Math 445 Homework 3 Solutions

11. When applying the Pollard ρ method, starting from a_1, suppose we find that $a_1, \ldots, a_{17}$ are all distinct, mod n, but then $a_{18} \equiv a_{11}$. Find the smallest k for which $a_{2k} \equiv a_k$.

    Since $a_{18} \equiv a_{11}$, $a_{19} = f(a_{18}) \equiv f(a_{11}) = a_{12}$, and, in fact, $a_{k+7} \equiv a_k$ for every $k \geq 7$. (This can be formally proved by induction.) This, in turn, implies (formally, again, by induction on m) that $a_{k+7m} \equiv a_k$ for all $m \geq 1$ and $k \geq 11$. In fact, these are the *only* pairs of terms of the sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ that are mutually congruent - after a_{11}, the terms keep going around in a circle with a period of 7. So, to solve the problem, we wish to have $2k = k + 7m$ for some $m \geq 1$ and $k \geq 11$, i.e., $k = 7m$ for some $m \geq 1$ and $k \geq 11$. The first m which works is therefore $m = 2$, with $k = 14$; $a_{28} \equiv a_{14}$, and no smaller k works.

12. Show that if $n = pq$ is a product of distinct primes and $de \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$, then $A^{de} \equiv A \pmod{n}$.

    We'll show that $A^{de} \equiv A \pmod{p}$ and $A^{de} \equiv A \pmod{q}$, i.e., p and q both divide $A^{de} - A$. Then since p and q are distinct primes, $(p, q) = 1$, and so $n = pq | A^{de} - A$.

    By hypothesis, $de - 1 = k(p-1)(q-1)$, so $de = 1 + k(p-1)(q-1)$. Given A, one of three things is true: (1) $(A, p) = (A, q) = 1$, (2) exactly one of p, q divides A, WOLOG $p|A$ (since there is no distinction between them) and $(A, q) = 1$, or (3) $p, q|A$, so $n = pq|A$.

    In case (1), Fermat's Little Theorem tells us that $A^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and $A^{q-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$, so $A^{de} = (A^{p-1})^{k(q-1)}A \equiv 1^{k(q-1)}A \equiv A \pmod{p}$ and $A^{de} = (A^{q-1})^{k(p-1)}A \equiv 1^{k(p-1)}A \equiv A \pmod{q}$ as desired. In case (2), $A \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, so $A^{de} \equiv 0^{de} \equiv 0 \equiv A \pmod{p}$, while, as in (1), $A^{de} \equiv A \pmod{q}$. Finally, in case (3), $A \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and $A \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, so $A^{de} \equiv 0^{de} \equiv 0 \equiv A \pmod{p}$ and the same for q . So in all cases, $A^{de} \equiv A \pmod{p}$ and $\pmod{q}$, so $A^{de} \equiv A \pmod{n}$.

13. If $p^2|n$ for some $p \geq 2$, then there are $a \not\equiv b \pmod{n}$ for which $a^k \equiv b^k \pmod{n}$ for every $k \geq 2$.

    Since $p^2|n$, we have $n = p^2s$ for some integer s. Set $a = 0$ and $b = ps$; then $a \not\equiv b \pmod{n}$, since $n \not| px = b - a = ps$. (This is where $p \geq 2$ is used; $n > ps$ so n cannot divide ps .) But $b^2 = p^2x^2 = nx \equiv 0 = a^2$, and, in fact, $n = p^2x|b^k$ for every $k \geq 2$, since $b^k = p^kx^k = (p^2x)(p^{k-2}x^{k-1})$, so $a^k = 0 \equiv b^k$ for all $k \geq 2$.

14. If $n|m$, and $(10, m) = 1$, then the period of the decimal expansion of $1/n$ divides the period of the decimal expansion of $1/m$.

    Translating this into the language of orders, if $n|m$ and $(10, m) = 1$, then we wish to show that $\text{ord}_n(10)|\text{ord}_m(10)$. Setting $s = \text{ord}_m(10)$, it is enough to show that $10^s \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$, since we know that $\text{ord}_n(10)$ divides any such exponent. But by definition, $10^s \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$, so $m|10^s - 1$, so $10^s - 1 = mx$ for some x . But since $n|m$, $m = ny$ for some y, so $10^s - 1 = mx = (ny)x = n(xy)$, so $n|10^s - 1$, so $10^s \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$, as desired.

15. For every $n \geq 2$, $\text{ord}_{3^n}(10) = 3^{n-2}$.

We show first that for every $n \geq 2$, $10^{3^{n-2}} = 1 + k3^n$ for some k with $(k,3) = 1$. We proceeed by induction. For $n = 2$, $10^{3^{2-2}} = 10^{3^0} = 10^1 = 10 = 1 + 1 \cdot 3^2$, so $k = 1$ and $(1,3) = 1$. Now suppose that $10^{3^{n-2}} = 1 + k3^n$ for some k with $(k,3) = 1$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} 10^{3^{(n+1)-2}} &= 10^{3^{n-2} \cdot 3} = (10^{3^{n-2}})^3 = (1 + k3^n)^3 \\ &= 1 + 3(1)^2(k3^n) + 3(1)(k3^n)^2 + (k3^n)^3 \\ &= 1 + k3^{n+1} + k^2 3^{2n+1} + k^3 3^{3n} \\ &= 1 + (k + k^2 3^n + k^3 3^{2n-1}) 3^{n+1} \end{aligned}$$

with $k + k^2 3^n + k^3 3^{2n-1} \equiv k + k^2(0) + k^3(0) \equiv k \pmod 3$ (since $n, 2n-1 \geq 1$) . So $(k + k^2 3^n + k^3 3^{2n-1}, 3) = (k,3) = 1$, so $10^{3^{(n+1)-2}} = 1 + K3^{n+1}$ with $(K,3) = 1$, as desired. So by induction, for $n \geq 2$, $10^{3^{n-2}} = 1 + k3^n$ for some k with $(k,3) = 1$.

Since $10^{3^{n-2}} = 1 + k3^n$, $10^{3^{n-2}} \equiv 1 \pmod{3^n}$, so $\text{ord}_{3^n}(10) | 3^{n-2}$. So either $\text{ord}_{3^n}(10) = 3^{n-2}$ or $\text{ord}_{3^n}(10) = 3^m$ for some $m < n-2$. But we know from above that $10^{3^m} - 1 = k3^{m+2}$ for some k with $(k,3) = 1$. So if $\text{ord}_{3^n}(10) = 3^m$, then $3^n | 10^{3^m} - 1$, so $10^{3^m} - 1 = s3^n$ for some s. But then $k3^{m+2} = s3^n$, so cancelling powers of 3, $k = s3^{n-(m+2)} = s3^{(n-2)-m} = s3^r$ for some $r \geq 1$. So $3|k$, so $(k,3) = 3$, a contradiction. So $\text{ord}_{3^n}(10) = 3^{n-2}$, as desired.