

UNIT-I GROUPS AND RINGS

Groups: Definition and Properties-Homomorphism-Isomorphism-Cyclic groups-Cosets Lagrange's theorem.

Rings: Definition and examples-sub rings-Integral domain-Field-Integer modulo n -Ring homomorphism.

UNIT I
GROUPS AND RINGS
PART-A

1. State any two properties of a group.

Closure property: $a*b \in G$, for all $a, b \in G$

Associative property: $(a*b)*c = a*(b*c)$, for all $a, b, c \in G$

2. Define Homomorphism of groups.

Let $(G, *)$ and (G_1, o) be two groups and f be a function from G into G_1 . Then f is called a **homomorphism** of G into G_1 if for all $a, b \in G$,

$$f(a*b) = f(a) o f(b).$$

3. Give an example of Homomorphism of groups.

Consider the group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$. Define $f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ by $f(n) = 3n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

Here the function f is from the group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ to $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$

Let $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ then we get $n+m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and we have $f(n+m) = 3(n+m) = 3n + 3m = f(n) + f(m)$

Hence the function f is a homomorphism.

4. Define Isomorphism.

Let $(G, *)$ and (G', o) be two groups and $f: G \rightarrow G'$ be a homomorphism of groups then f is called a **isomorphism** if f is a bijective (one-to-one and onto) function.

5. Give any two Example of Isomorphism.

Example:1

Consider the function $f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ by $f(x) = x$, Now we have to show that f is a homomorphism.

Take any two elements x, y belongs to \mathbb{Z} , Then $x + y$ belongs to \mathbb{Z} , Hence $f(x+y) = x + y = f(x) + f(y)$
Hence f is homomorphism.

Since the function $f(x) = x$ is bijective. f is an isomorphism.

Example :2

Consider the function $f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ by $f(x) = x$. Take any two elements x, y belongs to \mathbb{Z} , Then $x + y$ belongs to \mathbb{Z} , Hence $f(x+y) = x + y = f(x) + f(y)$ Hence f is homomorphism.

Since the function $f(x) = x$ is bijective. f is an isomorphism.

6. Show that $(\mathbb{Z}_5, +_5)$ is a cyclic group.

$+_5$	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
[0]	0	1	2	3	4
[1]	1	2	3	4	0
[2]	2	3	4	0	1
[3]	3	4	0	1	2
[4]	4	0	1	2	3

$$1^1 = 1$$

$$1^2 = 1 +_5 1 = 2$$

$$1^3 = 1 +_5 1^2 = 1 +_5 2 = 3$$

$$1^4 = 1 +_5 1^3 = 1 +_5 3 = 4$$

$$1^5 = 1 +_5 1^4 = 1 +_5 4 = 0$$

Hence $(\mathbb{Z}_5, +_5)$ is a cyclic group and 1 is a generator.

7. Prove that the group $H = (\mathbb{Z}_4, +)$ is cyclic.

Here the operation is addition, so we have multiplies instead of powers. We find that both [1] and [3] generate H . For the case of [3], we have

$$1.[3]=[3], \quad 2.[3]=[2], \quad 3.[3]=[1], \text{ and } 4.[3]=[0].$$

Hence $H = \langle [3] \rangle = \langle [1] \rangle$. Hence $H = (\mathbb{Z}_4, +)$ is cyclic

8. Prove that $U_9 = \{1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8\}$ is cyclic group.

Here we find that $2^1=2, 2^2=4, 2^3=8, 2^4=7, 2^5=5, 2^6=1,$

So U_9 is a cyclic group of order 6 and $U_9 = \langle 2 \rangle$ and also true that $U_9 = \langle 5 \rangle$

because $5^1=5, 5^2=7, 5^3=8, 5^4=4, 5^5=2, 5^6=1.$

9. Define Left coset and Right coset of the group.

If H is a subgroup of G , then for each $a \in G$, the set $aH = \{ah / h \in H\}$ is called a left coset of H in G and $Ha = \{ha / h \in H\}$ is a right coset of H in G .

10. Consider the group $Z_4 = \{[0], [1], [2], [3]\}$ of integers modulo 4. Let $H = \{[0], [2]\}$ be a subgroup of Z_4 under $+$. Find the left cosets of H .

$$[0] + [H] = \{[0], [2]\} = H$$

$$[1] + [H] = \{[1], [3]\}$$

$$[2] + [H] = \{[2], [4]\} = \{[2], [0]\} = \{[0], [2]\} = H$$

$$[3] + [H] = \{[3], [5]\} = \{[3], [1]\} = \{[1], [3]\} = [1] + H$$

$\therefore [0] + H = [2] + H = H$ and $[1] + H = [3] + H$ are the two distinct left cosets of H in Z_4

11. State Lagrange's theorem for finite groups. Is the converse true?

If G is a finite group and H is a subgroup of G , then the order of H is a divisor of order of G .
The converse of Lagrange's theorem is false.

12. Define ring and give an example of a ring with zero-divisors.

An algebraic system $(R, +, \cdot)$ is called a ring if the binary operation $+$ and \cdot satisfies the following conditions.

(i) $(a+b)+c=a+(b+c) \quad a, b, c \in R$

(ii) There exists an element $0 \in R$ called zero element such that $a+0 = 0+a = a$ for all $a \in R$

(iii) For all $a \in R, a+(-a) = (-a)+a = 0, -a$ is the negative of a .

(iv) $a+b = b+a$ for all $a, b \in R$

(v) $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ for all $a, b, c \in R$

The operation \cdot is distributive over $+$ i.e., for any $a, b, c \in R, a \cdot (b+c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c,$

$(b+c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a$ In other words, if R is an abelian group under addition with the properties (iv) and (v) then R is a ring.

Example: The ring $(Z_{10}, +_{10}, \cdot_{10})$ is not an integral domain. Since $5 \cdot_{10} 2 = 0$, yet $5 \neq 0, 2 \neq 0$ in Z_{10} .

13. Define unit and multiplicative inverse of a Ring.

Let R be a ring with unity u . If $a \in R$ and there exists $b \in R$ such that $ab=ba=u$, then b is called a multiplicative inverse of a and a is called a unit of R .

14. Define integral domain and give an example.

Let R be a commutative ring with unity. Then R is called an integral domain if R has no proper divisors of zero.

Example: $(Z, +, \cdot)$ is an integral domain and Q, R, C are integral domain under addition and multiplication

15. Define Field and give an example.

A commutative ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ with identity is called a field if every non-zero element has a multiplicative inverse. Thus $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a field if

(i) $(R, +)$ is abelian group and

(ii) $(R - \{0\}, \cdot)$ is also abelian group.

Example: $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a field.

16. Give an example of a ring which is not a field.

$(Z, +, \cdot)$ is a ring but not a field, if every non-zero element need not a multiplicative inverse.

17. Define Integer modulo n .

Let $n \in Z^+, n > 1$. For $a, b \in Z$, we say that " a is congruent to b modulo n ", and we write $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$, if $n | (a - b)$, or equivalently, $a = b + kn$ for some $k \in Z$.

18. Determine the values of the integer $n > 1$ for the given congruence $401 \equiv 323 \pmod{n}$ is true.

$401 - 323 = 78 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 13$ there are five possible divisors ($n > 1$), namely 2, 3, 6, 26, 39.

19. Determine the values of the integer $n > 1$ for the given congruence $57 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ is true.

$57 - 1 = 56 = 2^3 \cdot 7$. So there are six divisors, namely 2, 4, 8, 14, 28, 56

20. Determine the values of the integer $n > 1$ for the given congruence $68 \equiv 37 \pmod{n}$ is true.

$68 - 37 = 31$, prime, consequently $n = 31$.

21. Determine the values of the integer $n > 1$ for the given congruence $49 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ is true.

$49 - 1 = 48 = 2^4 \cdot 3$. So there are nine possible values for $n > 1$, namely 2, 4, 8, 16, 3, 6, 12, 24, 48.

UNIT-II-FINITE FIELDS AND POLYNOMIALS

Polynomial rings-Irreducible polynomial over finite fields-Factorization of polynomials over finite fields

1. Define polynomial.

Given a ring $(R, +, \cdot)$, an expression of the form

$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x^1 + a_0 x^0$, where $a_i \in R$ for $0 \leq i \leq n$, is called a polynomial in the indeterminate x with coefficients from R .

2. Define Field.

A field is a nonempty set F of elements with two operations '+' (called addition) and ' \cdot ' (called multiplication) satisfying the following axioms. For all $a, b, c \in F$:

- (i) F is closed under $+$ and \cdot ; i.e., $a + b$ and $a \cdot b$ are in F .
- (ii) Commutative laws: $a + b = b + a$, $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$.
- (iii) Associative laws: $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$, $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$.
- (iv) Distributive law: $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$.

3. What is meant by a finite field?

A field containing only finitely many elements is called a finite field, A finite field is simply a field Whose underlying set is finite. Eg: F_2 , whose element 0 and 1.

4. What is meant by polynomial ring?

If R is a ring, then under the operations of addition and multiplication $+$ and \cdot , $(R[x], +, \cdot)$ is a ring, called the polynomial ring, or ring of polynomials over R .

5. Define root of the polynomial.

Let R be a ring with unity u and let $f(x) \in R[x]$, with degree $f(x) \geq 1$. If $r \in R$ and $f(r) = 0$, then r is called a root of the polynomial $f(x)$.

6. When do you say that $f(x)$ is a divisor of $g(x)$?

Let F be a field. For $f(x), g(x) \in F[x]$, where $f(x)$ is not a zero polynomial, we call $f(x)$ a divisor of $g(x)$ if there exists $h(x) \in F[x]$ with $f(x)h(x) = g(x)$. In this situation we also say that $f(x)$ divides $g(x)$ and that $g(x)$ is a multiple of $f(x)$.

7. Find the roots of $f(x) = x^2 - 2$.

$$f(x) = x^2 - 2 = (x + \sqrt{2})(x - \sqrt{2})$$

Since $\sqrt{2}$ and $-\sqrt{2}$ are irrational numbers, $f(x)$ has no roots.

8. Find all roots of $f(x) = x^2 + 4x$ in \mathbb{Z}_{12} .

$$\mathbb{Z}_{12} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11\}$$

$$f(0) = 0 + 0 = 0 \quad \therefore 0 \text{ is a root of } f(x)$$

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

$$f(2) = 4 + 8 = 12 = 0$$

So 2 is a root.

$$f(3) = 9 + 12 = 21$$

$$f(5) = 25 + 20 = 45$$

$$f(6) = 36 + 24 = 60 = 0$$

So 6 is a root

$$f(7) = 49 + 28 = 77$$

$$f(8) = 64 + 32 = 96 = 0$$

So 8 is a root.

$$f(9) = 81 + 36 = 117$$

$$f(10) = 100 + 40 = 140$$

$$f(11) = 121 + 44 = 165$$

Thus $x = 0, 2, 6, 8$ are the roots of $f(x)$.

9. State division algorithm

Let $f(x), g(x) \in F[x]$ with $f(x)$ not the zero polynomial. There exists unique polynomials $q(x), r(x) \in F[x]$ such that $g(x) = q(x)f(x) + r(x)$, where $r(x) = 0$ or degree $r(x) < \text{degree } f(x)$.

10. State the remainder theorem.

The remainder theorem:

For $f(x) \in F[x]$ and $a \in F$, the remainder in the division of $f(x)$ by $x - a$ is $f(a)$.

11. Determine all polynomials of degree 2 in $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]$.

The polynomials are

- (i) x^2
- (ii) x^2+x
- (iii) x^2+1
- (iv) x^2+x+1

12. State the factor theorem.

If $f(x)$ and $f(x) \in F$, then $x-a$ is a factor of $f(x)$ if and only if a is a root of $f(x)$.

13. Determine polynomial $h(x)$ of degree 5 and polynomial $k(x)$ of degree 2 such that degree of $h(x)k(x)$ is 3.

Choose $h(x)=4x^5+x$ of degree 5 and $k(x)=3x^2$ of degree 2. Then $h(x)k(x)=(4x^5+x)(3x^2)=12x^7+3x^3=0+3x^3$ which is of degree 3.

14. Define reducible and irreducible polynomials .

Let $f(x)$, with F a field and $\deg f(x) \geq 2$. We call $f(x)$ reducible over F if there exists $g(x), h(x)$, where $f(x)=g(x)h(x)$ and each of $g(x), h(x)$ has $\deg \geq 1$. If $f(x)$ is not reducible it is called irreducible or prime.

15. Give example for reducible and irreducible polynomials .

The polynomial $f(x)=x^4+2x^2+1$ is reducible. Since $x^4+2x^2+1=(x^2+1)^2$

The polynomial x^2+1 is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ and $\mathbb{R}[x]$ but in $\mathbb{C}[x]$ it is reducible.

16. Verify the polynomial x^2+x+1 over \mathbb{Z}_3, \mathbb{Z} irreducible or not.

The polynomial $x^2+x+1=(x+2)(x+2)$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Z}_3

The polynomial $x^2+x+1=(x+5)(x+3)$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Z}_7 .

17. What is meant by monic polynomial?

A polynomial $f(x)$ is called monic if its leading coefficient is 1, the unity of F .

Example: x^2+2x+1

18. When do you say that 2 polynomials are relatively prime?

If $f(x), g(x)$ and their gcd is 1, then $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are called relatively prime.

19. What is the characteristic of R ?

Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ be a ring. If there is least positive integer n such that $nr=0$ (the zero of R) for all $r \in R$, then we say that R has characteristic n and write characteristic n . When no such integer exists, R is said to be characteristic 0.

20. Find the characteristic of the following rings a) $(\mathbb{Z}_3, +, \cdot)$ b) $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ and $\mathbb{Z}[x]$

The ring $(\mathbb{Z}_3, +, \cdot)$ has characteristic 3.

The ring $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ has characteristic 0

$\mathbb{Z}_3[x]$ has characteristic 3.

21. Give an example of a polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ where $f(x)$ has degree 8, is reducible but has no real roots.

Choose $f(x)=(x^2+9)^4$ is of degree 8, is reducible but has no real roots.

22. Write $f(x)=2x^5+5x^4-3x^3+4x^2-3x$ as the product of unit and three monic polynomials.

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= (2x^2+1)(5x^3-5x+3)(4x-3) \\ &= 2(x^2+4)(5x^3-x+2)(x-6) \\ &= 40(x^2+4)(x^3-x+2)(x-6) \\ &= 5(x^2+4)(x^3-x+2)(x-6) \end{aligned}$$

Here each polynomial is monic.

23. If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are relatively prime in $F[x]$ where F is any field, show that there is no element $a \in F$ such that $f(a)=0$ and $g(a)=0$

Suppose there exists $a \in F$ such that $f(a)=0$ and $g(a)=0$. Then $(x-a)$ would be a factor of both $f(x)$ and $g(x)$. So $(x-a)$ would divide the gcd of both $f(x)$ and $g(x)$. But this is a contradiction since $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are relatively prime.

UNIT-III DIVISIBILITY THEORY AND CANONICAL DECOMPOSITION

Division algorithm-Base b-representations-Number patterns-Prime and Composite Numbers-GCD-Euclidean algorithm-Fundamental theorem of arithmetic-LCM

UNIT-III **DIVISIBILITY THEORY AND CANONICAL DECOMPOSITIONS** **PART-A**

1. Write about divisible.

An integer b is divisible by an integer a , not zero, if there is an integer x such that $b = ax$, and we write $a|b$. In case b is not divisible by a , we write $a \nmid b$.

2. Define division algorithm.

Given any integers a and b , with $a > 0$, there exist unique integers q and r such that $b = qa + r$, $0 \leq r < a$. If $a \nmid b$, then r satisfies the stronger inequalities $0 < r < a$.

3. Define greatest common divisor of b .

The integer a is a common divisor of b and c in case a/b and a/c . Since there is only a finite number of divisors of any nonzero integer, there is only a finite number of common divisors of b and c , except in the case $b=c=0$. If at least one of b and c is not 0, the greatest among their common divisors is called the greatest common divisor of b and c and is denoted by (b, c) .

4. Define Euclidean algorithm.

Given integers b and $c > 0$, we make a repeated application of the division algorithm, to obtain a series of equations

$$\begin{aligned} b &= cq_1 + r_1, & 0 < r_1 < c \\ c &= r_1q_2 + r_2, & 0 < r_2 < r_1 \\ r_1 &= r_1q_3 + r_3, & 0 < r_3 < r_1 \\ &\dots\dots\dots & \dots\dots \\ r_{j-2} &= r_{j-1}q_j + r_j, & 0 < r_j < r_{j-1} \\ r_{j-1} &= r_jq_{j+1} \end{aligned}$$

The greatest common divisor (b, c) of b and c is r_j , the last nonzero remainder in the division process. Values of x_0 and y_0 in $(b, c) = bx_0 + cy_0$ can be obtained by writing each r_i as a linear combination of b and c .

5. Solve by Euclidean algorithm for $b=288$ and $c=158$.

$$\begin{aligned} 288 &= 158 \cdot 2 - 28 \\ 158 &= 28 \cdot 6 - 10 \\ 28 &= 10 \cdot 3 - 2 \\ 10 &= 2 \cdot 5 \end{aligned}$$

6. Define least common multiple.

The integers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , all different from zero, have a common multiple b if a_i/b for $i=1, 2, \dots, n$. The least of the positive common multiples is called the least common multiple [l.c.m.], and it is denoted by $[a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n]$.

7. Define prime number.

An integer $p > 1$ is called a prime number, or a prime, in case there is no divisor d of p satisfying $1 < d < p$.

8. Define Composite number with example.

If an integer $a > 1$ is not a prime, it is called a composite number. Eg: 4, 6, 8, 9, ...

9. State the binomial theorem.

For any integer $n \geq 1$ and any real numbers x and y $(x + y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}$.

10. Define arithmetical function with example.

A function $f(n)$ defined for all natural numbers n is called an arithmetical function. Eg: $x^2 + x - 3$

11. Prove that if n is an even number, then $3^n + 1$ is divisible by 2; if n is an odd number, k then $3^n + 1$ is divisible by 2^2 ; if n is any number, whether even or odd, then $3^n + 1$ is not divisible by 2^m with $m \geq 3$.

Since the square of an odd number minus 1 is a multiple of 8, when $n=2m$ we have $3^n - 1 = (3^m)^2 - 1 = 8a + 1$, and therefore $3^n + 1 = 2(4a + 1)$. When $n=2m+1$, we have $3^n + 1 = 3^{2m+1} + 1 = 3(8a + 1) + 1 = 4(6a + 1)$. Since $4a + 1$ and $6a + 1$ are odd, the statement is true.

12. Show that if $1 < a_1 < a_2 < \dots < a_{n-1} < a_n$, then there exist i and j with $i < j$, such that a_i/a_j .

Let $a_i = 2^{n_i} b_i, n_i \geq 0$, b_i is odd. Since among $1, 2, \dots, 2n$, there are only n distinct odd numbers b_1, \dots, b_{n+1} are not all distinct, in other words, among them there are some equal odd numbers, Let $b_i = b_j$. Then a_i/a_j .

13. Define square number with example.

If an integer a is a square of some other integer, then a is called a square number. Eg: 4, 9, 16, ...

14. Find the greatest common divisor of 525 and 231.

$$\begin{aligned} 525 &= 2 \cdot 231 + 63 \\ 231 &= 3 \cdot 63 + 42 \\ 63 &= 1 \cdot 42 + 21 \\ 42 &= 2 \cdot 21 \\ \text{Therefore g.c.d.}(525, 231) &= 21 \end{aligned}$$

UNIT-IV-DIOPHANTINE EQUATIONS AND CONGRUENCES

Linear Diophantine equations-Congruence's-Linear congruence's-
Congruence's applications-Divisibility tests-Modular exponentiation
-Chinese remainder theorem-2x2 linear system.

UNIT IV DIOPHANTINE EQUATIONS AND CONGRUENCES PART A

1. Define linear Diophantine equation.

Any linear equation in two variables having integral coefficients can be put in the form $ax + by = c$ where a, b, c are given integers.

2. State about the solution of linear Diophantine equation.

Consider the equation $ax + by = c$ ----(1), in which x and y are integers. If $a=b=c=0$, then every pair (x, y) of integers is a solution of (1), whereas if $a = b = 0$ and $c \neq 0$, then (1) has no

solution. Now suppose that at least one of a and b is nonzero, and let $g = \gcd(a, b)$. If g/c then (1) has no solution.

3. Write the solution of $ax + by = c$.

If the pair (x_1, y_1) is one integral solution, then all others are of the form $x = x_1 + kb/g$, $y = y_1 - ka/g$ where k is an integer and $g = \gcd(a, b)$

4. Define unimodular with example.

A square matrix U with integral elements is called unimodular if $\det(U) = \pm 1$. Eg: Identity matrix

5. Define Pythagorean triangle.

We wish to solve the equation $x^2 + y^2 = z^2$ in positive integers. The two most familiar solutions are 3,4,5 and 5,12,13. We refer to such a triple of positive integers as a Pythagorean triple or a Pythagorean triangle, since in geometric terms x and y are the legs of a right triangle with hypotenuse z .

6. Write the legs of the Pythagorean triangles.

The legs of the Pythagorean triangles.

$$X = r^2 - s^2$$

$$Y = 2rs$$

$$Z = r^2 + s^2$$

7. Define congruent and not congruent.

If an integer m , not zero, divides the difference $a-b$, we say that a is congruent to b modulo m and write $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$. If $a-b$ is not divisible by m , we say that a is not congruent to b modulo m , and in this case we write $a \not\equiv b \pmod{m}$.

8. Define residue.

If $x \equiv y \pmod{m}$ then y is called a residue of x modulo m .

9. Define complete residue

A set x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m is called a complete residue system modulo m if for every integer y there is one and only one x_j such that $y \equiv x_j \pmod{m}$.

10. State Chinese Remainder Theorem.

Let m_1, m_2, \dots, m_r denote r positive integers that are relatively prime in pairs, and let a_1, a_2, \dots, a_r denote any r integers. Then the congruences

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

.....

.....

$$x \equiv a_r \pmod{m_r}$$

have common solutions. If x_0 is one such solution, then an integer x satisfies the congruences the above equations iff x is of the form $x = x_0 + km$ for some integer k . Here $m = m_1 m_2 \dots m_r$.

11. Define n-th power residue modulo p.

If $(a, p) = 1$ and $x^n \equiv a \pmod{p}$ has a solution, then a is called an n -th power residue modulo p .

12. Define Euler's criterion.

If p is an odd prime and $(a, p) = 1$, then $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ has two solutions or no solution according as $a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ or $a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$.

UNIT-V-CLASSICAL THEOREMS AND MULTIPLICATIVE FUNCTIONS

Wilson's theorem-Fermat's little theorem-Euler's theorem-Euler's phi-functions-Tau and Sigma functions

UNIT V CLASSICAL THEOREMS AND MULTIPLICATIVE FUNCTIONS PART A

1. State Wilson's theorem

The Wilson's theorem states that, if p is a prime, then $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$

2. State Fermat's theorem.

Let p denote a prime. If $p \nmid a$ then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. For every integer a , $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$.

3. State Euler's generalization of Fermat's theorem.

If $(a, m) = 1$, then $a^{\phi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$.

4. State Fermat's little theorem

If p is a prime and $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

5. Explain the Exponent of an integer modulo n .

Let n be a natural number >1 and a an integer prime to n . If the infinite sequence $a, a^2, a^3, \dots \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. Suppose that a^d is the first number in the sequence $\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. Then a is said to belong to the Exponent of an integer modulo n

6. Define improper divisor of n

Every integer n is a divisor of itself. It is called the improper divisor of n . All other divisors of n are called proper divisors.

7. Define Euler's Phi function

$\phi(n)$ is the number of non-negative integers less than n that are relatively prime to n . In other words, if $n > 1$ then $\phi(n)$ is the number of elements in U_n , and $\phi(1) = 1$.

8. If p is a prime, the only elements of U_p which are their own inverses are $[1]$ and $[p-1] = [-1]$.

Note that $[n]$ is its own inverse if and only if $[n]^2 = [1]$ if and only if $n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ if and only if $p \mid (n^2 - 1) = (n-1)(n+1)$. This is true if and only if $p \mid (n-1)$ or $p \mid (n+1)$. In the first case, $n \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, i.e., $[n] = [1]$. In the second case, $n \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$, i.e., $[n] = [p-1]$.

9. Find the remainder of $97!$ When divided by 101 .

First we will apply Wilson's theorem to note that $100! \equiv -1 \pmod{101}$. When we decompose the factorial, we get that: $(100)(99)(98)(97!) \equiv -1 \pmod{101}$. Now we note that $100 \equiv -1 \pmod{101}$, $99 \equiv -2 \pmod{101}$, and $98 \equiv -3 \pmod{101}$.

Hence: $(-1)(-2)(-3)(97!) \equiv -1 \pmod{101}$ $(-6)(97!) \equiv -1 \pmod{101}$ $(6)(97!) \equiv 1 \pmod{101}$. Now we want to find a modular inverse of 6 (mod 101). Using the division algorithm, we get that: $101 = 6(16) + 5$ $5 = 5(1) + 0$ $1 = 6 + 5(-1)$ $1 = 6 + [101 + 6(-16)](-1)$ $1 = 101(-1) + 6(17)$ Hence, 17 can be used as an inverse for 6 (mod 101). It thus follows that: $(17)(6)(97!) \equiv (17)1 \pmod{101}$ $97! \equiv 17 \pmod{101}$ Hence, 97! has a remainder of 17 when divided by 101.

10. For prime $p \geq 5$, determine the remainder when $(p-4)!$ is divided by p .

By Wilson's theorem, $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$. Therefore

$$-1 \equiv (p-1)(p-2)(p-3) \cdot (p-4)! \equiv -6 \cdot (p-4)! \pmod{p}.$$

If $p = 6k + 1$, multiplying both sides of the congruence by k gives $(p-4)! \equiv -k = -(p-1)/6 \pmod{p}$.

If $p = 6k - 1$, multiplying both sides of the congruence by k gives $(p-4)! \equiv k = (p+1)/6 \pmod{p}$.

11. Find the remainder of 53! when divided by 61.

We know that by Wilson's theorem $60! \equiv -1 \pmod{61}$. Decomposing $60!$, we get that: $(60)(59)(58)(57)(56)(55)(54)(53)(52)51! \equiv -1 \pmod{61}$ $(-1)(-2)(-3)(-4)(-5)(-6)(-7)(-8)(-9)51! \equiv -1 \pmod{61}$ $(-362880)51! \equiv -1 \pmod{61}$ $(362880)51! \equiv 1 \pmod{61}$ $(52)51! \equiv 1 \pmod{61}$ We will now use the division algorithm to find a modular inverse of 52 (mod 61): $61 = 52(1) + 9$ $52 = 9(5) + 7$ $9 = 7(1) + 2$ $7 = 2(3) + 1$ $1 = 7 + 2(-3)$ $1 = 7 + [9 + 7(-1)](-3)$ $1 = 9(-3) + 7(4)$ $1 = 9(-3) + [52 + 9(-5)](4)$ $1 = 52(4) + 9(-23)$ $1 = 52(4) + [61 + 52(-1)](-23)$ $1 = 61(-23) + 52(27)$ Hence 27 can be used as an inverse (mod 61). We thus get that: $(27)(52)51! \equiv (27)1 \pmod{61}$ $51! \equiv 27 \pmod{61}$ Hence the remainder of 51! when divided by 61 is 27.

12. What is the remainder of 149! when divided by 139?

From Wilson's theorem we know that $138! \equiv -1 \pmod{139}$. We are now going to multiply both sides of the congruence until we get up to 149!:

$$149! \equiv (149)(148)(147)(146)(145)(144)(143)(142)(141)(140)(139)(-1) \pmod{139}$$

$$149! \equiv (10)(9)(8)(7)(6)(5)(4)(3)(2)(1)(0)(-1) \pmod{139}$$

$$149! \equiv 0 \pmod{139}.$$

Hence the remainder of 149! when divided by 139 is 0.

13. Define congruence in one variable

A congruence of the form $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ where x is an unknown integer is called a linear congruence in one variable.

14. Let p be a prime. A positive integer m is its own inverse modulo p iff p divides $m + 1$ or p divides $m - 1$.

Suppose that m is its own inverse. Thus $m \cdot m \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Hence $p \mid m^2 - 1$. then $p \mid (m - 1)$ or $p \mid (m + 1)$.