Solutions to Homework 7

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- 1. Do the following computations.
 - (a) Reduce $8263^{12012} \mod 7000$.
 - (b) Reduce $100^{101^{102}} \mod 13$.
 - (c) Find all primes p such that $\operatorname{ord}_p(2) = 24$.
 - (d) Solve the equation $x^{13} \equiv 35 \mod 360$.

Solution:

(a) We have $\varphi(7000) = 2400$, and $8263 \equiv 1263 \mod 7000$. Euler's theorem tells us exponents only matter mod $\varphi(n)$, so we have $8623^{12012} \equiv 1263^{12} \mod 7000$. One can then check that $1263^{12} \equiv 4481 \mod 7000$.

An alternative (better) method is as follows: $7000 = 2^3 \cdot 5^3 \cdot 7$, so the congruence $x \equiv 8263^{12012} \mod 7000$ is equivalent to the system of congruences $x \equiv 8263^{12012} \mod 8$, $x \equiv 8263^{12012} \mod 125$, $x \equiv 8263^{12012} \mod 7$ by CRT. Reducing each expression using the same idea as the first paragraph, we find $x \equiv 1 \mod 8$, $x \equiv 106 \mod 125$, $x \equiv 1 \mod 7$. Solving the system using the methods of the previous homework yields $x \equiv 4481 \mod 7000$.

- (b) We have $\varphi(13) = 12$. Since exponentiation only matters mod $\varphi(n)$, first we need to compute $101^{102} \mod 12$. We have $101 \equiv 5 \mod 12$ and $\varphi(12) = 4$, so now the exponent only matters mod 4. Since $102 \equiv 2 \mod 4$, we find $101^{102} \equiv 5^2 \equiv 1 \mod 12$. This then says $100^{101^{102}} \equiv 9^1 \equiv 9 \mod 13$.
- (c) Since $\operatorname{ord}_p(2) = 24$, we have $2^{24} \equiv 1 \mod p$. In particular, we must have $2^{12} \equiv -1 \mod p$, because $(2^{12})^2 \equiv 1 \mod p$ and the only solutions to $x^2 \equiv 1 \mod p$ are $\pm 1 \mod p$ (and it can't be 1 because otherwise 24 wouldn't be the order!). This says $p \mid 2^{12}+1=17\cdot241$, so p=17 or p=241 are the only possibilities. On the other hand, by Fermat's little theorem $2^{p-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$, so $24 = \operatorname{ord}_p(2) \mid p-1$ says $p \equiv 1 \mod 24$. This means p=241 is the only possibility, and indeed one can check by hand that one actually has $\operatorname{ord}_{241}(2) = 24$.
- (d) We wish to find k such that $x^{13k} \equiv x \mod 360$. Then, we would have $x \equiv 35^k \mod 360$. Since $\varphi(360) = 96$ and exponentiation only matters mod $\varphi(n)$, we wish to find k such that $13k \equiv 1 \mod 96$. This is a standard inverse computation, and solving yields $k \equiv 37 \mod 96$. Plugging in then yields $x \equiv 35^{37} \equiv 35 \mod 360$.

2. This exercise is a primality test based on Fermat's little theorem. For any integer a and prime p with $p \nmid a$, Fermat's little theorem says $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$, so taking the contrapositive of this statement says that if $a^{p-1} \not\equiv 1 \mod p$, then p is composite! This gives rise to an algorithm for testing if an integer n is prime or not:

- Randomly pick an integer a with $n \nmid a$.
- If $a^{n-1} \not\equiv 1 \mod n$, then n is composite and we're done!
- Otherwise, if $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod n$, pick a different integer a and repeat.

If a is an integer such that $a^{n-1} \not\equiv 1 \mod n$, we call a a *Fermat witness* for the compositeness of n.

- (a) Using WolframAlpha or any other computer algebra system, find the smallest Fermat witness for 2821.
- (b) Let m = 56052361. Using WolframAlpha or any other computer algebra system, determine if 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 10, or 11 are Fermat witnesses for m. What do you find? Is this enough information to tell you with certainty if m is prime or composite, and why?

We call n a Carmichael number if $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod n$ for all integers a with gcd(a, n) = 1. Carmichael numbers are the integers for which our primality test will never give us any information.

(c) Prove that 561 is a Carmichael number. (Hint: $561 = 3 \cdot 11 \cdot 17$. Euler's theorem might be useful.)

Solution:

- (a) Try a = 2, 3, 5, 6, 7 on WolframAlpha and you'll find a = 7 is the smallest witness.
- (b) For all listed values of a, one has $a^{m-1} \equiv 1 \mod m$. This information isn't enough to tell you anything. It's possible that there's a witness we just haven't found yet, which would mean m is composite. On the other hand, even if we don't find a witness, this doesn't mean anything. The test just says if there is a witness, then m is composite, it can't give us information about whether m is prime.

Remark: 56052361 is actually a Carmichael number, so $a^{m-1} \equiv 1 \mod m$ for all *a* coprime to *m*!

(c) Since $561 = 3 \cdot 11 \cdot 17$, Euler's theorem says for any *a* coprime to 561 we have $a^2 \equiv 1 \mod 3$, $a^{10} \equiv 1 \mod 11$, and $a^{16} \equiv 1 \mod 17$. Since 560 is divisible by 2, 10, 16, we have $a^{560} \equiv 1 \mod 3$, $a^{560} \equiv 1 \mod 11$, and $a^{560} \equiv 1 \mod 17$, so gluing together yields $a^{560} \equiv 1 \mod 561$ as desired.

3. Euler's theorem says for any integer a with gcd(a, n) = 1, that $a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \mod n$. However, $\varphi(n)$ is often times not the smallest exponent we can choose with this property. The *Carmichael function* $\lambda(n)$ is defined to be the smallest positive integer k such that $a^k \equiv 1 \mod n$ for all integers a with gcd(a, n) = 1. It turns out, for example, that $\lambda(1729) = 36$, and so every integer a with gcd(a, 1729) = 1 satisfies $a^{36} \equiv 1 \mod 1729$.

- (a) Prove that n is Carmichael number if and only if $\lambda(n) \mid n-1$.
- (b) Compute $\lambda(3), \lambda(11)$ and $\lambda(17)$.
- (c) Compute $\lambda(561)$.

Solution:

- (a) First, suppose that $\lambda(n) \mid n-1$, so $n-1 = \lambda(n)k$ for some integer k. Then since $a^{\lambda(n)} \equiv 1 \mod n$ by definition, we have $a^{n-1} = (a^{\lambda(n)})^k \equiv 1 \mod n$. Conversely, suppose that n is a Carmichael number, so that $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod n$ for any a coprime to n. Write $n-1 = \lambda(n)q + r$ with $0 \le r < \lambda(n)$ by the division algorithm. Then for any a coprime to n, we have $1 \equiv a^{n-1} \equiv (a^{\lambda(n)})^q \cdot a^r \equiv a^r \mod n$. This forces r = 0 because $\lambda(n)$ is the smallest *positive* integer with this property, and so $\lambda(n) \mid n-1$ as desired.
- (b) One can check (by hand, for example) that there are generators mod 3, mod 11, and mod 17: 2 is a generator mod 3 and mod 11, while 3 is a generator mod 17. In particular, this means the smallest exponent you can raise said generator to get back 1 in each case is 2, 10, 16 respectively, which would force λ(3) = 2, λ(11) = 10, λ(17) = 16.
- (c) From the previous problem, for any *a* coprime to 561 we know that $a^2 \equiv 1 \mod 3$, $a^{10} \equiv 1 \mod 11$, and $a^{16} \equiv 1 \mod 17$. The least common multiple of 2, 10, 16 is 80, and so we have $a^{80} \equiv 1 \mod 3, 11, 17$ which would tell us $a^{80} \equiv 1 \mod 561$. In particular, this says $\lambda(561) \leq 80$. The point is that we have generators mod 3, 11, 17, and if g is a generator mod p we have $g^k \equiv 1 \mod p$ if and only if $p-1 \mid k$. This says 2, 10, 16 $\mid \lambda(561)$ and so $\lambda(561)$ is divisible by their least common multiple, which says 80 $\mid \lambda(561)$ so $80 \leq \lambda(561)$. This yields $\lambda(561) = 80$.

4. The goal of this problem is to give an alternate proof of Euler's theorem following the main philosophy of number theory.

- (a) Prove that for any integer k with $1 \le k \le p-1$, that $\binom{p}{k} \equiv 0 \mod p$.
- (b) For any integer $a \ge 0$, prove by induction on a that $a^p \equiv a \mod p$. Deduce that for gcd(a, p) = 1, that $a^{\varphi(p)} \equiv 1 \mod p$. (You may assume the binomial theorem for this.)
- (c) Prove that for any integers a, k with $k \ge 1$ and gcd(a, p) = 1, that $a^{\varphi(p^k)} \equiv 1 \mod p^k$. (Again, you may assume the binomial theorem for this.)
- (d) Prove that for integers a, n with gcd(a, n) = 1 that $a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \mod n$.

Solution:

- (a) By definition, $\binom{p}{k} = \frac{p!}{k!(p-k)!}$. Binomial coefficients are integers, and for $0 \le k \le p-1$ the expression in the denominator contains no factor of k because each term in the factorials are less than p. Since there is a factor of p up top, we get $p \mid \binom{p}{k}$ so $\binom{p}{k} \equiv 0 \mod p$.
- (b) This is obvious for a = 0. Assume that for some integer k that $k^p \equiv k \mod p$. We wish to show that $(k+1)^p \equiv k+1 \mod p$. By the binomial theorem, $(k+1)^p \equiv \sum_{i=0}^p {p \choose i} k^i \equiv k^p + 1 \equiv k+1 \mod p$ by assumption, and because all coefficients in the sum except the last two vanish mod p by part (a). This is what we wanted, so we're done by induction.
- (c) We prove by induction on k that $a^{\varphi(p^k)} \equiv 1 \mod p^k$ for $k \ge 1$. The base case k = 1 was the previous part. Now assume that $a^{\varphi(p^k)} \equiv 1 \mod p^k$ for some k. We wish to show that $a^{\varphi(p^{k+1})} \equiv 1 \mod p^{k+1}$. Note that $\varphi(p^{k+1}) = p\varphi(p^k)$ from the formula $\varphi(p^k) = p^{k-1}(p-1)$. Therefore, $a^{\varphi(p^{k+1})} \equiv a^{p\varphi(p^k)} \equiv (a^{\varphi(p^k)})^p \mod p^{k+1}$. Since $a^{\varphi(p^k)} \equiv 1 \mod p^k$ by assumption, we can write $a^{\varphi(p^k)} = 1 + p^k \ell$ for some integer ℓ . Plugging in, we want to compute $(1 + p^k \ell)^p \mod p^{k+1}$. By the binomial theorem, we have $(1 + p^k \ell)^p \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{p} {p \choose i} (p^k \ell)^i \equiv 1 \mod p^{k+1}$ because $(p^k \ell)^i$ is divisible by p^{k+1} for $2 \le i \le p$ and for i = 1 we have ${p \choose 1} = p$ so $p \cdot (p^k \ell)$ is divisible by p^{k+1} . Therefore, we have shown that $a^{\varphi(p^{k+1})} \equiv 1 \mod p^{k+1}$ and so by induction, we're done.

(d) Write $n = p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$ as a product of primes. By part (b), we have $a^{\varphi(p_i^{e_i})} \equiv 1 \mod p_i^{e_i}$ for all *i*. Since $\varphi(p_i^{e_i}) \mid \varphi(n)$ for each *i*, in particular this says $a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \mod p_i^{e_i}$ for each *i*, and gluing back together with CRT says $a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \mod n$ as desired.

5. On homework 2, you proved the only integers of the form $2^n - 1$ that can be prime are *Mersenne* primes, primes of the form $2^p - 1$ for prime p, and that the only integers of the form $2^n + 1$ that can be prime are *Fermat numbers*, integers of the form $2^{2^n} + 1$.

- (a) Let p be an odd prime, and let q be a prime divisor of $2^p 1$. Prove that $\operatorname{ord}_q(2) = p$. Similarly, for odd prime p prove that if $p \mid 2^{2^n} + 1$ then $\operatorname{ord}_p(2) = 2^{n+1}$.
- (b) Deduce that if q is a prime divisor of $2^p 1$, then q = 2pk + 1 for some integer k. Similarly, deduce that if p is a prime divisor of $2^{2^n} + 1$, that p must be of the form $2^{n+1}k + 1$ for some integer k.
- (c) On homework 2, you proved using a computer that $2^{32} + 1 = 641 \cdot 6700417$. Use the previous part to explain how one could identify 641 as a possible factor, and prove by hand that $641 \mid 2^{32} + 1$ using modular arithmetic, so that 641 is the smallest prime divisor of $2^{32} + 1$. Similarly, find by hand the smallest prime divisor of $2^{29} 1$.

Solution:

- (a) We have $2^p \equiv 1 \mod q$ by assumption, and so this says $\operatorname{ord}_q(2) \mid p$, so $\operatorname{ord}_q(2) = 1$ or p. It's obviously not 1, so $\operatorname{ord}_q(2) = p$ as desired. Similarly, one has $2^{2^n} \equiv -1 \mod p$, and so squaring yields $2^{2^{n+1}} \equiv 1 \mod p$. This says $\operatorname{ord}_p(2) \mid 2^{n+1}$. The order must then be 2^k for some $1 \leq k \leq n+1$. If k < n+1, write n = k+r for some $r \geq 0$. We then have $2^{2^n} = (2^{2^k})^{2^r}$ and so this would mean that $2^{2^n} \equiv 1 \mod p$, which is a contradiction. This leaves $\operatorname{ord}_p(2) = 2^{n+1}$ as the only possibility.
- (b) From part (a), we showed that $\operatorname{ord}_q(2) = p$. Since $2^{q-1} \equiv 1 \mod q$ by Fermat's little theorem, this says $p \mid q-1$. Since q is even, we must also have $2 \mid q-1$ and so $2p \mid q-1$, i.e. q = 1 + 2pk for some k. Similarly, $2^{p-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$ and therefore part (a) says $2^{n+1} \mid p-1$ yields $p = 1 + 2^{n+1}k$ for some k.
- (c) $32 = 2^5$ so any prime factor of $2^{32} + 1$ is of the form 64k + 1, and 641 is indeed of this form. We then want to show that $2^{32} \equiv -1 \mod 641$, so that 641 is a factor of $2^{32} + 1$. At this point, this is just a straightforward computation: $2^8 \equiv 256 \mod 641$ and so $2^{16} \equiv (256)^2 \equiv 154 \mod 641$ and $2^{32} \equiv (154)^2 \equiv 640 \equiv -1 \mod 641$.

Similarly, any prime factor of $2^{29} - 1$ must be of the form 1 + 58k. The first two primes of this form are 59 and 233. We have $2^{25} \equiv (32)^5 \equiv 11 \mod 59$ so $2^{29} \equiv 11 \cdot 16 \equiv -1 \mod 59$. Checking 233, we have $2^{25} \equiv (32)^5 \equiv 102 \mod 233$ and so $2^{29} \equiv 16 \cdot 102 \equiv 1 \mod 233$, so 233 is the smallest prime dividing $2^{29} - 1$.

6. On homework 4, you proved that there were infinitely many primes of the form 4k + 3. Now, you will prove that there are infinitely many primes of the form 4k + 1.

- (a) Show that the odd prime divisors of the integer $n^2 + 1$ are of the form 4k + 1.
- (b) Prove there are infinitely many primes of the form 4k + 1. (*Hint: consider* $(2p_1 \cdots p_k)^2 + 1$.)

Solution:

- (a) Let p be an odd prime divisor of $n^2 + 1$, so $n^2 \equiv -1 \mod p$. Then squaring says $n^4 \equiv 1 \mod p$, so $\operatorname{ord}_p(n) \mid 4$. It's not 2 by what we just said, so $4 = \operatorname{ord}_p(n)$. Note that $p \nmid n$ because otherwise $p \mid (n^2 + 1) n^2 = 1$. Therefore, $n^{p-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$ by Fermat's little theorem and so $4 \mid p 1$ yields p = 4k + 1 for some k as desired.
- (b) Suppose there were finitely many primes p_1, \ldots, p_k with $p_i \equiv 1 \mod 4$. Consider $N = (2p_1 \cdots p_k)^2 + 1$: we have $N \equiv 1 \mod 4$, so if it's prime, we've found a new prime that's 1 mod 4, which is a contradiction. Therefore, it must have some prime divisor p. By part (a), $p \equiv 1 \mod 4$ so $p = p_i$ for some i. However, clearly $N \equiv 1 \mod p_i$ and so none of the p_i divide N, which also is a contradiction. Therefore, there must be infinitely many primes that are congruent to 1 mod 4.