

# Lesson 13: Advanced Number Theory

Adithya B., Brian L., William W., Daniel X.

September 2020

# Quadratic Residues

- When working with naturals, it is easy to tell if a number is a square. However, the same is not true when working modulo  $n$
- For example, 3 certainly doesn't look like a square, but when working  $(\text{mod } 11)$ , we actually have  $5^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{11}$
- Knowing whether or not we can take the square root of a number turns out to be a really useful property, so we give such residues a special name:

## Definition of QRs

Let  $p$  be a prime number. We say  $a \pmod{p}$  is a *quadratic residue* if there exists some integer  $x$  such that  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ .

# Quadratic Residues

## Number of QRs

For an odd prime  $p$ , there are exactly  $\frac{p+1}{2}$  quadratic residues.

- Let's begin by squaring every residue mod  $p$ . When do things intersect?
- If  $x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{p}$ , we have  $(x - y)(x + y) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Hence, the squares of two distinct residues are equal if and only if they are negatives of each other
- So, if we square all  $p$  residues, we get the QR 0 and  $p - 1$  nonzero QRs which pair up to form  $\frac{p-1}{2}$  distinct residues
- Hence, we have  $\frac{p-1}{2} + 1 = \frac{p+1}{2}$  QRs

# Quadratic Residues

- To facilitate our discussion on QRs, we introduce the notion of the *Legendre Symbol*:

## Legendre Symbol

Let  $S$  be the set of quadratic residues modulo a prime  $p$ . Then, for an integer  $a$  we define the *Legendre symbol* to be

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p} \text{ and } a \in S \\ -1 & a \notin S \\ 0 & a \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \end{cases} .$$

- Surprisingly, there exists a closed form for the Legendre Symbol

## Euler's Criterion

We have  $\left(\frac{x}{p}\right) \equiv x^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}$

- The result is obvious for  $x = 0$ . For nonzero  $x$ , remember we learned last week that we can always write  $x = \zeta^k$  where  $\zeta$  is a primitive root
- Now, we have that  $x^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = \zeta^{\frac{k(p-1)}{2}}$ . The exponent is  $\frac{p-1}{2} \pmod{p-1}$  if  $k$  is odd and 0 otherwise. So,

$$RHS = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } 2 \nmid k \\ 1 & \text{if } 2 \mid k \end{cases}$$

- If  $k$  is even, then  $x$  is obviously a QR since it is the square of  $\zeta^{k/2}$
- If  $k$  is odd, suppose the contrary, namely that  $x = y^2$ . Let  $y = \zeta^j$ . What does this give?

# Legendre Symbol

- We now have  $\zeta^k \equiv \zeta^{2j} \implies \zeta^{k-2j} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . Why is this a problem?
- $\zeta$  is a primitive root, so we should have  $p-1 \mid k-2j$ , but  $p-1$  is even and  $k-2j$  is odd. So,  $y$  does not exist and  $x$  is an NQR
- So, both sides are 1 if  $k$  is even and both sides are  $-1$  if  $k$  is odd, as desired.
- Using this, we can prove a very nonintuitive corollary

## Multiplicativity

The Legendre symbol is multiplicative. That is, we have

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \left(\frac{b}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{ab}{p}\right).$$

- Just plug into Euler's Criterion!
- $a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \cdot b^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = (ab)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}$ , as desired.  $\square$
- Finally, we will prove the most celebrated result regarding quadratic residues, dubbed Quadratic Reciprocity. Buckle your seatbelts!

## Quadratic Reciprocity

For distinct odd primes  $p, q$ ,

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{1}{4}(p-1)(q-1)}.$$

- Before attempting to prove this beautiful result, we begin with a lemma



# Quadratic Reciprocity

## Eisenstein's Lemma

Given odd primes  $p, q$ , we have that

$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\sum_u \lfloor qu/p \rfloor}$$

where  $u$  ranges over all **even** nonzero residues

- Define  $r_u$  over all even  $u$  with  $0 < u < p$  to be the remainder when  $qu$  is divided by  $p$ . Can you say anything about  $(-1)^{r_u} \cdot r_u$ ?
- If  $r_u$  is even, it is  $r_u$ . Otherwise, its residue is  $p - r_u$ . Either way, the residue of  $(-1)^{r_u} \cdot r_u$  is even
- Can we ever have  $(-1)^{r_u} \cdot r_u \equiv (-1)^{r_v} \cdot r_v$  for different  $u, v$ ?

# Quadratic Reciprocity

- If this were true, then  $r_u \equiv \pm r_v \pmod{p}$ , so  $q(u \pm v) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Why can this not be true?
- $u, v$  distinct so we need  $u + v = p$ . But,  $u, v$  are both even and  $p$  is odd, so this is impossible
- Hence,  $(-1)^{r_u} \cdot r_u$  is always even, and all  $u$  produce distinct values. What does this tell us?
- The set  $(-1)^{r_u} \cdot r_u$  is just a permutation of the even residues!
- So, we have that

$$\prod_u u \equiv \prod_u (-1)^{r_u} \cdot r_u \equiv (-1)^{\sum r_u} \cdot \prod_u qu \pmod{p}$$

- Cancelling out like terms,

$$1 \equiv q^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (-1)^{\sum r_u} \equiv \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) (-1)^{\sum r_u} \implies \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\sum r_u}$$

# Quadratic Reciprocity

- We are almost done. How can we relate  $r_u$  and  $\left\lfloor \frac{qu}{p} \right\rfloor$ ?
- Note that

$$\left\lfloor \frac{qu}{p} \right\rfloor = \frac{qu - r_u}{p} \implies r_u = p \left\lfloor \frac{qu}{p} \right\rfloor - qu$$

- $qu$  is even and  $p$  is odd, so  $r_u \equiv \left\lfloor \frac{qu}{p} \right\rfloor \pmod{2}$
- Hence,  $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\sum r_u} = (-1)^{\sum \lfloor qu/p \rfloor}$ , as desired.  $\square$
- Unfortunately, the lemma is still pretty unwieldy as of now. In particular, the fact that  $u$  has to be even is pretty annoying. Let's see if we can make it simpler.

# Quadratic Reciprocity

- Claim:

$$\sum_{\substack{u < p \\ 2|u}} \left[ \frac{qu}{p} \right] \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \left[ \frac{qi}{p} \right] \pmod{2}$$

- Note that  $\left[ \frac{qu}{p} \right] + \left[ \frac{q(p-u)}{p} \right] = \frac{qu - r(qu)}{p} + \frac{q(p-u) - r(q(p-u))}{p}$ . What is  $r(qu) + r(q(p-u))$ ?
- $qu, q(p-u)$  are negatives mod  $p$ , so their remainders add to  $p$ . Hence,

$$\left[ \frac{qu}{p} \right] + \left[ \frac{q(p-u)}{p} \right] = \frac{qu + q(p-u) - p}{p} = q - 1$$

- $q - 1$  is even! This means  $\left[ \frac{qu}{p} \right]$  and  $\left[ \frac{q(p-u)}{p} \right]$  have the same parity! Using this, how can we prove the claim?

# Quadratic Reciprocity

$$\sum_{\substack{u < p \\ 2|u}} \left[ \frac{qu}{p} \right] \equiv \sum_{\substack{u < p/2 \\ 2|u}} \left[ \frac{qu}{p} \right] + \sum_{\substack{u > p/2 \\ 2|u}} \left[ \frac{q(p-u)}{p} \right] \pmod{2}$$

What is the second sum?

- $u$  ranges over evens  $> p/2$ , so  $p - u$  ranges over odds  $< p/2$ . So, we are adding  $\left[ \frac{qu}{p} \right]$  over odd numbers less than  $p/2$ !
- So, the sum we wrote is none other than

$$\sum_{\substack{u < p/2 \\ 2|u \text{ or } 2 \nmid u}} \left[ \frac{qu}{p} \right] = \sum_{u=1}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \left[ \frac{qu}{p} \right]$$

and the claim is proven

# Quadratic Reciprocity

- Using this claim, we greatly simplify our expression. In particular, we now have

$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\sum_{u=1}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \left\lfloor \frac{qu}{p} \right\rfloor}$$

- So,  $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) \left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = (-1)^{\sum \left\lfloor \frac{qu}{p} \right\rfloor + \sum \left\lfloor \frac{pu}{q} \right\rfloor}$ . It would be convenient if

$$\sum_{u=1}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \left\lfloor \frac{qu}{p} \right\rfloor + \sum_{u=1}^{\frac{q-1}{2}} \left\lfloor \frac{pu}{q} \right\rfloor = \frac{(p-1)(q-1)}{4}$$

In fact it is! Can you see why without writing anything down?

- Consider the rectangle in the coordinate plane bounded by  $x = 0, p/2$   
 $y = 0, q/2$ . What does the first sum count?

# Quadratic Reciprocity

- $\left\lfloor \frac{qu}{p} \right\rfloor$  counts the number of lattice points with  $x$  coordinate  $u$  which are under line  $y = \frac{q}{p}x$ . So, the first sum counts the number of lattice points in the rectangle under  $y = \frac{p}{q}x$
- $\left\lfloor \frac{pu}{q} \right\rfloor$  counts the number of lattice points with  $y$  coordinate  $u$  which are to the left of  $x = \frac{p}{q}y$ . This is the same region as the lattice points above  $y = \frac{q}{p}x$ .
- No lattice points lie on  $y = \frac{q}{p}x$ , so the two sums together count the number of lattice points in the rectangle, which is just  $\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)\left(\frac{q-1}{2}\right)$ , as desired.
- Now, substituting this equality back into our initial expression, we get that  $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{(p-1)(q-1)}{4}}$ , as desired.

# Problem of the Week

## PotW

Let  $f(x) = x^2 + 5x + 3$ . Denote  $P$  as the remainder when  $\prod_{n=1}^{2016} f(n)$  is divided by 2017 and let  $Q$  be the number of distinct residues  $f(n)$  achieves mod 2017. Find the last 3 digits of  $PQ$ .

- We begin by finding  $Q$ . How can we rewrite  $f$  to make this task easier?
- $f(x) = \left(x + \frac{5}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{13}{4}$
- $x + \frac{5}{2}$  ranges over all residues, so  $\left(x + \frac{5}{2}\right)^2$  ranges over all QRs
- We already know that there are  $\frac{2017+1}{2} = 1009$  QRs, so  $Q = 1009$
- Now, we need to compute  $P$ . We can actually use the same form we used to calculate  $Q$ . First, consider

$$R = \prod_{n=0}^{2016} \left(n + \frac{5}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{13}{4}$$



- Reindexing,  $R = \prod_{n=0}^{2016} \left(n^2 - \frac{13}{4}\right)$ . How many times does each QR appear in this product?
- Each QR appears twice, besides 0. So, we can rewrite the product as

$$-\frac{13}{4} \left( \prod_{\left(\frac{n}{2017}\right)=1} n - \frac{13}{4} \right)^2 = -\frac{13}{4} \left( \prod_{\left(\frac{n}{2017}\right)=1} \frac{13}{4} - n \right)^2$$

- It would be nice if we had a polynomial with roots the quadratic residues. That way, we would have  $R = -\frac{13}{4} P \left(\frac{13}{4}\right)^2$ . Do we know  $P$ ?
- Remember that  $x^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  if and only if  $x$  is a nonzero QR. Aha! This is the  $P$  we are looking for. So,

$$R = -\frac{13}{4} \left( \left( \frac{13/4}{2017} \right) - 1 \right)^2$$

- $\left(\frac{13/4}{2017}\right) = \left(\frac{13}{2017}\right)$ . How can we find this?
- Using quadratic reciprocity,

$$\left(\frac{13}{2017}\right) \left(\frac{2017}{13}\right) = 1 \implies \left(\frac{13}{2017}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{13}\right) = -1$$

- Hence,

$$R = -\frac{13}{4} \cdot (-1 - 1)^2 = -13$$

- We have that  $R = f(0)P = 3P \implies P \equiv -\frac{13}{3} \equiv 668 \pmod{2017}$
- So, our answer is

$$668 \cdot 1009 \equiv \boxed{012} \pmod{1000}$$

## Folklore

Find the number of ordered pairs  $(x, y)$  with  $0 \leq x, y < 2027$  which satisfy

$$x^2 + y^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{2027}$$

- For a fixed  $y$ , how many solutions for  $x$  are there?
- If  $1 - y^2 = 0$ , there is 1. If  $1 - y^2$  is a nonzero QR, there are 2, and if  $1 - y^2$  is an NQR, there are 0. What does this remind you of?
- These numbers correspond to  $\left(\frac{1-y^2}{p}\right) + 1$  (define  $p = 2027$ )
- So, the number of solutions is just

$$\sum_{y=0}^{2026} \left( \left( \frac{1-y^2}{p} \right) + 1 \right) = 2028 + \sum_{y=1}^{2026} \left( \frac{1-y^2}{p} \right)$$

How can we deal with the sum on the RHS? (call it  $S$ .)

# Quadratic Residues

- One thing we can do is substitute  $y \rightarrow \frac{1}{y}$ . This is a bijection on the nonzero residues, so reindexing gives us

$$S = \sum_{y=1}^{2026} \left( \frac{1 - (1/y)^2}{p} \right) = \sum_{y=1}^{2026} \left( \frac{1/y^2}{p} \right) \left( \frac{y^2 - 1}{p} \right)$$

How can we simplify this sum?

- Remember that  $1/y^2$  is a nonzero square, so this is just  $\sum_{y=1}^{2026} \left( \frac{y^2 - 1}{p} \right)$
- All the arguments are negative that of our initial expression -

$$S = \sum_{y=1}^{2026} \left( \frac{y^2 - 1}{p} \right) = \left( \frac{-1}{p} \right) \sum_{y=1}^{2026} \left( \frac{1 - y^2}{p} \right) = \left( \frac{-1}{p} \right) S$$

# Quadratic Residues

- Do we know  $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)$ ?
- $p$  is  $3 \pmod{4}$ , so it is  $-1$ . Hence,  $S = -S \implies S = 0$
- So, the number of solutions is  $2028 + S = \boxed{2028}$ .

# When 2 is a quadratic residue

## Theorem

For an odd prime  $p$ ,

$$\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{1}{8}(p^2-1)}$$

- This means 2 is a quadratic residue when  $p \equiv 1, 7 \pmod{8}$ , and is a quadratic nonresidue when  $p \equiv 3, 5 \pmod{8}$ .

## Adithya

The positive integers  $a$  and  $b$  are such that the numbers  $15a + 16b$  and  $16a - 15b$  are both squares of positive integers. Let  $S$  be the smallest possible value of  $a + b$ . Compute  $S \pmod{1000}$ .

- Let  $15a + 16b = x^2$  and  $16a - 15b = y^2$ .
- What are  $a$  and  $b$  in terms of  $x$  and  $y$ ?
- Solve to get  $a = \frac{15x^2 + 16y^2}{481}$  and  $b = \frac{16x^2 - 15y^2}{481}$ .
- What modular congruences can you write from these equations?
- For example,  $15x^2 + 16y^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{13} \implies 2x^2 \equiv -3y^2 \pmod{13}$ .
- Multiply both sides by 7 to get  $x^2 \equiv 5y^2 \pmod{13}$ .
- If  $13 \nmid y$ , we can divide so that  $\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)^2 \equiv 5 \pmod{13}$ . 5 is a quadratic residue mod 13. Does this agree with the result from quadratic reciprocity?

# Quadratic Residues

- From quadratic reciprocity,  $\left(\frac{5}{13}\right) \left(\frac{13}{5}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{1}{4} \cdot 12 \cdot 4} = 1$ .
- We know  $\left(\frac{13}{5}\right) = \left(\frac{3}{5}\right) = -1$ .
- So,  $13 \mid y$ , and this implies  $13 \mid x$ .
- Now, we also have  $15x^2 + 16y^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{37} \implies 15x^2 \equiv -16y^2 \pmod{37}$ .
- Multiply by  $15^{-1} \equiv 5$  to get  $x^2 \equiv -6y^2 \pmod{37}$ . If  $37 \nmid y$ , then  $-6$  is a quadratic residue mod 37.
- $\left(\frac{-6}{37}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{37}\right) \left(\frac{2}{37}\right) \left(\frac{3}{37}\right)$
- Since  $37 \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$ ,  $-1$  is a QR but 2 is not.
- Is 3 a quadratic residue?
- $\left(\frac{3}{37}\right) \left(\frac{37}{3}\right) = 1 \implies \left(\frac{3}{37}\right) = 1$
- Thus, 3 is a QR, so we get  $\left(\frac{-6}{37}\right) = -1$ . So,  $37 \mid y$  and  $37 \mid x$ .
- As  $481 \mid x, y$ ,  $a + b$  is minimized when  $x = y = 481$ . The smallest possible value of  $a + b$  is  $32 \cdot 481 \equiv \boxed{392} \pmod{1000}$ .



# Jacobi Symbol

- While the Legendre symbol is multiplicative of the top, we can extend this notion to the *Jacobi symbol* so that it is multiplicative on both the top and the bottom.
- In other words, the Jacobi symbol would also satisfy

$$\left(\frac{a}{mn}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{n}\right) \left(\frac{a}{m}\right).$$

- A few important facts about the Jacobi symbol are the following:
  - 1  $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = 0$  when  $\gcd(a, n) \neq 1$
  - 2  $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{n}\right)$  when  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ .
- An alternate, but equivalent, definition of the Jacobi symbol  $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right)$  is the product of the Legendre symbols corresponding to the (not necessarily distinct) prime factors of  $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$ :

$$\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p_1}\right)^{e_1} \left(\frac{a}{p_2}\right)^{e_2} \cdots \left(\frac{a}{p_k}\right)^{e_k}$$

# Jacobi Symbol

## Theorem (Quadratic reciprocity with Jacobi symbols)

If  $m$  and  $n$  are odd positive integers with  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ , then

$$\left(\frac{m}{n}\right) \left(\frac{n}{m}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{1}{4}(m-1)(n-1)}.$$

Also, we have

$$\left(\frac{-1}{m}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{1}{2}(m-1)}, \quad \left(\frac{2}{m}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{1}{8}(m^2-1)}.$$

## Warning!

It is important to note that the Jacobi symbol does not necessarily detect quadratic residues. That is, if  $\left(\frac{a}{m}\right) = -1$  and  $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = -1$ , then  $\left(\frac{a}{mn}\right) = 1$ , but this does not mean  $a$  is a quadratic residue mod  $mn$ .

# Quadratic reciprocity with Jacobi symbols

## 2019 PRIMES M5

Exhibit a function  $s : \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  with the following property: if  $a$  and  $b$  are positive integers such that  $p = a^2 + b^2$  is an odd prime, then

$$s(a) \equiv a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}.$$

The right-hand side is known as the *Jacobi symbol*  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$ .

- We want a function that is always equal to the Jacobi symbol  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$ .
- We want to apply quadratic reciprocity. How can we do that?
- Remove powers of 2 from  $a$ !
- Remember that if  $a = 2^k a_1$ , where  $a_1$  is odd, then

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)^k \left(\frac{a_1}{p}\right)$$

- Let's do casework on the value of  $k$ , starting with  $k = 0$  ( $a$  is odd).
- Since  $p = a^2 + b^2$ , we must have  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  since  $0, 1$  are the only quadratic residues mod 4.
- Now, by quadratic reciprocity,
 
$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{a}\right) (-1)^{\frac{1}{4}(a-1)(p-1)} = \left(\frac{p}{a}\right) = \left(\frac{a^2+b^2}{a}\right) = \left(\frac{b^2}{a}\right) = 1.$$
- We can set  $s(a) = 1$  when  $a$  is odd.
- Now, let's do the case when  $a = 1$  or  $a = 2a_1$ , where  $a_1$  is odd.
- What is  $p \pmod{8}$ ?
- $a \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ , so  $a^2 \equiv 4 \pmod{8}$ .  $b$  must be odd, so  $b^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ . Therefore,  $p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$ .
- 2 is not a quadratic residue mod  $p$ .
- $\left(\frac{a_1}{p}\right) \left(\frac{p}{a_1}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{1}{4}(a_1-1)(p_1-1)} = 1$
- $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{p}\right) \left(\frac{a_1}{p}\right) = -1 \cdot \left(\frac{p}{a_1}\right) = -1 \cdot \left(\frac{4a_1^2+b^2}{a_1}\right) = -1 \cdot \left(\frac{b^2}{a_1}\right) = -1$

- So for  $a \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ , we can always set  $s(a) = -1$ .
- Let's move on to when there are at least 2 powers of 2 in  $a$ .
- Note that from the work above, for all values of  $k \geq 2$ ,  $a^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{8}$  and  $b^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ , so  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ .
- 2 is a quadratic residue.
- By quadratic reciprocity,  $\left(\frac{a_1}{p}\right) \left(\frac{p}{a_1}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{1}{4}(a_1-1)(p_1-1)} = 1$
- $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)^k \left(\frac{a_1}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a_1}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{a_1}\right) = \left(\frac{2^{2k}a_1^2+b^2}{a_1}\right) = \left(\frac{b^2}{a_1}\right) = 1$
- When  $4 \mid a$ , we can let  $s(a) = 1$ .
- To conclude,

$$s(a) = \begin{cases} 1 & a \equiv 1 \pmod{2} \\ -1 & a \equiv 2 \pmod{4} \\ 1 & a \equiv 0 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

# $p$ -adic Valuations

- Let  $p$  be a prime and  $n$  be a positive integer
- The  $p$ -adic valuation of  $n$  is the largest integer  $k$  such that  $n$  is divisible by  $p^k$
- We denote this number by  $\nu_p(n)$
- For example,  $\nu_2(96) = 5$  as  $2^5$  is the largest power of 2 dividing 96
- A basic property is that  $\nu_p(ab) = \nu_p(a) + \nu_p(b)$
- We also have  $\nu_p(a + b) \geq \min(\nu_p(a), \nu_p(b))$
- If  $\nu_p(a) \neq \nu_p(b)$  then equality holds:  $\nu_p(a + b) = \min(\nu_p(a), \nu_p(b))$
- One useful theorem you may have seen is *Legendre's Formula*, which states that

$$\nu_p(n!) = \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^2} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^3} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^4} \right\rfloor + \cdots$$

# $p$ -adic Valuations

- This can be seen as follows: write  $n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdots n$
- Each multiple of  $p$  in this product increases the  $\nu_p$  count by 1; there are  $\left\lfloor \frac{n}{p} \right\rfloor$  such multiples
- Each multiple of  $p^2$  in the product contributes *again* to the  $\nu_p$  count: there are  $\left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^2} \right\rfloor$  such multiples
- And so on, for the final sum of  $\left\lfloor \frac{n}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^2} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^3} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^4} \right\rfloor + \cdots$
- Another version of Legendre says that  $\nu_p(n!) = \frac{n - s_p(n)}{p-1}$ , where  $s_p(n)$  is the sum of the digits of  $n$  in base  $p$
- This can be proven by writing  $n = a_k p^k + a_{k-1} p^{k-1} + \cdots + a_1 p + a_0$  in base  $p$ , and then showing

$$\left\lfloor \frac{n}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^2} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^3} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^4} \right\rfloor + \cdots = \frac{n - s_p(n)}{p - 1}$$

## Lifting the Exponent lemma

Let  $p$ ,  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $n$  be positive integers satisfying all three properties below:

- $p$  is an *odd* prime,
- $p$  does not divide  $a$  or  $b$ , and
- $p$  divides  $a - b$ .

Then

$$\nu_p(a^n - b^n) = \nu_p(a - b) + \nu_p(n).$$

- We will induct on  $\nu_p(n)$
- Base case  $\nu_p(n) = 0$ , i.e.  $p \nmid n$
- Then we need  $\nu_p(a^n - b^n) = \nu_p(a - b)$
- Equivalently  $p$  does not divide  $\frac{a^n - b^n}{a - b} = a^{n-1} + a^{n-2}b + \dots + b^{n-1}$
- Since  $p|a - b$  we have  $a \equiv b \pmod{p}$



# Lifting the Exponent lemma

- We have

$$a^{n-1} + a^{n-2}b + \dots + b^{n-1} \equiv a^{n-1} + a^{n-2} \cdot a + \dots + a^{n-1} \equiv na^{n-1} \pmod{p}$$

- $a$  and  $n$  are both not divisible by  $p$  by assumption, so this isn't divisible by  $p$  either
- The base case is done; let's move on to the inductive step
- Suppose the lemma holds when  $\nu_p(n) = k$ ; it suffices to show it holds when  $\nu_p(n) = k + 1$
- If  $\nu_p(n) = k + 1$  let  $N = \frac{n}{p}$  so  $\nu_p(N) = k$
- By the inductive hypothesis we have  $\nu_p(a^N - b^N) = \nu_p(a - b) + \nu_p(N)$
- We want  $\nu_p(a^{pN} - b^{pN}) = \nu_p(a - b) + \nu_p(pN)$
- Subtract: it suffices to show
$$\nu_p(a^{pN} - b^{pN}) - \nu_p(a^N - b^N) = \nu_p(pN) - \nu_p(N)$$

# Lifting the Exponent lemma

- The RHS is 1, so we want  $\nu_p(a^{pN} - b^{pN}) - \nu_p(a^N - b^N) = 1$
- Equivalently,  $\frac{a^{pN} - b^{pN}}{a^N - b^N}$  is divisible by  $p$  but not  $p^2$
- Since  $p|a - b$ , we have  $p|a^N - b^N$
- Let  $b^N = m$ ,  $a^N = m + pk$ ; then  $p \nmid m$
- Then  $\frac{a^{pN} - b^{pN}}{a^N - b^N} = \frac{1}{pk} ((M + pk)^p - M^p)$
- Binomial Theorem:  
$$\frac{1}{pk} \left( \binom{p}{1} M^{p-1} pk + \binom{p}{2} M^{p-2} (pk)^2 + \binom{p}{3} M^{p-3} (pk)^3 + \dots + (pk)^p \right)$$
- $= \binom{p}{1} M^{p-1} + \binom{p}{2} M^{p-2} pk + \binom{p}{3} M^{p-3} (pk)^2 + \dots + (pk)^{p-1}$
- Clearly divisible by  $p$ : each term is divisible by  $p$
- All terms starting from the third term are divisible by  $p^2$ : they have a factor of  $p^2$
- Second term also divisible by  $p^2$ :  $\binom{p}{2}$  is divisible by  $p$  (since  $p$  is odd!)
- First term not divisible by  $p^2 \implies$  sum not divisible by  $p^2$

## 2020 AIME I #12

Let  $n$  be the least positive integer for which  $149^n - 2^n$  is divisible by  $3^3 \cdot 5^5 \cdot 7^7$ . Find the number of positive divisors of  $n$ .

- Want difference of  $n^{\text{th}}$  powers to be divisible by large prime powers  
 $\implies$  LTE
- Let's use LTE for the prime 3: 3 is odd,  $3 \nmid 149, 2$ , and  $3 \mid 149 - 2$
- $\nu_3(149^n - 2^n) = \nu_3(149 - 2) + \nu_3(n) = \nu_3(n) + 1$
- $3^3 \mid 149^n - 2^n \implies \nu_3(n) \geq 2 \implies 3^2 \mid n$
- Now use LTE on 7: 7 is odd,  $7 \nmid 149, 2$ , and  $7 \mid 149 - 2$
- $\nu_7(149^n - 2^n) = \nu_7(149 - 2) + \nu_7(n) = \nu_7(n) + 2$
- $7^7 \mid 149^n - 2^n \implies \nu_7(n) \geq 5 \implies 7^5 \mid n$
- Now let's use LTE on 5

- We can't use LTE on 5: we don't have  $5|149 - 2$
- In fact, we don't always have  $5|149^n - 2^n$ ; when does this happen?
- $149^n - 2^n \equiv 4^n - 2^n \equiv 2^n(2^n - 1) \pmod{5}$
- If  $5|149^n - 2^n$  then  $5|2^n - 1$  which occurs exactly when  $4|n$
- Need  $4|n$ ; let  $n = 4k$
- Now we can use LTE by writing  $149^n - 2^n = (149^4)^k - (2^4)^k$
- $\nu_5(149^{4k} - 2^{4k}) = \nu_5((149^4)^k - (2^4)^k) = \nu_5(149^4 - 2^4) + \nu_5(k)$
- Check that  $\nu_5(149^4 - 2^4) = 1$
- So  $\nu_5(149^n - 2^n) = \nu_5(k) + 1 = \nu_5(n) + 1$
- If  $5^5|149^n - 2^n$  then  $\nu_5(n) \geq 4 \implies 5^4|n$
- Combining,  $n$  must be a multiple of  $3^2$ ,  $7^5$ ,  $4$ , and  $5^4$
- So  $n$  is a multiple of  $2^2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5^4 \cdot 7^5$
- $n$  has at least  $(2 + 1)(2 + 1)(4 + 1)(5 + 1) = \boxed{270}$  divisors

## IMO 2019/4

Find all pairs  $(k, n)$  of positive integers such that

$$k! = (2^n - 1)(2^n - 2)(2^n - 4) \dots (2^n - 2^{n-1})$$

- Factor RHS: pull out as many factors of 2 as possible
- $(2^n - 1)2(2^{n-1} - 1)2^2(2^{n-2} - 1) \dots 2^{n-1}(2^1 - 1)$
- $2^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}}(2^n - 1)(2^{n-1} - 1) \dots (2^1 - 1)$
- The 2-adic valuation of this is clearly  $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$
- So  $\nu_2(k!) = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$
- By Legendre  $\nu_2(k!) = k - s_2(k) \leq k$
- So  $k \geq \nu_2(k!) = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$
- Actually, this means  $k$  needs to be quite large; maybe even too large

- We have  $k! \geq \left(\frac{n(n-1)}{2}\right)!$
- $k! = (2^n - 1)(2^n - 2)(2^n - 4) \dots (2^n - 2^{n-1}) \leq 2^n \cdot 2^n \dots 2^n = 2^{n^2}$
- So we have  $2^{n^2} \geq \left(\frac{n(n-1)}{2}\right)!$
- This should not be true for large  $n$ : the LHS is multiplying  $n^2$  copies of 2, while the RHS is a product of about  $\frac{1}{2}n^2$  numbers, most of them much larger than 2
- We claim this actually implies  $n < 6$ ; if  $n \geq 6$  then  $\left(\frac{n(n-1)}{2}\right)! > 2^{n^2}$
- Prove by induction: for  $n = 6$  we have  $15! > 2^{36}$
- (say,  $15! > 7! \cdot 8^8 > 2^{12} \cdot 2^{24} = 2^{36}$ )
- For the inductive step, suppose  $\left(\frac{n(n-1)}{2}\right)! > 2^{n^2}$
- We want to show  $\left(\frac{n(n+1)}{2}\right)! > 2^{(n+1)^2}$

- We have  $\left(\frac{n(n+1)}{2}\right)! > \left(\frac{n(n-1)}{2}\right)! \cdot \left(\frac{n(n-1)}{2}\right)^n > 2^{n^2} \left(\frac{n(n-1)}{2}\right)^n$
- Now to complete the induction we just need  $2^{n^2} \left(\frac{n(n-1)}{2}\right)^n > 2^{(n+1)^2}$
- Equivalently  $\left(\frac{n(n-1)}{2}\right)^n > 2^{2n+1}$
- Or  $\frac{n(n-1)}{2} > 2^{2+\frac{1}{n}}$
- Since  $n \geq 6$  we have  $\frac{n(n-1)}{2} \geq 15$  and  $2^{2+\frac{1}{n}} < 8$ , done
- We've now proven that if  $n \geq 6$  then  $\left(\frac{n(n-1)}{2}\right)! > 2^{n^2}$
- We've also prove that if  $(k, n)$  satisfy the equation then  $2^{n^2} \geq \left(\frac{n(n-1)}{2}\right)!$
- Thus if  $(k, n)$  is a solution to the equation then  $n \leq 5$
- We can now manually solve the equation for these five values of  $n$

- $k! = (2^n - 1)(2^n - 2)(2^n - 4) \dots (2^n - 2^{n-1})$
- $n = 1$ : then  $k! = 1$  so  $k = 1$
- $n = 2$ : then  $k! = 6$  so  $k = 3$
- $n = 3$ : then  $k! = 168$  which clearly has no solutions
- $n = 4$ : then  $k! = 20160$  which has no solutions ( $7! = 5040$  and  $8! = 40320$ )
- $n = 5$ : then  $k! = 2^{10} \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 31$  which has no solutions: since  $31|k!$  and 31 is prime we have  $k \geq 31$ , but this would force  $29|k!$  which is a contradiction
- So the only solutions are  $(1, 1)$  and  $(3, 2)$