

Carmichael number (for example,  $a$  might not divide  $rp - 1$ ).

13. Any Carmichael number not listed in Exercise 12(a)–(b) must be at least a product of three distinct primes all  $\geq 7$ .
14.  $n = 21$ ,  $b = 8$ .
16. (a) By Exercise 1(d), we need only look at the  $b$  for which  $b^{p-1} \equiv (\frac{b}{2p-1}) = 1 \pmod{2p-1}$ . Since  $n-1 \equiv p-1 \pmod{2p-2}$ , we have  $b^{(n-1)/2} \equiv b^{(p-1)/2} \pmod{p}$  and  $\pmod{2p-1}$ , i.e.,  $b^{(n-1)/2} \equiv b^{(p-1)/2} \pmod{n}$ . Now  $(\frac{b}{n}) = (\frac{b}{2p-1})(\frac{b}{p}) = (\frac{b}{p}) \equiv b^{(p-1)/2} \pmod{p}$ , so condition (2) holds if and only if  $b^{(p-1)/2} \equiv (\frac{b}{p}) \pmod{2p-1}$ . This holds for exactly half of all  $b$  for which  $b^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{2p-1}$  (since in  $(\mathbf{Z}/(2p-1)\mathbf{Z})^*$  such  $b$  must be a power  $g^j$  of a generator  $g$  such that  $\frac{p-1}{2}j \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$  if  $(\frac{b}{p}) = 1$ ,  $\frac{p-1}{2}j \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$  if  $(\frac{b}{p}) = -1$ ). (b)  $n = p(2p-1)$  where  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  (by Proposition V.1.5).
17. Compute  $n$  modulo  $72m$ :  $n \equiv 36m^2 + 36m + 1$ . Thus,  $\frac{n-1}{2} \equiv 18m(m+1) \pmod{36m}$ . If  $m$  is odd, this means that we always have  $b^{(n-1)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  (because  $p-1 \mid 36m$  for each  $p \mid n$ ), and so (2) holds if and only if  $(\frac{b}{n}) = 1$ , i.e., 50% of the time. If  $m$  is even, we still have  $b^{(n-1)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod{6m+1}$  and  $\pmod{18m+1}$ , while  $b^{(n-1)/2} \equiv b^{6m} \equiv (\frac{b}{12m+1}) \pmod{12m+1}$ . Thus, in that case (2) holds if and only if  $(\frac{b}{12m+1}) = 1$  (so that  $b^{(n-1)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ ) and also  $(\frac{b}{n}) = 1$ , i.e., 25% of the time.
18. (a)  $O(\log^3 n \log m)$ ; (b)  $O(\log^5 n)$ .
19. (a)  $N$  is composite because  $n$  is composite (by the corollary to Proposition I.4.1); then proceed as in Exercise 9 to see that  $2^{(N-1)/2} \equiv 2^{2^{n-1}-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ . But since  $N \equiv -1 \pmod{8}$ , we also have  $(\frac{2}{N}) = 1$ . Thus,  $N$  is an Euler pseudoprime; by Proposition V.1.5, it is also a strong pseudoprime. (b) Use the same argument as in Exercise 7(c).
20. If the first possibility in (3) holds, then obviously  $(b^k)^t \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ . Now suppose that  $b^{2^r t} \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$ . Write  $k = 2^i j$  with  $j$  odd. If  $i > r$ , then  $(b^k)^t \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ ; if  $i \leq r$ , then  $(b^k)^{2^{r-i}t} = (b^{2^r t})^j \equiv (-1)^j \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$ .
21. (a) Show that the necessary and sufficient conditions on  $b$  are:  $(\frac{b}{17}) = 1$ ,  $(\frac{b}{561}) = 1$ . These conditions both hold 25% of the time, i.e., for 80 bases in  $(\mathbf{Z}/561\mathbf{Z})^*$ . (b) Since  $b^{70} \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  and  $\pmod{11}$ , it follows that 561 is a strong pseudoprime to the base  $b$  if and only if  $b^{35} \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{561}$ , i.e., if and only if either (i)  $b \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ ,  $b \equiv 1 \pmod{17}$ ,  $(\frac{b}{11}) = 1$ , or else (ii)  $b \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$ ,  $b \equiv -1 \pmod{17}$ ,  $(\frac{b}{11}) = -1$ . There are 10 such bases, 5 in case (i) and 5 in case (ii), by the Chinese Remainder Theorem. The 8 nontrivial bases  $b \neq \pm 1$  are: 50, 101, 103, 256, 305, 458, 460, 511.
22. Use Exercise 7(a) of §I.3, which says that the only square roots of 1 are  $\pm 1$ .
23. (a)  $8^2 \equiv 18^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{65}$ ;  $14^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{65}$ , but  $14^1 \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{65}$ . (b) The case when  $n$  is a prime power follows from the previous exercise, so