## ELEMENTARY NUMBER THEORY AND CRYPTOGRAPHY II SOLUTIONS FOR PROBLEM SHEET 1 EPIPHANY TERM 2015

- (1) (a) Since  $5987 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , we know that  $\left(\frac{-1}{5987}\right) = -1$ , and hence the congruence has no solution. (Note that 5987 is a prime.)
  - (b) Since  $6780 \equiv -1 \pmod{6781}$  and the latter is  $\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , we find  $\left(\frac{-1}{6781}\right) = 1$ , and so this congruence does have a solution. (Note that 6781 is a prime.)
  - (c)  $x^2 + 14x 35 \equiv 0$  can be rewritten as  $(x + 7)^2 \equiv 84$ , so we need to figure out whether 84 is a QR modulo 337. We get

$$\left(\frac{84}{337}\right) = \left(\frac{2^2}{337}\right) \left(\frac{3}{337}\right) \left(\frac{7}{337}\right),$$

and invoking the quadratic reciprocity law, we find that

$$\left(\frac{3}{337}\right) = +\left(\frac{337}{3}\right) = +\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = +1$$

as well as

$$\left(\frac{7}{337}\right) = +\left(\frac{337}{7}\right) = +1$$

and so the answer is yes, as

$$\left(\frac{84}{337}\right) = 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 = 1.$$

[In fact, since  $74^2 \equiv 84 \pmod{337}$ , the natural answer is x = 74 - 7 = 67.]

- (d) We rewrite it as  $(x 32)^2 32^2 + 943 = (x 32)^2 81 \equiv 0$  which obviously has solutions  $x 32 \equiv \pm 9 \pmod{3011}$  so one possibility is x = 41, and another one is x = 23.
- (2) (a) The quadratic residues are (the classes of) 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 9, 12, 13, 16, 18, while the non-residues are given by their negatives modulo 23 (as -1 is not a square mod 23).
  - (b) Since 7 is a NR and  $7^{10} = (7^5)^2$  is a QR modulo 23, we know that  $7^{11} = NR \times QR = NR$ .
  - (c) Since 2 is a QR and 5 is a NR modulo 23, we get  $\left(\frac{2}{23}\right) = 1$  and (5)

 $\left(\frac{5}{23}\right) = -1$ , so using the multiplicativity of the Legendre symbol we find, for any  $k, \ell \in \mathbb{Z}$ 

$$\left(\frac{2^k \cdot 5^\ell}{23}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{23}\right)^k \left(\frac{5}{23}\right)^\ell = (-1)^\ell.$$

(Note that  $(-1)^a = (-1)^{-a}$ .)

- (3) (a) We count the number of integers with residue larger 11/2 in  $\{8 \equiv$  $8, 16 \equiv 5, 24 \equiv 2, 32 \equiv 10, 40 \equiv 7$  which turns out to be 3, hence  $\left(\frac{8}{11}\right) = -1.$ 
  - (b) Similarly, we find  $\{7, 1, 8, 2, 9, 3\}$ , and again  $\left(\frac{7}{13}\right) = -1$ . (c) Here we get  $\{5, 10, 15, 1, 6, 11, 16, 2, 7\}$ , and so  $\left(\frac{5}{19}\right) = 1$  (indeed, e.g.
  - $81 \equiv 5 \pmod{19}$ .
  - (d) Finally, we find  $\{6, 12, 18, 24, 30, 5, 11, 17, 23, 29, 4, 10, 16, 22, 28\}$ , and hence  $\left(\frac{6}{31}\right) = -1.$
- (4) Note that for an odd prime p, p-1/2 is even if and only if p ≡ 1 (mod 4).
  (a) Using that 101 ≡ 1 (mod 4), we get

$$\binom{65}{101} = \binom{5}{101} \binom{13}{101} = \binom{101}{5} \binom{101}{13} = \binom{1}{5} \binom{2}{13} \binom{5}{13} =$$
$$= (-1)^{\frac{13^2-1}{8}} \binom{13}{5} = -\binom{3}{5} = 1.$$

Here we have used  $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)(-1)^{\frac{p^2-1}{8}}$  for an odd prime p, which we have seen is equivalent to

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2\\ p \end{pmatrix} = \begin{cases} 1 & if \ p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8} \\ -1 & if \ p \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{8} \end{cases}$$

(b) Using again that  $101 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , we get

$$\left(\frac{101}{2011}\right) = \left(\frac{2011}{101}\right) = \left(\frac{-9}{101}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{101}\right) = 1.$$

(c) In a similar way, we consider

$$\left(\frac{111}{641}\right) = \left(\frac{3}{641}\right) \left(\frac{37}{641}\right) = \left(\frac{641}{3}\right) \left(\frac{641}{37}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) \left(\frac{3}{37}\right) \left(\frac{2^2}{37}\right) = -1,$$

since 2 is quadratic non-residue modulo 3, and  $\left(\frac{3}{37}\right) = \left(\frac{37}{3}\right)$  [as  $37 \equiv 1$ (mod 4) which is obviously a quadratic residue modulo 3 as 37 is also congruent to 1 modulo 3].

- (d) Finally,  $\left(\frac{31706}{43789}\right) = -1$  (note  $31706 = 2 \cdot 83 \cdot 191$  and check that  $\left(\frac{2}{43789}\right) = -1$ ,  $\left(\frac{83}{43789}\right) = \left(\frac{191}{43789}\right) = 1$ ). (5) Since  $3 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  the Quadratic Reciprocity Law implies that

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{3}{p} \\ p \end{pmatrix} = \begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{p}{3} \end{pmatrix} & if \ p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ -\begin{pmatrix} \frac{p}{3} \end{pmatrix} & if \ p \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

But  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  or  $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ . Hence in the first case we have  $\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = 1$  and in the second case we have  $\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) = -1$ . Hence we have that  $\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = 1$  if and only if  $(p \equiv 1 \pmod{4})$  and  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  or  $(p \equiv 3)$ (mod 4) and  $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ . The first condition is equivalent to  $p \equiv 1$ (mod 12) and the second to  $p \equiv -1 \pmod{12}$  (why?). Hence  $\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = 1$  if and only if  $p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{12}$ . for the rest, namely  $p \equiv \pm 5 \pmod{12}$  we have that it is -1.

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(6) (a) We first note that  $4^m \equiv 4 \pmod{12}$  for any m. Indeed this is clear for m = 1, and for  $m \ge 2$  we have  $4^m - 4 == 4(4^{m-1} - 1) = 4(4 - 1)(4^{m-2} + \dots + 1)$ , and hence it is divisible by 12. Then we have

 $F_n \equiv 2^{2^n} + 1 \equiv 2^{2m} + 1 \equiv 4^m + 1 \equiv 4 + 1 \equiv 5 \pmod{12}$ 

- (b) This follows by the previous question immediately.
- (c) By the Eule's Criterion we have that  $3^{\frac{F_n-1}{2}} \equiv \left(\frac{3}{F_n}\right) \equiv -1 \pmod{F_n}$ . But since we are taking  $F_n$  prime we have that  $\phi(F_n) = F_n - 1$ , and hence we obtain  $3^{\frac{\phi(F_n)}{2}} \equiv -1 \pmod{F_n}$ . From this we conclude that 3 has order  $\phi(F_n)$  and hence is a primitive root modulo  $F_n$ . Indeed for this it is enough to observe that  $\phi(F_n) - 1 = 2^{2^n}$  has only 2 as a prime in its prime factorization, hence we need to check only whether  $3^{\frac{F_n-1}{2}} \neq 1 \pmod{F_n}$ .
- (7) (a) Consider a prime divisor p of  $n^2 + 1$ . Then we have

$$n^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$$

or in other words -1 is QR modulo p. If p = 2 there is nothing to show. If p is odd then p has to be congruent to 1 modulo 4.

(b) Suppose that there are only finitely many primes of the form 4k + 1. Let these be  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$ . Consider the number

$$N = (2 \cdot p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \ldots \cdot p_n)^2 + 1.$$

By part (a) every prime divisor q of N must be of the form 4k + 1 (cannot be two since N is odd). However q is coprime to all numbers  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$ . Therefore q is not in the list, and so we derive a contradiction.

- (8) This is similar as the last one. Assume there is a finite number of such primes, say  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$ , and consider the  $N := (4p_1p_2\cdots p_n)^2 2$ . There exists at least one odd prime divisor of (since N cannot be a power of 2), which implies that  $(4p_1p_2\cdots p_n)^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{p}$  or equivalently that  $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = 1$ , and hence  $p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8}$ . If all prime divisors of N were of the form 8k + 1, then N would have been of the form 16m + 2, which is not possible since N is of the form 16m 2. Hence there is at least one prime divisor of the form 8k 1, and this cannot be any of the ones in teh list. Contradiction.
- (9) (a) This is clear since if  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p^k}$  has a solution, then so has also  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ .
  - (b) We compute

$$(x_k + y_p^k)^2 = x_k^2 + 2x_k y p^k + y^2 p^{2k} = a + (b + 2x_k y) p^k + y^2 p^{2k}$$

Taking now modulo  $p^{k+1}$ , and using the fact that  $b+2x_ky \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  we conclude that  $x_{k+1}^2 \equiv a \pmod{p^{k+1}}$ .

- (c) The theorem follows now by induction, where the inductive step is as above.
- (10) (a) It is enough to observe that the square of an odd integer is congruent to one modulo 4. And if we are given an a with  $a \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , then we can take as solution 1 or 3.

- (b) We first observe that the square of an odd integer is always congruent to 1 modulo 8 (Check). Hence if the equation  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{2^n}$  with  $n \geq 3$  has a solution then  $a \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ . For the other direction we argue as in the previous exercise (9), and use induction. When n = 3 we can always find a solution to the equation  $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ , actually all 1, 3, 5, 7 are solutions. Now we take an n > 3 and assume for the induction hypothesis that the congruence  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{2^n}$  has a solution  $x_n$ . We write  $x_n^2 = a + b2^n$ , and since a is odd, we have that so is  $x_n$ . Hence we can solve  $x_n y \equiv -b \pmod{2}$  to find a y, and then set  $x_{n+1} = x_n + y2^{n-1}$ . Then one can check, exactly as in (9) that  $x_{n+1}^2 \equiv a \pmod{2^{n+1}}$ , and hence finishing the induction.
- (11) This follows by combining the exercises (9) and (10) above. Indeed we notice that the equation  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{n}$  has a solution if and only if the equations  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{2^{k_0}}$ ,  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p_1^{k_1}}$ ,...,  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p_r^{k_r}}$  all have a solution. If  $k_0 = 1$  there is no condition on the first congruence in order to have a solution. The other cases follow from (9) and (10) above.