

Math 209-16 Homework 4

Due Date: Nov. 1 (TUE), 2022

P1.(3 pts) Use Sage to program the Miller-Rabin test (run $t \geq 10$ trials), and use it to investigate which of the following numbers are composite.

- (i) $m_1 = 155196355420821961$, (ii) $m_2 = 155196355420821889$,
(iii) $m_3 = 285707540662569884530199015485750433489$.

SOLUTION. Define the function *MillerRabin*(m, t) by Sage in the following:

```
var('m t')
def MillerRabin(m,t):
    i=1;
    j=(m-1).valuation(2);
    d=(m-1)/(2^j);
    while(i>0 and i<=t):
        a=randint(3,m-3);
        if gcd(a,m)!=1:
            i=0;
        else:
            x=mod(a,m)^d;
            if x!=1 and x!=m-1:
                n=1;
                while(n>0 and n<=j-1 and x!=m-1):
                    x=mod(x,m)^2;
                    if x==1:
                        n=0;
                    else:
                        n=n+1;
                if x!=m-1:
                    i=0;
            if i>0:
                i=i+1;
    if i==0:
        print(m, "is composite.")
    else:
        print(m, "is a strong probable prime.")
```

By setting $m = m_1, m_2, m_3$ and $t = 100$:

MillerRabin(155196355420821961, 100)

MillerRabin(155196355420821889, 100)

MillerRabin(285707540662569884530199015485750433489, 100)

we can get the outputs as follows:

155196355420821961 is a strong probable prime.

155196355420821889 is composite.

285707540662569884530199015485750433489 is composite.

P2.(1 pt) Show that the sequence $1^1, 2^2, 3^3, \dots$, considered $(\text{mod } p)$ is periodic with least period $p(p-1)$.

PROOF. First notice that $(n + p(p-1))^{n+p(p-1)} \equiv n^{n+p(p-1)} \equiv n^n \pmod{p}$ for any n not divisible by p since $n^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, and certainly for n a multiple of p we have $(n + p(p-1))^{n+p(p-1)} \equiv 0 \equiv n^n \pmod{p}$. Therefore, $p(p-1)$ is indeed a period for the given sequence. Denote the least period of this sequence by k . Then $k \mid p(p-1)$. Since $1^1 \equiv 1 \not\equiv 0 \equiv (1 + p - 1)^{1+p-1} \pmod{p}$, we see that $p-1$ is not a period for the sequence and hence $k \nmid (p-1)$. So $p \mid k$, and we may write $k = pt$ for some $t \mid (p-1)$. Now take n to be a primitive root modulo p , we have $n^n \equiv (n + pt)^{n+pt} \equiv n^{n+pt} = n^n \cdot n^{(p-1)t} \cdot n^t \equiv n^n \cdot n^t \pmod{p} \implies n^t \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and hence $(p-1) \mid t$ since n is a primitive root modulo p . As a consequence, $t = p-1$ and the least period is $p(p-1)$. \square

P3.(2 pts) Show that the decimal expansion of $\frac{1}{p}$ has period $p-1$ if and only if 10 is a primitive root of p .

PROOF. Note that if the decimal expansion of a rational number $a \in (0, 1)$ is $a = 0.\dot{a}_1 \cdots \dot{a}_m$, and let $x = \overline{a_1 \cdots a_m}$ denote the positive integer with digits a_i 's. Then $a = x \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} 10^{-im} = \frac{x}{10^m - 1}$. Also notice that if the decimal expansion of $\frac{1}{n}$ does not terminate $\implies \frac{1}{n} = 0.\dot{a}_1 \cdots \dot{a}_m$. In particular, for $a = \frac{1}{p}$, its decimal expansion has period $m = p-1$ if and only if $p-1$ is the smallest possible value for m such that there exists some $x \in \mathbb{N}$ satisfying $\frac{1}{p} = \frac{x}{10^m - 1}$, namely, the smallest m such that $10^m \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ is $p-1$, which says exactly that 10 is a primitive root of p . \square

P4.(1 pt) Prove that if p is a prime having the form $4k + 3$, and if m is the number of quadratic residues less than $p/2$, then $1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (p-2) \equiv (-1)^{m+k+1} \pmod{p}$, and $2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdots (p-1) \equiv (-1)^{m+k} \pmod{p}$.

PROOF. We first compute $1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (p-2) = 1 \cdot 3 \cdots (2k+1) \cdot (2k+3) \cdots (4k+1) \equiv 1 \cdot 3 \cdots (2k+1) \cdot (-2k) \cdots (-2) = (-1)^k (2k+1)! \pmod{p}$. Now we want to show $(2k+1)! \equiv (-1)^{m+1} \pmod{p}$. Notice that $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = -1$ since $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, and therefore exactly one of a and $p-a$ is a quadratic residue of p for any $a \in \{1, 2, \dots, \frac{p-1}{2} = 2k+1\}$. Hence, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (2k+1)! &= \prod_{\substack{a \text{ quadratic residue} \\ a < \frac{p}{2}}} a \cdot \prod_{\substack{b \text{ quadratic nonresidue} \\ b < \frac{p}{2}}} b \\ &\equiv \prod_{\substack{a \text{ quadratic residue} \\ a < \frac{p}{2}}} a \cdot (-1)^{2k+1-m} \cdot \prod_{\substack{b \text{ quadratic residue} \\ b > \frac{p}{2}}} b \\ &= (-1)^{m+1} \cdot \prod_{a \text{ quadratic residue}} a \pmod{p} \end{aligned}$$

Now it only remains to show that the product of all quadratic residues \pmod{p} is congruent to 1 when $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. This can be seen by noticing that $a \in \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ is a quadratic residue if and only if its inverse \pmod{p} is, moreover, a equals its inverse precisely when $a = 1$ since -1 is a quadratic nonresidue. This completes the proof of $1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (p-2) \equiv (-1)^{m+k+1} \pmod{p}$. The other congruence follows from this one and Wilson's theorem. \square

P5.(2 pts) Let p be an odd prime. Prove that every primitive root of p is a quadratic nonresidue. Prove that every quadratic nonresidue is a primitive root if and only if p is of the form $2^{2^n} + 1$ where n is a non-negative integer, that is, if and only if $p = 3$ or p is a Fermat number.

PROOF. If g is a primitive root of p then $g^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, and hence g is a quadratic nonresidue. It follows that every quadratic nonresidue is a primitive root if and only if the number of quadratic nonresidues is equal to that of primitive roots. But there are $\frac{p-1}{2}$ distinct quadratic nonresidues and $\phi(p-1)$ distinct primitive roots, and $\phi(p-1) = \frac{p-1}{2}$ if and only if $p-1$ is a power of 2. Since p is a prime, we see that it holds if and only if p is of the form $2^{2^n} + 1$. \square

P6.(2 pts) Show that if p and q are primes, $p = 2q + 1$, and $0 < m < (p + 1)^{1/2}$, then m is a primitive root $(\text{mod } p)$ if and only if it is a quadratic nonresidue $(\text{mod } p)$.

PROOF. We have shown in the last problem that every primitive root is a quadratic nonresidue, so it remains to prove the sufficiency. Since $p = 2q + 1$, the order of $m \pmod{p}$ can only be $1, 2, q, 2q$. But since m is a quadratic nonresidue, we have $m^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = m^q \equiv -1 \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Also, $0 < m < (p + 1)^{1/2}$ implies $m^2 \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ unless $m = 1$, which is not the case since 1 is a quadratic residue. It follows from these two observations that the order of $m \pmod{p}$ must be $2q$. In other words, m is a primitive root modulo p . \square

P7.(2 pts) Prove that there are infinitely many primes of each of the forms $3n + 1$ and $3n - 1$.

PROOF. If there are only finitely many primes of the form $3n + 1$, say p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k . Consider any odd prime divisor p of the number $(p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k)^2 + 3$, we have $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ since $1 = \left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{3}\right)$. But by definition p cannot be equal to any of the p_i 's, which is a contradiction.

If there are only finitely many primes of the form $3n + 2$, say q_1, q_2, \dots, q_l . Then $(q_1 q_2 \cdots q_l)^2 + 1 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$, and hence it must have a prime divisor $q \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$, which cannot be equal to any of the q_i 's. So again we have a contradiction. \square

P8.(2 pts) Show that if $p = 2^{2^n} + 1$ is prime then 3 is a primitive root $(\text{mod } p)$ and that 5 and 7 are primitive roots provided that $n > 1$.

PROOF. Since $p - 1$ is a power of 2, we see that a is a primitive root of p if and only if $a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, in other words a is a quadratic nonresidue. Now by quadratic reciprocity, $\left(\frac{3}{2^{2^n}+1}\right) = \left(\frac{2^{2^n}+1}{3}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) = -1$ since $2^{2^n} = 4^{2^{n-1}} \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. When $n > 1$, $\left(\frac{5}{2^{2^n}+1}\right) = \left(\frac{2^{2^n}+1}{5}\right) = \left(\frac{4^{2^{n-1}}+1}{5}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{5}\right) = -1$, since $4^{2^{n-1}} \equiv (-1)^{2^{n-1}} \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$. Similarly, $\left(\frac{7}{2^{2^n}+1}\right) = \left(\frac{2^{2^n}+1}{7}\right) = \left(\frac{3}{7}\right)$ or $\left(\frac{5}{7}\right)$, since $2^n \equiv 1$ or $2 \pmod{3}$ and $2^3 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$. Thus, $\left(\frac{7}{2^{2^n}+1}\right) = -1$ as both $\left(\frac{3}{7}\right)$ and $\left(\frac{5}{7}\right)$ are equal to -1 . \square

P9.(2 pts) Suppose that $(ab, p) = 1$. Show that the number of solutions (x, y) of the congruence $ax^2 + by^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ is $p - \left(\frac{-ab}{p}\right)$.

PROOF. Notice that $ax^2 + by^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \iff y^2 \equiv \bar{b}(1 - ax^2) \pmod{p}$, where \bar{b} denotes the inverse of $b \pmod{p}$. So for any fixed x , the number of solutions for y is $1 + \left(\frac{\bar{b}(1 - ax^2)}{p}\right)$, because there are respectively 2, 0 or 1 solutions for y if $\bar{b}(1 - ax^2)$ is a quadratic residue, nonresidue, or is divisible by p . Therefore, the total number of solutions of the original congruence is

$$\sum_{x=0}^{p-1} \left(1 + \left(\frac{\bar{b}(1 - ax^2)}{p}\right)\right) = p + \left(\frac{-a\bar{b}}{p}\right) \sum_{x=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{x^2 - \bar{a}}{p}\right)$$

As we know $\left(\frac{-a\bar{b}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-ab}{p}\right)$, it remains to show $\sum_{x=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{x^2 - \bar{a}}{p}\right) = -1$. For this we turn to consider another congruence $x^2 - y^2 \equiv \bar{a} \pmod{p}$, which is equivalent to $y^2 \equiv x^2 - \bar{a} \pmod{p}$, and hence has a total number $\sum_{x=0}^{p-1} \left(1 + \left(\frac{x^2 - \bar{a}}{p}\right)\right) = p + \sum_{x=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{x^2 - \bar{a}}{p}\right)$ of solutions for the same reason as explained above. On the other hand, the pair (x, y) corresponds bijectively to the pair $(u = x + y, v = x - y)$ via $x = \frac{u+v}{2}$ and $y = \frac{u-v}{2}$, and $x^2 - y^2 \equiv \bar{a} \iff uv \equiv \bar{a}$. It is clear that $uv \equiv \bar{a} \pmod{p}$ has $p - 1$ solutions since for any fixed $v \equiv 1, 2, \dots, p - 1 \pmod{p}$, there is a unique solution $u \equiv \bar{v}\bar{a}$ for u . Hence, we conclude that $p + \sum_{x=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{x^2 - \bar{a}}{p}\right) = p - 1$, and so $\sum_{x=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{x^2 - \bar{a}}{p}\right) = -1$, which is exactly what we want. \square

P10.(3 pts) We call \mathcal{H} a one-half set of reduced residues (mod p) if \mathcal{H} has the property that $h \in \mathcal{H}$ if and only if $-h \notin \mathcal{H}$. Let \mathcal{H} and \mathcal{K} be two complementary one-half sets. Suppose that $(a, p) = 1$. Let ν be the number of $h \in \mathcal{H}$ for which $ah \in \mathcal{K}$. Show that $(-1)^\nu = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$. Show that $a\mathcal{H}$ and $a\mathcal{K}$ are complementary one-half sets. Show that

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \prod_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \frac{\sin 2\pi ah/p}{\sin 2\pi h/p}.$$

PROOF. By definition, the cardinality of any one-half set is $\frac{p-1}{2}$ because it contains exactly one element in each pair $\{k, p-k\}$, $k = 1, 2, \dots, \frac{p-1}{2}$. Moreover, since $(a, p) = 1$, the set $a\mathcal{H}$ is also an one-half set, and hence

$$\mathcal{H} = \{ah \mid h \in \mathcal{H}, ah \in \mathcal{H}\} \dot{\cup} \{-ah \mid h \in \mathcal{H}, ah \in \mathcal{K}\}.$$

Therefore,

$$\prod_{h \in \mathcal{H}} h = \left(\prod_{h \in \mathcal{H}, ah \in \mathcal{H}} ah \right) \cdot \left(\prod_{h \in \mathcal{H}, ah \in \mathcal{K}} (-ah) \right)$$

then it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{h \in \mathcal{H}} ah &= \left(\prod_{h \in \mathcal{H}, ah \in \mathcal{H}} ah \right) \cdot \left(\prod_{h \in \mathcal{H}, ah \in \mathcal{K}} ah \right) \\ &= \left(\prod_{h \in \mathcal{H}, ah \in \mathcal{H}} ah \right) \cdot (-1)^\nu \cdot \left(\prod_{h \in \mathcal{H}, ah \in \mathcal{K}} (-ah) \right) = (-1)^\nu \cdot \prod_{h \in \mathcal{H}} h. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = (-1)^\nu$, i.e., $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = (-1)^\nu$.

We already know that both $a\mathcal{H}$ and $a\mathcal{K}$ are one-half sets, it is left to show that they are complementary. Indeed, if $ah = ak$ for some $h \in \mathcal{H}$ and $k \in \mathcal{K}$, then we have $h = k$, contradicting that \mathcal{H} and \mathcal{K} are complementary.

Finally, the last identity also follows from the similar observation:

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \sin 2\pi ah/p &= \left(\prod_{h \in \mathcal{H}, ah \in \mathcal{H}} \sin 2\pi ah/p \right) \cdot (-1)^\nu \cdot \left(\prod_{h \in \mathcal{H}, ah \in \mathcal{K}} \sin -2\pi ah/p \right) \\ &= (-1)^\nu \cdot \prod_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \sin 2\pi h/p, \end{aligned}$$

hence, $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = (-1)^\nu = \prod_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \frac{\sin 2\pi ah/p}{\sin 2\pi h/p}$. □