Abstract Algebra, 3rd Edition
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Preliminaries

Exercises:

0.1 BASICS

In Exercises 1 to 4 let $\mathcal{A}$ be the set of 2x2 matrices with real number entries. Recall that matrix multiplication is defined by

$$\left[\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}\begin{pmatrix} p & q \\ r & s \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ap+br & aq+bs \\ cp+dr & cq+ds \end{pmatrix}\right]$$

Let

$$\left[M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}\right]$$

and let

$$\mathcal{B} = \{X \in \mathcal{A} \mid MX = XM\}.$$

1. Determine which of the following elements of $\mathcal{A}$ lie in $\mathcal{B}$:

$$\left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}\right]$$

The elements of $\mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{B}$ are:

$$\left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}\right]$$

2. Prove that if $P, Q \in \mathcal{B}$, then $P + Q \in \mathcal{B}$ (where $+$ denotes the usual sum of two matrices).

Proof. If $P, Q \in \mathcal{B}$, then $MP = PM$ and $MQ = QM$ so that $MP - PM = 0$ and $MQ - QM = 0$. Therefore, $MP - PM = MQ - QM \implies MP + QM = MQ + PM \implies M(P+Q) = (P+Q)M$. Thus, $P + Q \in \mathcal{B}$. $\square$

3. Prove that if $P, Q \in \mathcal{B}$, then $P \cdot Q \in \mathcal{B}$ (where $\cdot$ denotes the usual product of two matrices).

Proof. If $P, Q \in \mathcal{B}$, then $MP = PM$ and $MQ = QM$ so that $MP - PM = 0$ and $MQ - QM = 0$. Therefore, $(MP - PM) \cdot (MQ - QM) = 0 \implies 2M^2(PQ) = 2(PQ)M^2 \implies M^2(PQ) = (PQ)M^2$ after dividing both sides by 2. The matrix M is invertible as the determinant, $\det(M) = 1/(ad - bc) = 1/(1 - 0) = 1$, is non-zero. Thus, $M^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and we now have $M^{-1}M^2(PQ) = (PQ)M^2M^{-1} \implies M(PQ) = (PQ)M$ and therefore $P \cdot Q \in \mathcal{B}$. $\square$

4. Find conditions on p, q, r, s which determine precisely when $\begin{pmatrix} p & q \\ r & s \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{B}$.

Solution - $r = 0$ and $p = s$. To find this, multiply both sides of $\begin{pmatrix} p & q \\ r & s \end{pmatrix}$ by M and set the elements of the resulting matrices equal and solve the equations.

5. Determine whether the following functions f are well-defined:

(a) $f : \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{Z}$ defined by $f(a/b) = a$. using $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{2}{4}$ this function gives 1 and 2 respectively, which shows that this function is not well-defined.

(b) $f : \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{Q}$ defined by $f(a/b) = a^2/b^2$. similarly, using $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{2}{4}$ this function gives $\frac{1^2}{2^2} = \frac{1}{4}$ and $\frac{2^2}{4^2} = \frac{4}{16} = \frac{1}{4}$ respectively, which shows that this function is well-defined.

6. Determine whether the function $f : \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{Z}$ defined by mapping a real number r to the first digit to the right of the decimal point in a decimal expansion of r is well-defined.

f is well-defined because every real number has a unique decimal expansion therefore if we choose the first decimal digit to the right of the decimal point, it will be unique.

7. Let $f : A \to B$ be a surjective map of sets. Prove that the relation

$$a \sim b \text{ if and only if } f(a) = f(b)$$

is an equivalence relation whose equivalence classes are the fibers of f.

Proof. If $f(a) = f(a)$, then $a \sim a$, thus $\sim$ is reflexive. If $f(a) = f(b)$, then $f(b) = f(a)$ so that $a \sim b$ and $b \sim a$. Thus, $\sim$ is symmetric. Additionally, if $f(a) = f(b)$ and $f(b) = f(c)$, then $f(a) = f(c)$ so we have that $a \sim c$ and therefore $\sim$ is also transitive. Thus, $\sim$ is an equivalence relation as it is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.

If $a_1, a_2 \in f^{-1}(b)$, then $f(a_1) = b$ and $f(a_2) = b$ so that $f(a_1) = f(a_2)$ and therefore $a_1 \sim a_2$. Thus, a_1 and a_2 are in the fiber of b under f. Therefore, the equivalence classes are the fibers of f. $\square$

0.2 PROPERTIES OF THE INTEGERS

1. For each of the following pairs of integers a and b, determine their greatest common divisor, their least common multiple, and write their greatest common divisor in the form $ax + by$ for some integers x and y.

Note: Writing the greatest common divisor in terms of integers x and y is known as **Bézout's identity** – *Let a and b be integers with greatest common divisor d. Then, there exist integers x and y such that $ax + by = d$. More generally, the integers of the form $ax + by$ are exactly the multiples of d.*

(a) $a = 20, b = 13$

$$(20, 13) = 1$$
$$\text{lcm} = 2^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 13 = 260$$
$$20(2) + 13(-3) = 1$$

(b) $a = 69, b = 372$

$$(69, 372) = 3$$
$$\text{lcm} = 2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 23 \cdot 31 = 8556$$
$$69(7) + 372(-5) = 3$$

(c) $a = 792, b = 275$

$$(792, 275) = 11$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{lcm} &= 2^3 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 11 = 19800 \\
792(8) + 275(-23) &= 11
\end{aligned}$$

(d) $a = 11391, b = 5673$

$$\begin{aligned}
(11391, 5673) &= 3 \\
\text{lcm} &= 3 \cdot 31 \cdot 61 \cdot 3797 = 21540381 \\
11391(-126) + 5673(253) &= 3
\end{aligned}$$

(e) $a = 1761, b = 1567$

$$\begin{aligned}
(1761, 1567) &= 1 \\
\text{lcm} &= 3 \cdot 587 \cdot 1567 = 2759487 \\
1761(-25) + 1567(28) &= 1
\end{aligned}$$

(f) $a = 507885, b = 60808$

$$\begin{aligned}
(507885, 60808) &= 691 \\
\text{lcm} &= 2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7^2 \cdot 11 \cdot 691 = 44693880 \\
507885(-17) + 60808(142) &= 691
\end{aligned}$$

2. Prove that if the integer k divides the integers a and b then k divides $as + bt$ for every pair of integers s and t.

Proof. If $k \mid a$ and $k \mid b$ then $k \mid as$ and $k \mid bt$ for every pair of integers s and t. Therefore, $k \mid as + bt$. $\square$

3. Prove that if n is composite then there are integers a and b such that n divides ab but n does not divide either a or b.

Proof. If n is composite then $n > 1$ and n is not prime. Therefore n can be constructed from multiple integers, say a, b so that $n = ab$. For example, the smallest composite number is 4, for which we can assign $a = 2$ and $b = 2$. It is easy to see that $4 \mid 4$ and $4 \nmid 2$, so that $n \mid ab$ but $n \nmid a$ or $n \nmid b$.

By the *Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic* we know that each composite number has a unique prime factorization so we can split up this prime factorization so that a has some of the prime factors and b has the remaining. Therefore, we are always guaranteed to find an a and b such that $n = ab, n > a, n > b$ and $n \nmid a$ and $n \nmid b$. $\square$

4. Let a, b and N be fixed integers with a and b nonzero and let $d = (a, b)$ be the greatest common divisor of a and b. Suppose x_o and y_o are particular solutions to $ax + by = N$ (i.e. $ax_o + by_o = N$). Prove for any integer t that the integers

$$x = x_o + \frac{b}{d}t \text{ and } y = y_o - \frac{a}{b}t$$

are also solutions to $ax + by = N$ (this is in fact the general solution).

Proof. The question doesn't ask for the derivation of the above parametric equations, just the proof that they are also solutions to $ax + by = N$.

Simply plugging $x = x_o + \frac{b}{d}t$ and $y = y_o - \frac{a}{b}t$ into $ax + by = N$ gives us $a(x_o + \frac{b}{d}t) + b(y_o - \frac{a}{d}t) = N \implies ax_o + \frac{ab}{d}t + by_o - \frac{ba}{d}t = N$. Since a, b are integers they commute and $ab = ba$ so we are left with $ax_o + by_o = N$, which was given as a particular solution to $ax + by = N$. $\square$

5. Determine the value $\varphi(n)$ for each integer $n \leq 30$ where φ denotes the Euler φ-function.

The text gave us up to $n = 6$ in (10). Continuing we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\varphi(7) &= 6\\
\varphi(8) &= 4\\
\varphi(9) &= 6\\
\varphi(10) &= 4\\
\varphi(11) &= 10\\
\varphi(12) &= 4\\
\varphi(13) &= 12\\
\varphi(14) &= 6\\
\varphi(15) &= 8\\
\varphi(16) &= 8\\
\varphi(17) &= 16\\
\varphi(18) &= 6\\
\varphi(19) &= 18\\
\varphi(20) &= 8\\
\varphi(21) &= 12\\
\varphi(22) &= 10\\
\varphi(23) &= 22\\
\varphi(24) &= 8\\
\varphi(25) &= 20\\
\varphi(26) &= 12\\
\varphi(27) &= 18\\
\varphi(28) &= 12\\
\varphi(29) &= 28\\
\varphi(30) &= 8
\end{aligned}$$

6. Prove the Well Ordering Property of $\mathbb{Z}$ by induction and prove the minimal element is unique.

Proof. The text states: (1) (Well Ordering of $\mathbb{Z}$) If A is any nonempty subset of $\mathbb{Z}^+$, there is some element $m \in A$ such that $m \leq a$, for all $a \in A$ (m is called a *minimal element* of A).

base case: For $n = 1$ suppose we have a subset $\{a\}$ for $a \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Any singleton subset of $\mathbb{Z}^+$ meets the minimal element criterion because $a \leq a$ and obviously this a is unique as it is the only element in the subset.

induction hypothesis: For $n = k$ assume a subset of $\mathbb{Z}^+$ with order k, where k is an integer and $k > 1$, meets the minimal element criterion and that this minimal element is unique.

induction step: For $n = k+1$ suppose that we have a subset A of $\mathbb{Z}^+$ with order $k+1$, and let us partition it into two other subsets B and C such that $A = B \cup C$, where order of B is k and order of C is 1. We know that B has a minimal element that is unique (induction hypothesis), which we will denote as m. Additionally, let us denote the element of the singleton set C as c, which is trivially the minimal and unique element. c is either greater than or less than m as they both are elements of A and therefore must be distinct. If $c > m$, then m is still the minimal and unique element of A. If $c < m$, then c is the new minimal and unique element of A. Therefore, A has a minimal element that is unique. $\square$

7. If p is a prime prove that there do not exist nonzero integers a and b such that $a^2 = pb^2$ (i.e.,$\sqrt{p}$ is not a rational number).

Proof. Suppose that p is prime and that $\sqrt{p}$ is a rational number. That is, $\sqrt{p} = \frac{a}{b}$, where a, b are integers without any common factors (i.e. in reduced form).

$$\sqrt{p} = \frac{a}{b} \implies p = \frac{a^2}{b^2} \implies pb^2 = a^2$$

which means that $p \mid a$ and therefore we can write a as pn, where $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Therefore, $(pn)^2 = pb^2 \implies pn^2 = b^2$, which means that $p|b$ but this is a contradiction because a and b were hypothesized to not have any common factors. Thus, there do not exist nonzero integers a and b such that $a^2 = pb^2$. $\square$

8. Let p be a prime, $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Find a formula for the largest power of p which divides $n! = n(n-1)(n-2)\ldots 2\cdot 1$ (it involves the greatest integer function).

Since p is prime and $p < n$, where $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ it must show up as one of the factors of $n! = n(n-1)(n-2)\ldots 2\cdot 1$, therefore, we can re-write this as $n! = p[n(n-1)(n-2)\ldots 2\cdot 1]$. But we forgot to also factor out all the multiples of p up to or less than n so the last expression would actually be something like $n! = p(2\cdot p)(3\cdot p)\ldots[n(n-1)(n-2)\ldots 2\cdot 1] = p(p)(p)\ldots[2\cdot 3\ldots n(n-1)(n-2)\ldots 2\cdot 1]$. We also need to continue this process of pulling out factors that are higher *powers* of p up to the point where p^i is less than or equal to n. The best way to see how many multiples of powers of p are less than or equal to n is by using the greatest integer function or what is commonly known in computer science as the *floor* function. This function will let us know how many factors of each powers of prime there are up to n.

For example, suppose $p = 2$ and $n = 27$:

$$\left\lfloor \frac{27}{2} \right\rfloor = 13, \left\lfloor \frac{27}{2^2} \right\rfloor = 6, \left\lfloor \frac{27}{2^3} \right\rfloor = 3, \left\lfloor \frac{27}{2^4} \right\rfloor = 1 \left\lfloor \frac{27}{2^5} \right\rfloor = 0$$

As we can see, the reason that 2^5 gave us 0 is because $2^5 > 27$. If we add up all these factors, this is the power that p divides $n!$. Therefore, a general formula for the largest power of p which divides $n!$ is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^i} \right\rfloor$$

This formula is called *Legendre's formula.*

9. Write a computer program to determine the greatest common divisor (a, b) of two integers a and b and to express (a, b) in the form $ax + by$ for some integers x and y.

Left to the reader.

10. Prove for any given positive integer N there exist only finitely many integers n with $\varphi(n) = N$ where φ denotes Euler's φ-function. Conclude in particular that φ tends to infinity as n tends to infinity.

Proof. Suppose we are given a positive integer N such that $\varphi(n) = N$.

Note that $n = p^\alpha \cdot k$ from some prime divisor p of n, where $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and $p^\alpha \nmid k$. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} &\varphi(n) = p^{\alpha-1}(p-1)\varphi(k) \\ \implies &\varphi(n) \geq p-1 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} &\varphi(n) > p^{\alpha-1} \\ \implies &N \geq p-1 \text{ and } N > p^{\alpha-1} \end{aligned}$$

for any prime divisor of n. As n grows there will be a point that these last inequalities will not hold because $p - 1 \geq N$ or $p^{\alpha-1} > N$. To demonstrate this, we can find an n where all integers above this value would give $\varphi(n) \neq N$.

Let's look for a number n that would satisfy this. Since $n = p^\alpha \cdot k$ let $k = 1$ so that $n = p^\alpha$. Then, $\varphi(n) = \varphi(p^\alpha) \implies N = p^{\alpha-1}(p-1)$ The smallest prime factor that an integer can have is 2. Therefore, let $p = 2$ such that $N = 2^{\alpha-1}(2-1) = 2^{\alpha-1} \implies 2N = 2^\alpha \implies \alpha = \log_2(2N)$. This gives us a lower bound for the value of alpha needed.

Now we need to find the base p of $n = p^\alpha$. We saw that $N = p^{\alpha-1}(p-1)$ and if $\alpha = 1$ we have $N = p-1 \implies p = N+1$. Therefore, $n > (N+1)^{\log_2(2N)}$ will give us an n that will suffice. Thus, for any given positive integer N there exist only finitely many integers n with $\varphi(n) = N$.

□

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(n) &= \varphi(p_1^{\alpha_1})\varphi(p_2^{\alpha_2})\ldots\varphi(p_s^{\alpha_s}) \\ &= p_1^{\alpha_1-1}(p_1-1)p_2^{\alpha_2-1}(p_2-1)\ldots p^{\alpha_s-1}(p_s-1) \\ &= p_1^{\alpha_1}\left(1-\frac{1}{p_1}\right)p_2^{\alpha_2}\left(1-\frac{1}{p_2}\right)\ldots p^{\alpha_s}\left(1-\frac{1}{p_s}\right) \\ &= p_1^{\alpha_1}p_2^{\alpha_2}\cdots p_s^{\alpha_s}\left(1-\frac{1}{p_1}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{p_2}\right)\cdots\left(1-\frac{1}{p_s}\right) \\ &= n\left(1-\frac{1}{p_1}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{p_2}\right)\cdots\left(1-\frac{1}{p_s}\right) \end{aligned}$$

From this last equation it is easy to see that φ tends to infinity as n tends to infinity.

11. Prove that if d divides n then $\varphi(d)$ divides $\varphi(n)$ where φ denotes Euler's φ-function.

Proof. If $d \mid n$ then $n = dc$ for some $c \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Therefore,

$$\varphi(n) = \varphi(dc) \implies \varphi(n) = \varphi(d)\varphi(c) \implies \varphi(d) \mid \varphi(n)$$

□

0.3 $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$: THE INTEGERS MODULO n

1. Write down explicitly all the elements in the residue classes of $\mathbb{Z}/18\mathbb{Z}$.

The residue classes of $\mathbb{Z}/18\mathbb{Z}$ are $\{\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \overline{2}, \overline{3}, \overline{4}, \overline{5}, \overline{6}, \overline{7}, \overline{8}, \overline{9}, \overline{10}, \overline{11}, \overline{12}, \overline{13}, \overline{14}, \overline{15}, \overline{16}, \overline{17}\}$ of which these elements have the representatives:

$$\begin{aligned}
\overline{0} &= \{0, 0 \pm 18, 0 \pm 36, \dots\} \\
\overline{1} &= \{1, 1 \pm 18, 1 \pm 36, \dots\} \\
\overline{2} &= \{2, 2 \pm 18, 2 \pm 36, \dots\} \\
\overline{3} &= \{3, 3 \pm 18, 3 \pm 36, \dots\} \\
\overline{4} &= \{4, 4 \pm 18, 4 \pm 36, \dots\} \\
\overline{5} &= \{5, 5 \pm 18, 5 \pm 36, \dots\} \\
\overline{6} &= \{6, 6 \pm 18, 6 \pm 36, \dots\} \\
\overline{7} &= \{7, 7 \pm 18, 7 \pm 36, \dots\} \\
\overline{8} &= \{8, 8 \pm 18, 8 \pm 36, \dots\} \\
\overline{9} &= \{9, 9 \pm 18, 9 \pm 36, \dots\} \\
\overline{10} &= \{10, 10 \pm 18, 10 \pm 36, \dots\} \\
\overline{11} &= \{11, 11 \pm 18, 11 \pm 36, \dots\} \\
\overline{12} &= \{12, 12 \pm 18, 12 \pm 36, \dots\} \\
\overline{13} &= \{13, 13 \pm 18, 13 \pm 36, \dots\} \\
\overline{14} &= \{14, 14 \pm 18, 14 \pm 36, \dots\} \\
\overline{15} &= \{15, 15 \pm 18, 15 \pm 36, \dots\} \\
\overline{16} &= \{16, 16 \pm 18, 16 \pm 36, \dots\} \\
\overline{17} &= \{17, 17 \pm 18, 17 \pm 36, \dots\}
\end{aligned}$$

2. Prove that the distinct equivalence classes in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ are precisely $\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \overline{2}, \dots, \overline{n-1}$ (use the Division Algorithm).

Proof. The distinct equivalence classes in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ are:

$$a \equiv r \pmod{n}$$

$$\text{for } n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \text{ and } a \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ where } r \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$$

Thus, $a \equiv r \pmod{n} \implies n \mid (a - r) \implies a - r = nq \implies a = nq + r$, which by the Division Algorithm and $r \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ give us the equations:

$$\begin{aligned}
a_0 &= nq + 0 \\
a_1 &= nq + 1 \\
a_2 &= nq + 2 \\
&\dots \\
a_{n-1} &= nq + (n-1)
\end{aligned}$$

Letting q iterate over $\mathbb{Z}$ we can write these n equations as $\overline{r} = \{r + qn \mid q \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ which are precisely $\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \overline{2}, \dots, \overline{n-1}$. $\square$

3. Prove that if $a = a_n 10^n + a_{n-1}10^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 10 + a_0$ is any positive integer then $a \equiv a_n + a_{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 + a_0 \pmod 9$ (note that this is the usual arithmetic rule that the remainder after division by 9 is the same as the sum of the decimal digits mod 9 - in particular an integer is divisible by 9 if and only if the sum of its digits is divisible by 9) [note that $10 \equiv 1 \pmod 9$].

Proof. Since $10 \equiv 1 \pmod 9$, then $10^2 \equiv 1^2 \pmod 9, 10^3 \equiv 1^3 \pmod 9, \ldots 10^n \equiv 1^n \pmod 9$. Therefore if we take each component of $a = a_n 10^n + a_{n-1}10^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 10 + a_0$ and seeing that in general $a_n 10^n \equiv a_n \pmod 9$ we have that:

$$a = a_n 10^n + a_{n-1}10^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 10 + a_0 \equiv a_n + a_{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 + a_0 \pmod 9$$ □

4. Compute the remainder when 37^{100} is divisible by 29.

Noting that $37^{14} \equiv -1 \pmod{29}$ we see that $37^{100} = 37^{14}37^{14}37^{14}37^{14}37^{14}37^{14}37^{14}37^{2} \equiv (-1)^7 6 \pmod{29} \implies 37^{100} \equiv -6 \pmod{29} \implies 23 \pmod{29}$. Therefore, the remainder is 23. Note that we could have also used *Fermat's Little Theorem* here since 29 is prime.

5. Compute the last two digits of 9^{1500}.

To compute the last two decimal digits of 9^{1500} we can take the mod of 100.

Since $9^{10} \equiv 1 \pmod{100}, 9^{20} \equiv 1 \pmod{100}, 9^{30} \equiv 1 \pmod{100}, \ldots$etc., we have that $9^{1500} \equiv 1 \pmod{100}$ and therefore the last two digits are 01.

6. Prove that the squares of the elements in $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$ are just $\overline{0}$ and $\overline{1}$.

Proof. The squares of the elements in $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$ are the squares of representatives of $\{\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \overline{2}, \overline{3}\}$.

Let's take a closer look:

$$\begin{aligned}
0^2 &\equiv 0 \pmod 4 \\
1^2 &\equiv 1 \pmod 4 \\
2^2 &\equiv 0 \pmod 4 \\
3^2 &\equiv 1 \pmod 4 \\
4^2 &\equiv 0 \pmod 4 \\
5^2 &\equiv 1 \pmod 4 \\
6^2 &\equiv 0 \pmod 4 \\
7^2 &\equiv 1 \pmod 4 \ldots
\end{aligned}$$

Which shows us that the squares are getting mapped to $\overline{0}$ and $\overline{1}$.

To make this more general, note that by definition $\overline{0} = \{0, 0 \pm 4, 0 \pm 8, \ldots\}$ and it is easy to see that if we take any multiple of 4 and square it, it will also be a multiple of 4 and therefore will have a remainder of 0 when divided by 4. A similar argument for $\overline{1}$ shows that the remainder will always be 1. For representatives from $\overline{2} = \{2, 2 \pm 4, 2 \pm 8, \ldots\}$, if squared we have $(2+4n)(2+4n) = 4 + 16n + 16n^2 = 4(1 + 4n + 4n^2)$ which is divisible by 4 so will have a remainder of 0. A similar argument for the squares of representatives from $\overline{3}$ shows that they will have a remainder of 1. Therefore, the square elements in $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$ are just $\overline{0}$ and $\overline{1}$. □

7. Prove for any integers a and b that $a^2 + b^2$ never leaves a remainder of 3 when divided by 4 (use the previous exercise).

Proof. We have seen above that any integer squared and divided by 4 will either leave a remainder of 1 or 0. Therefore, given two integers a and b, if we square them the remainders when divided by 4 can be 0 or 1. Therefore, when summed together we can get 0, 1, or 2. Therefore, $a^2 + b^2$ never leaves a remainder of 3 when divided by 4. $\square$

8. Prove that the equation $a^2 + b^2 = 3c^2$ has no solutions in nonzero integers a, b, c. [Consider the equation mod 4 as in the previous two exercises and show that a, b and c would all have to be divisible by 2. Then each of a^2, b^2 and c^2 has a factor of 4 and by dividing through by 4 show that there would be a smaller set of solutions to the original equation. Iterate to reach a contradiction.]

Proof. Suppose that the equation $a^2 + b^2 = 3c^2$ has solutions in nonzero integers. Using the above exercise we know that $a^2 + b^2$ can only have a remainder of 0, 1, or 2 when divided by 4.

Therefore, $a^2 + b^2 \equiv 0, 1, 2 \pmod 4 \implies 3c^2 \equiv 0, 1, 2 \pmod 4$ but since the integer solutions where considered nonzero $c \neq 0$. Additionally, we know that $c \neq 1$ as that would imply that $a^2 + b^2 = 3$ but if a and b are both 1 that would equal 2 and if any of them were larger than 1 than $a^2 + b^2$ would be 5 or greater. Thus, $3c^2 \equiv 2 \pmod 4 \implies a^2 + b^2 \equiv 2 \pmod 4$. Since both sides of $a^2 + b^2 = 3c^2$ are divisible by 4 the squares must have a factor of 2.

Thus, we can write $a^2 + b^2 = 3c^2$ as $4(k^2 + t^2) = 3(4)s^2$, where k, t, s are nonzero integers. Dividing the out the 4 from both sides we are left with $k^2 + t^2 = 3s^2$ but we can use the same argument for this equation as we did for the last and this process could be repeated indefinitely, which is absurd. Therefore the equation $a^2 + b^2 = 3c^2$ does not have nonzero integer solutions. (Note that this method of proof is called *proof by infinite decent* or *Fermat's method of descent*). $\square$

9. Prove that the square of any odd integer always leaves a remainder of 1 when divided by 8.

Proof. An odd integer can be represented by $2n + 1, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore, $(2n + 1)^2 = (2n + 1)(2n + 1) = 4n^2 + 4n + 1 = 4(n^2 + n) + 1$. n itself will either be an odd or even integer so we can represent this with:

$4((2k)^2+2k)+1 = 16k^2+8k+1 = 8(2k^2+k)+1$(for n an even integer with $k \in \mathbb{Z}$)$4((2t+1)^2+2t+1)+1 = 16t^2+24t+8+1 = 8(2$

Therefore, we have shown that the square of any odd integer always leaves a remainder of 1 when divided by 8 as the two above equations are $(2n + 1)^2 \equiv 1 \pmod 8$. $\square$

10. Prove that the number of elements of $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ is $\varphi(n)$ where φ denotes the Euler φ-function.

Proof. The residue classes of $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ are $\overline{a} = \{a + kn \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. Additionally, $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times = \{\overline{a} \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \mid$ there exists $\overline{c} \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ with $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{c} = \overline{1}\}$.

Therefore, $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{c} = \overline{1} \implies (a + kn)(c + gn) = 1 + sn$ for integers k, g, s.

$(a+kn)(c+gn) = 1+sn \implies ac+agn+ckn+kgn^2 = 1+sn \implies n(kng+ck+ag)+ac = 1+sn$ so that:

$$ac + n(kng + ck + ag - s) = 1 \implies (a, n) = 1 \text{ and } (c, n) = 1$$

This shows us that representatives of the elements of $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ are relatively prime with n. Therefore, the amount of elements of $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ will be equal to the number of elements that have representatives relatively prime to n which is equal to $\varphi(n)$ by definition. $\square$

11. Prove that if $\overline{a}, \overline{b} \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$, then $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$.

Proof. If $\overline{a} \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ and $\overline{b} \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$, then we know that there exists $\overline{c}$ and $\overline{d}$ such that $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{c} = \overline{1}$ and $\overline{b} \cdot \overline{d} = \overline{1}$ so that:

$$(\overline{a} \cdot \overline{c})(\overline{b} \cdot \overline{d}) = \overline{1} \cdot \overline{1} \implies (\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b})(\overline{c} \cdot \overline{d}) = \overline{1} \cdot \overline{1}$$

Therefore, if we can show that $\overline{1} \cdot \overline{1} = \overline{1}$, then by definition $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b}$ and $\overline{c} \cdot \overline{d}$ will be elements in $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$.

$$\overline{1} \cdot \overline{1} = (1 + kn)(1 + sn) \text{ for some } k, s \in \mathbb{Z} \implies 1 + sn + kn + skn^2 \implies 1 + n(s + k + skn) \implies \overline{1} \cdot \overline{1} \in \overline{1}$$

Thus we have shown that if $\overline{a}, \overline{b} \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$, then $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$. $\square$

12. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}, n > 1$, and let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $1 \leq a \leq n$. Prove if a and n are not relatively prime, there exists an integer b with $1 \leq b < n$ such that $ab \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ and deduce that there cannot be an integer c such that $ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

Proof. Since a and n are relatively prime, they have a common divisor. Therefore, $a = mx$ and $n = bx$, with $b, m, x \in \mathbb{Z}$. Thus, $ba = bmx = mn \implies ab \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$

Suppose there is a $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. Then this means $ac = 1 + kn$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. $ac = 1 + kn \implies bac = b(1 + kn) \implies b = mnc - bkn \implies b = n(mc - bk)$, which implies that b is a multiply of n which is a contradiction with $1 \leq b < n$. Therefore, there cannot be an integer c such that $ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. $\square$

13. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}, n > 1$, and let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $1 \leq a \leq n$. Prove if a and n are relatively prime then there is an integer c such that $ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ [use the fact that the g.c.d of two integers is a $\mathbb{Z}$-linear combination of the integers].

Proof. Since $(a, n) = 1 \implies ac + nb = 1$ for $b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. Thus, $ac + nb = 1 \implies ac - 1 = n(-b) \implies ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. $\square$

14. Conclude from the previous two exercises that $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ is the set of elements $\overline{a}$ of $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ with $(a, n) = 1$ and hence prove Proposition 4. Verify this directly in the case $n = 12$.

Proof. From the previous two exercises the only way we can have $ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ is if a and n are relatively prime (exercise 13) because when they are not relatively prime we showed that there cannot be a c that meets this criteria. Therefore, the representatives of $\overline{a}$ and $\overline{c}$ in the definition of $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ must be relatively prime to n so that we arrive at Proposition 4. $\square$

15. For each of the following pairs of integers a and n, show that a is relatively prime to n and determine the multiplicative inverse of $\overline{a}$ in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$.

(a) $a = 13, n = 20$.

$$\begin{aligned} 20 &= 13(1) + 7 \\ 13 &= 7(1) + 6 \\ 7 &= 6(1) + 1 \\ \overline{17} & \end{aligned}$$

(b) $a = 69, n = 89$.

$$\begin{aligned} 89 &= 69(1) + 20 \\ 69 &= 20(3) + 9 \end{aligned}$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
20 &= 9(2) + 2 \\
9 &= 2(4) + 1
\end{aligned}
$$

$$\overline{40}$$

(c) $a = 1891, n = 3797.$

$$
\begin{aligned}
3797 &= 1891(2) + 15 \\
1891 &= 15(126) + 1
\end{aligned}
$$

$$\overline{253}$$

(d) $a = 6003722857, n = 77695236973.$

$$
\begin{aligned}
77695236973 &= 6003722857(12) + 5650562689 \\
6003722857 &= 5650562689(1) + 353160168 \\
5650562689 &= 353160168(16) + 1
\end{aligned}
$$

$$\overline{77695236753}$$

16. Write a computer program to add and multiply mod n, for any n given as input. The output of these operations should be the least residues of the sums and products of the two integers. Also include the feature that if $(a, n) = 1$, an integer c between 1 and $n - 1$ such that $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{c} = \overline{1}$ may be printed on request. (Your program should not, of course, simply quote "mod" functions already built into many systems).

Left to the reader.