# Math 126 Number Theory 

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Due Wednesday. Asmt. 8, , from page 76, exercises 1-3, 7-9, 11-13, 17, 20.

Due Friday. Asmt. 9, from page 82, exercises 1, $2,4,10$; and from page 86 , exercises $1,2,6,7$

Last time. Linear congruences and the Chinese remainder theorem. We proved two important theorems.
Theorem. The linear congruence $a x \equiv b(\bmod n)$ has a solution if and only if $d \mid b$ where $d=(a, n)$. When $d \mid b$, then the solution is unique modulo $n / d$. Thus, if $(a, n)=1$, the congruence $a x \equiv b(\bmod n)$ always has a unique solution.
Chinese remainder theorem. If $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots n_{k}$ are $k$ pairwise relatively prime numbers, then the system of $k$ linear congruences

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{rccc}
x & \equiv & a_{1} & \left(\bmod n_{1}\right) \\
x & \equiv & a_{2} & \left(\bmod n_{2}\right) \\
& \vdots & & \\
x & \equiv a_{k} & \left(\bmod n_{k}\right)
\end{array}\right.
$$

has a unique solution modulo the product $n_{1} n_{2} \ldots n_{k}$.

Next time. Pseudoprimes. Multiplicativity of Euler's $\phi$ function. Evaluating Euler's $\phi$ function.

Today. We'll discuss a couple more things from the section on congruences before going on to discuss Euler's phi function, also called Euler's totient function.

Interpretation of the Chinese remainder theorem as an isomorphism of rings. That's in the notes from last time, but we didn't have time to discuss it.

Systems of linear congruences with the same modulus. The Chinese remainder theorem deals with linear systems when the moduli are relatively prime. When the congruences have the same modulus $n$, it's easier to solve them. Since $\mathbf{Z}_{k}$ is a ring, you can use all the usual techniques you would use for simultaneous equations, so long as those techniques only involve addition, subtraction, and multiplication. You can also use division, but you have to be careful, that is, if you want to divide a congruence by $a$, make sure $a$ is relatively prime to $n$.

For example, to simplify the congruence

$$
6 x+10 y \equiv-14(\bmod 3),
$$

you can divide it by 2 since 2 is relatively prime to 3 and that yields the congruence

$$
3 x+56 \equiv-7(\bmod 3) .
$$

Sometimes you'll have to find the inverse of $a$ modulo $n$ before dividing. Suppose, for example, you wanted to divide the congruence

$$
7 x-21 y \equiv 8(\bmod 11)
$$

by 7. You'll need to do something special because 7 doesn't easily divide 8 , but it does modulo 11 . A general method that works is to find the reciprocal of 7 modulo 11, that is, solve the equation $7 x \equiv 1(\bmod 11)$. That gives $x=8$ since 56 is one more than a multiple of 11 . The above congruence becomes

$$
x-3 y \equiv 8 \cdot 8 \equiv 9(\bmod 11) .
$$

Even when you want to divide an equation by $a$ not relatively prime to $n$, you can do that, but it will change the modulus. The first theorem quoted above from last meeting applies. For example, to simplify the congruence

$$
28 x-14 y \equiv 14(\bmod 35),
$$

you would like to divide by $a=14$, but 14 and $n=35$ aren't relatively prime; their greatest common divisor is $d=7$. The solution will be unique modulo $n / d=5$, so after dividing by 14 , we get the congruence

$$
2 x-y \equiv 2(\bmod 5) .
$$

If that was just one of several congruences in a system, this change of modulus will make it more difficult to complete the solution because now not all the congruences have the same modulus.

Euler's phi function. This function is defined by setting $\phi(n)$ to the number of positive integers less than $n$ which are relatively prime to $n$. It's called Euler's $\phi$ function or Euler's totient function. Euler didn't call it a totient function; he didn't even use the letter phi; Gauss introducted that notation. Apparently, it wasn't until 1879 that Sylvester called a positive integer smaller than $n$ but relatively prime to $n$ a totative, and since Euler's $\phi$ function counted totatives, it was called a totient function. Why Sylvester used the word totative is unclear. It seems to be made up from the Latin stem tot meaning "so many" and the ending -itive.

Anyway, these totatives are the elements of the ring $\mathbf{Z}_{n}$ that have reciprocals, and that's what makes them important.

As Stark does in the text, you don't have to represent $\mathbf{Z}_{N}$ by the standard complete residue system modulo $n$, namely the set $\{0,1, \ldots, n-1\}$; you could use any complete residue system. And if you do that, then the elements that have reciprocals form what is called a reduced residue system. That's sort of clumsy to do, so we'll stick to $\{0,1, \ldots, n-1\}$.

Examples. Let $n=10$. What are the positive integers less than 10 but relatively prime to 10 , that is the totatives? They're $1,3,7$, and 9 . Therefore $\phi(10)=4$. What are the reciprocals of these totatives modulo 10 ? We'll put them in a table.

| $k$ | 1 | 3 | 7 | 9 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $k^{-1}$ | 1 | 7 | 3 | 9 |

We'll work out a larger example in class.
Fermat's little theorem and Euler's theorem. Back in the 1640 Fermat noticed that when $p$ is a prime, then $a^{p} \equiv a(\bmod p)$, and if $a \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$.

In 1760 Euler generalized this using his $\phi$ function. After the statement of Euler's theorem, we'll look at an example or two, prove it, then derive Fermat's little theorem from Euler's theorem.
Euler's Theorem: If $a$ is relatively prime to $n$, then

$$
a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1(\bmod n) .
$$

Example. Let $n=10$. We can take any of the four totatives $1,3,7$, or 9 for $a$. Let's take $a=7$. Then Euler's theorem says $7^{4} \equiv 1(\bmod 10)$. That's easy to verify since $7^{2} \equiv-1(\bmod 10)$.
Proof of Euler's therem. Consider what multiplying by $a$ modulo $n$ does to the set of totatives

$$
T=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{\phi(n)}\right\} .
$$

Take one of the totatives $a_{i}$. Both $a$ and $a_{i}$ are relatively prime to $n$, therefore their product $a a_{i}$ is also relatively prime to $n$, and when $a a_{i}$ is reduced modulo $n$ to a positive integer less than $n$, it's still relatively prime to $n$, and, therefore, another totative. Thus, multiplication by $a$ is a function from the set of totatives to itself, $T \rightarrow T$. But $a$ has an inverse modulo $n, a^{-1}$, and multiplication by $a^{-1}$ is inverse to multiplication by $a$, so every totative $a_{j}$ is of the form $a a_{i}$ for exactly one $i$.

Now consider two products, the first product $a_{1} a_{2} \ldots a_{\phi(n)}$ being of all the totatives, and the second product of all the totatives multiplied by $a$, that is $\left(a a_{1}\right)\left(a a_{2}\right) \ldots\left(a a_{\phi(n)}\right)$. These two products
have all the same terms since every totative $a_{j}$ is $a a_{i}$ for exactly one $i$. Therefore

$$
a_{1} a_{2} \ldots a_{\phi(n)} \equiv\left(a a_{1}\right)\left(a a_{2}\right) \ldots\left(a a_{\phi(n)}\right)(\bmod n) .
$$

We can divide this congruence by each totative $a_{i}$ since it's relatively prime to $n$, and that gives us

$$
1 \equiv a^{\phi(n)}(\bmod n) . \quad \text { Q.E.D. }
$$

Fermat's little theorem. If $p$ is prime, then

$$
a^{p} \equiv a(\bmod p)
$$

Furthermore, if $a \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, then

$$
a^{p-1} \equiv 1(\bmod p) .
$$

(We'll prove this in class.)

