

## Number Theory Summary

**Integers** Let  $\mathbf{Z}$  denote the integers and  $\mathbf{Z}^+$  the positive integers.

**Division** For  $a \in \mathbf{Z}$  and  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ , there exist unique integers  $q, r$  such that  $a = nq + r$  and  $0 \leq r < n$ . We denote the *quotient*  $q$  by  $\lfloor a/n \rfloor$  and the *remainder*  $r$  by  $a \bmod n$ . We say  $n$  *divides*  $a$  (written  $n \mid a$ ) if  $a \bmod n = 0$ . If  $n \mid a$ ,  $n$  is called a *divisor* of  $a$ . If also  $1 < n < |a|$ ,  $n$  is said to be a *proper divisor* of  $a$ .

**Greatest common divisor** The *greatest common divisor* ( $\gcd$ ) of integers  $a, b$  (written  $\gcd(a, b)$  or simply  $(a, b)$ ) is the greatest integer  $d$  such that  $d \mid a$  and  $d \mid b$ . If  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ , then  $a$  and  $b$  are said to be *relatively prime*.

**Euclidean algorithm** Computes  $\gcd(a, b)$ . Based on two facts:  $\gcd(0, b) = b$ ;  $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a - qb)$  for any  $q \in \mathbf{Z}$ . For rapid convergence, take  $q = \lfloor a/b \rfloor$ , in which case  $a - qb = a \bmod b$ .

**Congruence** For  $a, b \in \mathbf{Z}$  and  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ , we write  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  iff  $n \mid (b - a)$ . Note  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  iff  $(a \bmod n) = (b \bmod n)$ .

**Modular arithmetic** Fix  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ . Let  $\mathbf{Z}_n = \{0, 1, \dots, n - 1\}$  and let  $\mathbf{Z}_n^* = \{a \in \mathbf{Z}_n \mid \gcd(a, n) = 1\}$ . For integers  $a, b$ , define  $a \oplus b = (a + b) \bmod n$  and  $a \otimes b = ab \bmod n$ .  $\oplus$  and  $\otimes$  are associative and commutative, and  $\otimes$  distributes over  $\oplus$ . Moreover,  $\bmod n$  distributes over both  $+$  and  $\times$ , so for example,  $a + b \times (c + d) \bmod n = (a \bmod n) + (b \bmod n) \times ((c \bmod n) + (d \bmod n)) = a \oplus b \otimes (c \oplus d)$ .  $\mathbf{Z}_n$  is closed under  $\oplus$  and  $\otimes$ , and  $\mathbf{Z}_n^*$  is closed under  $\otimes$ .

**Primes and prime factorization** A number  $p \geq 2$  is *prime* if it has no proper divisors. Any positive number  $n$  can be written uniquely (up to the order of the factors) as a product of primes. Equivalently, there exist unique integers  $k, p_1, \dots, p_k, e_1, \dots, e_k$  such that  $n = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{e_i}$ ,  $k \geq 0$ ,  $p_1 < p_2 < \dots < p_k$  are primes, and each  $e_i \geq 1$ . The product  $\prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{e_i}$  is called the *prime factorization* of  $n$ . A positive number  $n$  is *composite* if  $(\sum_{i=1}^k e_i) \geq 2$  in its prime factorization. By these definitions,  $n = 1$  has prime factorization with  $k = 0$ , so 1 is neither prime nor composite.

**Linear congruences** Let  $a, b \in \mathbf{Z}$ ,  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ . Let  $d = \gcd(a, n)$ . If  $d \mid b$ , then there are  $d$  solutions  $x$  in  $\mathbf{Z}_n$  to the congruence equation  $ax \equiv b \pmod{n}$ . If  $d \nmid b$ , then  $ax \equiv b \pmod{n}$  has no solution.

**Extended Euclidean algorithm** Finds one solution of  $ax \equiv b \pmod{n}$ , or announces that there are none. Call a triple  $(g, u, v)$  *valid* if  $g = au + nv$ . Algorithm generates valid triples starting with  $(n, 0, 1)$  and  $(a, 1, 0)$ . Goal is to find valid triple  $(g, u, v)$  such that  $g \mid b$ . If found, then  $u(b/g)$  solves  $ax \equiv b \pmod{n}$ . If none exists, then no solution. Given valid  $(g, u, v)$ ,  $(g', u', v')$ , can generate new valid triple  $(g - qg', u - qu', v - qv')$  for any  $q \in \mathbf{Z}$ . For rapid convergence, choose  $q = \lfloor g/g' \rfloor$ , and retain always last two triples. Note: Sequence of generated  $g$ -values is exactly the same as the sequence of numbers generated by the Euclidean algorithm.

**Inverses** Let  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ ,  $a \in \mathbf{Z}$ . There exists unique  $b \in \mathbf{Z}$  such that  $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  iff  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ . Such a  $b$ , when it exists, is called an *inverse* of  $a$  modulo  $n$ . We write  $a^{-1}$  for the unique inverse of  $a$  modulo  $n$  that is also in  $\mathbf{Z}_n$ . Can find  $a^{-1} \pmod{n}$  efficiently by using Extended Euclidean algorithm to solve  $ax \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ .

**Chinese remainder theorem** Let  $n_1, \dots, n_k$  be pairwise relatively prime numbers in  $\mathbf{Z}^+$ , let  $a_1, \dots, a_k$  be integers, and let  $n = \prod_i n_i$ . There exists a unique  $x \in \mathbf{Z}_n$  such that  $x \equiv a_i \pmod{n_i}$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . To compute  $x$ , let  $N_i = n/n_i$  and compute  $M_i = N_i^{-1} \pmod{n_i}$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . Then  $x = (\sum_{i=1}^k a_i M_i N_i) \pmod{n}$ .

**Euler function** Let  $\phi(n) = |\mathbf{Z}_n^*|$ . One can show that  $\phi(n) = \prod_{i=1}^k (p_i - 1)p_i^{e_i - 1}$ , where  $\prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{e_i}$  is the prime factorization of  $n$ . In particular, if  $p$  is prime, then  $\phi(p) = p - 1$ , and if  $p, q$  are distinct primes, then  $\phi(pq) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$ .

**Euler's theorem** Let  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ ,  $a \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$ . Then  $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ . As a consequence, if  $r \equiv s \pmod{\phi(n)}$  then  $a^r \equiv a^s \pmod{n}$ .

**Order of an element** Let  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ ,  $a \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$ . We define  $\text{ord}(a)$ , the *order* of  $a$  modulo  $n$ , to be the smallest number  $k \geq 1$  such that  $a^k \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ . Fact:  $\text{ord}(a) \mid \phi(n)$ .

**Primitive roots** Let  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ ,  $a \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$ .  $a$  is a *primitive root* of  $n$  iff  $\text{ord}(a) = \phi(n)$ . For a primitive root  $a$ , it follows that  $\mathbf{Z}_n^* = \{a \pmod{n}, a^2 \pmod{n}, \dots, a^{\phi(n)} \pmod{n}\}$ . If  $n$  has a primitive root, then it has  $\phi(\phi(n))$  primitive roots. Primitive roots exist for every prime  $p$  (and for some other numbers as well).  $a$  is a primitive root of  $p$  iff  $a^{(p-1)/q} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  for every prime divisor  $q$  of  $p - 1$ .

**Discrete log** Let  $p$  be a prime,  $a$  a primitive root of  $p$ ,  $b \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$  such that  $b \equiv a^k \pmod{p}$  for some  $k$ ,  $0 \leq k \leq p - 2$ . We say  $k$  is the *discrete logarithm* of  $b$  to the base  $a$ .

**Quadratic residues** Let  $a \in \mathbf{Z}$ ,  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ .  $a$  is a *quadratic residue* modulo  $n$  if there exists  $y$  such that  $a \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$ .  $a$  is sometimes called a *square* and  $y$  its *square root*.

**Quadratic residues modulo a prime** If  $p$  is an odd prime, then every quadratic residue in  $\mathbf{Z}_p^*$  has exactly two square roots in  $\mathbf{Z}_p^*$ , and exactly half of the elements in  $\mathbf{Z}_p^*$  are quadratic residues. Let  $a \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$  be a quadratic residue. Then  $a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv (y^2)^{(p-1)/2} \equiv y^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ , where  $y$  a square root of  $a$  modulo  $p$ . Let  $g$  be a primitive root modulo  $p$ . If  $a \equiv g^k \pmod{p}$ , then  $a$  is a quadratic residue modulo  $p$  iff  $k$  is even, in which case its two square roots are  $g^{k/2} \pmod{p}$  and  $-g^{k/2} \pmod{p}$ . If  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  and  $a \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$  is a quadratic residue modulo  $p$ , then  $a^{(p+1)/4}$  is a square root of  $a$ , since  $(a^{(p+1)/4})^2 \equiv aa^{(p-1)/2} \equiv a \pmod{p}$ .

**Quadratic residues modulo products of two primes** If  $n = pq$  for  $p, q$  distinct odd primes, then every quadratic residue in  $\mathbf{Z}_n^*$  has exactly four square roots in  $\mathbf{Z}_n^*$ , and exactly  $1/4$  of the elements in  $\mathbf{Z}_n^*$  are quadratic residues. An element  $a \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$  is a quadratic residue modulo  $n$  iff it is a quadratic residue modulo  $p$  and modulo  $q$ . The four square roots of  $a$  can be found from its two square roots modulo  $p$  and its two square roots modulo  $q$  using the Chinese remainder theorem.

**Legendre symbol** Let  $a \geq 0$ ,  $p$  an odd prime.  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 1$  if  $a$  is a quadratic residue modulo  $p$ ,  $-1$  if  $a$  is a quadratic non-residue modulo  $p$ , and  $0$  if  $p \mid a$ . Fact:  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = a^{(p-1)/2}$ .

**Jacobi symbol** Let  $a \geq 0$ ,  $n$  an odd positive number with prime factorization  $\prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{e_i}$ . We define  $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \prod_{i=1}^k \left(\frac{a}{p_i}\right)^{e_i}$ . (By convention, this product is 1 when  $k = 0$ , so  $\left(\frac{a}{1}\right) = 1$ .) The Jacobi and Legendre symbols agree when  $n$  is an odd prime. If  $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = -1$  then  $a$  is definitely not a quadratic residue modulo  $n$ , but if  $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = 1$ ,  $a$  might or might not be a quadratic residue.

**Computing the Jacobi symbol**  $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right)$  can be computed efficiently by a straightforward recursive algorithm, based on the following identities:  $\left(\frac{0}{1}\right) = 1$ ;  $\left(\frac{0}{n}\right) = 0$  for  $n \neq 1$ ;  $\left(\frac{a_1}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{a_2}{n}\right)$  if  $a_1 \equiv a_2 \pmod{n}$ ;  $\left(\frac{2}{n}\right) = 1$  if  $n \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8}$ ;  $\left(\frac{2}{n}\right) = -1$  if  $n \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{8}$ ;  $\left(\frac{2a}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{n}\right) \left(\frac{a}{n}\right)$ ;  $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{n}{a}\right)$  if  $a \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  or  $n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ ;  $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = -\left(\frac{n}{a}\right)$  if  $a \equiv n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ .

**Solovay-Strassen test for compositeness** Let  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ . If  $n$  is composite, then for roughly 1/2 of the numbers  $a \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$ ,  $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) \not\equiv a^{(n-1)/2} \pmod{n}$ . If  $n$  is prime, then for every  $a \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$ ,  $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) \equiv a^{(n-1)/2} \pmod{n}$ .

**Miller-Rabin test for compositeness** Let  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$  and write  $n-1 = 2^k m$ , where  $m$  is odd. Choose  $1 \leq a \leq n-1$ . Compute  $b_i = a^{m2^i} \pmod{n}$  for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, k-1$ . If  $n$  is composite, then for roughly 3/4 of the possible values for  $a$ ,  $b_0 \neq 1$  and  $b_i \neq -1$  for  $0 \leq i \leq k-1$ . If  $n$  is prime, then for every  $a$ , either  $b_0 = 1$  or  $b_i = -1$  for some  $i$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq k-1$ .

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