$a^n \pm 1$
Solutions

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Practice problems:

1. A *primitive root* mod n is a number g such that the smallest positive integer k for which $g^k \equiv 1 \mod n$ is $\phi(n)$.

   (a) Show that 2 is a primitive root mod 3^n for any $n \geq 1$.

   (b) Show that if g is an odd primitive root mod p such that $p^2 \nmid g^{p-1} - 1$, then g is also a primitive root mod p^n and $2p^n$ for any $n \geq 1$.

   Solution. (a) Since $\phi(3^n) = 2 \cdot 3^{n-1}$, the problem amounts to showing that $3^n \nmid 2^{3^{n-1}} - 1$ and $3^n \nmid 2^{2 \cdot 3^{n-2}} - 1$ (when $n \geq 2$). The first claim follows from reduction mod 3, and the second claim follows from the exponent lifting trick, as $3 \parallel 2^2 - 1$, so that $3^{n-1} \parallel 2^{2 \cdot 3^{n-2}} - 1$.

   (b) Since $\phi(p^n) = \phi(2p^n) = (p-1)p^{n-1}$, it suffices to show $p^n \nmid g^{(p-1)p^{n-2}} - 1$ and $p^n \nmid g^{dp^{n-1}} - 1$ for any divisor d of $p-1$ with $d < p-1$. The first claim follows from $p^{n-1} \parallel g^{(p-1)p^{n-2}} - 1$ by the exponent lifting trick as $p \parallel g^{p-1} - 1$ by assumption, and the second claim follows from the fact that $p \mid g^m - 1$ if and only if $(p-1) \mid m$ as g is a primitive root mod p.

2. (Cyclotomic polynomials) For a positive integer n, define the polynomial $\Phi_n(x)$ by

$$\Phi_n(x) = \prod_{\substack{1 \leq k \leq n \\ \gcd(n,k)=1}} (x - e^{\frac{2\pi i k}{n}}).$$

   (a) Prove the polynomial identity $\prod_{d|n} \Phi_d(x) = x^n - 1$, where the product is taken over all divisors d of n.

   (b) Prove that $\Phi_n(x)$ is an integer polynomial.

   (c) Let m and n be positive integers, and let p be a prime divisor of $\Phi_n(m)$. Prove that either $p \mid n$ or $n \mid p-1$.

   (d) (Special case of Dirichlet's theorem) Prove that for every positive integer n, there are infinitely many primes p with $p \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

   Solution. (a) The right-hand side polynomial $x^n - 1$ can be factored as $\prod_{k=1}^{n}(x - e^{\frac{2\pi i k}{n}})$. For$1 \leq k \leq n$, each factor $x - e^{\frac{2\pi i k}{n}}$ appears exactly once in the left hand side (in $\Phi_d(x)$ for $d = \frac{n}{\gcd(n,k)}$) and all factors in the left hand side are of this form.

   (b) Use induction on d. We have $\Phi_1(x) = x - 1$. Suppose $\Phi_d(x)$ is an integer polynomial for all $d < n$. Then by (a) $\Phi_n(x)$ is the quotient of two monic integer polynomials, and hence it must also be an integer polynomial.

   (c) Suppose $p \nmid n$ and $n \nmid p-1$. We have $p \mid \Phi_n(m) \mid m^n - 1$ by (a). So $p \nmid m$, and hence $p \mid m^{p-1} - 1$ by Fermat's little theorem. Thus $p \mid m^{\gcd(p-1,n)} - 1$. Since $n \nmid p-1$,

$\gcd(p-1,n) < n$. Since $p \nmid n$, we know $p \nmid \frac{n}{\gcd(p-1,n)}$. Suppose $p^k \parallel m^{\gcd(p-1,n)} - 1$. By the exponent lifting trick, we have $p^k \parallel m^n - 1$. However, from (a) we know that the polynomial $\Phi_n(x)$ is a factor of $\frac{x^n-1}{x^{\gcd(p-1,n)}-1}$. Setting $x = m$ gives us a contradiction, since on one hand we have $p \mid \Phi_n(m)$ but on the other hand p does not divide $\frac{m^n-1}{m^{\gcd(p-1,n)}-1}$ as it is the quotient of two numbers both exactly divisible by p^k.

(d) It suffices to show that for every positive integer $n \geq 2$, there is at least one prime p with $p \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$, since then we can find infinitely many such p by finding primes p_k such that $p_k \equiv 1 \pmod{kn}$ for each $k \geq 1$.

For $n \geq 2$, $|\Phi_n(n)| > 1$. Let p be a prime divisor of $\Phi_n(n)$. Since $\Phi_n(n) \mid n^n - 1$ by (a), $p \nmid n$, so $n \mid p-1$ by part (b). This gives us the desired prime.

3. (IMO 2003) Let p be a prime number. Prove that there exists a prime number q such that for every integer n, $n^p - p$ is not divisible by q.

Solution. Let q be a prime divisor of $\Phi_p(p) = \frac{p^p-1}{p-1} = p^{p-1} + p^{p-2} + \cdots + p + 1$ with $p^2 \nmid q-1$ (this must exist since $\Phi_p(p) \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}$). By problem 2, $p \mid q-1$. If $n^p \equiv p \pmod{q}$, then $p^{\frac{q-1}{p}} \equiv n^{q-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$. We have $q \mid \gcd(p^{\frac{q-1}{p}} - 1, p^p - 1) = p^{\gcd(\frac{q-1}{p},p)} - 1$, which equals to $p-1$ since $p^2 \nmid q-1$. However, we cannot simultaneously have $q \mid p-1$ and $p \mid q-1$. Thus $n^p - p$ is not divisible by q.

4. (a) Prove that $\Phi_m(x)$ and $\Phi_n(x)$ are always relatively prime as polynomials for $m \neq n$.
   (b) Show that if for some integer x, $\Phi_m(x)$ and $\Phi_n(x)$ are not relative prime, then m/n is an integer power of a prime.

Solution. (a) The zeros of $\Phi_n(x)$ and $\Phi_m(x)$ are distinct, since the zeros of $\Phi_n(x)$ are precisely the primitive n-th roots of unity. Thus the polynomials are relatively prime.

(b) Suppose some prime p divides both $\Phi_m(x)$ and $\Phi_n(x)$. By replacing x by $x+p$ if necessary, we may assume that $x > 1$. Let us deal with the $p = 2$ case separately. We claim that if $\Phi_m(x)$ is even then m must be a power of 2. Indeed, otherwise let q be an odd prime divisor of m, and let $m = qs$, then by the previous problem, $\Phi_m(x)$ divides $\frac{x^m-1}{x^s-1} = x^{(q-1)s} + x^{(q-2)s} + \cdots + x^s + 1$, which is always odd. The $p = 2$ case follows.

Now assume that $p > 2$. By the previous problem, p divides $x^m - 1$ and $x^n - 1$, and hence $p \mid x^{\gcd(m,n)} - 1$. Let $p^k \parallel x^{\gcd(m,n)} - 1$. One of $\frac{m}{\gcd(m,n)}$ and $\frac{n}{\gcd(m,n)}$ is not divisible by p, and assume that it is the latter. Then by the exponent lifting trick, $p^k \parallel x^n - 1$. If $\gcd(m,n) < n$, then $\Phi_n(x)$ divides $\frac{x^n-1}{x^{\gcd(m,n)}-1}$, which is not divisible by p by the above analysis. This contradicts $p \mid \Phi_n(x)$. Hence $\gcd(m,n) = n$, i.e., $n \mid m$.

We claim that $\frac{m}{n}$ is a power of p. If not, then pick some prime q dividing $\frac{m}{n}$. We have $p \mid \Phi_n(x) \mid x^n - 1 \mid x^{m/q} - 1$. By the exponent lifting trick, the same power of p divides both $x^m - 1$ and $x^{m/q} - 1$. But $\Phi_m(x)$ divides $\frac{x^m-1}{x^{m/q}-1}$, which contradicts $p \mid \Phi_m(x)$. Thus $\frac{m}{n}$ is a power of p.

5. Let $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k$ be distinct primes greater than 3. Let $N = 2^{p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k} + 1$.
   (a) (IMO Shortlist 2002) Show that N has at least 4^n divisors.
   (b) Show that N has at least $2^{2^{k-1}}$ divisors. (Hint: use cyclotomic polynomials)

Solution. (a) Observe that if a and b are coprime odd numbers, then $\gcd(2^a+1, 2^b+1) = 3$, since their gcd must divide $\gcd(2^{2a}-1, 2^{2b}-1) = 2^{\gcd(2a,2b)} - 1 = 2^2 - 1 = 3$. Since $2^{ab}+1$ is divisible by both 2^a+1 and 2^b+1, it must also be divisible by $\frac{1}{3}(2^a+1)(2^b+1)$.

We use induction on k. When $k = 1$, $2^{p_1}+1$ is divisible by 3 and greater than 9, so it must have at least 4 divisors. Let $a = p_1 \cdots p_{k-1}$ and $b = p_k$. Suppose that $2^a + 1$ has at least 4^{k-1} divisors. Since 2^a+1 is coprime to $\frac{1}{3}(2^b+1)$, the number $M = \frac{1}{3}(2^a+1)(2^b+1)$ must have at least $2 \cdot 4^{k-1}$ divisors (for each divisor d of 2^a+1, we get two divisors d and $\frac{1}{3}(2^b+1)d$ of M). Also $M \mid N$ and $N = 2^{ab} + 1 > M^2$ (since $2^{ab} + 1 > 2^{ab} > 2^{2(a+b+1)} > M^2$). So N has at least 4^k divisors (for each divisor d of M, we have divisors d and N/d). This completes the induction.

(b) It suffices to show that N is divisible by at least 2^{k-1} distinct prime. We have

$$N = 2^{p_1 \cdots p_k} + 1 = \frac{2^{2p_1 \cdots p_k} - 1}{2^{p_1 \cdots p_k} - 1} = \frac{\prod_{d \mid 2p_1 \cdots p_k} \Phi_d(x)}{\prod_{d \mid p_1 \cdots p_k} \Phi_d(x)} = \prod_{d \mid p_1 \cdots p_k} \Phi_{2d}(2).$$

Consider the set of divisors d of $p_1 \cdots p_k$ with an odd number of prime factors. There are 2^{k-1} such divisors d, and they provide mutually coprime $\Phi_d(2)$ by Problem 4. Take one prime divisor from each such $\Phi_d(2)$ and we get what we want.

6. (IMO 1990) Determine all positive integers n such that $\dfrac{2^n+1}{n^2}$ is an integer.

Solution. We claim that the only solutions are $n = 1, 3$. Suppose $n \notin \{1, 3\}$. Let p be the smallest prime divisor of n. Then $p \mid 2^n+1$, so $p \mid 2^{2n}-1$. By Fermat's little theorem, we also have $p \mid 2^{p-1} - 1$. Thus $p \mid 2^{\gcd(p-1,2n)} - 1$. Since p is the smallest prime divisor of n, we must have $\gcd(p-1, 2n) = 2$. So $p \mid 2^2 - 1$ and hence $p = 3$.

Suppose $3^k \parallel n$. We have $3 \parallel 2^2 - 1$. So by the exponent lifting trick, $3^{k+1} \parallel 2^{2n} - 1$. If $n^2 \mid 2^n + 1$, then $3^{2k} \mid 2^{2n} - 1$. Thus $2k \le k + 1$, hence $k = 1$. Thus $3 \parallel n$.

Let $n = 3m$. Suppose $m \neq 1$. Let q denote the smallest prime divisor of m. By the same argument as above, we have $q \mid 2^{\gcd(q-1,6m)} - 1$, and $\gcd(q-1, 6m) \in \{2, 6\}$, so q divides either $2^2 - 1 = 3$ or $2^6 - 1 = 63 = 7 \cdot 3^2$. Since $3 \parallel n$, $q \neq 3$, so $q = 7$. However, $2^n + 1 = (2^3)^m + 1 \equiv 2 \pmod 7$, so 7 cannot divide $2^n + 1$, contradiction. This shows that 1 and 3 are the only solutions.

7. (IMO 2000) Does there exist a positive integer N which is divisible by exactly 2000 different prime numbers and such that $2^N + 1$ is divisible by N?

Solution. Yes. We will show by induction that for any $m \ge 1$, there exists a positive integer N divisibly by exactly m different prime numbers such that $N \mid 2^N + 1$.

When $m = 1$, choose $N = 3$.

We will use the following variant of the exponent lifiting trick: if p is an odd prime, $a \ge 2$, $k, m \ge 1$, $\ell \ge 0$, n odd, $p^k \parallel a + 1$, and $p^\ell \parallel n$, then $p^{k+\ell} \parallel a^n + 1$. This in fact follows from our usual exponent lifting trick, as neither $a - 1$ nor $a^n - 1$ are divisible by p (since $a \equiv -1 \pmod p$ and n is odd), so the claim follows as $p^k \parallel a^2 - 1$ implies $p^{k+\ell} \parallel a^{2n} - 1$.

Now suppose $N = p_1^{a_1} \cdots p_m^{a_m}$ satisfies $N \mid 2^N + 1$, where $p_1, \ldots, p_m$ are distinct prime and $a_i \ge 1$. Suppose $p_i^{b_i} \parallel 2^N + 1$ for each i. Write this as $p_1^{b_1} \cdots p_m^{b_m} \parallel 2^N + 1$. Then by above variant of the exponent lifting trick, we have $p_1^{b_1+\ell} p_2^{b_2} \cdots p_m^{b_m} \parallel 2^{Np_1^\ell} + 1$. For ℓ sufficiently large, we also have $p_1^{b_1+\ell} p_2^{b_2} \cdots p_m^{b_m} < 2^{Np_1^\ell} + 1$, so that $2^{Np_1^\ell} + 1$ has some prime divisor p_{k+1} distinct from $p_1, \ldots p_k$. Then $Np_1^\ell p_{k+1} \mid 2^{Np_1^\ell p_{k+1}} + 1$, and hence we can choose $N' = Np_1^\ell p_{k+1}$ to complete the induction.

8. Let N be a positive integer ending in digits 25, and m a positive integer. Prove that for some positive integer n, the rightmost m digits of 5^n and N agree in parity (i.e., for

$1 \le k \le m$, the k-th digit from the right in n is odd if and only if the k-th digit from the right in N is odd).

Solution. We will prove by induction on m that there exists infinitely many n that works. This is trivial when $m = 1, 2$.

For the inductive step, it suffices to prove the following claim: if $n \ge m \ge 2$, then the rightmost m digits of 5^n and $5^{n+2^{m-2}}$ agree in parity, but the $(m+1)$-th digit from the right differ in parity.

By the exponent lifting trick, we have $2^m \parallel 5^{2^{m-2}} - 1$ as $2^2 \parallel 5 - 1$. It follows that $5^{2^{m-2}+n} - 5^n$ is divisible by 10^m but not $2 \cdot 10^m$. The claim follows.

9. (Hensel's lemma) Let

$$f(x) = c_n x^n + c_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + c_2 x^2 + c_1 x + c_0$$

be a polynomial with integer coefficients. Its derivative f' is a polynomial defined by

$$f'(x) = nc_n x^{n-1} + (n-1)c_{n-1}x^{n-2} + \cdots + 2c_2 x + c_1.$$

Suppose that $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfies $p \mid f(a)$ and $p \nmid f'(a)$. Prove that for any integer k, there exists an integer b satisfying $p^k \mid f(b)$ and $p \mid b - a$.

Solution. We use induction on k to find, for each $k \ge 1$, an integer b_k, satisfying $b_1 = a$ and

$$b_{k+1} \equiv b_k \pmod{p^k}$$

and

$$f(b_k) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^k}.$$

Note that this implies $b_k \equiv b_1 = a \pmod{p}$.

When $k = 1$, we can just take $b_1 = a$. Now assume that $k > 1$ and b_{k-1} has already been chosen. Set

$$b_{k+1} = b_k + p^k r$$

for some integer r to be decided later. We have

$$\begin{aligned} f(b_{k+1}) = f(b_k + p^k r) &= \sum_{j=0}^{n} c_j (b_k + p^k r)^j \\ &\equiv \sum_{j=0}^{k} c_j (b_k^j + j p^k r b_k^{j-1}) = f(b_k) + p^k r f'(b_k) \pmod{p^{k+1}}, \end{aligned}$$

where the modulo equivalence comes from binomial expansion. (This is related to the taylor expansion in calculus: $f(x+\epsilon) \approx f(x) + \epsilon f'(x)$.) From the induction hypothesis, we know $p^k \mid f(b_k)$. Also $b_k \equiv a \pmod{p}$, so $p \nmid f'(b_k)$, and hence $f'(b_k)$ has an inverse mod p, say $t \in \mathbb{Z}$, satisfying $f'(b_k)t \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Then setting $r = -\frac{f(b_k)t}{p^k}$, we have

$$f(b_{k+1}) \equiv f(b_k) - f(b_k) r f'(b_k) = f(b_k)(1 - r f'(b_k)) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^{k+1}}.$$

since $p^k \mid f(b_k)$ and $p \mid 1 - r f'(b_k)$. This completes the induction step.