6. Since  $gcd(a_i, n) = 1$  for any i, and gcd(a, n) = 1, it is obvious that  $gcd(aa_i, n) = 1$  for any i.

We next prove that  $aa_i$  is not  $\equiv aa_j \mod (n)$  if  $i \neq j$ . If not,  $aa_i \equiv aa_j \mod (n)$ , and  $n|a(a_i-a_j)$ . However, since gcd(a,n)=1, this implies that  $n|(a_i-a_j)$  or in other words  $a_i \equiv a_j \mod (n)$ , which is a contradiction.

This implies that if  $a_1, a_2, \dots a_{\phi(n)}$  is a reduced residue modulo n, so is  $aa_1, aa_2, \dots aa_{\phi(n)}$ . This concludes the proof.

7. Consider the set of integers < n that are coprime to n. Call these  $a_1, a_2, \cdots a_{\phi(n)}$ . Clearly these form a reduced residue system modulo n. Now for any a such that gcd(a,n)=1, we know from exercise 6 above that  $aa_1, aa_2, \cdots aa_{\phi(n)}$  is also a reduced residue system modulo n.

Now, for any i,  $aa_i = qn + r_i$ , where  $0 < r_i < n$  and  $gcd(r_i, n) = 1$ . In other words,  $r_i = a_j$  for some j. Thus, for each i, there is a unique j such that  $aa_i \equiv a_j \mod (n)$ .

Therefore,

$$aa_1 aa_2 \cdots aa_{\phi(n)} \equiv a_1 a_2 \cdots a_{\phi(n)} \mod (n)$$
$$a^{\phi(n)} a_1 a_2 \cdots a_{\phi(n)} \equiv a_1 a_2 \cdots a_{\phi(n)} \mod (n)$$
$$\therefore a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \mod (n)$$

where the last line is due to the fact that we can cancel out the term  $a_1 a_2 \cdots a_{\phi(n)}$  on both sides due to it being relatively coprime to n. This concludes the proof.

8. We know that  $kx \equiv 1 \mod (p)$  must have exactly one unique solution since gcd(k,p) = 1. If the solution has the form qp + r, where 0 < r < p, then  $k(qp+r) \equiv 1 \mod (p)$ , which leads to  $kr \equiv 1 \mod (p)$ . This proves that the there is some unique solution from the set  $\{1,2,\cdots (p-1)\}$ .

Further if x = k is a solution for  $kx \equiv 1 \mod (p)$ , then  $p|(k^2 - 1)$ . i.e. p|(k + 1)(k - 1). This is only possible if one of these terms is either 0 or p, which happens iff k = 1 or k = p - 1.

This concludes the proof.

9. In light of the solution to problem 8, (p-1)! can be thought of as products of pairs of integers k and  $b_k$  such that  $kb_k \equiv 1 \mod (p)$ , except the terms 1 and (p-1), which don't have the appropriate pairing. Therefore,  $(p-1)! \equiv 1(p-1) \mod (p)$  i.e.  $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \mod (p)$ . This concludes the proof.