

1. Equivalence mod n . Let S be a set. For each pair $(x, y) \in S^2$ we define $x \sim y$ to be either true or false, and we will usually write $x \sim y$ as shorthand for “ $x \sim y$ is true”. We say that \sim is an **equivalence relation** if

- $x \sim x$ for all $x \in S$,
- $x \sim y$ implies $y \sim x$ for all $x, y \in S$,
- $x \sim y$ and $y \sim z$ imply $x \sim z$ for all $x, y, z \in S$.

Now let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ be a **nonzero** integer. For all $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ we will write $x \sim_n y$ to mean that n divides $x - y$ (i.e., there exists $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x - y = nk$). Prove that \sim_n is an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} .

Proof. First, consider any integer $x \in \mathbb{Z}$. Since $x - x = 0 = n \cdot 0$ we conclude that $x \sim_n x$.

Second, consider any integers $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ and assume that $x \sim_n y$, i.e., assume that there exists $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x - y = nk$. Then we have $y - x = -(x - y) = -nk = n(-k)$, and hence $y \sim_n x$.

Third, consider any integers $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$ and assume that $x \sim_n y$ and $y \sim_n z$. In other words, assume that there exist $k, \ell \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x - y = nk$ and $y - z = n\ell$. Adding these two equations gives

$$x - z = (x - y) + (y - z) = nk + n\ell = n(k + \ell),$$

hence $x \sim_n z$. We conclude that \sim_n is an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} . □

2. Primitive Roots of Unity. Consider a positive integer $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let $\omega = e^{2\pi i/n}$.

- Prove that $\omega^k = \omega^\ell$ if and only if $k \sim_n \ell$ (as in Problem 1).
- Given an integer k , let m be the smallest positive integer such that $(\omega^k)^m = 1$. Show that $m = \text{lcm}(k, n)/k$.
- Prove that ω^k is a primitive n th root of 1 if and only if $\text{gcd}(k, n) = 1$. [Hint: $\text{gcd}(k, n) = kn/\text{lcm}(k, n)$.]

Proof. For part (a), first recall that $e^{i\theta} = 1$ if and only if $\theta = 2\pi m$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \omega^k = \omega^\ell &\iff \omega^k / \omega^\ell = 1 \\ &\iff \omega^{k-\ell} = 1 \\ &\iff e^{2\pi i(k-\ell)/n} = 1 \\ &\iff 2\pi(k-\ell)/n = 2\pi m \text{ for some } m \in \mathbb{Z} \\ &\iff k - \ell = nm \text{ for some } m \in \mathbb{Z} \\ &\iff k \sim_n \ell. \end{aligned}$$

For part (b), let m be the **smallest positive integer** such that $(\omega^k)^m = 1$. Note from part (a) that

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\omega^k)^m = 1 &\iff \omega^{km} = 1 \\
 &\iff \omega^{km} = \omega^0 \\
 &\iff km \sim_n 0 \\
 &\iff km = n\ell \text{ for some } \ell \in \mathbb{Z} \\
 &\iff km \text{ is a multiple of } n \\
 &\iff km \text{ is a common multiple of } k \text{ and } n.
 \end{aligned}$$

The last equivalence is true because km is always a multiple of k so this condition is vacuous. If m is the **smallest positive integer** such that km is a common multiple of k and n , then clearly km must be the **least common multiple** of k and n . We conclude that

$$\begin{aligned}
 km &= \text{lcm}(k, n) \\
 m &= \frac{1}{k} \text{lcm}(k, n).
 \end{aligned}$$

For part (c) we recall (or assume, if we don't recall) that

$$\begin{aligned}
 nk &= \text{lcm}(k, n) \cdot \text{gcd}(k, n) \\
 nk/\text{lcm}(k, n) &= \text{gcd}(k, n).
 \end{aligned}$$

Also, we recall the definition of primitive roots: Every n th root of 1 has the form ω^k for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. We say that ω^k is a **primitive** n th root of 1 if the **smallest positive integer** m such that $(\omega^k)^m = 1$ is $m = n$. Thus from part (b) we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \omega^k \text{ is primitive} &\iff n = \frac{1}{k} \text{lcm}(k, n) \\
 &\iff nk/\text{lcm}(k, n) = 1 \\
 &\iff \text{gcd}(k, n) = 1.
 \end{aligned}$$

□

3. Euler's Totient Function. Given a positive integer $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ we define

$$\varphi(n) := \#\{k : 0 \leq k \leq n-1, \text{gcd}(k, n) = 1\}.$$

- Explain why $\varphi(n)$ is the degree of the cyclotomic polynomial $\Phi_n(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$.
- If $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ is prime and m is a positive integer, prove that $\varphi(p^m) = p^m - p^{m-1}$. [Hint: The only integers less than p^m that are not coprime to p^m are the multiples of p . How many of these are there?]
- Prove that for all positive integers n we have

$$\varphi(n) = n \prod_{p|n} \frac{p-1}{p},$$

where the product is over prime numbers p that divide n . [Hint: You can assume without proof that for all coprime $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ we have $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b)$. Now express n as a product of primes $n = p_1^{m_1} p_2^{m_2} \dots$.]

- Compute the degree of $\Phi_{120}(x)$. Do not compute $\Phi_{120}(x)$ itself.

Proof. For part (a), recall that the n th cyclotomic polynomial is given by

$$\Phi_n(x) = \prod_{\zeta} (x - \zeta)$$

where ζ runs over the primitive n th roots of unity. From Problem 2(c) we know that the number of primitive n th roots of unity is $\varphi(n)$. Let $\zeta_1, \zeta_2, \dots, \zeta_{\varphi(n)}$ be the primitive roots. Then by the additivity of degree we have

$$\begin{aligned} \deg \Phi_n(x) &= \deg(x - \zeta_1)(x - \zeta_2) \cdots (x - \zeta_{\varphi(n)}) \\ &= \deg(x - \zeta_1) + \deg(x - \zeta_2) + \cdots + \deg(x - \zeta_{\varphi(n)}) \\ &= \underbrace{1 + 1 + \cdots + 1}_{\varphi(n) \text{ times}} \\ &= \varphi(n). \end{aligned}$$

For part (b), let p be prime and let m be a positive integer. To compute $\varphi(p^m)$ we must count the integers less than p^m that are coprime to p^m . In this case it turns out to be easier to count the integers that are **not** coprime to p^m : these are just the multiples of p (any number that is not a multiple of p is necessarily coprime to p^m because p is the only prime factor of p^m). The multiples of p from $1 \cdot p$ up to $p^m = p^{m-1} \cdot p$ are

$$1 \cdot p, 2 \cdot p, 3 \cdot p, \dots, (p^{m-1} - 1) \cdot p, p^{m-1} \cdot p$$

and there are p^{m-1} of these. Subtracting these from the p^m numbers $1, 2, 3, \dots, p^m$ gives

$$\varphi(p^m) = p^m - p^{m-1}.$$

For part (c), we can factor n as

$$n = p_1^{m_1} p_2^{m_2} \cdots p_k^{m_k}$$

where p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k are the distinct prime factors of n . Then we use the fact that φ multiplies over coprime factors [we'll just assume this fact; if you want to look it up, it's called the "Chinese remainder theorem"] we get

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(n) &= \varphi(p_1^{m_1} p_2^{m_2} \cdots p_k^{m_k}) \\ &= \varphi(p_1^{m_1}) \varphi(p_2^{m_2}) \cdots \varphi(p_k^{m_k}) \\ &= (p_1^{m_1} - p_1^{m_1-1}) (p_2^{m_2} - p_2^{m_2-1}) \cdots (p_k^{m_k} - p_k^{m_k-1}) \\ &= p_1^{m_1} \left(\frac{p_1 - 1}{p_1} \right) p_2^{m_2} \left(\frac{p_2 - 1}{p_2} \right) \cdots p_k^{m_k} \left(\frac{p_k - 1}{p_k} \right) \\ &= p_1^{m_1} p_2^{m_2} \cdots p_k^{m_k} \left(\frac{p_1 - 1}{p_1} \right) \left(\frac{p_2 - 1}{p_2} \right) \cdots \left(\frac{p_k - 1}{p_k} \right) \\ &= n \left(\frac{p_1 - 1}{p_1} \right) \left(\frac{p_2 - 1}{p_2} \right) \cdots \left(\frac{p_k - 1}{p_k} \right) \\ &= n \prod_{i=1}^k \left(\frac{p_i - 1}{p_i} \right) \end{aligned}$$

which is just what we wanted to show.

For part (d), we will apply the formula from part (c) to compute $\varphi(120)$. Note that $120 = 2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$, so the prime factors are 2, 3, and 5. Then the formula says

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(120) &= 120 \left(\frac{2-1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{3-1}{3}\right) \left(\frac{5-1}{5}\right) \\ &= 120 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) \left(\frac{4}{5}\right) \\ &= 32.\end{aligned}$$

We conclude that there are 32 primitive 120th roots of unity, and hence $\deg \Phi_{120}(x) = 32$. Note that since $\varphi(120) = 32 = 2^5$ is a power of 2, the Gauss-Wantzel Theorem tells us that the regular 120-gon is constructible with straightedge and compass. \square

[For the curious, my computer told me that $\Phi_{120}(x) = x^{32} + x^{28} - x^{20} - x^{16} - x^{12} + x^4 + 1$ and $x^{120} - 1 = (x-1)(1+x^4+x^3+x^2+x)(1+x^2+x)(1-x+x^3-x^4+x^5-x^7+x^8)(1+x)(1-x+x^2-x^3+x^4)(1-x+x^2)(x^8+x^7-x^5-x^4-x^3+x+1)(1+x^2)(x^8-x^6+x^4-x^2+1)(x^4-x^2+1)(x^{16}+x^{14}-x^{10}-x^8-x^6+x^2+1)(1+x^4)(x^{16}-x^{12}+x^8-x^4+1)(x^8-x^4+1)(x^{32}+x^{28}-x^{20}-x^{16}-x^{12}+x^4+1)$.

Obviously I would never compute that by hand.]

4. Fermat Primes. In 1650, Pierre de Fermat conjectured that every number of the form $F(n) = 2^{2^n} + 1$ is prime. He based this conjecture on the fact that $F(0) = 3, F(1) = 5, F(2) = 17, F(3) = 257, F(4) = 65537$ are prime. However, Euler showed in 1732 that $F(5)$ is **not** prime, and to this day it is not known whether there exist **any** other “Fermat primes”. D’oh!

- (a) If $2^a + 1$ is a prime number, prove that a must be a power of 2. [Hint: Suppose that $a = bc$ where b is **odd**. Factor the polynomial $1 - x^b$ and then substitute $x = -2^c$.]
- (b) Let p be prime. If $\varphi(p)$ is a power of two, show that p is a Fermat prime.

Proof. For part (a) we will prove the contrapositive statement, i.e., we will prove that if a is **not** a power of 2 then $2^a + 1$ is **not** prime. So assume that a is not a power of 2. This means that a must have an odd factor, say $a = bc$ where b is odd and c is arbitrary. In this case we will show that the number $2^a + 1$ can be factored. Indeed, note that the polynomial $1 - x^b$ factors as

$$1 - x^b = (1 - x)(1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots + x^{b-1}).$$

Then substituting $x = -2^c$ (and using the fact that b is odd) gives

$$\begin{aligned}1 - (-2^c)^b &= (1 + 2^c)(1 + (-2^c) + (-2^c)^2 + (-2^c)^3 + \dots + (-2^c)^{b-1}) \\ 1 - (-1)^b 2^{bc} &= (1 + 2^c)(1 - (-1)^c 2^c + (-1)^2 2^{2c} + (-1)^3 2^{3c} + \dots + (-1)^{b-1} 2^{(b-1)c}) \\ 1 + 2^a &= (1 + 2^c)(1 - 2^c + 2^{2c} - 2^{3c} + \dots + 2^{(b-1)c})\end{aligned}$$

Since $1 + 2^c$ is not equal to 1 or to $1 + 2^a$ we conclude that $1 + 2^a$ is not prime.

For part (b), let p be prime and suppose that $\varphi(p) = 2^k$ for some k . From Problem 3(b) we know that $\varphi(p) = p - 1$, hence

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(p) &= 2^k \\ p - 1 &= 2^k \\ p &= 2^k + 1.\end{aligned}$$

We conclude that p is a Fermat prime. \square