

Number Theory and Primality Tests

UCLA Math Circle Advanced 1B

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Week 2: January 19, 2025

Introduction

Primarily Test Recap

Definition 0.1 *A natural number greater than 1 is **prime** if it cannot be written as a product of two natural numbers that are both greater than 1. Otherwise, it is said to be **composite**.*

Primarily tests are algorithms that determine whether a number is prime or not. Last packet we looked at one primality test called **trivial division**, which checks if a number n is divisible by all natural numbers less than n , excluding 1. We can write it out in pseudocode:

```
Let integer i = 2;
While i is not greater than n-1, do the following:

    If the remainder of n divided by i is 0:
        Return "n is composite" and exit code.
    Otherwise, increase i by 1.

If code goes through all values of i:
    Return "n is prime" and exit code.
```

We made this algorithm more efficient by only checking divisors up to \sqrt{n} , then only checking prime numbers up to \sqrt{n} , then checking 2, 3, and 5 before checking all numbers greater than 5 of the form $30k + i$ for certain i up to \sqrt{n} . After all this, our new trial division algorithm (in pseudocode) is:

```
Let L be {1, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29}

For each element p in list {2, 3, 5}:
    If the remainder of n divided by p is 0:
        Return "n is composite" and exit code.

Let integer k = 0
Let integer j = 2
Let x = 30 * k + (jth element of L)
While x is not greater than sqrt(n), do the following:
    If the remainder of n divided by x is 0:
        Return "n is composite" and exit code.
    Otherwise, if j < 9:
        Increase j by 1.
    Otherwise, set j to 0 and increase k by 1.

If code goes through all values of x:
    Return "n is prime" and exit code.
```

Number Theory Recap

Last packet on primality tests, we introduced the following:

Definition 0.2 The *greatest common divisor* of nonzero integers a and b is the greatest integer that divides both a and b . It is denoted by $\gcd(a, b)$.

We also proved the following:

Definition 0.3 (The Division Algorithm) Given two integers a, b , we can find two integers q, r , where $0 \leq r < b$ and $a = qb + r$. In other words, we can divide a by b to get q remainder r .

Theorem 0.1 (Bezout's Identity) Let a, b be integers with greatest common divisor d . Then there exist integers x, y such that $ax + by = d$.

Lemma 0.1 (Euclid's Lemma) If a prime p divides the product ab of two integers a and b , then p must divide at least one of those integers a or b .

Theorem 0.2 (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic) Every integer greater than 1 can be represented uniquely as a product of prime numbers, up to the order of their factors (in other words, this unique representation $p_1^{e_1} \dots p_k^{e_k}$ has $p_1 < \dots < p_k$).

We will not go over the proofs we did last packet. Instead, here are a few simple warm-up problems:

Problem 0.1 Prove that, for any integers a, b, c ,
 $\gcd(ac + b, a) = \gcd(a, b)$.

Problem 0.2 Using the previous problem and the Division Algorithm (Definition 0.3), detail an algorithm (pseudocode or not) for finding $\gcd(a, b)$. Then use it to compute $\gcd(1610, 207)$ by hand.

1 Number Theory: Modular Arithmetic

The next primality tests rely on **modular arithmetic**:

Definition 1.1 We say that a, b are equivalent to mod m if m divides $a - b$.
If a is equivalent to b mod m , we write $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

For example:

$$\begin{aligned}32 &\equiv 2 \pmod{6} \\4 &\equiv 4 \pmod{6} \\-2 &\equiv 4 \pmod{6}\end{aligned}$$

In this system of arithmetic, numbers "wrap around" after reaching a certain value, called the **modulus** (this is the number in parenthesis after "mod").

One famous example of modular arithmetic is determining AM/PM time on a 12-hour clock: for example, if the time now is 5:00, then after 9 hours it will be 2:00, just like how $5 + 9 \equiv 2 \pmod{12}$.

Problem 1.1 Complete the following:

$$\begin{aligned}87 &\equiv \underline{\quad} \pmod{12} \quad (\text{your answer should be between } 0 \text{ and } 12) \\13 &\equiv 2 \pmod{\underline{\quad}} \\ \underline{\quad} &\equiv 1 \pmod{9}\end{aligned}$$

Problem 1.2 Fix a nonzero integer n . Prove that congruence \pmod{n} is an equivalence relation. In other words, prove that:

- For any integer a , $a \equiv a \pmod{n}$.
- For any integers a, b , if $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$, then $b \equiv a \pmod{n}$.
- For any integers a, b, c , if $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$, then $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$.

Problem 1.3 Prove that congruence mod n is a congruence relation, an equivalence relation that is compatible with addition and multiplication. In other words, prove that if $a_1 \equiv a_2 \pmod{n}$ and $b_1 \equiv b_2 \pmod{n}$, then $a_1 + b_1 \equiv a_2 + b_2 \pmod{n}$ and $a_1 b_1 \equiv a_2 b_2 \pmod{n}$.

Problem 1.4 How does the congruence relation of modular arithmetic relate to Euclidean Division (Definition 0.3)?

Using our new knowledge of modular arithmetic, we can create a second primality test other than trial division using **Wilson's Theorem**.

Theorem 1.1 (Wilson's Theorem) Natural number p is prime if and only if $(p - 1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$.

1.1 Proving Wilson's Theorem

To succinctly prove Wilson's theorem, we need to introduce another concept in number theory:

Definition 1.2 The *inverse* of $a \pmod{m}$ is an integer a^* so that $a \times a^* \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$.
Note that not every integer a has an inverse mod m .

Problem 1.5 Find each of the following, if it exists:

- The inverse of 3 (mod 7)
- The inverse of 5 (mod 10)
- The inverse of 20 (mod 14)
- The inverse of 34 (mod 541)

Problem 1.6 For some prime p and natural number $a < p$, we assume the inverse of $a \pmod{p}$ exists. In general, how do we find it? Give an example for 3 (mod 7).

Hint: The answer involves something we covered last packet in the "Number Theory Recap" section.

Problem 1.7 Prove the following theorem:

a has an inverse mod m if and only if $\gcd(a, m) = 1$.

Hint: The proof involves two things we covered last packet.

A corollary to this theorem is that for prime p any integer a where $0 < a < p$ has an inverse mod p .

Problem 1.8 If a is its own inverse mod p , then what is $a \pmod{p}$?

We should have enough practice for the following:

Problem 1.9 Prove Wilson's Theorem.

1.2 Back to Primality Tests

Problem 1.10 Write an algorithm, similar in spirit to the one for trial division, that uses Wilson's Theorem to check whether the number is prime or composite.

Problem 1.11 Compared to our new algorithm for trial division, does this algorithm require more or less computing power? Is it more or less efficient?

Wilson's theorem is very important in finding quadratic residues in number theory (this is related to the first challenge problem).

2 Probabilistic Primality Tests

Previously, we have looked at examples of **deterministic** algorithms, meaning they give a definitive result every time they are run.

In this section, however, we will look at primality tests that are not deterministic, instead called **probabilistic**. Probabilistic primality tests usually have an element of randomization, run many iterations for required accuracy, and only determine that a number is composite or probably prime.

2.1 Fermat primality test

This is the simplest probabilistic primality test. Before we get into the pseudocode, we must define the following:

Definition 2.1 Two integers a, b are **coprime** if $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.

Given natural number $n > 1$, we can write out the algorithm in pseudocode:

Let a = randomly generated integer from 2 to $n-2$, inclusive.

If a^{n-1} is not $1 \pmod{n}$:

 Return "n is composite" and exit code.

Otherwise, return "n is probably prime" and exit code.

This primality test utilizes Fermat's Little Theorem:

Theorem 2.1 (Fermat's Little Theorem) If a is an integer, p is a prime number and a is not divisible by p , then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Problem 2.1 Show that Fermat's theorem holds for $n = 7, a = 5$. Then show it holds for $n = 13, a = 3$.

Problem 2.2 Prove Fermat's Little Theorem.

Problem 2.3 For the program above, why would it be better not to include the possibility of checking $a = 1$ or $a = p - 1$?

Problem 2.4 Suppose we wish to determine whether $n = 221$ is prime or not, and say we randomly pick $a = 38$. What will the program output? What about for $a = 24$? Justify your answers.
Hint: Try to use some tricks to make your calculations more efficient.

Definition 2.2 Composite number n is called a **Fermat pseudoprime** to base a if $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. Unlike the pseudocode in our algorithm, a does not have to be in the range $[2, n - 2]$.

Problem 2.5 For what bases are each of the numbers pseudoprime?

- $n=9$
- $n=15$
- $n=21$
- $n=25$
- $n=27$

3 Challenge Problems

Problem 3.1 *There are certain things whose number is unknown. If we count them by threes, we have two left over; by fives, we have three left over; and by sevens, two are left over. How many things are there?*

Problem 3.2 *Prove that, for any prime p such that $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, the number -1 is a square mod p .
Hint: Use algebraic manipulation on Wilson's Theorem.*

Problem 3.3 *Prove that there are infinitely many Fermat pseudoprimes.*