

## MATH 3320, HOMEWORK #7 – SOLUTIONS

DUE MONDAY, OCTOBER 15

**1.** (15 points) Use Euler's criterion to determine if 2 and 3 are squares modulo 79.

**Solution:** We must find  $2^{39} \pmod{79}$  and  $3^{39} \pmod{79}$  and determine whether they are 1 or  $-1$ .

We evaluate these by repeated squaring (you should show work to at least around the level of detail given below):

$$2^1 \equiv 2, 2^2 \equiv 4, 2^4 \equiv 16, 2^8 \equiv 19, 2^{16} \equiv 45, 2^{32} \equiv 50$$

Now  $(2^1)(2^2)(2^4)(2^{32}) = 1$ , so 2 is a square.

$$3^1 \equiv 3, 3^2 \equiv 9, 3^4 \equiv 2, 3^8 \equiv 4, 3^{16} \equiv 16, 3^{32} \equiv 19$$

Now  $(2^1)(2^2)(2^4)(2^{32}) = -1$ , so 3 is not a square.

**2.** (15 points) We know that if  $p$  is a prime, then there exists a primitive root modulo  $p$ . Use this fact to give a direct proof that  $(\frac{-3}{p}) = 1$  when  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ . (Hint: There is an element  $m \in (\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z})^\times$  of order 3. Show that  $(2m+1)^2 \equiv -3$ .)

**Solution:** We are given  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ . We first show that there exists an element  $m$  of order 3 modulo  $p$ .

Take  $a$  to be a primitive root mod  $p$ . Since  $p$  may be written in the form  $3k+1$ , we may set  $m = a^k$ . Now certainly  $(a^k)^3 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . On the other hand if  $a^k$ , when raised to a power less than 3, were to become congruent to 1 mod  $p$ , it would follow that  $a$  to a power of less than  $3k$  would be congruent to 1, contradicting the fact that  $a$  is a primitive root. It follows that  $a^k$  has order exactly 3. Alternatively, we may simply note that  $3|p-1$  and apply problem 1 from the last homework.

Now we have that  $p$  divides  $m^3 - 1$ . Since  $m^3 - 1$  factors as  $(m-1)(m^2 + m + 1)$ , it follows that  $p$  must divide either  $m-1$  or  $m^2 + m + 1$ . Since  $m \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ , it follows that  $p|m^2 + m + 1$ . Thus  $m^2 + m + 1 \equiv 0$ . Now observe that we may write  $(2m+1)^2 \equiv 4m^2 + 4m + 1 \equiv 4(m^2 + m + 1) - 3 \equiv -3 \pmod{p}$ . It follows that  $-3$  is a quadratic residue mod  $p$ .

**3.**

(a) (10 points) Fix a prime  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  and an integer  $a$  that is a quadratic residue modulo  $p$ . Prove that  $a^{(p+1)/4}$  is a solution to the congruence

$$x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}.$$

*Proof.* If  $(a, p) = 1$ , then suppose

$$a \equiv g^2 \pmod{p}$$

for some  $g$ . Then

$$a^{(p-1)/2}(p) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 1$$

Thus

$$\left(a^{(p+1)/4}\right)^2 \equiv a^{(p+1)/2} \equiv a^{(p-1)/2} \cdot a \equiv 1 \cdot a \equiv a \pmod{p}.$$

If  $(a, p) = p$ , then

$$\left(a^{\frac{p+1}{4}}\right)^2 \equiv 0 \equiv a \pmod{p}.$$

□

**Comment:** Legendre symbol can take 1, -1 or 0. The last case, where  $(a, p) = p$  and  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 0$ , is likely to be missed.

(b) (10 points) Use part (a) to solve the equation  $x^2 \equiv 37 \pmod{127}$ .

**Solution:** 127 is prime. Use Euler's criterion,

$$37^{\frac{(127-1)}{2}} \equiv 37^{63} \equiv 1 \pmod{127}$$

So 37 is a quadratic residue modulo 127. Because  $127 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , according to (a), the solution to  $x^2 \equiv 37 \pmod{127}$  is

$$x \equiv 37^{\frac{(127+1)}{4}} \equiv 37^{32} \equiv 37^{2^5} \equiv 52 \pmod{127}$$

Another solution is

$$127 - 52 \equiv 75 \pmod{127}$$

There are two solutions: 52 and 75.

**Comment:** You need to check the conditions  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  and "a is a quadratic residue". There are two solutions of the quadratic modulo equation.

4. (20 points) Fix an odd prime  $p$ . Let  $n$  be the smallest positive integer that is not a square modulo  $p$ . Prove that  $n$  is a prime.

**Solution:** Suppose not. Since  $n$  cannot be 1 (as this is obviously a square),  $n$  must be composite. Thus it may be written in the form  $n = ab$ , where  $a, b < n$ . Now by the definition of  $n$ , we have  $\left(\frac{n}{p}\right) = -1$  but  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{p}\right) = 1$ . The multiplicativity of the Legendre symbol, however, implies that  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \left(\frac{b}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{n}{p}\right)$ . This gives a contradiction. We conclude that  $n$  must be prime.

5. (Extra Credit) Suppose that a teacher proposes to his  $n$  students at recess that they play the following game. The  $n$  children are to sit in a circle, and are numbered  $0, \dots, n-1$  clockwise. Their teacher walks clockwise around the children and hands out gumballs from a seemingly inexhaustible bag according to the following rule:

The teacher first selects one child ("0") and gives them a gumball. Then he skips a child ("1") and gives a gumball to the next child ("2"). Then he skips 2 children ("3" and "4") and gives a gumball to the next one ("5"). Then he skips 3... etc.

(a) (5 points) What are the values of  $n$  for which eventually (maybe after many rounds) each child ends up with at least one gumball? Furthermore, for such an  $n$ , how many gumballs need to be passed out? (Hint: Turn into a problem modulo  $n$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^m k$  for various values of  $m$ ?)

**Further Hint:** The gumballs end up at 0 and numbers of the form

$S(m) = \frac{(m+2)(m-1)}{2} \pmod{n}$ . You need to determine for what values of  $n$  the equation  $S(m) \equiv \alpha \pmod{n}$  has a solution for every  $\alpha$ . Use the Chinese remainder theorem, and your knowledge about solving quadratic equations. After that, do an example, and analyze  $S(m_1) \equiv S(m_2)$ .

**Solution:** The  $m$ th gumball will be given to the child congruent to  $S(m) = \frac{(m+2)(m-1)}{2} \pmod{n}$ . To ensure every child gets gumballs,  $S(m) \equiv \alpha \pmod{n}$  should have a solution for every  $\alpha$ . Suppose  $n = p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$  where  $p_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, k$  are distinct prime numbers and  $e_i > 0$ . Then

$$S(m) \equiv \alpha \pmod{p_i}, \quad i = 1, \dots, k$$

have solution for every  $\alpha$ . Because  $S(m)$  is quadratic, when  $p_i$  is odd, there exists  $\alpha$  making the equation having no solution. Therefore,  $n$  can only be a power of 2.

When  $n = 2^e$ , we can prove everyone can get gumballs by showing

$$\frac{(m+2)(m-1)}{2} \equiv \alpha \pmod{2^e}$$

has solution for every  $\alpha$ , which is equivalent to

$$m^2 + m - 2 - 2\alpha \equiv 0 \pmod{2^{e+1}}$$

has solution for every  $\alpha$ . Let  $f(m) = m^2 + m - 2 - 2\alpha$ . Then  $f'(m) = 2m + 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ . According to Hensel's lemma, the modular equation always has solutions.

Last, we prove  $2n - 1$  gumballs need to be passed out. Let  $\alpha \equiv -1 \pmod{2}$ , consider

$$\frac{(m+2)(m-1)}{2} \equiv -1 \pmod{2^e}.$$

Then

$$m(m+1) \equiv (m+2)(m-1) + 2 \equiv 0 \pmod{2^{e+1}}$$

Since  $m$  and  $m+1$  are relatively prime, one of them must be a multiple of  $2^{e+1}$ :

$$m \equiv 0 \pmod{2^{e+1}} \text{ or } m \equiv -1 \equiv 2^{e+1} - 1 \pmod{2^{e+1}}$$

So for child number  $n - 1$ , the first gumball he/she gets is the  $2^{e+1} - 1 = 2n - 1$ th gumball.

(b) (5 points) Suppose you already know about this game (you're a transfer student and they played it at your old school), know that a total of  $n$  students will be playing, and know that your teacher will always start by giving the person closest to the door a gumball. What position (of  $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ ) should you pick, if you want to get the most gumballs? Does it depend on how many gumballs are passed out? (e.g. if the teacher stops after  $n$  gumballs, or after  $\frac{n}{10}$  gumballs, or stops after everybody gets one, or hands out gumballs forever?)

**Further Hint:** Here  $n$  is arbitrary. Use the Chinese Remainder Theorem.

**Solution:** For student numbered as  $\alpha$ , consider the number of solutions of

$$\frac{(m+2)(m-1)}{2} \equiv \alpha \pmod{n}$$

$$m^2 + m - 2 - 2\alpha \equiv 0 \pmod{2n}$$

Suppose  $m_1, m_2$  are both solutions, we have

$$(m_1 - m_2)(m_1 + m_2 + 1) \equiv 0 \pmod{2n}$$

Suppose  $C(m)$  is the child get the  $m$ th gumball. We claim  $C(m)$  has period  $n$  if  $n$  is odd, and period  $2n$  if  $n$  is even. That is because if  $m_1 = m_2 + n$ ,  $n|m_1 - m_2$ , and if  $n$  is odd, then  $m_1 + m_2 + 1 = 2m_2 + n + 1$  is even, so  $2n|(m_1 - m_2)(m_1 + m_2 + 1)$ . If  $n$  is even, then  $m_1 + m_2 + 1$  is odd, thus  $2 \nmid m_1 + m_2 + 1$ .

When  $n = p$  is an odd prime number,  $(1, p-2), (2, p-3), \dots, ((p-1)/2-1, (p-1)/2+1)$  are pairs of  $(m_1, m_2)$  where  $C(m_1) = C(m_2)$ . And children corresponding to those  $C(m)$  can get 2 gumballs in one period. The child with number  $C((p-1)/2) \equiv \frac{p^2-9}{8} \pmod{p}$  will get 1 gumball in a period.

When  $n = p^e$  for some odd prime  $p$ , let  $f(m) = m^2 + m - 2 - 2C(m_0)$  for some  $0 < m_0 \leq n$ . For those  $m_0$  where  $f'(m_0) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , there are 2 solutions to  $m^2 + m - 2 - 2C(m_0) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ . For those  $m_0$  where  $f'(m_0) = 2m + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , suppose  $p^k|f(m_0)$  and  $p^{k+1} \nmid f(m_0)$ . By Hensel's lemma, there are  $2p^{k-1}$  solutions if  $C(m_0) \neq C((n-1)/2)$ , and there are  $p^{k-1}$  solutions otherwise.

When  $n = 2^e$ , the period of  $C(m)$  is  $2n$ . Child  $C(m)$  will also receive the gumball  $2n - m - 1$  if  $m < 2n - 1$ . The  $(n-1)$ th child will receive  $(2n-1)$ th and  $(2n)$ th gumballs.

When  $n = 2^{e_0}p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$ , consider  $\alpha \equiv \pmod{p_i^{e_i}}$  respectively and use Chinese Remainder Theorem to calculate the number of gumballs.