**1.** Squares Mod 4. Every integer  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  has a unique "remainder mod 4." Let us use the notation  $(n \mod 4) \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$  to denote this remainder.

- (a) For all  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ , show that  $(x^2 \mod 4) \in \{0, 1\}$ . [Hint: There are four kinds of integers. Square them all and see what you get.]
- (b) Let  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$  be integers satisfying the equation

$$x^2 + y^2 = z^2.$$

Prove that at least one of x, y must be even. [Hint: Assume for contradiction that x and y are both odd, which implies that  $x^2$  and  $y^2$  are both odd. Now use part (a) to get a contradiction.]

(a) Let  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$  be any integer. By the Division Theorem, we know that the remainder  $(x \mod 4)$  is in the set  $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ . In other words, we know that x has one of the following forms:

- If  $(x \mod 4) = 0$  then x = 4k + 0 for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
- If  $(x \mod 4) = 1$  then x = 4k + 1 for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
- If  $(x \mod 4) = 2$  then x = 4k + 2 for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
- If  $(x \mod 4) = 3$  then x = 4k + 3 for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Let us square all four kinds of numbers and see what happens:

• If  $(x \mod 4) = 0$  then

$$x^{2} = (4k+0)^{2} = 16k^{2} = 4(4k^{2}) + 0,$$

and hence  $(x^2 \mod 4) = 0$ .

• If  $(x \mod 4) = 1$  then

$$x^{2} = (4k+1)^{2} = 16k^{2} + 8k + 1 = 4(4k^{2} + 2k) + 1,$$

and hence  $(x^2 \mod 4) = 1$ .

• If  $(x \mod 4) = 2$  then

$$x^{2} = (4k+2)^{2} = 16k^{2} + 16k + 4 = 4(4k^{2} + 4k + 1) + 0,$$

- and hence  $(x^2 \mod 4) = 0$ .
- If  $(x \mod 4) = 3$  then

$$x^{2} = (4k+3)^{2} = 16k^{2} + 24k + 9 = 4(4k^{2} + 12k + 2) + 1,$$

and hence  $(x^2 \mod 4) = 1$ .

In any case, we find that  $(x^2 \mod 4) \in \{0,1\}$ . More precisely, we can say that

$$\begin{array}{l} (x \text{ is even}) \iff (x^2 \mod 4) = 0, \\ (x \text{ is odd}) \iff (x^2 \mod 4) = 1. \end{array}$$

(b) Proof: Suppose that integers  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$  satisfy the equation

$$x^2 + y^2 = z^2,$$

and let us **assume for contradiction** that both x and y are odd. From part (a) this implies that  $(x^2 \mod 4) = 1$  and  $(y^2 \mod 4) = 1$ , hence there exist integers  $k, \ell \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$x^2 = 4k + 1$$
 and  $y^2 = 4\ell + 1$ .

But then the equation

$$z^{2} = x^{2} + y^{2} = (4k + 1) + (4\ell + 1) = 4(k + \ell) + 2$$

implies that  $(z^2 \mod 4) = 2$ , which is a contradiction to part (a).

## 2. Euclidean Algorithm.

- (a) Apply the Euclidean Algorithm to compute the greatest common divisor of 62 and 24.
- (b) Apply the Extended Euclidean Algorithm to find all **integer** solutions  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  to the linear equation

$$62x + 24y = 4.$$

Hint: You need to find the complete solution of the "homogeneous" equation

$$62x_0 + 24y_0 = 0,$$

and one particular solution of the "non-homogeneous" equation

$$62x' + 24y' = 4.$$

Then the complete solution is  $x = x_0 + x'$  and  $y = y_0 + y'$ .

I will do parts (a) and (b) at the same time. Let us consider the set of triples  $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Z}^3$  that satisfy the equation 62x + 24y = z. We begin with the basic triples (1, 0, 62) and (0, 1, 24) and then apply the Euclidean Algorithm:

The smallest non-zero remainder is the greatest common divisor:

$$gcd(62, 24) = 2.$$

Since the gcd divides 4, we can multiply Row 6 by 2 to obtain a particular solution (x', y') = (-10, 26):

$$62(-5) + 42(13) = 2$$
  

$$62(-5 \cdot 2) + 42(13 \cdot 2) = 2 \cdot 2$$
  

$$62(-10) + 42(26) = 4.$$

And multiplying Row 7 by an arbitrary integer  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  gives the homogeneous solution  $(x_0, y_0) = (12k, -13k)$ :

$$62(12) + 42(-31) = 0$$
  

$$62(12 \cdot k) + 42(-31 \cdot k) = 0 \cdot k$$
  

$$62(12k) + 42(-31k) = 0.$$

Adding these gives the complete solution:

$$62(-10) + 42(26) = 4$$
  
+ 
$$62(12k) + 42(-31k) = 0$$
  
$$62(-10 + 12k) + 42(26 - 31k) = 4.$$

In other words, the complete solution is

$$(x,y) = (x' + x_0, y' + y_0) = (-10 + 12k, 26 - 13k)$$
 for any  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**3.** Divisibility. For all integers  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  we define the divisibility relation as follows:

"a divides b" = "a|b" = " $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, ak = b$ ."

Let  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$  and prove the following properties of divisibility.

- (a) If a|b and b|c then a|c.
- (b) If a|b and a|c then a|(bx + cy) for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
- (c) If a|b and b|a then  $a = \pm b$ .

(a) If a|b and b|c then there exist integers  $k, \ell \in \mathbb{Z}$  with

$$b = ak$$
 and  $c = b\ell$ .

But then we have

$$c = b\ell = (ak)\ell = a(k\ell),$$

which implies that a|c.

(b) If a|b and a|c then there exist integers  $k, \ell \in \mathbb{Z}$  with

b = ak and  $c = a\ell$ .

Then for any integers  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have

$$bx + cy = (ak)x + (a\ell)y = a(kx + \ell y),$$

which implies that a|(bx + cy).

(c) First let me repeat an observation from class:

If a|b and  $b \neq 0$  then  $|a| \leq |b|$ .

To see this, suppose that a|b and  $b \neq 0$ . Since a|b we have b = ak for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  and then since  $b \neq 0$  we also have  $k \neq 0$ . But then since k is a whole number and since |a| is positive we have

$$1 \le |k|$$
$$|a| \le |a| \cdot |k|$$
$$|a| \le |a \cdot k|$$
$$|a| \le |b|.$$

Now we solve part (c). Let a|b and b|a so that a = bk and  $b = a\ell$  for some integers  $k, \ell \in \mathbb{Z}$ . If a = 0 then  $b = a\ell = 0\ell = 0$  and if b = 0 then a = bk = 0k = 0. In either case the equation  $a = \pm b$  is true. Otherwise, let us assume that  $a \neq 0$  and  $b \neq 0$ . Then

$$a|b \text{ and } b \neq 0 \text{ implies } |a| \leq |b|$$

$$b|a \text{ and } a \neq 0 \text{ implies } |b| \leq |a|.$$

We conclude that

$$|a| = |b|$$

as desired.

**4. Euclid's Lemma.** Let  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$  and prove the following:

if 
$$a|bc$$
 and  $gcd(a, b) = 1$  then  $a|c$ .

Hint: If gcd(a,b) = 1 then one may use the Extended Euclidean Algorithm to find some integers  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  satisfying

$$ax + by = 1$$

Multiply both sides of this equation by c and see what happens.

*Proof:* Consider integers  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$  with a|(bc) and gcd(a, b) = 1. Since a|(bc) there exists an integer  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$bc = ak$$

and since gcd(a, b) = 1 there exist integers  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  (from the Euclidean Algorithm) such that ax + by = 1.

Then multiplying both sides by c gives

$$1 = ax + by$$
  

$$c = c(ax + by)$$
  

$$= cax + (bc)y$$
  

$$= cax + (ak)y$$
  

$$= a(cx + ky),$$

and hence a|c.

**Remark.** You might see Euclid's Lemma stated in a slightly different form. Consider integers  $a, b, p \in \mathbb{Z}$  where p is **prime**. Then the following is true:

If p|(ab) then p|a or p|b.

After a bit of work, this result leads to the theorem that every integer has a "unique prime factorization."