.

Eg. Write $p=1009$ as a sum of two squares. ($1009 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ prime)

$$2^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \quad \text{so } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = 1$$

$$13^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv -1 \pmod{p} \quad \text{so } 13, 31 \text{ nonsquares mod } p = 1009.$$

$$31^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$$

$$13^{\frac{p-1}{4}} \equiv 469 \pmod{p}$$

$$31^{\frac{p-1}{4}} \equiv 540 \pmod{p}$$

The two square roots of $-1 \pmod{p}$ are ± 469 i.e. $469, 540$.

Choosing the smallest nonsquare

$$469 \leq \frac{p-1}{2}$$

$$469^2 + 1^2 = \underbrace{218}_m p$$

$$\alpha = 469 + i$$

$$\beta = 33 + i$$

$$469 \equiv 33 \pmod{218}$$

$$1 \equiv 1 \pmod{218}$$

$$m\gamma = \alpha\bar{\beta} = (469+i)(33-i) = 15478 - 436i = \cancel{218}(71-2i)$$

$$\gamma = 71 - 2i$$

$$\gamma\bar{\gamma} = 71^2 + 2^2 = 5045 = 5p$$

Repeat the descent step starting with $71^2 + 2^2 = \underbrace{5}_m p$, $\alpha = 71 + 2i \pmod{m}$

$$\beta = 1 + 2i \pmod{m}$$

$$m\gamma = \alpha\bar{\beta} = (71+2i)(1-2i) = 75 - 140i = 5(15-28i)$$

$$\gamma = 15 - 28i$$

$$\gamma\bar{\gamma} = 15^2 + 28^2 = 1009 = p$$

Next: Public Key Cryptography, especially

- Diffie-Hellman
- RSA (Rivest-Shamir-Adleman)

First: primitive elements in finite fields

Let p be prime, $\mathbb{F}_p =$ field of order $p = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$.

Fact: \mathbb{F}_p has a primitive element $g \in \mathbb{F}_p$, namely all nonzero elements of \mathbb{F}_p are powers of g , i.e. $\mathbb{F}_p = \{0, 1, g, g^2, g^3, \dots, g^{p-2}\}$ ($g^{p-1} = 1$ by Fermat's Little Theorem).

eg. \mathbb{F}_7 has 3 as a primitive element: $\mathbb{F}_7 = \{0, 1, \underset{2}{3}, \underset{6}{3^2}, \underset{4}{3^3}, \underset{5}{3^4}, 3^5\}$

Also $5 = 3^4$ is also a primitive element of \mathbb{F}_7 : $\mathbb{F}_7 = \{0, 1, \underset{4}{5}, \underset{6}{5^2}, \underset{2}{5^3}, \underset{3}{5^4}, 5^5\}$

2 is not primitive: powers of 2 are 1, 2, 4 only.

More generally, for every prime power $q = p^k$, p prime, $k \geq 1$. \mathbb{F}_q (field of order q) always has a primitive element).

Why? \mathbb{F}_5 has multiplicative group $\mathbb{F}_5^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ which cannot be a Klein 4-group, otherwise of degree 2 having four roots in \mathbb{F}_5 .

$x^2 = 1$ for every nonzero $a \in \mathbb{F}_5$ but then $x^2 - 1$ is a polynomial

So \mathbb{F}_5^* must be cyclic.

eg. $\mathbb{F}_{1009} = \{0, 1, 11, \dots, 1008\} = \{0, 1, 11, 11^2, 11^3, \dots, 11^{1007}\}$
 $= \{0, 1, 11, 121, 322, 515, 620, \dots, 367\}$

1009 is prime

11 is a primitive (I checked using Mathematica)

$11^k = 186$ k is the "discrete logarithm" of 186 (base 11) not $\log_{11} 186 = \frac{\ln 186}{\ln 11}$

Answer: $k = 543$

$11^{543} = 186$ in \mathbb{F}_{1009} i.e. in \mathbb{Z} , $11^{543} \equiv 186 \pmod{1009}$.

Discrete logs and integer factorization are two difficult computational tasks.

That's good! Since this provides a secure cryptosystem for key exchange.

Alice and Bob want to agree on a large integer to be used as the encryption key for a word document (or other symmetric key encryption algorithm) ("symmetric" means that the decryption key is the same as the encryption key).

Diffie-Hellman Key exchange protocol: Alice and Bob communicate over an open (insecure) channel. They first agree on a large prime p . (Eg. Alice can generate p and send it to Bob over the open channel.) Next, they agree on a primitive element g for \mathbb{F}_p . (A random element is almost as good.) One party can obtain g and send it to the other party.

Alice chooses $a \in \{2, 3, \dots, p-2\}$ randomly and she computes $g^a \pmod p$. She sends this to Bob.
 Bob chooses $b \in \{2, 3, \dots, p-2\}$ and he computes $g^b \pmod p$. He sends this to Alice.

Eve (an eavesdropper) knows $p, g, g^a \pmod p, g^b \pmod p$. (But not a, b .)
 Alice computes $(g^b)^a \equiv g^{ab} \pmod p$.
 Bob computes $(g^a)^b \equiv g^{ab} \pmod p$.
 The shared secret key is $g^{ab} \pmod p$.

Fair Coin Flip

Alice generates p, q primes generated randomly but $\begin{cases} p \equiv q \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ \text{or} \\ p \equiv q \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$ if a coin flip is H
- - - - - T

Alice sends $n = pq$ to Bob.
Bob guesses H or T.

$n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

Bob verifies $n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, prime.



Rivest, Shamir and Adleman
inventors of the RSA encryption scheme

RSA Encryption Scheme for security and authentication over an open (insecure) channel. (Public key cryptosystem)

Alice and Bob want to communicate securely over an open channel.

Alice generates a public encryption key (n, e) as follows:

She generates two large primes p, q (each a few hundred digits long) randomly and she computes $n = pq$. She computes $\phi(n) = \phi(p)\phi(q) = (p-1)(q-1)$. She picks $e \in \{2, 3, \dots, \phi(n)\}$ relatively prime to $\phi(n)$. Alice publishes (n, e) on her website.

Easy fact: Anyone who knows n and $\phi(n)$ can easily factor n . So keep $\phi(n), p, q$ secret!

Alice computes $d = \text{inverse of } e \text{ mod } \phi(n)$, computed using the Extended Euclidean Algorithm.

Bob wants to send an integer $m \in \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ to Alice in an encrypted form so that an eavesdropper will not be able to recover the message m but Alice can decrypt.

Bob first computes $m' \equiv m^e \pmod n$ obtained from Alice's website. Bob sends m' to Alice.

Alice receives m' and computes $(m')^d \equiv m \pmod n$.

Why does this formula hold, allowing Alice to recover m ?

$$de \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$$

$\Rightarrow de = 1 + k\phi(n)$ for some positive integer k .

$$(m')^d \equiv (m^e)^d = m^{de} = m^{1+k\phi(n)} = m \cdot \underbrace{(m^{\phi(n)})^k}_{\equiv 1 \pmod n} \equiv m \cdot 1^k \equiv m \pmod n$$

This assumes $\gcd(m, n) = 1$.

$\gcd(m, n) \in \{1, p, q\}$ but p, q are practically never found by chance.

Authentication: means of certifying the authenticity of a document (authorship etc.)

Security: When Bob sends a message to Alice, no one else can decrypt it (except Alice).

Authentication: Alice knows that this message actually came from Bob and it has not been altered.

PGP = Pretty good privacy

Every party generates their own RSA keys.

Alice has public key (n_A, e_A) and private key $p, q, \phi(n), d_A$

Bob has public key (n_B, e_B) , d_B

Carol has public key (n_C, e_C) , d_C

David \dots

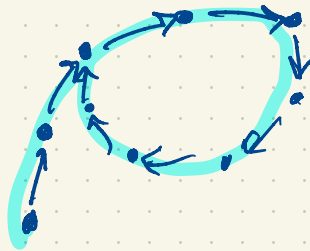
Bob wants to send Alice a message m with both secrecy and authentication capability (no one else can understand the message; and Alice has proof that the message actually came from Bob.)

Bob first computes $m' \equiv m^{e_B} \pmod{n_B}$ and then $m'' \equiv (m')^{e_A} \pmod{n_A}$. He sends m'' to Alice.

Alice receives m'' from Bob and she computes $m' \equiv (m'')^{d_A} \pmod{n_A}$ and $m \equiv (m')^{d_B} \pmod{n_B}$.

Factorization of Integers

- naive algorithm
- rho method



Eg. Factor $n = 27641 = pq$

Look for integers x, y such that $x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$.

$(x+y)(x-y) = x^2 - y^2$ is divisible by $n = pq$

divisible by $p = \gcd(n, x+y)$
divisible by $q = \gcd(n, x-y)$

Pick $a \in \{2, \dots, n-1\}$ randomly.

The map $f(a) \equiv a^2 \pmod{n}$ can be iterated yielding a sequence $a, f(a), f(f(a)), f(f(f(a))), \dots$

For $n = 27641$, $a = 2$, we obtain the sequence (which must eventually repeat)

2 → 4 → 16 → 256 → 10254 → 25793 → 15261 → 22696 → 18381 → 5218 → 1139 → 25835 → 27639

This gives $x = 27639$, $y = 2$ satisfying $x^2 \equiv y^2 \equiv 4 \pmod{n}$

3 → 9 → 81 → 6561 → 9681 → 21584 → ... → 21915 → 4850

gives another solution $x = 4850$, $y = 3$
with $x^2 \equiv y^2 \equiv 9 \pmod{n}$.

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \gcd(n, 27639+2) &= 211 \\ \gcd(n, 27639-2) &= 131 \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$n = 131 \times 211$ is the prime factorization of n .

$p = 2003$ is prime. $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$.

Pick $a \in \{1, 2, \dots, 2002\}$ randomly. 1999

$$\left(\frac{1999}{2003}\right) = \left(\frac{-4}{2003}\right) = \underbrace{\left(\frac{-1}{2003}\right)}_{-1} \underbrace{\left(\frac{4}{2003}\right)}_{1} = -1$$

Again: try $a = 990$, $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = -1$

Again: try $a = 824$, $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 1$: 824 is a square mod $p = 2003$.

So the polynomial $x^2 - 824$ has two roots mod $p = 2003$. What are they?

$$824^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \quad (\text{Euler's Criterion})$$

$$824^{1001} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

$$(824^{501})^2 \equiv 824^{1002} \equiv 824$$

$$824^{501} \equiv 1909 \pmod{p}$$

In \mathbb{F}_{2003} , $\sqrt{824} = \pm 94$ i.e. $\sqrt{824} \in \{94, 1909\}$

When $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, finding square roots are a little trickier. If $p = 1009$

$$\left(\frac{a}{1009}\right) = 1 \quad \text{then} \quad a^{\frac{1009-1}{2}} \equiv 1 \pmod{1009}$$

$$a^{504} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

$$(?)^2 \equiv a^{505} \equiv a \pmod{p}$$

But square roots mod p can be efficiently computed for every p .

Naive factorization method: trial division. Given x of length $n = \log x$ digits, try $d = 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, \lfloor \sqrt{x} \rfloor$ until we find a divisor of x .
 If none of these values divide x , return " x is prime".
 Else print " d is a divisor of x so x is composite".

This requires testing $d \leq \sqrt{x}$; numbers having at most $\frac{n}{2}$ digits.
How many steps? $\sqrt{x} = 10^{n/2}$ (exponential number of steps); $10^{n/2}$ is an exponential function of n .

The first factorization method running in better than exponential time is the CFAC (Continued Fraction Method). Subexponential time. Looking for integer solutions of

Ex. Factor 91.

$$\sqrt{91} = [9, 1, 1, 5, 1, 5, 1, 1, 18, 1, 1, \dots] = 9 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{5 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{5 + \dots}}}}$$

gives a sequence of rational numbers converging to $\sqrt{91}$:

$$\begin{aligned} [9] &= \frac{9}{1} \\ [9, 1] &= 9 + \frac{1}{1} = \frac{10}{1} \\ [9, 1, 1] &= 9 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1}} = \frac{19}{2} \\ [9, 1, 1, 5] &= 9 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{5 + \frac{1}{1}}} = \frac{105}{11} \\ &\text{etc.} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 9^2 - 91 \cdot 1^2 &= -10 \\ 10^2 - 91 \cdot 1^2 &= 9 \\ 19^2 - 91 \cdot 2^2 &= -3 \\ 105^2 - 91 \cdot 11^2 &= 14 \\ &\vdots \\ 1574^2 - 91 \cdot 165^2 &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$10^2 \equiv 3^2 \pmod{91}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \gcd(91, 10+3) &= 13 \\ \gcd(91, 10-3) &= 7 \end{aligned}$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} 19^2 - 91 \cdot 2^2 &= -3 \\ 124^2 - 91 \cdot 13^2 &= -3 \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (19 \cdot 124)^2 &\equiv 3^2 \pmod{91} \\ 19^2 \cdot 124^2 &\equiv (-3)^2 \equiv 9 \equiv 3^2 \pmod{91} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x &= 19 \cdot 124 \\ y &= 3 \\ x^2 &\equiv y^2 \pmod{91} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{x}{y} &\approx \sqrt{91} \\ \left(\frac{x}{y}\right)^2 - 91 &= \left[\frac{\pm 1}{y}\right] \end{aligned}$$

We use linear algebra to find products giving a perfect square on the right hand side e.g.

eg.	$x_1^2 \equiv -2 \pmod{n}$	$-2 = (-1)2^1 3^0 5^0 7^0 11^0 \dots \rightarrow (1, 1, 0, 0, 0, \dots)$
	$x_2^2 \equiv 6 \pmod{n}$	$6 = (-1)^0 2^1 3^1 5^0 7^0 11^0 \dots \rightarrow (0, 1, 1, 0, 0, \dots)$
	$x_3^2 \equiv 15 \pmod{n}$	$15 = (-1)^0 2^0 3^1 5^1 7^0 11^0 \dots \rightarrow (0, 0, 1, 1, 0, \dots)$
	$x_4^2 \equiv -5 \pmod{n}$	$-5 = (-1)^1 2^0 3^0 5^1 7^0 11^0 \dots \rightarrow (1, 0, 0, 1, 0, \dots)$

$$\underbrace{(x_1 x_2 x_3 x_4)^2}_{x = x_1 x_2 x_3 x_4} \equiv (-2)(6)(15)(-5) \pmod{n} \qquad \underbrace{(1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, \dots)}_{(0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, \dots)} \text{ add mod 2.}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x &= x_1 x_2 x_3 x_4 \\ &\equiv (-1)^2 2^2 3^2 5^2 \\ &\equiv \underbrace{(-2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5)^2}_{y = -2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5} \end{aligned}$$

Modern integer factorization

- Using a database of small primes (at most 12 digit primes) check to see if any of them divides n .
- Try elliptic curve factorization method.
- use a sieve method. These methods look for solutions of $x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$.

The probability that an integer chosen "randomly" in $[1, x]$ is prime is about $\frac{1}{\ln x}$ (for x large).
 The actual probability is $\frac{\pi(x)}{x}$ ← number of primes in $[1, x]$ / integers in $[1, x]$
 $\sim \frac{x/\ln x}{x} = \frac{1}{\ln x} \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$

What is the probability that two "randomly chosen" large integers are relatively prime?
 About 0.607927 \approx 61% (exactly $\frac{6}{\pi^2}$).

Buffon needle problem

The Riemann zeta function $\zeta(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^x} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^x} + \frac{1}{3^x} + \frac{1}{4^x} + \dots$ (convergent for $x > 1$)

$$\zeta(2) = 1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{4^2} + \frac{1}{5^2} + \frac{1}{6^2} + \dots = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$$

$$\zeta(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^x} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^x} + \frac{1}{3^x} + \frac{1}{4^x} + \dots \stackrel{\text{claim}}{=} \prod_{p \text{ prime}} \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{p^x}} \right) = \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2^x}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{3^x}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{5^x}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{7^x}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{11^x}} \right) \dots \quad (\text{Euler factorization})$$

Proof: use $\frac{1}{1-u} = 1 + u + u^2 + u^3 + u^4 + \dots$ (geometric series)

$$\text{Check: } (1-u)(1+u+u^2+u^3+\dots) = 1 - u + u - u^2 + u^2 - u^3 + u^3 - u^4 + \dots = 1$$

$$\zeta(1) = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots = \infty \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Harmonic Series} \\ \text{(diverges)} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_p \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{p^x}} \right) &= \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2^x}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{3^x}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{5^x}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{7^x}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{11^x}} \right) \dots \\ &= \left(1 + \frac{1}{2^x} + \frac{1}{4^x} + \frac{1}{8^x} + \frac{1}{16^x} + \dots \right) \left(1 + \frac{1}{3^x} + \frac{1}{9^x} + \frac{1}{27^x} + \dots \right) \left(1 + \frac{1}{5^x} + \frac{1}{25^x} + \frac{1}{125^x} + \dots \right) \left(1 + \frac{1}{7^x} + \frac{1}{49^x} + \dots \right) \left(1 + \frac{1}{11^x} + \frac{1}{121^x} + \dots \right) \left(1 + \frac{1}{13^x} + \frac{1}{169^x} + \dots \right) \dots \\ &= 1 + \frac{1}{2^x} + \frac{1}{3^x} + \frac{1}{4^x} + \frac{1}{5^x} + \frac{1}{6^x} + \frac{1}{7^x} + \frac{1}{8^x} + \frac{1}{9^x} + \frac{1}{10^x} + \dots \quad (\text{FTA = fundamental theorem of Arithmetic}) \end{aligned}$$

Given two large integers m, n , what is the probability that $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ (m, n relatively prime)?

About 60.8%, experimentally.

The probability is at most 75%, since there is a 25% chance that m, n are both even.

m, n are relatively prime iff

- m, n are not both even with probability $1 - \frac{1}{4} = 75\%$
- m, n divisible by 3 $1 - \frac{1}{9} = 88.8\% \dots$
- m, n 5 $1 - \frac{1}{25} = 96\%$
- m, n 7 $1 - \frac{1}{49}$
- m, n 11 $1 - \frac{1}{121}$
- etc.

m, n are relatively prime with probability $(1 - \frac{1}{4})(1 - \frac{1}{9})(1 - \frac{1}{25})(1 - \frac{1}{49})(1 - \frac{1}{121})(1 - \frac{1}{169}) \dots = \prod_{p \text{ prime}} (1 - \frac{1}{p^2}) = \frac{1}{\zeta(2)} = \frac{6}{\pi^2} \approx 0.607927$.

Given three large integers l, m, n , what is the probability that they are relatively prime i.e. $\gcd(l, m, n) = 1$?
 eg. $\gcd(6, 10, 15) = 1$. This occurs with probability $\approx 83.2\%$.

$$\prod_p (1 - \frac{1}{p^3}) = \frac{1}{\zeta(3)} \approx 0.832$$

The probability that k large integers m_1, \dots, m_k (chosen independently at random) are relatively prime (i.e. $\gcd(m_1, \dots, m_k) = 1$) is $\frac{1}{\zeta(k)}$.

k	$\zeta(k)$
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1	∞	
2	1.644934...	$\leftarrow \frac{\pi^2}{6}$ irrational. Maybe a rational multiple of π^3 ? Probably not.
3	1.202056...	
4	1.082323...	$\leftarrow \frac{\pi^4}{90}$ irrational? Who knows...
5	1.036927...	
6	1.017343...	$\leftarrow \frac{\pi^6}{945}$
...		

A number n is squarefree if it's not divisible by any of the squares $1, 4, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81, \dots$

i.e. the largest square dividing n is 1 .

i.e. n is not divisible by p^2 for any prime p .

What is the probability that a large number n (chosen randomly) is squarefree?

$$\frac{1}{\zeta(2)} = \frac{6}{\pi^2} \approx 0.608.$$

The Prime Number Theorem (PNT) is proved using the Riemann zeta function.
The key property of $\zeta(s)$ that yields our proof of PNT concerns where $\zeta(s) = 0$.

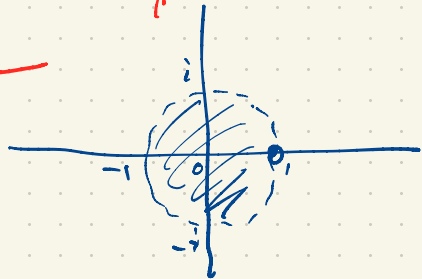
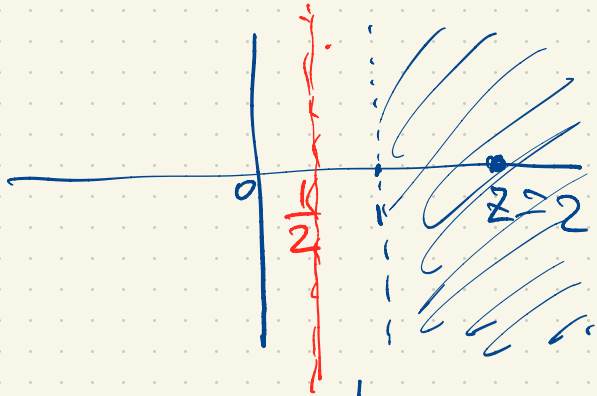
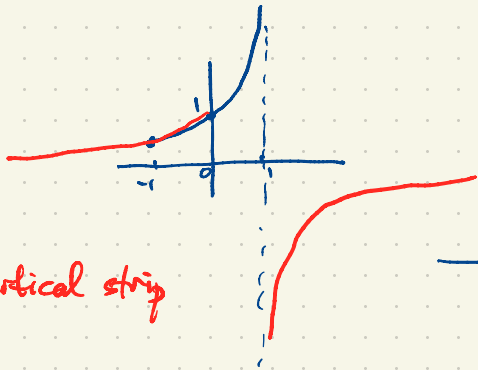
Much more can be said about the importance of $\zeta(s)$.

$$\zeta(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^z} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^z} + \frac{1}{3^z} + \frac{1}{4^z} + \frac{1}{5^z} + \dots \quad \text{converges for } \operatorname{Re} z > 1$$

Critical line $\operatorname{Re} z = \frac{1}{2}$ i.e. $z = \frac{1}{2} + it, t \in \mathbb{R}$

$$f(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + \dots \quad \text{converges for } |x| < 1$$

$$\text{Actually } f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$$



Riemann Hypothesis: The only places in the vertical strip $0 < \operatorname{Re} z < 1$ where $\zeta(z) = 0$ have $\operatorname{Re} z = \frac{1}{2}$.

$$\pi(x) = \frac{x}{\ln x} + \text{"smaller terms"}$$

Why should we care about the Riemann Hypothesis?

eg. Give a deterministic non-conditional poly-time algorithm for finding a nonsquare mod p where p is a prime.

Dirichlet's Theorem on Primes in Arithmetic Progressions

eg. There are infinitely many primes $\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. $(1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, 25, 29, 33, \dots)$ has infinitely many primes)

$\equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. $(3, 7, 11, 15, 19, 23, 27, 31, \dots)$ (arithmetic progression)

More generally, if $\gcd(a, m) = 1$ (a, m positive integers) then the sequence $a, a+m, a+2m, a+3m, \dots$ contains infinitely many primes.

Proof uses Dirichlet L-functions (modified ζ functions)

We actually prove much more:

$$\sum_{p \text{ prime}} \frac{1}{p} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{11} + \frac{1}{13} + \frac{1}{17} + \frac{1}{19} + \frac{1}{23} + \dots \text{ diverges (Euler)} \Rightarrow \text{There are infinitely many primes.}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \dots \text{ diverges}$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^k} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{32} + \frac{1}{64} + \dots \text{ converges.}$$

Dirichlet proved

$$\sum_{\text{primes } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}} \frac{1}{p} = \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{13} + \frac{1}{17} + \frac{1}{29} + \dots \text{ diverges.}$$

$$\sum_{\text{primes } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}} \frac{1}{p} = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{11} + \frac{1}{19} + \frac{1}{23} + \dots \text{ diverges.}$$

Fermat's Last Theorem $x^n + y^n = z^n$ has no solution in positive integers for $n > 2$.
 Fermat's proof for $n=4$: There is no ^{positive} integer solution of $x^4 + y^4 = z^4$. (A stronger statement than proving $x^4 + y^4 = z^4$ has no positive integer solutions.)

Proof Suppose the equation $x^4 + y^4 = z^4$ where x, y, z are positive integers. We may assume we have the smallest possible z among all solutions.

Primitive Pyth. Trip.
 (x^2, y^2, z)

Prim. Pyth. Trip.
 (x, n, m)
 $= (x, 2v^2, u^2)$

Prim. Pyth. Trip.
 (a, b, u)
 $= (s^2, t^2, u)$

m, u rel. prime
 m odd
 n even
 $n = 2r = 2v^2$
 m, r rel. prime
 m, r squares
 $m = u^2$
 $r = v^2$
 u, v rel. prime

$x = a^2 - b^2$
 $2v^2 = 2ab \Rightarrow v^2 = ab$
 $u^2 = a^2 + b^2$
 a, b rel. prime
 $a = s^2$
 $b = t^2$

$z \geq m^2 = u^4$
 $z \rightarrow u \rightarrow u$
 getting smaller

We cannot keep getting smaller solutions ("infinite descent") since the positive integers are well-ordered. \square

There is a poly. time algorithm for finding square roots mod p (p prime).

If $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 1$ then we can solve $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ in poly. time ($x = \pm \sqrt{a} \pmod{p}$).

Case: $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$

$$a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \quad \text{by Euler's Criterion}$$

$$a \cdot a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv a \pmod{p}$$

$$\left(a^{\frac{p+1}{4}}\right)^2 \equiv a^{\frac{p+1}{2}} \equiv a \pmod{p} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \pm a^{\frac{p+1}{4}} \text{ are the square roots of } a \pmod{p}.$$

For a general n , if a is a square n (i.e. the equation $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{n}$ has solutions) then is there an algorithm for computing the solutions?
No poly. time algorithm is known. This is as hard as factoring n .