

Week 4: Number Theory: Congruences, Orders, Valuations

Lecture notes · Thu Oct 15 / Fri Oct 16

Toolbox: six facts that do most of the work.

1. **Fermat and Euler.** If p is prime and $p \nmid a$, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$; for every a , $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$. If $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ then $a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$, where $\varphi(p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_r^{e_r}) = \prod p_i^{e_i-1} (p_i - 1)$. Consequence: exponents may be reduced modulo $\varphi(n)$ (never modulo n).
2. **Orders.** For $\gcd(a, n) = 1$, $\text{ord}_n(a)$ is the least $d \geq 1$ with $a^d \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. Then $a^k \equiv 1 \pmod{n} \iff d \mid k$; in particular $d \mid \varphi(n)$, and $d \mid p-1$ when $n = p$. Workhorse corollaries: $2^a - 1 \mid 2^b - 1 \iff a \mid b$; $\gcd(2^a - 1, 2^b - 1) = 2^{\gcd(a,b)} - 1$; every prime $q \mid a^p - 1$ with p prime and $q \nmid a - 1$ satisfies $q \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Primitive roots (elements of order $\varphi(n)$) exist modulo p , p^e , $2p^e$ for odd p , and modulo $2, 4$.
3. **Wilson.** $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ for p prime, since $2, \dots, p-2$ pair off into inverses. Conversely $(n-1)! \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ for composite $n > 4$.
4. **Chinese remainder theorem.** If $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ then $\mathbb{Z}/mn \cong \mathbb{Z}/m \times \mathbb{Z}/n$ as rings. Work one prime power at a time and reassemble; φ and “ $x \mapsto x^k$ is a bijection” are both computed this way.
5. **p -adic valuations.** $v_p(ab) = v_p(a) + v_p(b)$; $v_p(a+b) \geq \min(v_p(a), v_p(b))$ with equality when $v_p(a) \neq v_p(b)$. Legendre: $v_p(n!) = \sum_{k \geq 1} \lfloor n/p^k \rfloor = \frac{n - s_p(n)}{p-1}$, s_p the base- p digit sum. Lifting the exponent: if p is an odd prime, $p \mid x - y$, $p \nmid xy$, then $v_p(x^n - y^n) = v_p(x - y) + v_p(n)$.
6. **gcd tricks.** $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(a, b - ka)$ (Euclid); $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ and $a \mid bc$ imply $a \mid c$; coprime factors of a perfect power are perfect powers; and $xy + \alpha x + \beta y = c$ factors as $(x + \beta)(y + \alpha) = c + \alpha\beta$, turning a Diophantine equation into a divisor count.

Example 1 (The last two digits of 7^{2026}). We want $7^{2026} \pmod{100}$. Euler gives $7^{40} \equiv 1 \pmod{100}$, but the order is smaller: $7^2 = 49$, $7^4 = 2401 \equiv 1 \pmod{100}$, so $\text{ord}_{100}(7) = 4$. Since $2026 = 4 \cdot 506 + 2$, we get $7^{2026} \equiv 7^2 = 49$. The last two digits are 49. Moral: compute the actual order when you can; $\varphi(n)$ is only an upper bound for it.

Example 2 (Wilson, symmetrized). For an odd prime p , $\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)!^2 \equiv (-1)^{(p+1)/2} \pmod{p}$. Pair each $k \in \{1, \dots, \frac{p-1}{2}\}$ with $p - k \equiv -k$. Then

$$-1 \equiv (p-1)! = \prod_{k=1}^{(p-1)/2} k(p-k) \equiv \prod_{k=1}^{(p-1)/2} (-k^2) = (-1)^{(p-1)/2} \left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)!^2 \pmod{p}.$$

Multiply by $(-1)^{(p-1)/2}$ to finish. For $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ this exhibits a square root of -1 modulo p , namely $\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)!$; e.g. $p = 13$: $6! = 720 = 55 \cdot 13 + 5$ and $5^2 = 25 \equiv -1$.

Example 3 (A valuation that cannot cancel). For $n \geq 2$, $H_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n}$ is not an integer. Let 2^k be the largest power of 2 with $2^k \leq n$, so $k \geq 1$. Among $1, \dots, n$ the only multiple of 2^k is 2^k itself (the next one, 2^{k+1} , exceeds n). Hence $v_2(1/2^k) = -k$, while every other term has $v_2(1/j) = -v_2(j) > -k$. A sum in which exactly one term has the minimum valuation has that valuation (the “equality when valuations differ” clause, applied repeatedly), so $v_2(H_n) = -k < 0$ and $H_n \notin \mathbb{Z}$.

Pitfall. (1) Fermat needs $p \nmid a$ and Euler needs $\gcd(a, n) = 1$: $2^{\varphi(4)} = 4 \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Use $a^p \equiv a$ when you cannot exclude $p \mid a$. (2) Exponents reduce modulo $\varphi(n)$ or modulo the order, never modulo n ; bases reduce modulo n . (3) You may cancel c from $ca \equiv cb \pmod{n}$ only when $\gcd(c, n) = 1$; otherwise you get $a \equiv b \pmod{n/\gcd(c, n)}$. (4) $v_p(a + b) = \min(v_p(a), v_p(b))$ is a theorem only when the two valuations differ. (5) “ $n \mid 2^n - 1$ forces $n = 1$ ” is proved with the *smallest* prime factor p of n (then $\gcd(n, p - 1) = 1$ kills the order); an arbitrary prime factor does not close the argument.

How to recognize this technique on the exam. Numbers that are absurdly large (“ 7^{2026} ”, “ $n < 10^{100}$ ”, the current year in an exponent) are an invitation to reduce modulo something and to compute an order. Statements of the form “find all n with $n \mid 2^n - 1$ ” or “every prime divisor of $\dots$ satisfies $\dots$ ” are order arguments: name the order, note what it divides, and squeeze. A factorial, a binomial coefficient, or a claim that some expression is “never an integer” or “never a perfect square” asks for a valuation, usually at the prime 2 or the largest prime available. Equations in positive integers such as $1/a + 1/b = c/N$ want to be factored, after which the question is a divisor count with a congruence condition. Permutations of $\{1, \dots, n\}$ defined by $k \mapsto mk \pmod{n}$ are the Chinese remainder theorem in disguise: split $\mathbb{Z}/n$ into prime-power pieces.

Suggested timing (15 minutes). 0–4: Fermat/Euler and orders; Example 1, stressing “order divides $\varphi(n)$ ” and the corollary $2^a - 1 \mid 2^b - 1 \iff a \mid b$. 4–8: Wilson via pairing inverses; Example 2. 8–12: valuations, Legendre’s formula, Example 3. 12–15: CRT and the factoring trick in one line each; pitfalls (1) and (2); then groups start on Problems 1–4.