Part I. Basic Arithmetic Part II. Primality Testing Part III. Factoring Integers

Problem. Given a composite integer n > 1, find some nontrivial factorization of n, that is n = uv where each of u and v is an integer > 1.

Note: One can be pretty confident about whether a large integer n is composite without knowing a nontrivial factorization.

Expectation. A random number n will have around $\log \log n$ prime factors.

Theorem. If $\omega(n)$ is the number of distinct prime factors of n, then

$$\sum_{n\leq x}ig(\omega(n)-\log\log xig)^2\ll x\log\log x.$$

Corollary. For almost all n, we have

$$(*) \qquad \qquad |\omega(n) - \log \log n| \leq (\log \log n)^{2/3}.$$

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Explanation of Corollary:

- Assume there are εx different $n \leq x$ for which (*) does not hold, where $\varepsilon > 0$ is fixed and x is large.
- All but $\leq \sqrt{x}$ of these are $> \sqrt{x}$.
- For such n, we have

$$egin{aligned} |\log\log n - \log\log x| < 1 \ & \Longrightarrow \ |\omega(n) - \log\log x| \geq (1/2)(\log\log x)^{2/3}. \end{aligned}$$

• This contradicts the theorem.

Expectation 2. "Most" numbers n have a prime factor $> \sqrt{n}$.

$$\sum_{p\leq x}rac{1}{p}=\log\log x+A+O(1/\log x)$$

Why does the sum of the reciprocals of the primes diverge and where is this coming from (roughly)?

What does this have to do with Expectation 2?

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \sum_{\substack{\sqrt{x}$$

$$\log 2 = 0.69314718\ldots$$

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Comment: A random number n will have small prime factors, so it is reasonable to first do a quick "sieve" to determine if this is the case.

How many integers $n \leq x$ do not have a prime factor $\leq z$?

On the order of
$$\frac{x}{\log z}$$
.

For $k \leq \min\{10^7, n-1\}$, check if $gcd(2^{k!} - 1 \mod n, n) > 1$.

Idea: If n has some prime factor p that is not too large and p-1 has fairly small prime factors, then probably p-1 divides some k! above and hence the gcd. Further, it is likely that all primes dividing n will not simultaneously divide the first occurrence of such a k.

```
> n:=31415926535897932384626433832795028841971693993751:
> check:=0:
    for k from 1 to 25 while check=0 do
        m := 2&^(k!)-1 mod n:
        thegcd := gcd(m,n):
        if thegcd > 1 then lprint(thegcd): check:=1: fi:
        od:
        1657
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> n:=n/1657;
           n := 18959521144174974281609193622688611250435542543
> check:=0:
  for k from 1 to 8000 while check=0 do
    m := 2\&^{(k!)} - 1 \mod n:
    thegcd := gcd(m,n):
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> ifactor(2767320)
                          (2)^{3} (3)^{2} (5) (7687)
```

This method typically finds a prime factor p of n in about \sqrt{p} steps (so $O(n^{1/4})$ steps), and small prime factors of n will usually be found first.

A couple of relevant asides: The birthday problem and a card trick.

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> $product\left(\frac{k}{366.}, k = (366 - 22) ...366\right)$
 0.4936769876
> $product\left(\frac{k}{365.}, k = (365 - 21) ...365\right)$

F

0.5243046907

This method typically finds a prime factor p of n in about \sqrt{p} steps (so $O(n^{1/4})$ steps), and small prime factors of n will usually be found first.

A couple of relevant asides: The birthday problem and a card trick.

And what if birthdays are not random?

More Background: Suppose we roll a fair die with "n faces" k times. If $k \ge 2\sqrt{n} + 2$, then with probability > 1/2 two of the numbers rolled will be the same.

$$\prod_{j=1}^{k-1} \left(\frac{n-j}{n}\right) \leq \left(1-\frac{\sqrt{n}}{n}\right)^{\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{1}{e}$$

Idea with a hiccup:

- Take $f(x) = x^2 + 1$, and define $f^{(1)}(x) = f(x)$ and $f^{(j+1)}(x) = f(f^{(j)}(x))$ for $j \ge 1$.
- Compute $a_j = f^{(j)}(1) \mod n$ for $1 \leq j \leq k$ where $k \approx \sqrt[4]{n}$ (or less).
- Compute $gcd(a_i a_j, n)$ for $1 \le i < j \le k$ to get a likely factorization of n.

Why does this likely lead to a factorization of n?

What's the hiccup?