

**Problem 1.**

We can write  $x$  as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 x &\stackrel{2}{\equiv} 1 \implies x = 2k + 1, k \in \mathbb{Z} \\
 x &\stackrel{3}{\equiv} 1 \implies 2k + 1 \stackrel{3}{\equiv} 1 \implies 2k \stackrel{3}{\equiv} 0 \implies k = 3t, t \in \mathbb{Z} \\
 x &= 2k + 1 = 2(3t) + 1 = 6t + 1 \\
 x &\stackrel{7}{\equiv} 2 \implies 6t + 1 \stackrel{7}{\equiv} 2 \implies 6t \stackrel{7}{\equiv} 1 \implies 36t \stackrel{7}{\equiv} 6 \\
 &\implies t \stackrel{7}{\equiv} 6 \implies t = 7s + 6, s \in \mathbb{Z} \\
 x &= 6t + 1 = 6(7s + 6) + 1 = 42s + 37, s \in \mathbb{Z} \\
 &\implies x = 42s + 37, s \in \mathbb{Z}
 \end{aligned}$$

**Problem 2.**

Let  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k$  be primes and let  $x$  be the answer to this system of equations:

$$\begin{aligned}
 x &\stackrel{p_1^2}{\equiv} -1 \\
 x &\stackrel{p_2^2}{\equiv} -2 \\
 &\vdots \\
 x &\stackrel{p_k^2}{\equiv} -k
 \end{aligned}$$

By Chinese remainder theorem there exists such  $x$ . It is easy to see that none of  $x + 1, x + 2, \dots, x + k$  are square free since for any  $1 \leq i \leq k$  we have:  $x \stackrel{p_i^2}{\equiv} -i$  which implies  $p_i^2 \mid x + i$ . Therefore for any  $k$  there exists  $k$  consecutive number where none of them is square free.

**Problem 3.**

Let  $p_{1,1}, p_{1,2}, p_{2,1}, p_{2,2} \dots, p_{R,1}, p_{R,2}$  be distinct primes with product  $P$ . And let  $x$  be the answer to the system of equations:

$$\begin{aligned} x &\equiv^{p_{1,1}} 1 \\ x &\equiv^{p_{2,1}} 2 \\ &\vdots \\ x &\equiv^{p_{R,1}} R \\ x &\equiv^{p_{1,2}} -1 \\ x &\equiv^{p_{2,2}} -2 \\ &\vdots \\ x &\equiv^{p_{R,2}} -R \end{aligned}$$

By Chinese remainder theorem there exists a unique  $x \pmod{P}$ . This shows that for any  $r \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $rP + x$  satisfies the equations above. By Dirichlet's theorem there are infinitely many primes with the form  $rP + x$ . Let  $y$  be one of them. It is easy to see that for any  $1 \leq i \leq R$ ,  $p_{i,1} \mid y - i$  and  $p_{i,2} \mid y + i$ . Thus the only prime number in  $[y - R, y + R]$  is  $y$ . Therefore there are infinitely many prime numbers like  $p$  such that any number in  $[p - R, p + R]$  except  $p$  is a composite number.

**Problem 4.**

- (i) In  $\prod_{i=1}^{\phi(m)}$  product of inverses is 1 mod  $m$ . So we are left with the elements like  $x$  such that  $x^2 \equiv^m 1$ . Note that  $(x, m) = (m - x, m) = 1$  and also since  $(m - x)^2 = m^2 - 2mx + x^2 \equiv^m 1$ . So in remaining elements pair each  $x$  with  $m - x$ . We have  $x(m - x) = mx - x^2 \equiv -1$ . So we only have to answer that how many answers are there to the equation  $x^2 \equiv^m 1$ . It suffices to see how many answers are there to the equation  $x^2 \equiv^{p_i^{\alpha_i}} 1$  where  $m = p_1^{\alpha_1} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}$ . For any odd prime  $p_i$  we have:

$$x^2 \equiv^p 1 \implies x = 1, p - 1$$

By Hensel's lemma we can see that if answers to  $x^2 - 1 \equiv^{p^{\alpha-1}} 0$  are 1 and  $p^{\alpha-1} - 1$ , Since  $p \nmid 2x$ , Then answers for  $x^2 - 1 \equiv^{p^\alpha} 0$  are  $1 + 0$  and  $p^\alpha - 1$ . Which shows that for any  $p^\alpha$  this equation only has two answers. For  $p_i = 2$ , we have:

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 - 1 &\equiv^2 0 \implies x = 1 \\ x^2 - 1 &\equiv^4 0 \implies x = 1, 3 \\ x^2 - 1 &\equiv^8 0 \implies x = 1, 3, 5, 7 \end{aligned}$$

And for any other  $n$  with  $x^2 - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{2^n}$  we have:

$$\begin{aligned} 2^n \mid (x-1)(x+1) &\implies \begin{cases} 2 \mid x+1, & 2^{n-1} \mid x-1 \\ 2 \mid x-1, & 2^{n-1} \mid x+1 \end{cases} \\ 2^{n-1} \mid x-1 &\implies x = 2^{n-1} + 1 \text{ since } 0 \leq x < 2^n \\ 2^{n-1} \mid x+1 &\implies x = 2^{n-1} - 1 \text{ since } 0 \leq x < 2^n \end{aligned}$$

This shows that for  $2^n$  with  $n > 2$  there are exactly four answers to this equation.

Now for any  $m$  we just have to multiply the number of answers for each  $p_i^{\alpha_i}$ . If it is divisible by 4 then  $k = 1$  And if not then  $k = -1$ .

(ii) We just have to find  $k$  where  $2024^{1403} \equiv k \pmod{100}$ . We know that  $\phi(100) = 40$ .

$$2024^{1403} \equiv 24^{1403} \equiv 24^{40 \times 35 + 3}$$

And since  $2^{40} \equiv 1 \pmod{100}$  we have:

$$\begin{aligned} (24^{40})^{35} \cdot 24^3 &\equiv 24^3 = 13824 \equiv 24 \pmod{100} \\ \implies 2024^{1403} &\equiv 24 \pmod{100} \end{aligned}$$

### Problem 5.

(i) Let  $n = (p-1)^{2k+1}$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . It is easy to see that:

$$\begin{aligned} 2^{(p-1)^{2k+1}} &\equiv (2^{(p-1)})^{(p-1)^{2k}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \\ \implies (p-1)^{2k+1} 2^{(p-1)^{2k+1}} + 1 &\equiv (p-1)^{2k+1} + 1 \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv (-1)^{2k+1} + 1 \equiv -1 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \\ \implies p &\mid n2^n + 1 \end{aligned}$$

(ii) Since  $(2, n) = 1$  we just have to show that  $\phi(n) \mid n!$ . First we prove this for  $n = p^\alpha$ .

$$\phi(p^\alpha) = p^{\alpha-1}(p-1)$$

Since  $(p^{\alpha-1}, p-1) = 1$  and  $p^{\alpha-1}, p-1 < p^\alpha$ , we have  $p^{\alpha-1}(p-1) \mid p^\alpha$ . Now we proceed with induction on number of distinct primes in  $n$ . Base case for 1 prime is  $p^\alpha$  which is done. Now suppose for any  $n$  with  $N$  different primes,  $\phi(n) \mid n!$ . Suppose  $m$  is a number with  $N+1$  different primes where  $m = p_1^{\alpha_1} \dots p_{N+1}^{\alpha_{N+1}}$ . We can write  $m = km_1$  where  $k = p_1^{\alpha_1}$  and  $m_1$  has  $N$  primes. By induction hypothesis we know that  $\phi(k) \mid k$  and  $\phi(m_1) \mid m_1$ . And since  $\phi$  is a multiplicative function we have:

$$\phi(m) = \phi(k)\phi(m_1) \mid k!m_1!$$

It only remains to show that  $k!m_1! \mid (m_1k)!$ . Since  $m_1, k > 1$  we have  $m_1k \geq m_1 + k$  and we know that  $k!m_1! \mid (m_1 + k)!$  since  $\binom{m_1+k}{k}$  is an integer. Therefore we have:

$$\phi(m) \mid k!m_1! \mid (m_1 + k)! \mid (m_1k)! = m!$$

Thus for any  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have  $\phi(n) \mid n!$ . Now we can write  $n! = \phi(n)k$ :

$$\begin{aligned} 2^{n!} - 1 &\equiv (2^{\phi(n)})^k - 1 \equiv 0 \\ \implies n &\mid 2^{n!} - 1 \end{aligned}$$

**Problem 6.**

Suppose number of primes in form of  $4k + 1$  is finite. And they are all  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_r$ . Let  $P = p_1^2 p_2^2 \dots p_r^2$ .  $P + 4$  is an odd number and is in form of  $m^2 + n^2$  where  $(n, m) = 1$  since  $(P, 4) = 1$ . Therefore we know that any divisor of this number is in form of  $4k + 1$ . Then we have  $p_i \mid P + 4$  for some  $1 \leq i \leq r$ .

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} p_i \mid P + 4 \\ p_i \mid P \end{array} \right\} \implies p_i \mid 4 \implies p_1 \leq 4$$

which is a contradiction since there is no prime in form of  $4k + 1$  between 1 and 4. This shows that there are infinitely many primes in form of  $4k + 1$ .

**Problem 7.**

By Wilson's theorem we know that  $(p - 1)! \equiv -1$ . This shows that  $p \mid (p - 1)! + 1$ . Now if  $(p - 1)! + 1$  has no other prime factor, then we would have  $p^\alpha = (p - 1)! + 1$ .

$$\begin{aligned} p^\alpha - 1 &= (p - 1)! \\ (p - 1)(p^{\alpha-1} + \dots + p + 1) &= (p - 1)! \\ p^{\alpha-1} + \dots + p + 1 &= (p - 2)! \end{aligned}$$

But we know that for any composite  $n$  we have:  $n \mid (n - 1)!$ . And since  $p - 1$  is not a prime then we have:  $p - 1 \mid (p - 2)!$ . Thus:

$$\begin{aligned} p - 1 \mid (p - 2)! &= p^{\alpha-1} + \dots + p + 1 \\ p^{\alpha-1} + \dots + p + 1 &\equiv 1^{\alpha-1} + \dots + 1 + 1 \equiv \alpha \end{aligned}$$

And since  $\alpha > 1$  then we have  $p - 1 \mid \alpha \implies \alpha \geq p - 1$ . Now we can see that  $p^\alpha = (p - 1)! + 1$  is not possible since:

$$p^\alpha \geq p^{p-1} = p \times p \times \dots \times p > (p - 1) \times (p - 2) \times \dots \times 2 \times 1 = (p - 1)!$$

This shows that  $p^\alpha > (p - 1)! + 1$ . Which is a contradiction. This means that  $(p - 1)! + 1$  is not in form of  $p^\alpha$  and has another prime factor which completes the proof.