

On the divisibility of powers of integers

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Abstract

We examine the residues obtained when powers of integers are divided by the square of the exponent. For a given value n of the exponent, the residues exhibit a striking pattern which is discussed for $n \leq 16$.

1. Introduction

The surprising observation that the fourth power of any integer N is either an exact multiple of 16 or exceeds such a value by one unit, i.e. that (for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$)

$$N^4 = 16 \cdot k + 0 \text{ or } 1,$$

naturally leads to the question of whether there exist similar simple relationships for powers in general.

Problems of divisibility are a basic topic in number theory and they have produced a rich literature. It may nevertheless happen that some of the relationships concerning residue classes of powers of natural numbers considered in what follows are new.

Let us have a look at the residues (mod n^2) of expressions of the type N^n , where both N and n are natural numbers. To illustrate our approach, we first consider the two special cases where the exponents are $n = 2$ and $n = 3$, before discussing the problem in general.

2. Two special cases

For the case $n = 2$ we choose for N the decomposition

$$N = 2k + r,$$

where $r = 0$ or 1 .

Since

$$N^2 = 4k^2 + 4k r + r^2,$$

we have

$$N^2 = r^2 = 0 \text{ or } 1 \pmod{4}. \quad (1)$$

It follows from (1) that for any square N^2 we have the relation

$$N^2 = 0 \text{ or } 1 \pmod{4}.$$

In the same way, for $n = 3$ we write

$$N = 3k + r,$$

with $r = 0, \pm 1$.

It is then clear that

$$N^3 = (3k + r)^3 = 27k^3 + 27k^2r + 9kr^2 + r^3,$$

thus

$$N^3 = r^3 = 0, 1 \text{ or } -1 \pmod{9}. \quad (2)$$

Negative residuals are used for convenience and, in particular, to avoid large numbers. Thus

$$N = -\alpha \pmod{m}$$

is always equivalent to

$$N = m - \alpha \pmod{m}.$$

3. The general case

For the general case, it may be useful to discuss separately the cases of an even or odd power n .

a) For n odd, say $n = 2s + 1$, with $s = 0, 1, \dots$, we write the integers N in the form

$$N = nk + r,$$

with $r = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots, \pm s$.

Then

$$\begin{aligned} N^n &= (nk + r)^n \\ &= (nk)^n + n(nk)^{n-1}r + \dots + n(nk)r^{n-1} + r^n. \end{aligned}$$

By taking this modulo n^2 we find

$$\begin{aligned} N^n &= 0 + r^n \pmod{n^2} \\ &= (0, \pm 1, \pm 2^n, \dots, \pm s^n) \pmod{n^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

The possible residues resulting from (3) are listed in Table 1.

Table 1 - The residues occurring in (3), for n odd.

n	r^n	$R = r^n \pmod{n^2}$
1	0	0
3	0, ± 1	0, ± 1
5	0, $\pm 1, \pm 2^n$	0, $\pm 1, \pm 7$
7	0, $\pm 1, \pm 2^n, \pm 3^n$	0, $\pm 1, \pm 18, \pm 19$
9	0, $\pm 1, \pm 2^n, \pm 3^n, \pm 4^n$	0, $\pm 1, \pm 26, \pm 28$
11	0, $\pm 1, \pm 2^n, \pm 3^n, \pm 4^n, \pm 5^n$	0, $\pm 1, \pm 3, \pm 9, \pm 27, \pm 40$

b) For n even, say $n = 2s$, the integers N are again written as

$$N = nk + r,$$

with $r = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots, \pm(s-1), +s$.

This yields for the power n as before

$$N^n = (nk + r)^n = (nk)^n + \dots + r^n,$$

thus modulo n^2 becomes

$$\begin{aligned} N^n &= r^n \pmod{n^2} \\ &= (0, 1, 2^n, \dots, s^n) \pmod{n^2}. \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

For even powers n we are led to the residues given in Table 2.

Table 2 - The residues occurring in (4), for n even.

n	r^n	$R = r^n \pmod{n^2}$
2	0, 1	0, 1
4	0, 1, 2^n	0, 1
6	0, 1, $2^n, 3^n$	0, 1, -8, 9
8	0, 1, $2^n, 3^n, 4^n$	0, 1, 33
10	0, 1, $2^n, 3^n, 4^n, 5^n$	0, 1, 25, $\pm 24, 49$
12	0, 1, $2^n, 3^n, 4^n, 5^n, 6^n$	0, 1, -63, 64

From the above it follows that, for n even or n odd, we have the general relation

$$N^n = R \pmod{n^2}, \quad (5)$$

with the values of R given (for $n \leq 12$) in Tables 1 and 2.

4. Some complements

For a more detailed insight, the residues R do not only have to be known globally for a given exponent n , as presented in Tables 1 and 2, but their association with the specific values of N must also be given. Since the residues R have a particular structure with period n , it is sufficient to list them for the n possible values of $m = N \pmod{n}$. This has been done in Table 3 (for $n \leq 16$).

Table 3 - List of the residues $R = R(n,m)$ for the powers N^n , with $N = m \pmod{n}$.
Values not listed for m are zero.

	m=1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
n=2	1														
3	1	-1													
4	1	0	1												
5	1	7	-7	-1											
6	1	-8	9	-8	1										
7	1	-19	-18	18	19	-1									
8	1	0	33	0	33	0	1								
9	1	26	0	28	-28	0	-26	-1							
10	1	24	49	-24	25	-24	49	24	1						
11	1	-9	3	-40	27	-27	40	-3	9	-1					
12	1	64	-63	64	1	0	1	64	-63	64	1				
13	1	80	-23	-22	70	-19	-19	-70	22	23	-80	-1			
14	1	-80	-19	-68	-31	-48	49	-48	-31	-68	-19	-80	1		
15	1	-82	-18	-26	-100	-99	-107	107	99	100	26	18	82	-1	
16	1	0	65	0	-63	0	129	0	129	0	-63	0	65	0	1

A closer look at this tabulation reveals some interesting symmetries. Thus, it is readily seen that

$$\begin{aligned} R(n,m) &= R(n,n-m), \quad \text{for } n \text{ even, and} \\ R(n,m) &= -R(n,n-m), \quad \text{for } n \text{ odd,} \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

with $m \leq n/2$.

Exact divisibility ($R = 0$) occurs only for exponents n which are of the form

$$n = c h^2, \quad (7)$$

where $c \geq 1$ and $h \geq 2$.

Then $R(n, m_0) = 0$ if m_0 is a multiple of $c h$ (below n).

This may be illustrated by the following examples:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{If } n = 8 = 1 \cdot 2^3, & \quad \text{then } m_0 = 2, 2 \cdot 2 \text{ or } 3 \cdot 2; \\ \text{if } n = 9 = 1 \cdot 3^2, & \quad \text{then } m_0 = 3 \text{ or } 2 \cdot 3; \\ \text{if } n = 12 = 3 \cdot 2^2, & \quad \text{then } m_0 = 3 \cdot 2. \end{aligned}$$

However, many other features of Table 3 remain mysterious, such as the occurrence of the sequences $-8, 9, -8$ (for $n = 6$), $-24, 25, -24$ (for $n = 10$) or $64, -63, 64$ (for $n = 12$).

In addition, many of the equivalences given above can apparently be simplified. Thus, for $n = 2, 3$ and 4 we have, for example, the relations

$$\begin{aligned} N^2 \pmod{4} &= N^2 \pmod{2} = N \pmod{2}, \\ N^3 \pmod{9} &= N^3 \pmod{3} = N \pmod{3}, \\ N^4 \pmod{16} &= N^4 \pmod{4} = N \pmod{2}, \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

if we agree systematically to use negative residues when $r > n/2$.

The general rules applicable to decompositions similar to (8), however, are not known to the author.

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