

Solutions to Homework Set 3
(Solutions to Homework Problems from Chapter 2)

Problems from §2.1

2.1.1. Prove that $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ if and only if a and b leave the same remainder when divided by n .

Proof.

\Rightarrow

Suppose $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$. Then, by definition, we have

$$a - b = nk$$

for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Now by the Division Algorithm, a and b can be written uniquely in form

$$(1) \quad \begin{aligned} a &= nq + r \\ b &= nq' + r' \end{aligned}$$

with $0 \leq r, r' < n$. But then

$$(2) \quad a = b + nk = (nq' + r') + nk = n(q' + k) + r'$$

Comparing (1) and (2) we have

$$\begin{aligned} a &= nq + r & , & & 0 \leq r < n \\ a &= n(q' + k) + r' & , & & 0 \leq r' < n \end{aligned}$$

By the uniqueness property of the division algorithm, we must therefore have $r = r'$. □

\Leftarrow

If a and b leave the same remainder when divided by n then we have

$$\begin{aligned} a &= nq + r \\ b &= nq' + r \end{aligned}$$

Subtracting these two equations yields

$$a - b = n(q - q') \quad ,$$

so

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n} \quad .$$

□

2.1.2. If $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, prove that a^2 is not congruent to 2 modulo 4 or to 3 modulo 4.

• *Proof.*

By the Division Algorithm any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ must have one of the following forms

$$a = \begin{cases} 4k \\ 4k + 1 \\ 4k + 2 \\ 4k + 3 \end{cases}$$

This implies

$$a^2 = \begin{cases} 16k^2 = 4(4k^2) = 4q \\ 16k^2 + 8k + 1 = 4(4k^2 + 2k) + 1 = 4r + 1 \\ 4(4k^2 + 16k + 4) = 4(4k^2 + 8k + 1) = 4s \\ 16k^2 + 24k + 9 = 4(4k^2 + 6k + 2) + 1 = 4t + 1 \end{cases}$$

So

$$a^2 \equiv \begin{cases} 0 \pmod{4} \\ 1 \pmod{4} \end{cases} .$$

□

2.1.3. If a, b are integers such that $a \equiv b \pmod{p}$ for every positive prime p , prove that $a = b$.

- *Proof.* Since the set of prime numbers in \mathbb{Z} is infinite, we can always find a prime number p larger than any given number. In particular we can find a prime number p such that

$$0 \leq |a - b| < p .$$

Now by hypothesis, we have, for this prime p ,

$$a - b = kp$$

for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ (by the definition of congruence modulo p). Thus, p divides $|a - b|$. But 0 is the only non-negative number less than p that is also divisible by p . Thus, $|a - b| = 0$ or $a = b$. □

2.1.4. Which of the following congruences have solutions:

(a) $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$

- We need

$$x^2 - 1 = 3k$$

By the Division Algorithm, x must have one of three forms

$$x = \begin{cases} 3t \\ 3t + 1 \\ 3t + 2 \end{cases} \Rightarrow x^2 - 1 = \begin{cases} 9t^2 - 1 \\ 9t^2 + 6t \\ 9t^2 + 12t + 3 \end{cases}$$

Thus, if x has the form $x = 3t + 1$, then $x^2 - 1 = 3(3t^2 + 2t)$ and so $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. □

(b) $x^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$

- We need

$$x^2 - 2 = 3k$$

By the Division Algorithm, x must have one of the seven forms

$$x = \begin{cases} 7k \\ 7k + 1 \\ 7k + 2 \\ 7k + 3 \\ 7k + 4 \\ 7k + 5 \\ 7k + 6 \end{cases} \Rightarrow x^2 - 1 = \begin{cases} 49k^2 - 2 & = 7(7k^2) + 2 \\ 49k^2 + 14k - 1 & = 7(7k^2 + 2k - 1) + 6 \\ 49k^2 + 28k + 2 & = 7(7k^2 + 4k) + 2 \\ 49k^2 + 42k + 7 & = 7(7k^2 + 6k + 1) \\ 49k^2 + 70k + 14 & = 7(7k^2 + 8k + 2) \\ 49k^2 + 70k + 23 & = 7(7k^2 + 10k + 3) + 2 \\ 49k^2 + 84 + 34 & = 7(7k^2 + 12k + 4) + 6 \end{cases}$$

Thus, if x has the form $x = 7k + 3$ or the form $x = 7k + 4$, then $x^2 - 2$ is an integer multiple of 7 and so $x^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$. □

(c) $x^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{11}$

- This is best handled by trial and error. In order for $x^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{11}$, we need

$$x^2 - 3 = 11k$$

for some choice of integers x and k . For $x = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4$ there is no such k ; but for $x = 5$ we have

$$5^2 - 3 = 22 = 2 \cdot 11 ,$$

so $x = 5$ is a solution. $x = 6$ is also a solution since

$$6^2 - 3 = 33 = 3 \cdot 11 \quad .$$

□

2.1.5. If $[a] = [b]$ in \mathbb{Z}_n , prove that $GCD(a, n) = GCD(b, n)$.

• *Proof.*

Since $[a] = [b]$, $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ by Theorem 2.3. But then by the definition of congruence modulo n

$$a - b = nk$$

for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. But this implies

$$a = nk + b \quad .$$

Now we apply Lemma 1.7 (if $x, y, q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $x = yq + r$, then $GCD(x, y) = GCD(y, r)$ taking $x = a$ and $y = n$. Thus,

$$GCD(a, n) = GCD(n, b) \quad .$$

□

2.1.6. If $GCD(a, n) = 1$, prove that there is an integer b such that $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

• *Proof.*

Since $GCD(a, n) = 1$, we know by Theorem 1.3 that there exist integers u and v such that

$$au + nv = 1 \quad .$$

Hence

$$au - 1 = -nv \quad .$$

If we now set $b = u$ and $k = -v$ we have

$$ab - 1 = nk$$

which means that $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

□

2.1.7. Prove that if $p \geq 5$ and p is prime then either $[p]_6 = [1]_6$ or $[p]_6 = [5]_6$.

• Let p be a prime ≥ 5 . Then p is not divisible by 2 or 3. Now consider the *a priori* possible congruency classes of $[p]_6$: viz.,

$$\mathbb{Z}_6 = \{[0]_6, [1]_6, [2]_6, [3]_6, [4]_6, [5]_6\}$$

one by one. $[p]_6$ cannot be $[0]_6$ since p is not divisible by 6. For

$$p \in [0]_6 \implies p \equiv 0 \pmod{6} \implies p - 0 = k6 \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z} \implies 6 \mid p \text{ (contradiction!)}$$

Similarly,

$$p - 2 = k6 \implies p = k6 - 2 = 2(3k - 1) \implies 2 \mid p \text{ (contradiction!)}$$

$$p \in [3]_6 \implies p - 3 = k'6 \implies p = 3(2k' - 1) \implies 3 \mid p \text{ (contradiction!)}$$

and

$$p \in [4]_6 \implies p - 4 = k''6 \implies p = 2(2k'' - 2) \implies 2 \mid p \text{ (contradiction!)}$$

The only possibilities left are $[p]_6 = [1]_6$ and $[p]_6 = [5]_6$.

□

Problems from §2.2

2.2.1. Write out the addition and multiplication tables for \mathbb{Z}_4 .

Addition in \mathbb{Z}_4

	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[0]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[1]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[0]
[2]	[2]	[3]	[0]	[1]
[3]	[3]	[0]	[1]	[2]

Multiplication in \mathbb{Z}_4

	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]
[1]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[2]	[0]	[1]	[0]	[2]
[3]	[0]	[3]	[2]	[1]

2.2.2. Prove or disprove: If $ab = 0$ in \mathbb{Z}_n , then $a = 0$ or $b = 0$.

- Disproof by Counter-Example

Consider multiplication in \mathbb{Z}_4 as given in the previous problem. One has $[2] \cdot [2] = [0]$, but $[2] \neq [0]$ in \mathbb{Z}_4 . □

2.2.3 Prove that if p is prime then the only solutions of $x^2 + x = 0$ in \mathbb{Z}_p are 0 and $p - 1$.

- *Proof.*

Let us revert to the original explicit notation for elements of \mathbb{Z}_p . We want to prove

$$(3) \quad ([x] \odot [x]) \oplus [x] = [0] \quad (\text{in } \mathbb{Z}_p) \quad \Rightarrow \quad [x] = [0] \text{ or } [p-1] \quad .$$

Now, by the definition of addition and multiplication in \mathbb{Z}_p statement (??) is equivalent to

$$[x(x-1)] = [0] \quad \Rightarrow \quad [x] = [0] \text{ or } [p-1] \quad .$$

Now if the congruence class in \mathbb{Z}_p of $x^2 + x$ is the same as that of 0, then the difference between $x^2 + x$ and 0 must be divisible by p . Hence, p divides $x^2 + x - 0 = x^2 + x$. Now

$$x^2 + x = x(x+1) \quad .$$

Since p is prime, and p divides $x(x+1)$, p must divide either x or $x+1$ (by Corollary 1.9). If p divides x , then $qp = x = x - 0$ so x is in the same congruence class as 0; i.e., $[x] = [0]$. If p does not divide x , then it must divide $x+1$; so

$$\begin{aligned} x+1 &= q'p \\ \Rightarrow [x] &= [-1] = [p-1] \quad . \end{aligned}$$

□

2.2.4. Find all $[a]$ in \mathbb{Z}_5 for which the equation $ax = 1$ has a solution.

- Let us write down the multiplication table for \mathbb{Z}_5 .

$$\begin{array}{cccccc}
 & [0] & [1] & [2] & [3] & [4] \\
 [0] & [0] & [0] & [0] & [0] & [0] \\
 [1] & [0] & [1] & [2] & [3] & [4] \\
 [2] & [0] & [2] & [4] & [1] & [3] \\
 [3] & [0] & [3] & [1] & [4] & [2] \\
 [4] & [0] & [4] & [3] & [2] & [1]
 \end{array}$$

So we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 [1] \odot [1] &= 1 \\
 [2] \odot [3] &= 1 \\
 [4] \odot [4] &= 1
 \end{aligned}$$

so if $a = [1], [2], [3],$ or $[4]$ then $ax = 1$ has a solution in \mathbb{Z}_5 . □

2.2.5. Prove that there is no ordering \prec of \mathbb{Z}_n such that

- (i) if $a \prec b$, and $b \prec c$, then $a \prec c$;
- (ii) if $a \prec b$, then $a + c \prec b + c$ for every $c \in \mathbb{Z}_n$.

• *Proof.*

By an ordering on \mathbb{Z}_n we mean a rule that tells you whether or not pairs of elements of \mathbb{Z}_n . In addition to the conditions given above, we must assume that the ordering is *complete* in the sense that if $a \neq b$ then either $a \prec b$ or $b \prec a$.

So assume we have such a relation on \mathbb{Z}_n . Since $[0]$ and $[1]$ are distinct congruacy classes in \mathbb{Z}_n , we must then have either $[0] \prec [1]$ or $[1] \prec [0]$.

Assume $[0] \prec [1]$. Then by property (ii) we must have

$$[0] + [c] \prec [1] + [c] \quad , \quad \forall [c] \in \mathbb{Z}_n \quad .$$

Since $[0] + [c] = [c]$ and $[1] + [c] = [c + 1]$, we then have

$$[c] \prec [c + 1] \quad , \quad \forall [c] \in \mathbb{Z}_n \quad .$$

Thus,

$$(4) \quad [0] \prec [1] \prec [2] \prec \cdots \prec [n - 1] \prec [n] \prec [n + 1] \cdots \quad .$$

Applying Property (i) recursively,

$$\begin{aligned}
 [1] \prec [2] \text{ and } [2] \prec [3] &\Rightarrow [1] \prec [3] \\
 [1] \prec [3] \text{ and } [3] \prec [4] &\Rightarrow [1] \prec [4] \\
 [1] \prec [4] \text{ and } [4] \prec [5] &\Rightarrow [1] \prec [5]
 \end{aligned}$$

etc.,

we can conclude that $[1] \prec [n]$. But $[n] = [0]$ in \mathbb{Z}_n . So $[1] \prec [0]$. But this contradicts our assumption that $[0] \prec [1]$. Hence no such ordering exists.

The case when $[1] \prec [0]$ is treated similarly. □

Problems from §2.3

2.3.1 If n is composite, prove that there exists $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ such that $a \neq [0]$ and $b \neq [0]$ but $ab = [0]$.

• *Proof.*

Assume n to be positive (otherwise, we have to define \mathbb{Z}_n for $n < 0$; which can be done, but with no particular gain). If n is composite then n has a factorization

$$n = pq$$

with

$$1 < p \leq q < n \quad .$$

In view of the inequality above n does not divide p nor does n divide q , so

$$[p] \neq [0] \quad \text{and} \quad [q] \neq [0] \quad .$$

However,

$$[p][q] = [pq] = [n] = [0] \quad .$$

Setting $a = [p]$ and $b = [q]$ we arrive at the desired conclusion. \square

2.3.2 Let p be prime and assume that $a \neq 0$ in \mathbb{Z}_p . Prove that for any $b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$, the equation $ax = b$ has a solution.

• *Proof.*

By Theorem 2.8, the equation $ax' = 1$ always has a solution in \mathbb{Z}_p , for every $a \neq [0]$ if p is prime. Multiplying both sides by $b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$, yields

$$bax' = b$$

Setting $x = bx'$ we see that every $b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ has a factorization

$$b = ax$$

for every $[a] \neq [0]$ in \mathbb{Z}_p . \square

2.3.3. Let $a \neq [0]$ in \mathbb{Z}_n . Prove that $ax = [0]$ has a nonzero solution in \mathbb{Z}_n if and only if $ax = [1]$ has no solution.

• *Proof.*

\Rightarrow

Suppose $a \neq [0]$, $b \neq [0]$ and that $ab = [0]$. We aim to show that $ax = [1]$ has no solution. We will use a proof by contradiction. Suppose c is a solution of $ax = [1]$. Then

$$b = b \cdot 1 = b(ac) = (ab)c = [0] \cdot c = 0 \quad .$$

But this contradicts our original hypothesis that b is a **nonzero** solution of $ax = [0]$. Hence, there can be no solution of $ax = [1]$.

\Leftarrow

Suppose $a \neq [0]$ and $ax = [1]$ has no solution. We aim to show that $ax = [0]$ has a nonzero solution in \mathbb{Z}_n . Let z be the integer, lying between 1 and $n - 1$ representing the congruence class of $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$; i.e.,

$$[z] = a \quad .$$

We first note that, by Corollary 2.9, $GCD(z, n) = 1$ if and only if $ax = [1]$ has a solution in \mathbb{Z}_n . Since the latter is not so, $GCD(z, n) \neq 1$ and so z and n must share a common divisor greater than 1, call it t . We thus have

$$z = rt \quad , \quad n = st \quad .$$

By construction $1 \leq s < n$, and so the congruence class of s is not equal to $[0]$. But

$$a[s] = [z][s] = [rt][s] = [r][st] = [r][0] = [0] \quad .$$

Hence, $[s]$ is a nonzero solution of $ax = [0]$ in \mathbb{Z}_n . \square

2.3.4. Solve the following equations.

(a) $12x = 2$ in \mathbb{Z}_{19} .

- The fastest approach to this problem might be trial and error. Simply compute the multiples $0 \cdot 12$, $1 \cdot 12$, \dots , $18 \cdot 12$ and figure out which of these products have remainder 2 when divided by 19. Then we'd have

$$k \cdot 12 = q \cdot 19 + 2$$

or

$$2 \equiv k \cdot 12 \pmod{19}$$

and so

$$[12]_{19} [k]_{19} = [2]_{19}$$

hence the solution of

$$[12]_{19} X = [2]_{19}$$

will be $[k]_{19}$. Such a trial and error procedure reveals

$$192 = (10)(19) + 2 \Rightarrow [12]_{19} [16]_{19} = [2]_{19} \Rightarrow x = [16]_{19}$$

- Next, we give a more systematic approach which is also applicable for large integers (where the trial and error procedure because tedious if not impractical). Apply the Euclidean Algorithm to the pair $(19, 12)$.

$$\begin{aligned} 19 &= (1)(12) + 7 \\ 12 &= (1)(7) + 5 \\ 7 &= (1)(5) + 2 \\ 5 &= (2)(2) + 1 \\ 1 &= (1)(1) + 0 \end{aligned}$$

The point here is not to figure out the GCD of 19 and 12 (which is obviously 1 since 19 is prime), but to obtain a useful arrangement of substitutions what will allow us to express 1 as an integer linear combination of 19 and 12. That is to find numbers u and v so that

$$1 = u(19) + v(12)$$

The utility of this equation will become clear once we get a suitable choice of v and u .

We re-write the sequence of Euclidean Algorithm equations so the remainders are isolated on the left hand side

$$1 = 5 - (2)(2) \tag{a}$$

$$2 = 7 - (1)(5) = 7 - 5 \tag{b}$$

$$5 = 12 - (1)(7) = 12 - 7 \tag{c}$$

$$7 = 19 - (1)(12) = 19 - 12 \tag{d}$$

Now the idea is to use back substitution to eliminate all the intermediary remainders: substituting the right hand side of (d) for the number 7 in (c) yields

$$(e) \quad 5 = 12 - (19 - 12) = (2)(12) - 19$$

We've now expressed 7 and 5 in the form $12u + 19v$. Substituting the right hand sides of (d) and (e) into (b) yields

$$(f) \quad 2 = (19 - 12) - ((2)(12) - 19) = (2)(19) - (3)(12)$$

Finally, we substitute the right hand sides of (e) and (f) into (a) to get

$$1 = ((2)(12) - 19) - 2((2)(19) - (3)(12)) = (-5)(19) + (8)(12)$$

The last equality just being a check on our calculation. We now have

$$(12)(8) - (5)(19) = 1$$

Taking congruence classes of both sides modulo 19 we get

$$[12]_{19} [8]_{19} - [5]_{19} [19]_{19} = [1]_{19}$$

or since $[19]_{19} = 0$,

$$[12]_{19} [8]_{19} = [1]_{19} \quad .$$

Now simply multiply both sides by $[2]_{19}$, to obtain

$$[2]_{19} [12]_{19} [8]_{19} = [2]_{19} [1]_{19}$$

or using $[2]_{19} [8]_{19} = [16]_{19}$, and $[2]_{19} [1]_{19} = [2]_{19}$

$$[12]_{19} [16]_{19} = [2]_{19}$$

Thus,

$$X = [16]_{19}$$

is the solution to

$$[12]_{19} X = [2]_{19} \quad .$$

□

(b) $7x = 2$ in \mathbb{Z}_{24} .

- Either method used in part (a) will produce

$$(7)(14) = 98 = (4)(24) + 2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad [7]_{24} [14]_{24} = [2]_{24} \quad \Rightarrow \quad x = [14]_{24}$$

□

(c) $31x = 1$ in \mathbb{Z}_{50} .

- Either method used in part (a) will produce

$$(31)(20) = 651 = (7)(50) + 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad [31]_{50} [20]_{50} = [1]_{50} \quad \Rightarrow \quad x = [20]_{50}$$

□

(d) $34x = 1$ in \mathbb{Z}_{97} .

- Here only the second method of part (a) is actually practical. We'll do the calculation explicitly. First we apply the Euclidean algorithm to the pair $(97, 34)$.

$$97 = (2)(34) + 29$$

$$34 = (1)(29) + 5$$

$$29 = (5)(5) + 4$$

$$5 = (1)(4) + 1$$

Now we back-substitute to express 1 as an integer linear combination of 97 and 34. We have

$$1 = 5 - (1)(4) \tag{a}$$

$$4 = 29 - (5)(5) \tag{b}$$

$$5 = 34 - (1)(29) \tag{c}$$

$$29 = 97 - (2)(34) \tag{d}$$

and so

$$29 = 1 \cdot 97 - 2 \cdot 34$$

$$5 = 34 - 1 \cdot 29 = 34 - (1 \cdot 97 - 2 \cdot 34) = -97 + 3 \cdot 34$$

$$4 = 29 - 5 \cdot 5 = (97 - 2 \cdot 34) - 5(-97 + 3 \cdot 34) = 6 \cdot 97 - 17 \cdot 34$$

$$1 = 5 - 4 = (-97 + 3 \cdot 34) - (6 \cdot 97 - 17 \cdot 34)$$

$$= -7 \cdot 97 + 20 \cdot 34$$

or

$$20 \cdot 34 - 7 \cdot 97 = 1$$

So

$$1 \equiv (20)(34) \pmod{97}$$

so

$$[34]_{97} [20]_{97} = [1]_{97}$$

and so $[20]_{97}$ is the solution of

$$[34]_{97} X = [1]_{97}$$

□