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Faculty of Engineering, Mathematics and Science

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JS/SS Maths/TP/TJH

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MAU23101 Introduction to number theory — Mock exam

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Instructions that apply to all take-home exams

1. This is an open-book exam. You are allowed to use your class notes, textbooks and any material that is available through the internet. However, you are not allowed to collaborate, seek help from others, or provide help to others. You are not allowed to post questions on online forums such as Stack Exchange.

2. If you have any questions about the content of this exam, you may seek clarification from the lecturer using the e-mail address provided. You are not allowed to discuss this exam with others.

3. Solutions must be submitted through Blackboard by the deadline listed above. You must submit a single pdf file for each exam separately and sign the following declaration in each case. Please check that your submission has uploaded correctly.

Plagiarism declaration: I have read and I understand the plagiarism provisions in the General Regulations of the University Calendar which are available through https://www.tcd.ie/calendar.

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Additional instructions for this particular exam

This is a mock exam, so ignore the instructions above! It is also longer than the actual exam.

Question 1 Lucky 13

Factor 1 + 3i into irreducibles in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$.

Make sure to justify that your factorization is complete.

Solution 1

Let $\alpha = 1 + 3i$. We have $N(\alpha) = 1^2 + 3^2 = 10 = 2 \times 5$. Since the ireducibles of $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ have norm 2, $p \equiv +1 \mod 4$ a prime, or q^2 where $q \equiv -1 \mod 4$ and is prime, we conclude form the multiplicativity of the norm that α must be of the form $\pi_2\pi_5$ where π_2 (resp. π_5) is an irreducible of norm 2 (resp. 5).

As π_2 must be associate to 1 + i, after taking a unit out of π_2 and putting it in π_5 , we can assume that $\pi_2 = 1 + i$, so that

$$\pi_5 = \alpha/(1+i) = \frac{1+3i}{1+i} = \frac{(1+3i)(1-i)}{2} = 2+i.$$

Thus $\alpha = (1+i)(2+i)$ is the complete factorization of α .

Question 2 Primes of the form $x^2 + 4y^2$

Let $p \in \mathbb{N}$ be a prime. The goal of this exercise is to give **two** proofs of the following statement:

p is of the form $x^2 + 4y^2$ with $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. (*)

Suggestion: In some of the questions below, you may find it easier to treat the cases $p \neq 2$ and p = 2 separately.

- 1. Find all primitive reduced quadratic forms of discriminant -16.
- 2. Deduce a proof of (\star) using the theory of quadratic forms.
- 3. Use the theorem on the sum of 2 squares to find another proof of (\star) .

Hint: $4y^2 = (2y)^2$.

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Solution 2

1. Let $ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$ be a reduced form of discriminant -16. The we know that b must be even, and that $a \leq \sqrt{16/3} < \sqrt{6} < 3$, so a = 1 or 2. Finally, $c = \frac{16+b^2}{4a}$.

For a = 1, we can only take b = 0 since $|b| \leq a$. This yields c = 4, so we record the form $x^2 + 4y^2$.

For a = 2 we can have b = 0 or b = 2, but not b = -2 (since then we'd have |b| = a so b would have to be positive). For b = 0, we find c = 2, whence the form $2x^2 + 2y^2$, but this form is not primitive so we throw it away. For b = 2, we find c = 5/2 which is not an integer.

In conclusion, there is only one reduced primitive form of discriminant -16, namely $x^2 + 4y^2$.

2. By the previous question, every primitive form of discriminant -16 is equivalent to $x^2 + 4y^2$. Thus if $p \nmid 2 \times 16$ is a prime, then p is of the form $x^2 = 4y^2$ iff. $\left(\frac{-16}{p}\right) = 1$. The condition $p \nmid 2 \times 16$ is of course equivalent to $p \neq 2$; besides, for such p we have

$$\left(\frac{-16}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) \left(\frac{16}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = (-1)^{p'} = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ 3 & \text{if } p \equiv -1 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

Besides, p=2 is obviously not of the form $x^2 + 4y^2$, whence (\star) .

Suppose first that p = 2. Then p ≠ 1 (mod 4) and p is clearly not fo the form x²+4y², so (*) holds.

Suppose now that $p \neq 2$. The p is odd, so $p \equiv 1$ or $3 \pmod{4}$. Besides, since p is prime, it is a sum of 2 squares iff. $p \not\equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. So if $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, then p is not the sum of 2 squares; a fortiori it is not of the form $x^2 + 4y^2 = x^2 + (2y)^2$. Conversely, if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $p = a^2 + b^2$ is a sum of 2 squares; then as p is odd, a and b cannot have the same parity, so without loss of generality we may assume a odd and b even. If we write b = 2y, then we see that $p = a^2 + (2y)^2 = x^2 + 4y^2$ with x = a. So we have proved that (\star) also holds when $p \neq 2$.

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Question 3 A Pell-Fermat equation

1. Compute the continued fraction of $\sqrt{37}$.

This means you should somehow find a formula for **all** the coefficients of the continued fraction expansion, not just finitely many of them.

2. Use the previous question to find the fundamental solution to the equation $x^2 - 37y^2 = 1$.

Solution 3

1. Let $x = \sqrt{37}$. Since x is a quadratic number, its continued fraction expansion is ultimately periodic. Let us make this fact explicit.

We set $x_0 = x$, $a_0 = \lfloor x_0 \rfloor = 6$.

Then $x_1 = \frac{1}{x_0 - a_0} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{37} - 6} = 6 + \sqrt{37}$, so $a_1 = \lfloor x_1 \rfloor = 12$.

Then $x_2 = \frac{1}{x_1 - a_1} = \frac{1}{6 + \sqrt{37} - 12} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{37} - 6} = x_1$, so we see by induction that $x_{n+1} = x_n$ and $a_{n+1} = a_n$ for all $n \ge 1$.

Thus $\sqrt{37} = [6, \overline{12}] = [6, 12, 12, 12, \cdots].$

2. The first convergent of the continued fraction computed above is $p_0/q_0 = 6/1$. Trying x = 6, y = 1, we find that $6^2 - 37 \times 1^2 = -1$.

So in order to find the fundamental solution, all we have to do is square the number $6 + 1 \times \sqrt{37}$. We find that

$$(6+\sqrt{37})^2 = 36+12\sqrt{37}+37 = 73+12\sqrt{37},$$

so the fundamental solution is x = 73, y = 12.

Question 4 Carmichael numbers

1. State Fermat's little theorem, and explain why it implies that if $p \in \mathbb{N}$ is prime, then $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$ for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}$.

A Carmichael number is an integer $n \ge 2$ which is **not** prime, but nonetheless satisfies $a^n \equiv a \pmod{n}$ for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. Note that this can also be written $n \mid (a^n - a)$ for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}$.

2. Let $n \ge 2$ be a Carmichael number, and let $p \in \mathbb{N}$ be a prime dividing n. Prove that $p^2 \nmid n$.

Hint: Apply the definition of a Carmichael number to a particular value of a.

3. Let $n \ge 2$ be a Carmichael number. According to the previous question, we may write

$$n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_r$$

where the p_i are distinct primes. Let p be one the the p_i .

- (a) Recall the definition of a primitive root mod p.
- (b) Prove that (p-1) | (n-1).

Hint: Consider an $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ which is a primitive root mod p.

4. Conversely, prove that if an integer $m \in \mathbb{N}$ is of the form

$$m = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_r$$

where the p_i are distinct primes such that $(p_i - 1) | (m - 1)$ for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$, then m is a Carmichael number.

Hint: Prove that $p_i \mid (a^m - a)$ for all $i = 1, \dots, r$ and all $a \in \mathbb{Z}$.

 Let n ≥ 2 be a Carmichael number. The goal of this question is to prove that n must have at least 3 distinct prime factors. Note that according to question 2., n cannot have only 1 prime factor.

Suppose that n has exactly 2 prime factors, so that we may write

$$n = (x+1)(y+1)$$

where $x, y \in \mathbb{N}$ are distinct integers such that x + 1 and y + 1 are both prime. Use question 3.(b) to prove that $x \mid y$, and show that this leads to a contradiction.

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Solution 4

1. Fermat's little theorem states that for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and for all $a \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$, we have $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1$. In other words, for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ coprime to n, we have $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

In particular, if n = p is prime, then $\phi(n) = p - 1$, so that for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ not divisible by p we have $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Multiplying both sides by a, we get that $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$ for all a not divisible by p. This still holds even if $p \mid a$ since a and a^p are both $\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ in this case.

- 2. Let us take a = p; since n is a Carmichael number, we have $n \mid (p^n p)$. Now if $p^2 \mid n$, we deduce that $p^2 \mid (p^n - p)$, whence $p^2 \mid p$ since $p \mid p^n$ as $n \ge 2$, which is obviously a contradiction.
- (a) A primitive root mod p is an element x ∈ (Z/pZ)[×] of multiplicative order p − 1;
 in other words, such that x^m ≠ 1 for all 1 ≤ m
 - (b) Let a ∈ N be such that (a mod p) is a primitive root mod p. Since n is a Carmichael number, we have n | (aⁿ a), whence p | (aⁿ a) as p | a. Thus aⁿ ≡ a (mod p). But a ≠ 0 (mod p) since a is a primitive root mod p, so since p is prime, a is invertible mod p, so we can simplify by a and get

$$a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

This says that n-1 is a multiple of the multiplicative order of $(a \mod p)$, which is p-1 since $(a \mod p)$ is a primitive root. Thus $(p-1) \mid (n-1)$.

4. Let p be one of p_1, \dots, p_r . By assumption, we have m-1 = (p-1)q for some $q \in \mathbb{N}$. Let now $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. We have

$$a^{m} - a = a(a^{m-1} - 1) = a((a^{p-1})^{q} - 1)$$

so if $a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ then $a^m - a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, whereas if $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, then $a \in (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$, so by Fermat's little theorem we have $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ whence $(a^{p-1})^q - 1 \equiv 1^q - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$; so either way $a^m \equiv a \pmod{p}$, i.e. $p \mid (a^m - a)$.

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This holds for any $p \in \{p_1, \dots, p_r\}$, and the p_i are coprime since they are distinct primes, so

$$m = p_1 \cdots p_r \mid (a^m - a).$$

Since this holds for all a, this means that m is a Carmichael number.

5. By question 3.(b), x = (x + 1) - 1 divides n - 1 = (x + 1)(y + 1) = xy + x + y, so x divides xy + x + y - x(y + 1) = y. Similarly, we see that y | x, so that x = y, which contradicts the assumption that x and y are distinct.

Note: The smallest Carmichael number is $561 = 3 \times 11 \times 17$. There are infinitely many Carmichael numbers; more precisely, it was proved in 1992 that for large enough X, there are at least $X^{2/7}$ Carmichael numbers between 1 and X. The existence of Carmichael numbers means that a simple-minded primality test based on Fermat's little theorem would not be rigorous.

Question 5 Sophie Germain and the automatic primitive root

In this exercise, we fix an odd prime $p \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $q = \frac{p-1}{2}$ is also prime and $q \ge 5$.

1. Prove that $p \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$.

Hint: Express p in terms of q. What happens if $p \equiv +1 \pmod{3}$?

- 2. Express the number of primitive roots in $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ in terms of q. Hint: What are the prime divisors of p - 1?
- 3. Let $x \in (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$. Prove that x is a primitive root if and only if $x \neq \pm 1$ and $\left(\frac{x}{p}\right) = -1$. Hint: What are the prime divisors of p - 1? (bis)
- 4. Deduce that $x = -3 \in (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ is a primitive root.
- 5. (More difficult) Prove that $x = 6 \in (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ is a primitive root if and only if q is a sum of two squares.

Solution 5

- Since q ≥ 5, p = 2q + 1 ≥ 11. As p is prime, is is this coprime to 3, so p ≡ 1 or 2 (mod 3). If p = 2q + 1 ≡ 1 (mod 3), e would have 2q ≡ 0 (mod 3), whence q ≡ 0 (mod 3) since 2 is invertible mod 3; in other words 3 | q. Since q ≥ 5 is prime, this is impossible.
- 2. This number is $\phi(\phi(p))$. As p is prime $\phi(p) = p 1$, which factors as 2q. Since 2 and q are distinct primes, we get

$$\phi(p-1) = \phi(2q) = 2q\left(1-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{q}\right) = q-1.$$

3. Let m be the multiplicative order of x. Fermat's little theorem tells us that $m \mid p-1 = 2q$. Thus m < 2q if and only if $m \mid 2$ or $m \mid q$. But

$$m \mid 2 \iff x^2 = 1 \iff (x-1)(x+1) = 0 \iff x = \pm 1$$

since $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ is a domain, and

$$m \mid q \iff x^q = 1 \iff \left(\frac{x}{p}\right) = 1$$

since $\left(\frac{x}{p}\right) = x^{p'} = x^q$. Besides, in any case $\left(\frac{x}{p}\right) = \pm 1$ since $x \neq 0$, so it is -1 if it is not +1.

The conclusion follows.

Remark: If $\left(\frac{x}{p}\right) = -1$, then x cannot be 1, so we could replace the first condition by $x \neq -1$.

4. We cannot have -3 = +1 in $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ since this would force $p \mid 4$; similarly we cannot have -3 = -1 either. It thus only remains to check that $\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = -1$. This is indeed true, since

$$\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = (-1)^q(-1)^q\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{3}\right) = -1$$

by quadratic reciprocity and because $p \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$ by the first question.

5. It is again easy to prove that $6 \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{p}$ since this would force p = 5 or 7. Besides,

$$\left(\frac{6}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)(-1)^q \left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)$$

since q is odd and $p \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$, so 6 is a primitive root if and only if $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = -1$. To conclude, we now distinguish two cases.

On the one hand, if q is not a sum of two squares, then q = 4k + 3 for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, so p = 2q + 1 = 8k + 7, whence $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = +1$ so 6 is not a primitive root.

On the other hand, if q is a sum of two squares, then q = 4k + 1 for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$ (we cannot have q = 2 since $q \ge 5$), so p = 2q + 1 = 8k + 3, whence $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = -1$ so 6 is a primitive root.

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