

## Elementaire Getaltheorie, 27-1-2004

1. Bepaal alle  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$  die tegelijkertijd voldoen aan de beide volgende vergelijkingen,

$$x^2 \equiv 9 \pmod{100}$$

$$37x \equiv 4 \pmod{85}$$

2. (a) Voor welke priemgetallen is  $-3$  een kwadraatrest ?  
(b) Zij  $p > 3$  een priemgetal zó dat  $q = 2p + 1$  priem is. Bewijs dat  $-3$  een primitieve wortel modulo  $q$  is.
3. Stel  $x \in \mathbb{N}$  en zij  $p$  een priemdelers van  $x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$ .  
(a) Bewijs dat  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$  of  $p = 5$ . (Hint: merk op dat  $x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1 = \frac{x^5-1}{x-1}$ .)  
(b) Bewijs, gebruikmakend van het voorgaande resultaat, dat er oneindig veel priemgetallen  $p$  van de vorm  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$  zijn.
4. Neem aan dat het *abc*-vermoeden geldt. Zij  $A, B$  een tweetal gegeven positieve gehele getallen. Bewijs dat er hooguit eindig veel positieve gehele getallen  $x, y$  zijn zó dat

$$Ax^2 - By^3 = 1.$$

5. Bewijs dat

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{q^n (n!)^2}$$

irrationaal is voor elke  $q \in \mathbb{N}$ .

### UITWERKINGEN

1. First solve  $37x \equiv 4 \pmod{85}$ . Multiplication with the inverse of 37  $\pmod{85}$  gives us  $x \equiv 7 \pmod{85}$ . The equation  $x^2 \equiv 9 \pmod{100}$  is equivalent to the simultaneous equations

$$x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \quad x^2 \equiv 9 \pmod{25}.$$

The first is equivalent to  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$  and the second implies  $25|x^2 - 9$  hence  $25|(x-3)(x+3)$ . Since  $x+3$  and  $x-3$  cannot be both divisible by 5 we conclude that  $x \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{25}$ . We now solve the following systems

$$x \equiv 7 \pmod{85} \quad x \equiv 1 \pmod{2} \quad x \equiv 3 \pmod{25}$$

and

$$x \equiv 7 \pmod{85} \quad x \equiv 1 \pmod{2} \quad x \equiv -3 \pmod{25}$$

The first system has no solutions since the first equation implies  $x \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$  and the third  $x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$ . Standard solution of the second equation yields  $x \equiv 347 \pmod{850}$ .

2. (a) Suppose  $p$  is odd. Then

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

where the last equality is an application of quadratic reciprocity. Since  $p$  is odd we have  $(-1)^{(p-1)/2} \cdot (-1)^{(p-1)/2} = 1$  and since  $\left(\frac{p}{3}\right)$  is 1 if and only if  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  we find that  $-3$  is a quadratic residue modulo  $p$  if and only if  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ . The cases  $p = 2, 3$  can be considered separately.

- (b) The order of  $-3$  modulo  $q$  is a divisor of  $q - 1 = 2p$ . Hence the possible orders are  $1, 2, p, 2p$ . In the last case  $-3$  is a primitive root modulo  $q$ . We now check the smaller orders.

$$(-3)^1 \equiv 1 \pmod{q} \text{ implies } q|4 \text{ which is impossible since } q > 7.$$

$$(-3)^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{q} \text{ implies } q|7 \text{ which is again excluded.}$$

$(-3)^p \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$  implies  $\left(\frac{-3}{q}\right) = 1$  because  $(-3)^p = (-3)^{(q-1)/2}$  and Euler's theorem. From part (a) we know that  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  and hence  $2p + 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ . This implies  $p \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$  so  $p$  cannot be prime. We get a contradiction.

We conclude that  $-3 \pmod{q}$  has order  $q - 1$ .

3. (a) When  $p$  is a prime divisor of  $x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$  it also divides  $x^5 - 1$ . Hence  $x^5 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . The order of  $x \pmod{p}$  is 1 or 5. Suppose it is 1. Then  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  and from  $x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  it follows that  $5 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Hence  $p$  divides 5, so  $p = 5$ . When the order is 5 we note that the order divides  $p - 1$ , hence  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$ .
- (b) Suppose there are finitely many primes  $p_1, \dots, p_r$  which are  $1 \pmod{5}$ . Let  $N = 5p_1 \cdots p_r$  and consider the number  $N^4 + N^3 + N^2 + N + 1$ . Let  $q$  be any prime divisor of this number. By construction it cannot be equal to 5 or  $1 \pmod{5}$ . By the previous result we know it should be of this form. So we have a contradiction. There are infinitely many primes of the form  $1 \pmod{5}$ .
4. Notice that  $Ax^2 = 1 + By^3$  and  $\gcd(Ax^2, By^3, 1) = 1$ . So we can apply the abc-conjecture with  $a = 1, b = By^3, c = Ax^2$ . We get for any  $\epsilon > 0$  a positive number  $c(\epsilon)$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} Ax^2 &< c(\epsilon)(\text{rad}(ABx^2y^3))^{1+\epsilon} \\ &= c(\epsilon)(\text{rad}(ABxy))^{1+\epsilon} \\ &\leq c(\epsilon)(ABxy)^{1+\epsilon} \end{aligned}$$

We now use that  $y^3 < Ax^2/B \leq Ax^2$ . Hence  $y < Ax^{2/3}$  and so

$$Ax^2 < c(\epsilon)(A^2Bx^{5/3})^{1+\epsilon}$$

Now choose  $\epsilon = 1/10$ . Then  $Ax^{2-5.5/3} < c(0.1)(A^2B)^{1.1}$ . Since  $2 - 5.5/3 = 1/6 > 0$  we see that  $x$  is bounded. Hence there are finitely many possibilities for  $x$  and by  $By^3 = Ax^2 - 1$  the same holds for  $y$ .

5. Suppose the number is rational, say  $a/b$ . Choose  $k > 1$  and consider the difference

$$\delta = \frac{a}{b} - \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{1}{q^n(n!)^2}.$$

Note that this is a rational number whose denominator divides  $bq^n(n!)^2$ . Hence, since  $\delta > 0$ ,

$$\delta \geq \frac{1}{bq^n(n!)^2}.$$

On the other hand the difference equals

$$\begin{aligned}\delta &= \sum_{n=k+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{q^n (n!)^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{q^{k+1} ((k+1)!)^2} + \frac{1}{q^{k+2} ((k+2)!)^2} + \frac{1}{q^{k+3} ((k+3)!)^2} + \dots \\ &\leq \frac{1}{q^k} \left( \frac{1}{((k+1)!)^2} + \frac{1}{((k+2)!)^2} + \frac{1}{((k+3)!)^2} + \dots \right) \\ &< \frac{1}{q^k ((k+1)!)^2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{k^2} + \frac{1}{k^4} + \dots \right)\end{aligned}$$

The last sum can be estimated by  $1 + 1/2 + 1/2^2 + \dots = 2$  and we get

$$\delta < \frac{2}{q^k ((k+1)!)^2}.$$

This contradicts the lower bound as soon as  $(k+1)^2 > 2b$ .