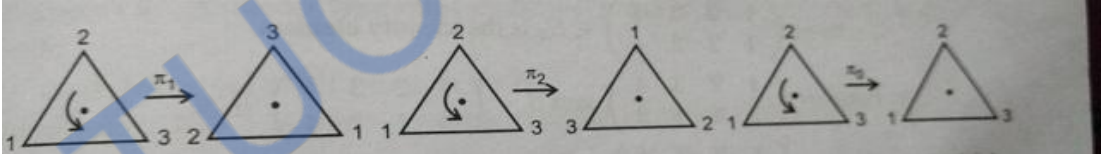
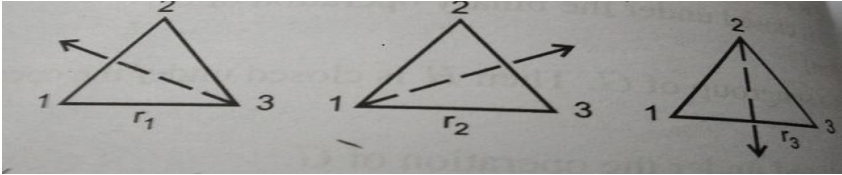


UNIT-I GROUPS AND RINGS PART A	
1	Define a subgroup and give one proper subgroup of $(Z_6, +)$. [NOV/DEC 19]
	Let G be a group and H is a non empty subset of G. If H is a group under the same binary operation of G then H is a subgroup of G. $H = \{0, 2, 4\}$ or $K = \{0, 3\}$ are the proper subgroups of $(Z_6, +)$.
2	Find the identity element under $*$ defined by $a * b = \frac{ab}{2}$, for all $a, b \in R$.
	$a = e * a = a * e = \frac{ae}{2} \Rightarrow e = 2.$
3	Prove that a group is abelian if and only if $(ab)^{-1} = a^{-1}b^{-1} \forall a, b \in G$.
	<p>By closure property $\forall a, b \in G \Rightarrow ab \in G$</p> <p>Let $x = (ab)^{-1}$, then $x(ab) = e$</p> <p>By associative property $\Rightarrow (xa)b = e$</p> <p>post multiply by $b^{-1} \Rightarrow (xa)bb^{-1} = eb^{-1}$</p> <p style="text-align: center;">$(xa) = b^{-1}$</p> <p>post multiply by $a^{-1} \Rightarrow (xa)a^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1}$</p> <p style="text-align: center;">$\Rightarrow x = b^{-1}a^{-1}$</p> <p>Assume that G is an abelian group</p> <p>$\therefore (ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1} = a^{-1}b^{-1} \quad (\because G \text{ is abelian})$</p> <p>Conversely assume that $(ab)^{-1} = a^{-1}b^{-1} \forall a, b \in G$</p> <p>To Prove : G is abelian</p> <p>$ab = ((ab)^{-1})^{-1} = (a^{-1}b^{-1})^{-1} = (b^{-1})^{-1}(a^{-1})^{-1} = ba.$</p> <p>Thus G is abelian</p>
4	Prove that if every element of the group is its own inverse, then G is abelian.
	<p>If every element of the group is its own inverse, then $a^{-1} = a$ for all $a \in G$</p> <p>$\Rightarrow (ab)^{-1} = ab \quad \forall a, b \in G$</p> <p>$\Rightarrow b^{-1}a^{-1} = ab \quad (\because (ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1})$</p> <p>$\Rightarrow ba = ab \quad (\because b^{-1} = b \text{ and } a^{-1} = a)$</p> <p>Therefore G is abelian.</p>
5	Define a group homomorphism with an example.
	<p>Let $(G, *)$ and (S, \circ) be two groups. A mapping $f: G \rightarrow S$ is said to be a group homomorphism if for any $a, b \in G$,</p> <p style="text-align: center;">$f(a * b) = f(a) \circ f(b).$</p> <p>Example: Consider $f: (R^+, \cdot) \rightarrow (R, +)$ where $f(x) = \log_{10}(x)$</p> <p>for any $a, b \in R^+$, $f(a \cdot b) = \log_{10}(ab) = \log_{10}(a) + \log_{10}(b) = f(a) + f(b).$</p> <p>Therefore $f(x)$ is a group homomorphism.</p>

6	<p>Consider two groups G and G' where $G=\{Z, +\}$ and $G'=\{z^m/m=0,\pm 1,\pm 2,\pm 3,\dots, \bullet\}$. Let $\phi:Z \rightarrow \{z^m / m \text{ is an integer}\}$ defined by $\phi(m)=2^m$ where $m \in Z$. Prove that ϕ is homomorphism.</p>
	<p>$\phi(m)=2^m$ where $m \in Z$ $\therefore \phi(m+r)=2^{m+r}=2^m \cdot 2^r = \phi(m) \cdot \phi(r)$ Hence ϕ is homomorphism.</p>
7	<p>Let $f:(G, *) \rightarrow (G', +)$ be an isomorphism. If G is an abelian group then prove that G' is also an abelian group.</p>
	<p>Let $a', b' \in G'$. Then there exists $a, b \in G$, such that $f(a)=a'$ & $f(b)=b'$ $a' + b' = f(a) + f(b) = f(a * b) = f(b * a) = f(b) + f(a) = b' + a'$ Hence G' is an abelian group.</p>
8	<p>Let $G = (Z_{12}, +_{12})$, Find the left cosets of $H = \{[0], [4], [8]\}$ and show that the distinct left cosets of H forms a partition of G.</p>
	<p>$Z_{12} = \{[0], [1], [2], [3], [4], [5], [6], [7], [8], [9], [10], [11]\}$; $H = \{[0], [4], [8]\}$ $[0] + H = \{[0], [4], [8]\} = H = [4] + H = [8] + H$ $[1] + H = \{[1], [5], [9]\} = [5] + H = [9] + H$ $[2] + H = \{[2], [6], [10]\} = [6] + H = [10] + H$ $[3] + H = \{[3], [7], [11]\} = [7] + H = [11] + H$ $\therefore G = H \cup ([1] + H) \cup ([2] + H) \cup ([3] + H)$</p>
9	<p>Define cyclic group.</p>
	<p>A group $(G, *)$ is said to be cyclic if there exists an element $a \in G$ such that every element of G can be written as some power of 'a'.</p>
10	<p>State any two properties of cyclic group.</p>
	<p>1. Every subgroup of a cyclic group is cyclic. 2. Suppose that G is a finite cyclic group of order m. Let 'a' be a generator of G. Suppose $j \in Z$, then a^j is a generator of G if and only if $\gcd(j, m) = 1$.</p>
11	<p>Give an example for a cyclic group along with its generator. [NOV/DEC 19]</p>
	<p>$G = \{1, -1, i, -i\}$ is a cyclic group with generators $\langle i \rangle$ and $\langle -i \rangle$.</p>
12	<p>Show that every cyclic group is abelian.</p>
	<p>Let $(G, *)$ be a cyclic group with 'a' as generator $\therefore \forall x, y \in G \Rightarrow x = a^m, y = a^n \therefore x * y = a^m * a^n = a^{m+n} = a^{n+m} = y * x$</p>
13	<p>Prove that the multiplicative group $Z_7^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ is cyclic and find its generator.</p>
	<p>The element 3 is a cyclic generator since $3^1 \bmod 7 = 3$ $3^2 \bmod 7 = 9 \bmod 7 = 2$ $3^3 \bmod 7 = (3^2 \cdot 3) \bmod 7 = (2 \cdot 3) \bmod 7 = 6 \bmod 7 = 6$ $3^4 \bmod 7 = (3^3 \cdot 3) \bmod 7 = (6 \cdot 3) \bmod 7 = 18 \bmod 7 = 4$</p>

	$3^5 \bmod 7 = (3^4 \cdot 3) \bmod 7 = (4 \cdot 3) \bmod 7 = 12 \bmod 7 = 5$ $3^6 \bmod 7 = (3^5 \cdot 3) \bmod 7 = (5 \cdot 3) \bmod 7 = 15 \bmod 7 = 1$ whereas the element 4 is not a generator as only generates the cyclic subgroup $\{1, 2, 4\}$ of Z_7^* since $4^1 \bmod 7 = 4$ $4^2 \bmod 7 = 16 \bmod 7 = 2$ $4^3 \bmod 7 = (4^2 \cdot 4) \bmod 7 = (2 \cdot 4) \bmod 7 = 1$ Since every element of $Z_7^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ can be written in powers of 3, $Z_7^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ is a cyclic group.
14	Define Ring. A ring $\langle R, +, \cdot \rangle$ is a non-empty set R with two binary operations $+$ and \cdot normally called addition and multiplication, defined on R such that R is closed under $+$ and \cdot , that is for $a, b \in R$, $a + b \in R$ and $a \cdot b \in R$, and where the following axioms are satisfied for all $a, b, c \in R$: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. R_1: $\langle R, + \rangle$ is an abelian group, that is <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ (Associativity under $+$ is satisfied) b. For each $a \in R$, there exists an identity $0 \in R$ where $a + 0 = 0 + a = a$ (R has an additive Identity) c. For each $a \in R$, there exists an $-a \in R$ where $a + (-a) = (-a) + a = 0$ (Each element in R has an additive inverse) d. $a + b = b + a$ (Addition is commutative) 2. R_2: $(ab)c = a(bc)$ (Associativity under \cdot is satisfied) 3. R_3: $a(b + c) = ab + ac$ (Left and Right Distributive laws are satisfied) $(a + b)c = ac + bc$ In short, An algebraic system $\langle R, +, \cdot \rangle$ is called a ring if it satisfies the following properties <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (i) $\langle R, + \rangle$ is an abelian group (ii) $\langle R, \cdot \rangle$ is a semi group (iii) R satisfies distributive law
15	Define a Commutative ring. A commutative ring is a ring R that satisfies $ab = ba$ for all $a, b \in R$ (it is commutative under multiplication). Note that rings are always commutative under addition.
16	Define Zero divisors of a ring with example. A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is said to be ring with zero divisors, if there exists non zero elements a, b in R , such that $ab = 0$. Such elements are called zero divisors. Example: $(\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, +_6, \times_6)$ is a ring and $2 \times_6 3 = 0$. However $2 \neq 0$ & $3 \neq 0$. 2 and 3 are zero divisors of the ring.
17	Define Subring with example. Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ be a ring. A non – empty subset S of R is called a subring of R , if $(S, +, \cdot)$ is a ring. Example: The ring of rational numbers is a subring of the ring of real numbers.
18	Define Integral Domain. A commutative ring R with a unit element is called an integral domain if R has no zero divisors.

19	<p>Define (a) Unit of a ring (b) Division Ring.</p> <p>(a) Let R be a ring with unity $1 \neq 0$. An element $u \in R$ is a unit of R if it has a multiplicative inverse in R. (i.e), for $u \in R$, there exists an element $u^{-1} \in R$ where $u \cdot u^{-1} = u^{-1} \cdot u = 1 \in R$.</p> <p>(b) If every non-zero element of R is a unit, then R is a division ring.</p> <p>(OR)</p> <p>A ring R with unit element having atleast two elements is called a division ring, if every non-zero element of R possesses their multiplicative inverse.</p>
20	<p>Define field in an algebraic system with example.</p> <p>A commutative ring $(F, +, \cdot)$ which has more than one element such that every nonzero element of F has a multiplicative inverse in F is called a field.</p> <p>(OR)</p> <p>A commutative division ring is called a field.</p> <p>Examples:</p> <p>The set of real numbers \mathbb{R} and set of rational numbers \mathbb{Q} under the operations of addition $+$ and multiplication \cdot are fields.</p> <p>However, the set of integers \mathbb{Z} under addition $+$ and multiplication \cdot is not a field since the only non-zero elements that are units is -1 and 1.</p> <p>For example, the integer 2 has no multiplicative inverse since $\frac{1}{2} \notin \mathbb{Z}$.</p>
PART B	
1i)	<p>Let G be the set of all rigid motions of an equilateral triangle. Identify the elements of G. Show that it is a non-abelian group of order six. [NOV/DEC 19]</p>
	<p>Solution:</p> <p>Consider an equilateral triangle with vertices named as 1, 2, 3.</p> <p>Let π_0, π_1, π_2 denote the rotations of the triangle in the counter clockwise direction about an axis through the centre of the triangle and perpendicular to the plane of the triangle for an angle of $120^\circ, 240^\circ, 360^\circ$ respectively.</p> <p>These rotations are called rigid motions of the triangle and are given by</p> $\pi_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \pi_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \pi_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$  <p>Let r_1, r_2, r_3 denote the reflections of the equilateral triangle along the lines joining vertices 3,1,2 and the mid-points of the opposite sides.</p> <p>Each reflection is a 3-dimensional rigid motion.</p> $r_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, r_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, r_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  <p>Let $G = \{\pi_0, \pi_1, \pi_2, r_1, r_2, r_3\}$.</p> <p>Define binary operations on G as follows</p> $\pi_1 r_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = r_3 \in G$

Cayley's table for G is given by						
	π_0	π_1	π_2	r_1	r_2	r_3
π_0	π_0	π_1	π_2	r_1	r_2	r_3
π_1	π_1	π_2	π_0	r_3	r_1	r_2
π_2	π_2	π_0	π_1	r_2	r_3	r_1
r_1	r_1	r_2	r_3	π_0	π_1	π_2
r_2	r_2	r_3	r_1	π_2	π_0	π_1
r_3	r_3	r_1	r_2	π_1	π_2	π_0

From the table it is clear that G is a group.
 Note that $\pi_2 r_1 = r_2$ and $r_1 \pi_2 = r_3$
 $\therefore \pi_2 r_1 \neq r_1 \pi_2$, G is not an abelian group of order six.

1ii)	<p>Show that (M, \cdot) is an abelian group where $M = \{A, A^2, A^3, A^4\}$ with $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and “\cdot” is the ordinary matrix multiplication. Further prove that (M, \cdot) is isomorphic to the abelian group (G, \cdot) where $G = \{1, -1, i, -i\}$ and “\cdot” is the ordinary multiplication.</p>
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<p>Solution:</p> $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}; A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}; A^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}; A^4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$ <p>For all $1 \leq m, n \leq 4$, $A^m \cdot A^n = A^{m+n} = A^r$ where $1 < r < 4$ and $m + n \equiv r \pmod{4}$. Thus \cdot is a closure operation. Since matrix multiplication is associative so is “\cdot”. $A^4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$ is the identity. $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = A^3$ $(A^2)^{-1} = \frac{1}{1} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = A^2$ $(A^3)^{-1} = \frac{1}{1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = A$ $(A^4)^{-1} = \frac{1}{1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I = A^4$</p> <p>For all $1 \leq m, n \leq 4$, $A^m \cdot A^n = A^{m+n}$ $= A^{n+m}$ $= A^n \cdot A^m$,</p> <p>so “\cdot” is commutative. $\therefore (M, \cdot)$ is an abelian group .</p> <p>Define $f: M \rightarrow G$ such that $f(A) = i, f(A^2) = -1 = i^2, f(A^3) = -i = i^3, f(A^4) = 1 = i^4$ $\therefore f$ is 1-1 and onto Since $i^3 = -i = f(A^3) = f(A \cdot A^2) = f(A) f(A^2) = i \cdot i^2 = i^3 = -i$ Hence f is isomorphic from M to G.</p>

2i)	<p>Let G be a group subgroups H and K. If $G =660$, $K =66$ and $K \subset H \subset G$, what are the possible values of H ? [NOV/DEC 19]</p>
	<p>Solution: $O(K) < O(H) < O(G)$ and $O(K)$ divides $O(H)$ and $O(H)$ divides $O(G)$. $O(K) = K = 66 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 11$. $O(G) = G = 660 = 2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 11$. K divides H and $K < H$ $\Rightarrow H = x K = x (2 \cdot 3 \cdot 11)$, with $x > 1$ H divides G and $H < G$ $\Rightarrow G = y H = y x (2 \cdot 3 \cdot 11)$, with $y > 1$ $\Rightarrow 660 = y x (2 \cdot 3 \cdot 11)$ $2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 11 = y x (2 \cdot 3 \cdot 11)$ $2 \cdot 5 = y x$, with $x > 1, y > 1$ $\Rightarrow x = 2$ or $x = 5$ When $x = 2 \Rightarrow H = 2 (2 \cdot 3 \cdot 11) = 132$ When $x = 5 \Rightarrow H = 5 (2 \cdot 3 \cdot 11) = 330$.</p>
2ii)	<p>Find $[100]^{-1}$ in Z_{1009}. [NOV/DEC 19]</p>
	<p>Solution: $\gcd(100, 1009) = 1$, By Euclidean Algorithm, $1009 = 10(100) + 9$ -----(1) $100 = 11(9) + 1$ -----(2) By (2) $\Rightarrow 1 = 100 - 11(9)$ $= 100 - 11[1009 - 10(100)]$ (by (1)) $= 100 + 110(100) - 11(1009)$ $= 111(100) - 11(1009)$ $= (111)(100) \pmod{1009}$ $\therefore [1] = [111][100] \pmod{1009}$ $\Rightarrow [100]^{-1}$ is $[111]$ in Z_{1009}.</p>
2iii)	<p>Prove that every subgroup of a cyclic group is cyclic.</p>
	<p>Proof: Let $(G, *)$ be the cyclic group generated by an element $a \in G$ and let H be the subgroup of G. Claim: H is cyclic Case1: H is a trivial subgroup of G (i.e) $H = G$ or $H = \{e\}$ If $H = G$ or $\{e\}$ then trivially H is cyclic. Case2: H is a non - trivial subgroup of G If not the elements of H are non-zero integral powers of a. Since if $a^r \in H$, its inverse $a^{-r} \in H$. Let "m" be the smallest positive integer such that $a^m \in H$. \rightarrow (1) Let a^n be any arbitrary element of H. Let q be the quotient and r be the remainder when n is divided by m. Then $n = qm + r$ where $0 \leq r < m$. \rightarrow (2) Now $a^n = a^{qm+r} = (a^m)^q \cdot a^r$ $a^r = (a^m)^{-q} \cdot a^n = a^{n-mq}$ Since $a^m \in H$, $(a^m)^q \in H$ by closure property, $\Rightarrow a^{mq} \in H$ $(a^{mq})^{-1} \in H$, by existence of inverse, as H is a subgroup $\Rightarrow a^{-mq} \in H$ Since $a^n \in H$ and $a^{-mq} \in H$ by closure property $\Rightarrow a^{n-mq} \in H \therefore a^r \in H$</p>

	<p>By (1) & (2), we get $r = 0$, $\therefore n = mq$</p> $a^n = a^{mq} = (a^m)^q.$ <p>Thus every element of $a^n \in H$ is of the form $(a^m)^q$</p> <p>Hence H is a cyclic subgroup generated by a^m.</p>
3i)	<p>Let $A = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} / a \in R \right\}$ (a) Show that A is a ring under matrix addition and multiplication (b) Prove that R is isomorphic to A.</p>
	<p>Proof:</p> <p>(a) For any $B = \begin{bmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$ and $C = \begin{bmatrix} c & 0 \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix}$, we have</p> $B + C = \begin{bmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} c & 0 \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b+c & 0 \\ 0 & b+c \end{bmatrix} \in A \text{ and}$ $B \cdot C = \begin{bmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} c & 0 \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} bc & 0 \\ 0 & bc \end{bmatrix} \in A$ <p>Also for any $B = \begin{bmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$, the additive inverse $-B = \begin{bmatrix} -b & 0 \\ 0 & -b \end{bmatrix}$ exists such that</p> $B + (-B) = \begin{bmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -b & 0 \\ 0 & -b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \in A.$ <p>Distributive Laws:</p> $A \cdot (B + C) = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} \cdot \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} c & 0 \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix} \right\} = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} b+c & 0 \\ 0 & b+c \end{bmatrix}$ $A \cdot (B + C) = \begin{bmatrix} a \cdot (b+c) & 0 \\ 0 & a \cdot (b+c) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (a \cdot b + a \cdot c) & 0 \\ 0 & (a \cdot b + a \cdot c) \end{bmatrix}$ $= \begin{bmatrix} a \cdot b & 0 \\ 0 & a \cdot b \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} a \cdot c & 0 \\ 0 & a \cdot c \end{bmatrix}$ $= \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} c & 0 \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix} = A \cdot B + A \cdot C$ <p>Similarly, $(B + C) \cdot A = B \cdot A + C \cdot A$</p> <p>Thus A is a ring.</p> <p>(b) To prove isomorphism, consider a one-to-one and onto function f from R onto A defined as follows For all $r \in R$, $f : R \rightarrow A$ where $f(r) = \begin{bmatrix} r & 0 \\ 0 & r \end{bmatrix}$</p> <p>i.e., for any real number we associate a 2nd order scalar matrix.</p> <p>Now for any $r, s \in R$</p> $f(r+s) = \begin{bmatrix} r+s & 0 \\ 0 & r+s \end{bmatrix}$ $= \begin{bmatrix} r & 0 \\ 0 & r \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} s & 0 \\ 0 & s \end{bmatrix} = f(r) + f(s)$

	$f(r \cdot s) = \begin{bmatrix} rs & 0 \\ 0 & rs \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r & 0 \\ 0 & r \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} s & 0 \\ 0 & s \end{bmatrix} = f(r) \cdot f(s)$ <p>Thus two operations $+$, \cdot are preserved and f is 1-1 and onto. $\therefore f$ is an isomorphism from R to A.</p>
3ii)	<p>Prove that every group of prime order is cyclic.</p> <p>Proof: Let $O(G) = p$, where p is a prime number. Let $a (\neq e) \in G$. Consider a subgroup generated by a. Let $H = \langle a \rangle$ $\Rightarrow O(H) > 1$ [$\because H = \langle a \rangle \Rightarrow a \in H$ & also $e \in H \Rightarrow O(H) > 1$] Since H is a subgroup of G, then by Lagrange's theorem, $O(H)/O(G) \Rightarrow O(H)/p$ $\Rightarrow O(H) = 1$ or p [$\because p$ is prime] But $O(H) > 1, \therefore O(H) \neq 1$. Thus $O(H) = p = O(G) \therefore G = H$ But H is a cyclic group, $\therefore G$ is a cyclic group.</p>
4i)	<p>Let (G, \circ) and $(H, *)$ be groups with respective identities e_G, e_H. If $f: G \rightarrow H$ is a homomorphism, then show that</p> <p>(a) $f(e_G) = e_H$</p> <p>(b) $f(a^{-1}) = [f(a)]^{-1} \forall a \in G$</p> <p>(c) $f(a^n) = [f(a)]^n \forall a \in G$ and all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$</p> <p>(d) $f(S)$ is a subgroup of H for each subgroup S of G.</p>
	<p>Proof:</p> <p>(a) $e_H * f(e_G) = f(e_G) = f(e_G \circ e_G) = f(e_G) * f(e_G)$ $\therefore e_H = f(e_G)$, by right cancellation law</p> <p>(b) Let $a \in G$, since G is a group, $a^{-1} \in G$ Since G is a group, $a * a^{-1} = e_G$ By homomorphism $f(a * a^{-1}) = f(e_G)$ $f(a) \circ f(a^{-1}) = e_H$ Hence $f(a^{-1})$ is the inverse of $f(a)$ i.e., $f(a^{-1}) = [f(a)]^{-1} \forall a \in G$</p> <p>(c) $\forall a \in G$ and all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$</p> <p>Case(i): if $n=0$ then $a^n = a^0 = e_G$ $f(a^0) = f(e_G) = e_H = [f(a)]^0$ $\Rightarrow f(a^n) = [f(a)]^n$</p> <p>Case(ii): if n is a positive integer then</p>

	$a^n = a \circ a \circ a \circ \dots \circ a \text{ (n times)}$ $f(a^n) = f(a \circ a \circ a \circ \dots \circ a) \text{ (n times)}$ $= f(a) * f(a) * f(a) * \dots * f(a)$ $= [f(a)]^n$ <p>Case (iii): if n is a negative integer, then $n = -r$, $r > 0$.</p> $f(a^n) = f(a^{-r}) = f[(a^{-1})^r] = [f(a^{-1})]^r = [f(a)]^{-r} = [f(a)]^n$ $\therefore f(a^n) = [f(a)]^n \forall a \in G \text{ and all } n \in \mathbb{Z}$ <p>(d) If S is a subgroup of G, then $S \neq \phi$, so $f(S) \neq \phi$. Let $x, y \in f(S)$. Then $x = f(a)$, $y = f(b)$ for some $a, b \in S$. Since S is a subgroup of G, it follows that $\therefore a \circ b \in S$, $f(a) * f(b) = f(a \circ b) \in f(S)$ $\Rightarrow x * y \in f(S)$, so $f(S)$ is closed Finally, $x^{-1} = [f(a)]^{-1} = f[a^{-1}]$ $\therefore a \in S \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in S$ & $f[a^{-1}] \in f(S)$ $x^{-1} \in f(S)$ $\therefore f(S)$ is a subgroup of H for each subgroup S of G.</p>
4ii)	<p>Prove that Z_n is a field if and only if n is a prime. [NOV/DEC 20]</p> <p>Proof: We have $Z_n = \{[0], [1], [2], \dots, [n-1]\}$ We know $(Z_n, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring with identity $[1]$. Let n be a prime, and suppose that $0 < a < n$ then $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ \therefore there exists integers s, t such that $as + tn = 1$ $\Rightarrow sa - 1 = (-t)n$ $\therefore sa - 1$ is divisible by n $\Rightarrow sa \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ $\Rightarrow [s][a] = [1]$ $\therefore [s]$ is the multiplicative inverse of $[a]$. Thus $[a]$ is a unit of Z_n, which is consequently a field Conversely, let Z_n be a field. So Z_n is a commutative ring with identity and without zero divisions of zero. To prove n is a prime. if n is not a prime, then $n = n_1 n_2$, where $1 < n_1, n_2 < n$. So $[n_1] \neq [0]$ and $[n_2] \neq [0]$ But $[n_1][n_2] = [n_1 n_2] = [n] = [0]$ $\therefore [n_1], [n_2]$ are divisors of zero which contradicts the fact Z_n is a field. Hence n is a prime.</p>

5i)	<p>Prove that the set R of numbers of the form $a + b\sqrt{2}$, where a and b are integers, is a ring with respect to ordinary addition and multiplication.</p>
	<p>Proof:</p> <p>1. Closure : Let $x_1 = a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2}$, $x_2 = a_2 + b_2\sqrt{2} \in R$ where $a_1, a_2, b_1, b_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$</p> $x_1 + x_2 = (a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2}) + (a_2 + b_2\sqrt{2}) = (a_1 + a_2) + (b_1 + b_2)\sqrt{2} \in R$ <p>where $(a_1 + a_2) \& (b_1 + b_2) \in \mathbb{Z}$.</p> <p>$\therefore R$ is closed under $+$.</p> <p>2. Associative: Let $x_1 = a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2}$, $x_2 = a_2 + b_2\sqrt{2}$, $x_3 = a_3 + b_3\sqrt{2} \in R$ where $a_1, a_2, a_3, b_1, b_2, b_3 \in \mathbb{Z}$</p> $\begin{aligned} (x_1 + x_2) + x_3 &= [(a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2}) + (a_2 + b_2\sqrt{2})] + (a_3 + b_3\sqrt{2}) \\ &= [(a_1 + a_2) + (b_1 + b_2)\sqrt{2}] + (a_3 + b_3\sqrt{2}) \\ &= [(a_1 + a_2) + a_3] + [(b_1 + b_2) + b_3]\sqrt{2} \\ &= [a_1 + (a_2 + a_3)] + [b_1 + (b_2 + b_3)]\sqrt{2} \\ &= (a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2}) + [(a_2 + a_3) + (b_2 + b_3)\sqrt{2}] \\ &= (a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2}) + [(a_2 + b_2\sqrt{2}) + (a_3 + b_3\sqrt{2})] = x_1 + (x_2 + x_3) \end{aligned}$ <p>3. Identity: $0 + 0\sqrt{2} \in R$</p> $(a + b\sqrt{2}) + (0 + 0\sqrt{2}) = (a + 0) + (b + 0)\sqrt{2} = a + b\sqrt{2}$ <p>4. Inverse: $a + b\sqrt{2}, -a - b\sqrt{2} \in R$</p> $(a + b\sqrt{2}) + (-a - b\sqrt{2}) = (a - a) + (b - b)\sqrt{2} = 0 + 0\sqrt{2}$ <p>$(-a) + (-b)\sqrt{2}$ is the identity inverse of $a + b\sqrt{2}$</p> <p>5. Commutative law:</p> $\begin{aligned} x_1 + x_2 &= (a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2}) + (a_2 + b_2\sqrt{2}) = (a_1 + a_2) + (b_1 + b_2)\sqrt{2} \\ &= (a_2 + a_1) + (b_2 + b_1)\sqrt{2} \\ &= (a_2 + b_2\sqrt{2}) + (a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2}) = x_2 + x_1 \end{aligned}$ <p><u>Under Multiplication</u></p> <p>6. Closure Axioms:</p> $\begin{aligned} x_1 x_2 &= (a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2}) \cdot (a_2 + b_2\sqrt{2}) \\ &= (a_1 a_2 + 2b_1 b_2) + (a_2 b_1 + a_1 b_2)\sqrt{2} \end{aligned}$ <p>$a_1 a_2 + 2b_1 b_2, a_2 b_1 + a_1 b_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\therefore x_1 x_2 \in R$</p>

	<p>7. Associative:</p> $\begin{aligned}(x_1 \cdot x_2) \cdot x_3 &= \left[(a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2}) \cdot (a_2 + b_2\sqrt{2}) \right] \cdot (a_3 + b_3\sqrt{2}) \\&= \left[(a_1a_2 + 2b_1b_2) + (a_2b_1 + a_1b_2)\sqrt{2} \right] \cdot (a_3 + b_3\sqrt{2}) \\&= \left[(a_1a_2 + 2b_1b_2)a_3 + 2(a_2b_1 + a_1b_2)b_3 \right] \\&\quad + \left[(a_1a_2 + 2b_1b_2)b_3 + (a_2b_1 + a_1b_2)a_3 \right] \sqrt{2} \\&= x_1 \cdot (x_2 \cdot x_3)\end{aligned}$ <p>8. Distributive Laws :</p> $\begin{aligned}x_1 \cdot (x_2 + x_3) &= (a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2}) \cdot \left[(a_2 + b_2\sqrt{2}) + (a_3 + b_3\sqrt{2}) \right] \\&= (a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2}) \cdot \left[(a_2 + a_3) + (b_2 + b_3)\sqrt{2} \right] \\&= \left[a_1(a_2 + a_3) + 2(b_2 + b_3)b_1 \right] + \left[b_1(a_2 + a_3) + (b_2 + b_3)a_1 \right] \sqrt{2} \\&= (a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2}) \cdot (a_2 + b_2\sqrt{2}) + (a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2}) \cdot (a_3 + b_3\sqrt{2}) \\&= a_1a_2 + a_1a_3 + 2b_1b_2 + 2b_1b_3 + \sqrt{2}a_2b_1 + \sqrt{2}a_3b_1 + \sqrt{2}a_1b_2 + \sqrt{2}a_1b_3 \\&= \left[(a_1a_2 + 2b_1b_2) + (a_1b_2 + a_2b_1)\sqrt{2} \right] + \left[(a_1a_3 + 2b_1b_3) + (a_1b_3 + a_3b_1)\sqrt{2} \right] \\x_1 \cdot (x_2 + x_3) &= x_1 \cdot x_2 + x_1 \cdot x_3 \\(x_2 + x_3) \cdot x_1 &= x_2 \cdot x_1 + x_3 \cdot x_1 \\ \text{Hence the given set is a ring.}\end{aligned}$
5ii)	<p>Prove that $(\mathbb{Q}, \oplus, \circ)$ is a ring on the set of rational numbers under the binary operations $x \oplus y = x + y + 7$, $x \circ y = x + y + (xy/7)$ for $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$. [NOV/DEC 19]</p>
	<p>Proof:</p> <p>1. Closure : For $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$, $x \oplus y = x + y + 7 \in \mathbb{Q}$ (sum of two rational numbers is always rational)</p> <p>2. Associative: $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Q}$ $\begin{aligned}(x \oplus y) \oplus z &= (x + y + 7) \oplus z = (x + y + 7) + z + 7 = x + (y + z + 7) + 7 \\&= x \oplus (y + z + 7) \\&= x \oplus (y \oplus z)\end{aligned}$</p> <p>3. Identity: $x, e \in \mathbb{Q}$, $x \oplus e = x + e + 7$ if e is the identity then $x \oplus e = x$ $\therefore x = x + e + 7 \Rightarrow e = -7$</p> <p>4. Inverse: For x, $x^{-1} \in \mathbb{Q}$ $x \oplus x^{-1} = x + x^{-1} + 7$ If x^{-1} is the inverse of x then, $x \oplus x^{-1} = e$ $\therefore x + x^{-1} + 7 = e \quad (e = -7)$ $x + x^{-1} + 7 = -7 \Rightarrow x^{-1} = -x - 14$</p> <p>5. Commutative law: For $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$, $x \oplus y = x + y + 7 = y + x + 7 = y \oplus x$</p> <p>Under Multiplication</p> <p>6. Closure Axioms: For $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$, $x \circ y = x + y + (xy/7) \in \mathbb{Q}$</p>

	<p>7. Associative: $x, y, z \in Q, (x \circ y) \circ z = [x + y + (xy/7)] \circ z$ $= [x + y + (xy/7)] + z + \{ [x + y + (xy/7)] z \} / 7$ $= x + y + z + (xy/7) + \{ [xz + yz + (xyz/7)] \} / 7$ $= x + y + z + (xy/7) + (xz/7) + (zy/7) + (xyz/49) \text{ -----(1)}$ $x \circ (y \circ z) = x \circ [y + z + (yz/7)]$ $= x + [y + z + (yz/7)] + \{ [y + z + (yz/7)] x \} / 7$ $= x + y + z + (yz/7) + \{ [yx + zx + (xyz/7)] \} / 7$ $= x + y + z + (xy/7) + (xz/7) + (zy/7) + (xyz/49) \text{ -----(2)}$ From (1) and (2), $(x \circ y) \circ z = x \circ (y \circ z)$ 8. Distributive Laws : $x \circ (y \oplus z) = x \circ (y + z + 7) = x + (y + z + 7) + [x(y + z + 7)]/7$ $= x + y + z + 7 + (xy/7) + (xz/7) + x$ $(x \circ y) \oplus (x \circ z) = [x + y + (xy/7)] \oplus [x + z + (xz/7)]$ $= [x + y + (xy/7)] + [x + z + (xz/7)] + 7$ $= x + y + z + 7 + (xy/7) + (xz/7) + x$ $\therefore x \circ (y \oplus z) = (x \circ y) \oplus (x \circ z)$ Hence the given set (Q, \oplus, \circ) is a ring.</p>
5iii)	<p>Show that a finite integral domain is a field</p>
	<p>Proof: Let $\{D, +, \cdot\}$ be a finite integral domain. Then D has a finite number of distinct elements, say $\{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n\}$. Let $a (\neq 0)$ be any element of D. Then the elements $a \cdot a_1, a \cdot a_2, a \cdot a_3, \dots, a \cdot a_n \in D$, since D is closed under multiplication. The elements $a \cdot a_1, a \cdot a_2, a \cdot a_3, \dots, a \cdot a_n$ are distinct, because if $a \cdot a_i = a \cdot a_j \in D$, then $a \cdot (a_i - a_j) = 0$. But $a \neq 0$. Hence $a_i - a_j = 0$, since D is an integral domain i.e., $a_i = a_j$, which is not true because $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n$ are distinct elements of D. Hence the sets $\{a \cdot a_1, a \cdot a_2, a \cdot a_3, \dots, a \cdot a_n\}$ and $\{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n\}$ are the same. Since $a \in D$ is in both sets, let $a \cdot a_k = a$, for some $k \rightarrow (1)$ Then a_k is the unity of D, detailed as follows: Let $a_j = a \cdot a_i, a_j \in D \rightarrow (2)$ Now $a_j \cdot a_k = a_k \cdot a_j$, by commutative property $= a_k \cdot (a \cdot a_i)$, by (2) $= (a_k \cdot a) \cdot a_i$ $= (a \cdot a_k) \cdot a_i$, by commutative property $= a \cdot a_i$, by (1) $= a_j$, by (2) Since a_j is an arbitrary element of D, a_k is the unity of D. Let it be denoted by 1. Since $1 \in D$, there exists $a (\neq 0)$ and $a_i \in D$ such that $a \cdot a_i = a_i \cdot a = 1$ $\therefore a$ has an inverse. Hence $\{D, +, \cdot\}$ be a finite integral domain.</p>

UNIT- II FINITE FIELDS AND POLYNOMIALS PART A	
1	<p>Define Polynomial rings.</p> <p>Given a ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ an expression of the form $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n$ where $a_i \in R, \forall 0 \leq i \leq n$, is called polynomial in the indeterminate x with the coefficients from R. Then $(R[x], +, \cdot)$ is a ring called the polynomial ring over R under the operation of addition and multiplication given by, if $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n$ and $g(x) = b_0 + b_1x + \cdots + b_nx^n$ $a_i, b_i \in R, \forall 0 \leq i \leq n$, then polynomial addition $f + g$ is given in terms of its values at the points x, i.e., by $(f + g)(x)$ and it is given by</p> $f(x) + g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n c_i x^i = c_0 + c_1x + \cdots + c_nx^n, \text{ where } c_i = a_i + b_i, 0 \leq i \leq n$ <p>and for polynomial multiplication fg, we have</p> $(fg)(x) := f(x)g(x) = d_0 + d_1x + \cdots + d_nx^n, \quad \text{where } d_n = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i b_{n-i}.$
2.	<p>If $f(x) = 3x^4 + 7x^3 + 5x^2 + 2x + 4$ and $g(x) = 2x^3 + 8x^2 + 6x + 5$ are the polynomial in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, then find the value of $f(x) + g(x)$ and $f(x) - g(x)$.</p> <p>Given that $f(x) = 3x^4 + 7x^3 + 5x^2 + 2x + 4$ and $g(x) = 2x^3 + 8x^2 + 6x + 5$, then</p> $f(x) + g(x) = (3+0)x^4 + (7+2)x^3 + (5+8)x^2 + (2+6)x + (4+5) = 3x^4 + 9x^3 + 13x^2 + 8x + 9$ $\& f(x) - g(x) = (3-0)x^4 + (7-2)x^3 + (5-8)x^2 + (2-6)x + (4-5) = 3x^4 + 5x^3 - 3x^2 - 3x - 4$
3.	<p>If $f(x) = 2x^4 - 2x^3 + 5x^2$ and $g(x) = 5x^2 + 4x + 3$ are the polynomial in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, then find the value of $f(x).g(x)$.</p> $f(x).g(x) = (2x^4 - 2x^3 + 5x^2).(5x^2 + 4x + 3)$ $= 10x^6 + (8-10)x^5 + (6-8+25)x^4 + (-6+20)x^3 + 15x^2$ $= 10x^6 - 2x^5 + 23x^4 + 14x^3 + 15x^2$
4.	<p>If $f(x) = 3x^4 + 5x^3 + 4x^2 + 6x + 3$ and $g(x) = 4x^3 + 3x^2 + 2x + 1$ are the polynomial in $\mathbb{Z}_7[x]$, then find the value of $f(x) + g(x)$ and $g(x) - f(x)$.</p> $f(x) + g(x) = (3+0)x^4 + (5+4)x^3 + (4+3)x^2 + (6+2)x + (3+1) = 3x^4 + 9x^3 + 7x^2 + 8x + 4$ <p>In $\mathbb{Z}_7[x]$, $f(x) + g(x) = 3x^4 + 2x^3 + 0x^2 + x + 4 = 3x^4 + 2x^3 + x + 4$</p> $\text{and } f(x) - g(x) = (3-0)x^4 + (5-4)x^3 + (4-3)x^2 + (6-2)x + (3-1) = 3x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + 4x + 2.$ <p>Therefore $g(x) - f(x) = -3x^4 - x^3 - x^2 - 4x - 2$.</p> <p>In $\mathbb{Z}_7[x]$, $g(x) - f(x) = -3x^4 - x^3 - x^2 - 4x - 2 = 4x^4 + 6x^3 + 6x^2 + 3x + 5$.</p>
5.	<p>If $f(x) = x^3 - 2x^2 - x + 2$ and $g(x) = x^3 + x^2 - x - 2$ are the polynomial in $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]$, then find $f(x).g(x)$</p> $f(x).g(x) = (x^3 - 2x^2 - x + 2).(x^3 + x^2 - x - 2)$ $= x^6 + (-2+1)x^5 + (-1-2-1)x^4 + (2-1-2+2)x^3 + (4+1+2)x^2 + (2-2)x - 4$ $= x^6 - x^5 - 4x^4 + x^3 + 7x^2 - 4$ <p>In $\mathbb{Z}_7[x]$, $f(x).g(x) = x^6 - x^5 - 4x^4 + x^3 + 7x^2 - 4 = x^6 + 6x^5 + 3x^4 + x^3 + 3$.</p>

6.	Find two non-zero polynomials $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ in $Z_{12}[x]$ such that $f(x).g(x)=0$.																										
	<p>Let $f(x) = 3x^2 + 6x + 9$, $g(x) = 4x^2 + 8x + 4$</p> <p>$f(x).g(x) = (3x^2 + 6x + 9).(4x^2 + 8x + 4) = 12x^4 + 48x^3 + 96x^2 + 96x + 36$</p> <p>In $Z_{12}[x]$, $f(x).g(x) = 0x^4 + 0x^3 + 0x^2 + 0x + 0 = 0$</p>																										
7.	State factor theorem and find the factors of $x^2 + 3x + 2 \in Z_6[x]$																										
	<p>If $f(x) \in F[x]$ and $a \in F$, then $(x-a)$ is the factor when $f(x)$ if and only if 'a' is a root of $f(x)$.</p> <p>$f(x) = x^2 + 3x + 2$, $Z_6 = \{[0],[1],[2],[3],[4],[5]\}$</p> <p>$f(0) = (0)^2 + 3(0) + 2 = 2$</p> <p>$f(1) = (1)^2 + 3(1) + 2 = 6 = 0$</p> <p>$f(2) = (2)^2 + 3(2) + 2 = 12 = 0$</p> <p>$f(3) = (3)^2 + 3(3) + 2 = 20 = 2$</p> <p>$f(4) = (4)^2 + 3(4) + 2 = 30 = 0$</p> <p>$f(5) = (5)^2 + 3(5) + 2 = 42 = 0$</p> <p>Therefore $f(x) = x^2 + 3x + 2$ in $Z_6[x]$ has four roots $x = 1, 2, 4, 5$.</p> <p>The factors are $(x-1)$, $(x-2)$, $(x-4)$, $(x-5)$</p>																										
8.	Find all the roots of $f(x) = x^2 + 4x$ in $Z_{12}[x]$																										
	<p>Given $f(x) = x^2 + 4x$, $Z_{12} = \{[0],[1],[2],[3],[4],[5],[6],[7],[8],[9],[10],[11]\}$</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>$f(x) = x^2 + 4x$</th><th>Under $Z_{12}[x]$</th></tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>$f(0) = 0^2 + 4(0) = 0$</td><td>$f(0) = 0$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(1) = (1)^2 + 4(1) = 5$</td><td>$f(1) = 5$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(2) = (2)^2 + 4(2) = 12$</td><td>$f(2) = 12(\text{mod } 12) = 0$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(3) = (3)^2 + 4(3) = 21$</td><td>$f(3) = 21(\text{mod } 12) = 9$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(4) = (4)^2 + 4(4) = 32$</td><td>$f(4) = 32(\text{mod } 12) = 8$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(5) = (5)^2 + 4(5) = 45$</td><td>$f(5) = 45(\text{mod } 12) = 9$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(6) = (6)^2 + 4(6) = 60$</td><td>$f(6) = 60(\text{mod } 12) = 0$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(7) = (7)^2 + 4(7) = 77$</td><td>$f(7) = 77(\text{mod } 12) = 5$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(8) = (8)^2 + 4(8) = 96$</td><td>$f(8) = 96(\text{mod } 12) = 0$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(9) = (9)^2 + 4(9) = 117$</td><td>$f(9) = 117(\text{mod } 12) = 9$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(10) = (10)^2 + 4(10) = 140$</td><td>$f(10) = 140(\text{mod } 12) = 8$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(11) = (11)^2 + 4(11) = 165$</td><td>$f(11) = 165(\text{mod } 12) = 9$</td></tr> </tbody> </table> <p>Therefore $f(x) = x^2 + 4x$ in $Z_{12}[x]$ has four roots $x = 0, 2, 6, 8$.</p>	$f(x) = x^2 + 4x$	Under $Z_{12}[x]$	$f(0) = 0^2 + 4(0) = 0$	$f(0) = 0$	$f(1) = (1)^2 + 4(1) = 5$	$f(1) = 5$	$f(2) = (2)^2 + 4(2) = 12$	$f(2) = 12(\text{mod } 12) = 0$	$f(3) = (3)^2 + 4(3) = 21$	$f(3) = 21(\text{mod } 12) = 9$	$f(4) = (4)^2 + 4(4) = 32$	$f(4) = 32(\text{mod } 12) = 8$	$f(5) = (5)^2 + 4(5) = 45$	$f(5) = 45(\text{mod } 12) = 9$	$f(6) = (6)^2 + 4(6) = 60$	$f(6) = 60(\text{mod } 12) = 0$	$f(7) = (7)^2 + 4(7) = 77$	$f(7) = 77(\text{mod } 12) = 5$	$f(8) = (8)^2 + 4(8) = 96$	$f(8) = 96(\text{mod } 12) = 0$	$f(9) = (9)^2 + 4(9) = 117$	$f(9) = 117(\text{mod } 12) = 9$	$f(10) = (10)^2 + 4(10) = 140$	$f(10) = 140(\text{mod } 12) = 8$	$f(11) = (11)^2 + 4(11) = 165$	$f(11) = 165(\text{mod } 12) = 9$
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$f(4) = (4)^2 + 4(4) = 32$	$f(4) = 32(\text{mod } 12) = 8$																										
$f(5) = (5)^2 + 4(5) = 45$	$f(5) = 45(\text{mod } 12) = 9$																										
$f(6) = (6)^2 + 4(6) = 60$	$f(6) = 60(\text{mod } 12) = 0$																										
$f(7) = (7)^2 + 4(7) = 77$	$f(7) = 77(\text{mod } 12) = 5$																										
$f(8) = (8)^2 + 4(8) = 96$	$f(8) = 96(\text{mod } 12) = 0$																										
$f(9) = (9)^2 + 4(9) = 117$	$f(9) = 117(\text{mod } 12) = 9$																										
$f(10) = (10)^2 + 4(10) = 140$	$f(10) = 140(\text{mod } 12) = 8$																										
$f(11) = (11)^2 + 4(11) = 165$	$f(11) = 165(\text{mod } 12) = 9$																										

9.	Find all the roots of $f(x) = x^3 + 5x^2 + 2x + 6$ in $Z_7[x]$ and then write $f(x)$ as a product of first-degree polynomials.																
	<p>$f(x) = x^3 + 5x^2 + 2x + 6$, $Z_7 = \{[0], [1], [2], [3], [4], [5], [6]\}$</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>$f(x) = x^3 + 5x^2 + 2x + 6$</th><th>Under $Z_7[x]$</th></tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>$f(0) = 6$</td><td>$f(0) = 0$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(1) = 1 + 5 + 2 + 6 = 14$</td><td>$f(1) = 0$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(2) = 8 + 20 + 8 + 6 = 42$</td><td>$f(2) = 0$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(3) = 27 + 45 + 6 + 6 = 84$</td><td>$f(3) = 0$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(4) = 64 + 80 + 8 + 6 = 158$</td><td>$f(4) = 158 \pmod{7} = 4$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(5) = 125 + 125 + 10 + 6 = 266$</td><td>$f(5) = 266 \pmod{7} = 0$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(6) = 216 + 180 + 12 + 6 = 404$</td><td>$f(6) = 404 \pmod{7} = 5$</td></tr> </tbody> </table> <p>Therefore $f(x) = x^3 + 5x^2 + 2x + 6$ in $Z_7[x]$ has four roots $x = 1, 3, 5$.</p> <p>The factors are $(x-1), (x-3), (x-5)$</p> <p>In $Z_7[x]$, $f(x) = x^3 + 5x^2 + 2x + 6 = (x+6)(x+4)(x+2)$</p>	$f(x) = x^3 + 5x^2 + 2x + 6$	Under $Z_7[x]$	$f(0) = 6$	$f(0) = 0$	$f(1) = 1 + 5 + 2 + 6 = 14$	$f(1) = 0$	$f(2) = 8 + 20 + 8 + 6 = 42$	$f(2) = 0$	$f(3) = 27 + 45 + 6 + 6 = 84$	$f(3) = 0$	$f(4) = 64 + 80 + 8 + 6 = 158$	$f(4) = 158 \pmod{7} = 4$	$f(5) = 125 + 125 + 10 + 6 = 266$	$f(5) = 266 \pmod{7} = 0$	$f(6) = 216 + 180 + 12 + 6 = 404$	$f(6) = 404 \pmod{7} = 5$
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10.	Show that $x^2 - 2$ has no roots in $Q[x]$																
	<p>$x^2 - 2$ has roots $\sqrt{2}$ and $-\sqrt{2}$ which are irrational numbers. Thus $\sqrt{2}$ and $-\sqrt{2} \notin Q$.</p> <p>Therefore $x^2 - 2$ has no roots in $Q[x]$</p>																
11.	State Division Algorithm																
	<p>Let F be a field and let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be two polynomials in $F(x)$ with $g(x) \neq 0$.</p> <p>Then there exists unique polynomials $q(x)$ and $r(x)$ such that</p> $f(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x) \text{ where either } r(x) = 0 \text{ (or) } \deg r(x) < \deg g(x)$																
12.	State remainder theorem and What is the remainder when $f(x) = x^5 + 2x^3 + x^2 + 2x + 3 \in Z_5[x]$ is divisible by $(x-1)$																
	<p>If $f(x) \in F[x]$ & $a \in F$ for any field F, then $f(a)$ is the remainder when $f(x)$ is divided by $x-a$.</p> <p>By remainder theorem, remainder for given $f(x) = x^5 + 2x^3 + x^2 + 2x + 3$ is $f(1)$.</p> <p>Here $f(1) = (1)^5 + 2(1)^3 + (1)^2 + 2(1) + 3 = 9$.</p> <p>In $Z_5[x]$, $f(1) = 4$.</p> <p>Hence remainder is 4.</p>																

13.	Find quotient and remainder when $g(x) = x^2 + 5$ divides $f(x) = x^5 + 2x^3 + 3x^2 + x - 1$ where $f(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_7[x]$.
	$ \begin{array}{r} x^3 + 4x + 3 \\ \overline{) \cancel{x^5} + 0x^4 + 2x^3 + 3x^2 + x - 1} \\ \underline{\cancel{x^5} + 0x^4 + 5x^3} \\ \phantom{\cancel{x^5} + 0x^4 + } 4x^3 + 3x^2 \\ \underline{\phantom{\cancel{x^5} + 0x^4 + } 4x^3 - 0x^2 + 20x} \\ \phantom{\cancel{x^5} + 0x^4 + } 3x^2 + 2x + 6 \\ \underline{\phantom{\cancel{x^5} + 0x^4 + } 3x^2 + 0x + 15} \\ \phantom{\cancel{x^5} + 0x^4 + } 2x + 5 \end{array} $ <p>Quotient = $x^3 + 4x + 3$ and Remainder = $2x + 5$.</p>
14.	If $f(x) = 2x^4 + 5x^3 - 7x^2 + 4x + 8$ and $g(x) = 2x - 1$ are polynomials in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, determine $q(x)$ and $r(x)$ such that $f(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x)$.
	$ \begin{array}{r} x^3 + 3x^2 - 2x + 1 \\ \overline{) \cancel{2x^4} + 5x^3 - 7x^2 + 4x + 8} \\ \underline{\cancel{2x^4} - x^3} \\ \phantom{\cancel{2x^4} + } 6x^3 - 7x^2 \\ \underline{\phantom{\cancel{2x^4} + } 6x^3 - 3x^2} \\ \phantom{\cancel{2x^4} + } -4x^2 + 4x \\ \underline{\phantom{\cancel{2x^4} + } -4x^2 + 2x} \\ \phantom{\cancel{2x^4} + } 2x + 8 \\ \underline{\phantom{\cancel{2x^4} + } 2x - 1} \\ \phantom{\cancel{2x^4} + } 9 \end{array} $ <p>$q(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 - 2x + 1$ and $r(x) = 9$</p>
15.	Define g.c.d of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$
	<p>If $f(x), g(x) \in F[x]$, then $h(x) \in F[x]$ is a greatest common divisor of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$</p> <p>(i) if $h(x)$ divides each of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$</p> <p>(ii) if $k(x) \in F[x]$ and $k(x)$ divides each of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ then $k(x)$ divides $h(x)$.</p>
16.	Define irreducible polynomial or prime
	<p>Let $f(x) \in F[x]$, with F a field and $\deg f(x) \geq 2$. Then $f(x)$ is said to be reducible over F if there exists $g(x), h(x) \in F[x]$ where $f(x) = g(x)h(x)$ and each of $g(x), h(x)$ has degree ≥ 1. If $f(x)$ is not reducible, then it is called irreducible polynomial or prime.</p>

17.	Determine whether $x^2 + x + 1$ is reducible over $Z_7[x]$																
	<p>Given that $f(x) = x^2 + x + 1$, $Z_7 = \{[0], [1], [2], [3], [4], [5], [6]\}$</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>$f(x) = x^2 + x + 1$</th><th>Under $Z_7[x]$</th></tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>$f(0) = 0^2 + 0 + 1 = 1$</td><td>$f(0) = 1$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(1) = (1)^2 + (1) + 1 = 3$</td><td>$f(1) = 3$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(2) = (2)^2 + (2) + 1 = 7$</td><td>$f(2) = 7(\text{mod } 7) = 0$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(3) = (3)^2 + (3) + 1 = 13$</td><td>$f(3) = 13(\text{mod } 7) = 6$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(4) = (4)^2 + (4) + 1 = 21$</td><td>$f(4) = 21(\text{mod } 7) = 0$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(5) = (5)^2 + (5) + 1 = 31$</td><td>$f(5) = 31(\text{mod } 7) = 3$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(6) = (6)^2 + (6) + 1 = 43$</td><td>$f(6) = 43(\text{mod } 7) = 1$</td></tr> </tbody> </table> <p>The roots of $f(x) = x^2 + x + 1$ are 2, 4</p> $f(x) = x^2 + x + 1 = (x - 2)(x - 4)$ $= (x + 5)(x + 3).$ <p>Therefore $f(x)$ is reducible over $Z_7[x]$</p>	$f(x) = x^2 + x + 1$	Under $Z_7[x]$	$f(0) = 0^2 + 0 + 1 = 1$	$f(0) = 1$	$f(1) = (1)^2 + (1) + 1 = 3$	$f(1) = 3$	$f(2) = (2)^2 + (2) + 1 = 7$	$f(2) = 7(\text{mod } 7) = 0$	$f(3) = (3)^2 + (3) + 1 = 13$	$f(3) = 13(\text{mod } 7) = 6$	$f(4) = (4)^2 + (4) + 1 = 21$	$f(4) = 21(\text{mod } 7) = 0$	$f(5) = (5)^2 + (5) + 1 = 31$	$f(5) = 31(\text{mod } 7) = 3$	$f(6) = (6)^2 + (6) + 1 = 43$	$f(6) = 43(\text{mod } 7) = 1$
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18.	Give an example for an irreducible & reducible polynomials in $Z_2[x]$ [NOV/DEC 19]																
	<p>$Z_2 = \{[0], [1]\}.$</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Irreducible polynomial</th><th>Reducible polynomial</th></tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>$f(x) = x^2 + x + 1$</td><td>$g(x) = x^2 + x$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(0) = 0^2 + 0 + 1 = 1$</td><td>$g(0) = 0^2 + 0 = 0$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$f(1) = 1^2 + 1 + 1 = 3 = 1 (\text{mod } 2)$</td><td>$g(1) = 1^2 + 1 = 2 = 0 (\text{mod } 2)$</td></tr> </tbody> </table>	Irreducible polynomial	Reducible polynomial	$f(x) = x^2 + x + 1$	$g(x) = x^2 + x$	$f(0) = 0^2 + 0 + 1 = 1$	$g(0) = 0^2 + 0 = 0$	$f(1) = 1^2 + 1 + 1 = 3 = 1 (\text{mod } 2)$	$g(1) = 1^2 + 1 = 2 = 0 (\text{mod } 2)$								
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19.	Given an example of a polynomial that is irreducible in $Q[x]$ and reducible in $C[x]$. [NOV/DEC 20]																
	<p>Consider the polynomial $f(x) = x^2 + 2$</p> <p>Solving $f(x) = 0 \Rightarrow x^2 + 2 = 0$</p> $\Rightarrow x^2 = -2$ $\Rightarrow x = \pm i\sqrt{2}$ <p>Clearly $x = \pm i\sqrt{2} \notin Q$, therefore $f(x) = x^2 + 2$ is irreducible in $Q[x]$.</p> <p>But $x = \pm i\sqrt{2} \in C[x]$, therefore $f(x) = x^2 + 2$ is reducible in $C[x]$.</p>																
20.	Define Characteristic of a ring with example.																
	<p>Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ be a ring. If there is a least positive integer n such that $nr = z$ (the zero of R) for all $r \in R$, then we say that R has characteristic n and write $\text{char}(R) = n$.</p> <p>When no such integer exists, R is said to have characteristic 0.</p> <p>Examples:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ The ring $(Z_3, +, \cdot)$ has characteristic 3; $(Z_4, +, \cdot)$ has characteristic 4; In general, $(Z_n, +, \cdot)$ has characteristic n. ➤ The rings $(Z, +, \cdot)$ and $(Q, +, \cdot)$ both have characteristic 0. 																

	PART B
1i).	<p>If R is a ring under usual addition and multiplication, show that $(R[x], +, \times)$ is a ring of polynomials over R.</p> <p>Solution: Let $f(x), g(x) \in R[x]$. Then $f(x) + g(x), f(x) \times g(x)$ are also polynomials over R. Therefore $R[x]$ is closed with respect to addition and multiplication of polynomials.</p> <p>Now let $f(x) = \sum a_i x^i = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + a_3 x^3 + \dots + a_m x^m + \dots$ $g(x) = \sum b_i x^i = b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 x^2 + b_3 x^3 + \dots + b_m x^m + \dots$ $h(x) = \sum c_i x^i = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + c_3 x^3 + \dots + c_m x^m + \dots$</p> <p>Commutativity of Addition: $f(x) + g(x) = (a_0 + b_0) + (a_1 + b_1)x + (a_2 + b_2)x^2 + \dots + (a_m + b_m)x^m + \dots$ $= (b_0 + a_0) + (b_1 + a_1)x + (b_2 + a_2)x^2 + \dots + (b_m + a_m)x^m + \dots = g(x) + f(x)$</p> <p>Associative of Addition $[f(x) + g(x)] + h(x) = \left(\sum a_i x^i + b_i x^i \right) + \sum c_i x^i$ $= \sum a_i x^i + \left(\sum b_i x^i + c_i x^i \right) = f(x) + [g(x) + h(x)]$</p> <p>Identity element of Addition $0(x) = 0 + 0x + 0x^2 + \dots$ is the additive identity element of $R[x]$</p> <p>Inverse Element of Addition $-f(x) = -a_0 - a_1 x - a_2 x^2 - a_3 x^3 - \dots - a_m x^m - \dots$ is the additive inverse element of $R[x]$</p> <p>Associativity of Multiplication $[f(x) \times g(x)] = (a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots)(b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 x^2 + \dots)$ $= (d_0 + d_1 x + d_2 x^2 + \dots)$, where $d_i = \sum_{k=0}^i a_{i-k} b_k$</p> <p>Now $[f(x) \times g(x)] \times h(x) = (d_0 + d_1 x + d_2 x^2 + \dots)(c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \dots) = (e_0 + e_1 x + e_2 x^2 + \dots)$, where $e_n =$ the coeff x^n in $[f(x) \times g(x)] \times h(x) = \sum d_j c_k = \sum a_i b_j c_k$</p> <p>Similarly, we show that the coeff x^n in $f(x) \times [g(x) \times h(x)] = \sum a_i b_j c_k$</p> <p>Thus $[f(x) \times g(x)] \times h(x) = f(x) \times [g(x) \times h(x)]$, since corresponding coefficients in these two polynomials are equal.</p> <p>Distributive of multiplication on addition We have $f(x) \times [g(x) + h(x)] = (a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots)[(b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 x^2 + \dots) + (c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \dots)]$</p> <p>If n is the non-negative integer, the coeff x^n in $f(x) \times [g(x) + h(x)]$ $= \sum a_i (b_j + c_k) = \sum a_i b_j + \sum a_i c_k$ $= \text{Coeff of } x^n \text{ in } f(x)g(x) + \text{Coeff of } x^n \text{ in } f(x)h(x)$ $= \text{Coeff of } x^n \text{ in } [f(x) \times g(x) + f(x) \times h(x)] = f(x) \times g(x) + f(x) \times h(x)$</p> <p>Similarly, we can prove right distributive law for $R[x]$</p> <p>Hence $R[x]$ is a ring.</p>

1ii)	<p>Find the remainder when $f(x)$ is divided by $g(x)$.</p> <p>(a) $f(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, $f(x) = x^8 + 7x^5 - 4x^4 + 3x^3 + 5x^2 - 4$; $g(x) = x - 3$</p> <p>(b) $f(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_2[x]$, $f(x) = x^{100} + x^{90} + x^{80} + x^{50} + 1$; $g(x) = x - 1$ [NOV/DEC 20]</p>
	<p>(a) Given $f(x) = x^8 + 7x^5 - 4x^4 + 3x^3 + 5x^2 - 4$; $g(x) = x - 3$</p> <p>By long division</p> $ \begin{array}{r} x^7 + 3x^6 + 9x^5 + 34x^4 + 98x^3 + 297x^2 + 896x + 2688 \quad (= q(x)) \\ \hline x^8 + 7x^5 - 4x^4 + 3x^3 + 5x^2 - 4 \\ \underline{x^8 - 3x^7} \\ 3x^7 - 0x^6 \\ \underline{3x^7 - 9x^6} \\ 9x^6 + 7x^5 \\ \underline{9x^6 - 27x^5} \\ 34x^5 - 4x^4 \\ \underline{34x^5 - 102x^4} \\ 98x^4 + 3x^3 \\ \underline{98x^4 - 294x^3} \\ 297x^3 + 5x^2 \\ \underline{297x^3 - 891x^2} \\ 896x^2 + 0x \\ \underline{896x^2 - 2688x} \\ 2688x - 4 \\ \underline{2688x - 8064} \\ 8060 = r(x) \end{array} $ <p>\therefore Remainder = $r(x) = 8060$.</p> <p>Verification:</p> <p>By remainder theorem, If $f(x) \in F[x]$ and $a \in F$, for any field F then $f(a)$ is the remainder when $f(x)$ is divided by $(x-a)$.</p> <p>\therefore Remainder = $r(x) = (3)^8 + 7(3)^5 - 4(3)^4 + 3(3)^3 + 5(3)^2 - 4$ $= 6561 + 1701 - 324 + 81 + 45 - 4 = 8060$.</p>

	<p>(a) Given $f(x) = x^{100} + x^{90} + x^{80} + x^{50} + 1$; $g(x) = x - 1$ $x^{99} + x^{98} + \dots + 2x^{89} + \dots + 3x^{80} + \dots + 4x^{50} + \dots + 4 (= q(x))$</p> $ \begin{array}{r} x^{100} + x^{90} + x^{80} + x^{50} + 1 \\ x^{100} - x^{99} \\ \hline x^{99} + 0x^{98} \\ x^{99} - x^{98} \\ \hline \dots \\ \hline 4x + 1 \\ 4x - 4 \\ \hline 5 (= r(x)) \end{array} $ <p>\therefore Remainder = $r(x) = 5$. In $Z_2[x]$, $5 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ Hence remainder is 1. Verification: By remainder theorem, If $f(x) \in F[x]$ and $a \in F$, for any field F then $f(a)$ is the remainder when $f(x)$ is divided by $(x-a)$. \therefore Remainder = $r(x) = (1)^{100} + (1)^{90} + (1)^{80} + (1)^{50} + 1 = 5$. In $Z_2[x]$, $r(x) = 1$. Hence remainder is 1.</p>
<p>2i)</p>	<p>Find the greatest common divisor of (i) $x^{10} - x^7 - x^5 + x^3 + x^2 - 1$ & $x^8 - x^5 - x^3 + 1$ in the ring $Q[x]$ [NOV/DEC 19] (ii) $x^3 + 3x^2 + 3x + 1$ & $x^3 + 2x + 1$ in $Z_5[x]$</p>
	<p>(i) Given $f(x) = x^{10} - x^7 - x^5 + x^3 + x^2 - 1$ & $g(x) = x^8 - x^5 - x^3 + 1$ By actual division</p> $ \begin{array}{r} x^2 \\ x^8 - x^5 - x^3 + 1 \overline{) x^{10} - x^7 - x^5 + x^3 + x^2 - 1} \\ \underline{x^{10} - x^7 - x^5 + 0x^3 + x^2 - 0} \\ x^3 - 1 \\ x^{10} - x^7 - x^5 + x^3 + x^2 - 1 = x^2(x^8 - x^5 - x^3 + 1) + (x^3 - 1) \end{array} $ <p>Similarly,</p> $ \begin{array}{r} x^5 - 1 \\ x^8 - x^5 - x^3 + 1 \overline{) x^8 - x^5 - x^3 + 1} \\ \underline{x^8 - x^5} \\ -x^3 + 1 \\ \underline{-x^3 + 1} \\ 0 \end{array} $ <p>$(x^8 - x^5 - x^3 + 1) = (x^3 - 1)(x^5 - 1) + 0$ Hence required G.C.D is $(x^3 - 1)$.</p>

	<p>(ii) Given $f(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 + 3x + 1$ & $g(x) = x^3 + 2x + 1$ By actual division</p> $ \begin{array}{r} x \\ x^3 + 2x + 1 \overline{) x^3 + 3x^2 + 3x + 1} \\ \underline{x^3 + 0x^2 + 2x + 1} \\ 3x^2 + x \end{array} $ <p>$\therefore x^3 + 3x^2 + 3x + 1 = x(x^3 + 2x + 1) + (3x^2 + x)$ Similarly,</p> $ \begin{array}{r} 2x + 1 \\ 3x^2 + x \overline{) x^3 + 0x^2 + 2x + 1} \\ \underline{x^3 + 2x^2 + 0x} \\ 3x^2 + x \\ \underline{3x^2 + 2x + 1} \\ x + 1 \end{array} $ <p>$\therefore x^3 + 2x + 1 = (3x^2 + x)(2x + 1) + (x + 1)$ Similarly,</p> $ \begin{array}{r} 3x \\ x + 1 \overline{) 3x^2 + x} \\ \underline{3x^2 + 3x} \\ 3x \end{array} $ <p>$\therefore 3x^2 + x = (x + 1)(3x) + (3x)$ Similarly,</p> $ \begin{array}{r} 2x \\ 3x \overline{) x + 1} \\ \underline{3x} \\ 1 \end{array} $ <p>$\therefore x + 1 = 3x(2x) + 1$ Hence required G.C.D is 1.</p>
2ii)	<p>If $f(x) \in F[x]$ has degree $n \geq 1$, then prove that $f(x)$ has at most n roots in F. <div style="text-align: right;">[NOV/DEC 19]</div></p>
	<p>Proof: We prove this theorem by mathematical induction on the degree $f(x)$. If $f(x)$ has degree 1, then $f(x) = ax + b$, $a, b \in F$ and $a \neq 0$. $\Rightarrow f(-a^{-1}b) = 0$ $\Rightarrow f(x)$ has at least one root in F If c_1 and c_2 are both roots, then</p>

	<p>$f(c_1) = ac_1 + b = 0 = ac_2 + b = f(c_2)$ By cancellation law in a ring, $ac_1 + b = ac_2 + b \Rightarrow ac_1 = ac_2$ Since F is a field and $a \neq 0$, we have, $ac_1 = ac_2 \Rightarrow c_1 = c_2$ So $f(x)$ has only one root in F. Now assume that the result is true for all polynomials of degree $k \geq 1$ in $F[x]$ Consider a polynomial $f(x)$ of degree $k + 1$. If $f(x)$ has no roots in F, the theorem follows. Otherwise, let $r \in F, f(r) = 0$ By factor theorem, $f(x) = (x - r)g(x)$, where $g(x)$ has degree k. By the induction hypothesis, $g(x)$ has at most k roots in F and $f(x)$ has at most $k + 1$ roots in F.</p>
3i)	<p>If $(F, +, \cdot)$ is a field and $\text{Char}(F) > 0$, then prove that $\text{Char}(F)$ must be prime. <div style="text-align: right;">[NOV/DEC 20]</div></p>
	<p>Proof: Let $\text{Char}(F) = n > 0$. If n is not prime, we write $n = mk$ where $m, k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and $1 < m < n, 1 < k < n$. By definition of Characteristic, $nu = z$, the zero of F. Hence $(mk)u = z$. But $(mk)u = \underbrace{(u + u + \dots + u)}_{mk \text{ summation}} = \underbrace{(u + u + \dots + u)}_{m \text{ summation}} \cdot \underbrace{(u + u + \dots + u)}_{k \text{ summation}} = (mu)(ku)$ With F as field, $(mu)(ku) = z$ $\Rightarrow (mu) = z \text{ or } (ku) = z$ Assume without loss of generality, $(ku) = z$. Then for each $r \in F, kr = k(ur)$ $= (ku)r$ $= zr = z,$ contradicting the choice of n as the $\text{Char}(F)$ $\therefore \text{Char}(F) = n$ is prime.</p>
3ii)	<p>In $\mathbb{Z}_3[x], s(x) = x^2 + x + 2$ Show that $s(x)$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Z}_3 and construct the field $\frac{\mathbb{Z}_3[x]}{\langle s(x) \rangle}$ What is the order of the field? Also Find (i) $[x+2][2x+2]+[x+1]$ (ii) $[2x+1]^{-1}$</p>
	<p>Solution: Here $\mathbb{Z}_3 = \{0, 1, 2\}, s(x) = x^2 + x + 2$ $s(0) = 2 \neq 0$ $s(1) = 1 + 1 + 2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \neq 0$ $s(2) = 4 + 2 + 2 \equiv 8 \pmod{3} \neq 0$ Therefore $s(x)$ has no root in \mathbb{Z}_3. Hence $s(x)$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]$. Therefore $\frac{\mathbb{Z}_3[x]}{\langle s(x) \rangle}$ is a field Since $\deg s(x) = 2$, this field has 9 elements. This field consists of 9 different equivalence classes Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_3[x]$ then $f(x) = q(x)(x^2 + x + 2) + r(x)$, where $r(x) = 0$ (Or) $\deg r(x) < \deg(x^2 + x + 2) = 2$ $\therefore \deg r(x)$ is 0 (or) 1</p>

$$\therefore r(x) = ax + b \text{ and } [f(x)] = [r(x)]$$

Each a and b can take 3 values

S. No	Values of a and b	$r(x) = ax + b$	Equivalent Classes
1	a=0, b=0	$r(x) = 0x + 0 = 0$	[0]
2	a=0, b=1	$r(x) = 0x + 1 = 1$	[1]
3	a=0, b=2	$r(x) = 0x + 2 = 2$	[2]
4	a=1, b=0	$r(x) = 1x + 0 = x$	[x]
5	a=1, b=1	$r(x) = 1x + 1 = x + 1$	[x+1]
6	a=1, b=2	$r(x) = 1x + 2 = x + 2$	[x+2]
7	a=2, b=0	$r(x) = 2x + 0 = 2x$	[2x]
8	a=2, b=1	$r(x) = 2x + 1 = 2x + 1$	[2x+1]
9	a=2, b=2	$r(x) = 2x + 2 = 2x + 2$	[2x+2]

$$\text{Therefore } \frac{Z_3[x]}{\langle x^2 + x + 2 \rangle} = \{ [0], [1], [2], [x], [x+1], [x+2], [2x], [2x+1], [2x+2] \}$$

The order of the field is 9

(i) To find $[x+2][2x+2] + [x+1]$

$$\text{Now } [x+2][2x+2] = [2x^2 + 6x + 4] = [2x^2 + 0x + 4] = [2x^2 + 4] = [x]$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 2 \\ x^2 + x + 2 \overline{) 2x^2 + 4} \\ \underline{2x^2 + 2x + 4} \\ -2x = x \end{array}$$

$$\text{Therefore } [x+2][2x+2] + [x+1] = [x] + [x+1] = [2x+1]$$

(ii) To Find $[2x+1]^{-1}$

$$\text{Now consider } [2x+1][2x] = [4x^2 + 4x]$$

$$= [x^2 + x] \quad \text{Since } 4 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

$$= [-2] \quad \text{Since } x^2 + x \equiv -2 \pmod{x^2 + x + 2}$$

$$= [1] \quad \text{Since } -2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

$$\therefore [2x+1][2x] = [1]$$

$$\Rightarrow [2x+1]^{-1} = [2x]$$

4 Prove that a finite field has order p^t , where p is prime and $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. [NOV/DEC 19]

Proof:

Let u denote the unity and z the zero element.

Given that F is a finite field and $\text{Char}(F) = p$, p is prime

Then $S_0 = \{u, 2u, 3u, \dots, pu = z\}$ is a set of p distinct element in F

If not, $mu = nu$ for $1 \leq m \leq n \leq p$ and $(n-m)u = z$ with $0 < n-m < p$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For any } x \in F, (n-m)x &= (n-m)ux \\ &= [(n-m)u]x \\ &= zx = z \end{aligned}$$

this is contradiction to $\text{Char}(F) = p$

$$\Rightarrow S_0 = \{u, 2u, 3u, \dots, pu = z\} \text{ is a set of } p \text{ distinct element in } F$$

	<p>If $F = S_0$, then $F = p^1$ and the result as follows.</p> <p>If not let $a \in F - S_0$, then $S_1 = \{ma + nu \mid 0 < m, n \leq p\}$ is a sub set of F with $S_1 \leq p^2$</p> <p>If $S_1 \leq p^2$,</p> <p>then $m_1 a + n_1 u = m_2 a + n_2 u$ with $0 < m_1, m_2, n_1, n_2 \leq p$</p> <p>and at least one $m_1 - m_2, n_1 - n_2 \neq 0$.</p> <p>If $m_1 - m_2 = 0$, then $(m_1 - m_2)a = z = (n_1 - n_2)u$, with $0 < n_1 - n_2 < p$</p> <p>So, $\forall x \in F, n_1 - n_2 x = n_1 - n_2 (ux)$</p> $= (n_1 - n_2 u)x$ $= zx = z$ <p>with $0 < n_1 - n_2 < p = \text{Char}(F)$ A contradiction</p> <p>If $n_1 - n_2 = 0$, then $(m_1 - m_2)a = z$ with $0 < m_1 - m_2 < p$</p> <p>Since F is a field and $a \neq z$, we know that $a^{-1} \in F$</p> <p>so $(m_1 - m_2)a a^{-1} = z a^{-1}$</p> $= z \quad \text{with } 0 < m_1 - m_2 < p = \text{Char}(F) \text{ which is another contradiction.}$ <p>Hence neither $m_1 - m_2 \neq 0$ nor $n_1 - n_2 \neq 0$.</p> <p>Therefore $(m_1 - m_2)a = (n_1 - n_2)u \neq z$</p> <p>Choose $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that $0 < k < p$ and $k(m_1 - m_2) \equiv u \pmod{p}$</p> <p>[since p is prime, \mathbb{Z}_p is field \Rightarrow multiplicative inverse exists in \mathbb{Z}_p]</p> <p>Then $a = au$</p> $= a(m_1 - m_2)k$ $= k(m_1 - m_2)a = k(n_1 - n_2)u$ <p>[since p is prime, \mathbb{Z}_p is field and $0 < k, n_1 - n_2 < p$</p> $\Rightarrow k(n_1 - n_2) \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ by closure property on multiplication \mathbb{Z}_p] $\Rightarrow a \in S_0, \text{ one more contradiction.}$ <p>Hence $S_1 = p^2$, and if $F = S_1$ the theorem is proved.</p> <p>If not, continue this process with an element $b \in F - S_1$</p> <p>Then $S_2 = \{lb + ma + nu \mid 0 < l, m, n \leq p\}$ will have order p^3</p> <p>Since F is finite,</p> <p>we reach a point where $F = S_{t-1}$ for some $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and $F = S_{t-1} = p^t$, where p is prime</p>
5i)	<p>If F is a field, then prove that $F[x]$ is an integral domain and not a field</p> <p>Proof:</p> <p>Given that F is a field. Therefore, F is a commutative ring.</p> <p>Therefore $F[x]$ is a commutative ring.</p> <p>Case (1) To prove F is an integral Domain</p> <p>Let $ab \neq 0, a \neq 0$ in F.</p> $a^{-1}(ab) = a^{-1}(0) = 0$ $(a^{-1}a)b = 0 \Rightarrow b = 0$ <p>Therefore, F is an integral Domain.</p> <p>Case (2) To Prove $F[x]$ is an integral Domain</p> <p>Let $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + \dots + a_mx^m, (a_m \neq 0)$ and</p> $g(x) = b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2 + b_3x^3 + \dots + b_nx^n, (b_n \neq 0)$ <p>Be any two non-zero elements in $F[x]$.</p> <p>Since R is integral domain and $a_m, b_n \neq 0$, so as $a_mb_n \neq 0$.</p> <p>The product of $f(x)g(x)$ of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ will contain the term $a_mb_nx^{m+n}$</p> <p>Therefore $f(x)g(x) \neq 0$.</p> <p>Therefore $f(x) \neq 0, g(x) \neq 0 \Rightarrow f(x)g(x) \neq 0$.</p>

	<p>$F[x]$ is an integral domain.</p> <p>Case (3) To Prove $F[x]$ is not a field</p> <p>Let $f(x) (\neq 0) \in F$ and $\deg f(x) \geq 1$. The unit element of F is the constant polynomial '1'.</p> <p>If possible, there exists a multiplicative inverse of $f(x)$ exists and let it be $g(x)$.</p> $\therefore f(x)g(x) = 1 \dots\dots\dots(1)$ $\Rightarrow g(x) \neq 0.$ <p>Suppose $g(x) = 0$, then $f(x)g(x) = 1 \Rightarrow f(x)(0) = 1 \Rightarrow 0 = 1$ which is not possible.</p> <p>Since F is an integral Domain, we have</p> $\deg(f(x).g(x)) = \deg(f(x)) + \deg(g(x)) \geq 1.$ <p>\therefore (1) is impossible because $\deg(1) = 0$</p> <p>\therefore A non-zero element in $F[x]$ may not have multiplicative inverse in $F[x]$</p> <p>$\therefore F[x]$ is not field.</p>
5ii)	<p>State and Prove Division Algorithm</p> <p>Statement :</p> <p>Let F be a field and let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be two polynomials in $F(x)$ with $g(x) \neq 0$. Then there exists unique polynomials $q(x)$ and $r(x)$ such that $g(x) = q(x)f(x) + r(x)$ where either $r(x) = 0$ (or) $\deg r(x) < \deg f(x)$</p> <p>Proof:</p> <p>Let $S = \{g(x) - t(x)f(x) / t(x) \in F[x]\}$.</p> <p>If $0 \in S$, $0 = g(x) - t(x)f(x)$, for some $t(x) \in F[x]$.</p> <p>Then with $q(x) = t(x)$ and $r(x) = 0$, we have $g(x) = t(x)f(x) + r(x)$.</p> <p>If $0 \notin S$, Consider the degrees of the elements of S, and let $r(x) = g(x) - q(x)f(x)$ be an element in S of minimum degree.</p> <p>Since $r(x) \neq 0$, the result follows if $\deg(r(x)) < \deg(f(x))$.</p> <p>If not, let</p> $r(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0, \quad a_n \neq 0$ $f(x) = b_m x^m + b_{m-1} x^{m-1} + \dots + b_2 x^2 + b_1 x + b_0, \quad b_m \neq 0 \quad \text{with } n \geq m.$ <p>Define $h(x) = r(x) - [a_n b_m^{-1} x^{n-m}] f(x)$</p> $= (a_n - a_n b_m^{-1} b_m) x^n + (a_{n-1} - a_n b_m^{-1} b_{m-1}) x^{n-1} + \dots$ $+ \dots + (a_{n-m} - a_n b_m^{-1} b_0) x^{n-m} + a_{n-m-1} x^{n-m-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0.$ <p>Then $h(x)$ has degree less than n, the degree of $r(x)$.</p> <p>More importantly,</p> $h(x) = [g(x) - q(x)f(x)] - [a_n b_m^{-1} x^{n-m}] f(x)$ $= g(x) - [q(x) + a_n b_m^{-1} x^{n-m}] f(x)$ <p>so $h(x) \in S$ and this contradicts the choice of $r(x)$ as having minimum degree.</p> <p>Consequently $\deg(r(x)) < \deg(f(x))$ and we have the existence part of the theorem.</p> <p>For uniqueness,</p> <p>let $g(x) = q_1(x)f(x) + r_1(x) = q_2(x)f(x) + r_2(x)$</p> <p>where $r_1(x) = 0$ or $\deg r_1(x) < \deg f(x)$, and $r_2(x) = 0$ or $\deg r_2(x) < \deg f(x)$.</p> <p>Then $[q_2(x) - q_1(x)]f(x) = r_1(x) - r_2(x)$,</p> <p>If $[q_2(x) - q_1(x)] \neq 0$, then $\deg[q_2(x) - q_1(x)]f(x) \geq \deg(f(x))$,</p>

	whereas $[r_1(x) - r_2(x)] = 0$ or $\deg[r_1(x) - r_2(x)] \leq \max\{\deg r_1(x), \deg r_2(x)\} < \deg f(x)$. Consequently $r_1(x) = r_2(x)$ and $q_1(x) = q_2(x)$.
UNIT-III DIVISIBILITY THEORY AND CANONICAL DECOMPOSITIONS PART-A	
1	Explain Divisibility.
	Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ we say 'a' divides b if there exist $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $b = ac$. 'a' is called divisor or factor of 'b'. and 'b' is called multiple of 'a'. So we write it as a / b (i.e.) b is divisible by a. If a does not divide b, then we write $a \nmid b$.
2	State the properties of divisibility.
	(i). $a / b \Rightarrow a / bc$ for all integer c (ii). If $a / b, b / c \Rightarrow a / c$ (iii). If $a / b, a / c \Rightarrow a / (bx + cy) \quad \forall$ integers x & y (iv). If $a / b, b / a \Rightarrow a = \pm b$
3	If $a / b, a / c$ prove that $a / bx + cy \quad \forall$ integers x & y
	since $a / b \Rightarrow b = am$ ----- (1); $a / c \Rightarrow c = al$ ----- (2) (1) $\times x \Rightarrow bx = amx$ ----- (3) (2) $\times y \Rightarrow cy = aly$ ----- (4) (3) + (4) $\Rightarrow bx + cy = amx + aly = a(mx + ly)$, where $mx + ly$ is integer $\Rightarrow a / (bx + cy)$
4	Find the number of positive integers ≤ 2076 and divisible by neither 4 or 5
	Let $A = \{x \in \mathbb{N} / x \leq 2076 \text{ and divisible by } 4\}$; $B = \{x \in \mathbb{N} / x \leq 2076 \text{ and divisible by } 5\}$ then $ A \cup B = A + B - A \cap B $ $= \lfloor 2076 / 4 \rfloor + \lfloor 2076 / 5 \rfloor - \lfloor 2076 / 20 \rfloor = 519 + 415 - 103 = 831$ Thus, among the first 2076 positive integers, there are $2076 - 831 = 1245$ integers not divisible by 4 or 5.
5.	Find the number of positive integers ≤ 3076 and not divisible by 17. [NOV/DEC 19]
	Number of positive integers ≤ 3076 and divisible by 17 = $\left\lfloor \frac{3076}{17} \right\rfloor = 180$ Therefore number of positive integers ≤ 3076 and not divisible by 17 = $3076 - 180 = 2896$
6.	Add two more rows to the following pattern, and write conjecture formula for the n^{th} row:
	$9 \cdot 9 + 7 = 88$ $98 \cdot 9 + 6 = 888$ $987 \cdot 9 + 5 = 8888$ $9876 \cdot 9 + 4 = 88888$ $98765 \cdot 9 + 3 = 888888$
	Answer: The next two rows of the given pattern are, $987654 \cdot 9 + 2 = 8888888$ $9876543 \cdot 9 + 1 = 88888888$ The general pattern is $98765 \dots (10 - n) \cdot 9 + (8 - n) = \underbrace{888 \dots 88}_{(n+1) \text{ Eights}}$
7.	State the Pigeonhole Principle. [NOV/DEC 20]
	If m pigeons are assigned to n pigeonholes where $m > n$, then at least two pigeons must occupy the same pigeonhole.

8.	Explain base-b representation.
	The expression $a_k b^k + a_{k-1} b^{k-1} + \dots + a_1 b + a_0$ is the base-b representation of the integer N. Accordingly, we write $N = (a_k a_{k-1} \dots a_1 a_0)_b$ in base b.
9.	Determine if 1601 is a prime number.
	We know that if n has no prime factors $\leq \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$, then n is a prime consider prime nos $\leq \lfloor \sqrt{1601} \rfloor$ \Rightarrow prime nos ≤ 40 (approx) $\Rightarrow 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31$ and 37 and which are not factors of 1601 Therefore, 1601 is a prime.
10.	Find the GCD of 1819 & 3587.
	$(3587, 1819) = 1 \times 1819 + 1768$ $(1819, 1768) = 1 \times 1768 + 51$ $(1768, 51) = 34 \times 51 + 34$ $(51, 34) = 1 \times 34 + 17$ $(34, 17) = 2 \times 17 + 0$ \therefore gcd of 1819, 3587 is 17
11	Find the GCD of $a+b, a^2-b^2$.
	$GCD(a+b, a^2-b^2) = GCD(a+b, (a-b)(a+b)) = a+b$
12	Find a positive integer 'a', if $[a, a+1] = 132$
	We know that $[a, b] = \frac{ab}{(a, b)}$ ----- (1) Since LCM of $[a, a+1] = 132$ & GCD of $(a, a+1) = 1$ $(1) \Rightarrow 132 = \frac{a \times a+1}{1} \Rightarrow a^2 + a - 132 = 0 \Rightarrow a = -12, 11$ Since a is positive integer, $a = 11$
13	Using (252, 360) compute $[252, 360]$.
	Since GCD of 252 and 360 $= (252, 360) = 36$ $[a, b] = \frac{ab}{(a, b)} \Rightarrow [252, 360] = \frac{252 \times 360}{36} = 2520$
14	If $(a, 4) = 2$ & $(b, 4) = 2$ show that $(a+b, 4) = 2$
	$(a, 4) = 2 \Rightarrow \text{gcd of } (a, 4) = 2 \Rightarrow 2/a$ but $4 \nmid a \therefore a = 2k$, and k is odd $(b, 4) = 2 \Rightarrow \text{gcd of } (b, 4) = 2 \Rightarrow 2/b$ but $4 \nmid b \therefore b = 2l$, and l is odd $a+b = 2k+2l = 2(k+l) = 2(\text{even}) = 2(2m) = 4m$ $\therefore 4/a+b \Rightarrow \text{gcd}(a+b, 4) = 4$
15	If x and y are odd integers show that $x^2 + y^2$ cannot be perfect square.
	Since x and y are odd integers $\therefore x^2 + y^2$ is even $\Rightarrow 2/x^2 + y^2$ To prove: $x^2 + y^2$ cannot be perfect square, it is enough to show that $(x^2 + y^2, 4) = 2$ Let $x = 2k+1, y = 2l+1$ $x^2 + y^2 = 4(k^2 + l^2 + k + l) + 2$

	$\therefore (x^2 + y^2, 4) = (4(k^2 + l^2 + k + l) + 2, 4) = (2, 4)$ hence $x^2 + y^2$ cannot be perfect square.
16	Prove that any prime of the form $3k+1$ is of the form $6k+1$.
	Let the prime $p = 3k+1$, then k must be even. [if k is odd, then $3k$ is odd $\Rightarrow 3k+1$ is even $\Rightarrow 3k+1$ is not prime] $\therefore k = 2k'$, then $p = 3(2k') + 1 = 6k' + 1$. Hence any prime of the form $3k+1$ is of the form $6k+1$.
17.	Using canonical decomposition of 1050 and 2574 find their LCM. [NOV/DEC 19]
	$1050 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 7$ $2574 = 2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 11 \cdot 13$ $LCM = [1050, 2574] = 2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 7 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 = 450$
18.	Find the canonical decomposition of $2^9 - 1$
	$2^9 - 1 = (2^3)^3 - 1^3 = (2^3 - 1)(2^6 + 2^3 + 1) \quad \because a^3 - b^3 = (a - b)(a^2 + ab + b^2)$ $= (7)(73)$
19.	If $d = (a, b)$ and d' is any common divisor of a and b, then d'/d.
	Since $d = (a, b)$, $\exists \alpha$ and β such that $d = \alpha a + \beta b$. also since d' is common divisor of a & b . $\therefore d'/a$ & d'/b $\Rightarrow d' / (\alpha a + \beta b)$; so d'/d .
20.	Prove that $n^2 + n$ is an even integer, where n is arbitrary integer.
	To prove: $p(n) = n^2 + n$ is an even integer $p(1) = 1^2 + 1 = 2$ is an even number We assume that the result is true for all k , k be the arbitrary number. $\Rightarrow p(k) = k^2 + k$ is an even integer consider $p(k+1) = (k+1)^2 + (k+1)$ $= k^2 + 2k + 1 + k + 1$ $= (k^2 + k) + (2k + 2) = \text{Even number}$ hence $p(n) = n^2 + n$ is even integer $\forall n$.
PART-B	
1i)	Find the number of positive integers in the range 1976 through 3776 that are divisible by 13.
	Solution: The number of positive integers ≤ 1976 that are divisible by 13 = $\left\lfloor \frac{1976}{13} \right\rfloor$ $= 152$ The number of positive integers ≤ 3776 that are divisible by 13 = $\left\lfloor \frac{3776}{13} \right\rfloor$ $= 290$ \therefore The number of positive integers 1976 to 3776 that are divisible by 13 $= 290 - 152 + 1$ $= 139$ [\because 1976 is included in the list of numbers divisible by 13]

1ii)	<p>Prove that $(a, a-b)=1$ if and only if $(a, b)=1$</p> <p>Proof: Let $(a, a-b)=1$ Then there exist integer l and m such that $la + mb = 1$ $la + ma + mb - ma = 1$ $(l+m)a - m(a-b) = 1$ $(l+m)a + (-m)(a-b) = 1$ $\Rightarrow (a, a-b) = 1$ Conversely, let $(a, a-b)=1$. To prove: $(a, b)=1$ Then there exist integer α and β such that $\alpha a + \beta(a-b) = 1$ $\alpha a + \beta a - \beta b = 1$ $(\alpha + \beta)a + (-\beta)b = 1 \quad \Rightarrow (a, b) = 1$</p>
1iii)	<p>Obtain six consecutive integers that are composite. [NOV/DEC 20]</p> <p>Solution: By theorem, for every integer n, there are n consecutive integers that are composite numbers. Then the six consecutive composite numbers are $(n+1)!+2, (n+1)!+3, (n+1)!+4, (n+1)!+5, (n+1)!+6, (n+1)!+7$ put $n = 6$ \therefore The six consecutive composite numbers are 5042, 5043, 5044, 5045, 5046, and 5047</p>
2i)	<p>Apply Euclidean Algorithm and express (4076, 1024) as a linear combination of 4076, 1024.</p> <p>Solution: By successive application of division algorithm, we get: $4076 = 3 \cdot 1024 + 1004$ $1024 = 1 \cdot 1004 + 20$ $1004 = 50 \cdot 20 + 4$ $20 = 5 \cdot 4 + 0$ Since the last nonzero remainder is $= 4 \Rightarrow (4076, 1024) = 4$ $(4076, 1024) = 4 = 1004 - 50 \cdot 20$ $= 1004 - 50(1024 - 1 \cdot 1004)$ $= 51 \cdot 1004 - 50 \cdot 1024$ $= 51(4076 - 3 \cdot 1024) - 50 \cdot 1024$ $= 51 \cdot 4076 + (-203) \cdot 1024$</p>
2ii)	<p>Prove that there are infinitely many primes. [NOV/DEC 19,20]</p> <p>Proof: We prove by contradiction method. Assume that there are only n primes p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n where n is prime. Now consider the integer $m = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3 \dots p_n$</p>

	<p>Since $m > 1$, by theorem, every integer $n \geq 2$ has a prime factor. $\therefore m$ has a prime factor p.</p> <p>But none of the primes $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_n$ divide m</p> <p>For, if $p_i \mid m$ and since $p_i \nmid p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3 \dots p_n$</p> <p>we get $p_i \mid m - p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3 \dots p_n \Rightarrow p_i \mid 1$, which is not true and hence a contradiction.</p> <p>$\therefore p_i \nmid m$</p> <p>So, we have a prime p which is not in the list of n primes.</p> <p>Thus, we have $n+1$ primes $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_n, p_{n+1}$</p> <p>which contradicts the assumption there are only n primes.</p> <p>So, our assumption of finiteness is wrong. Hence the number of primes is infinite.</p>
3i)	<p>Prove that the GCD of the positive integers a & b is linear combination of a and b.</p> <p style="text-align: right;">[NOV/DEC 19]</p> <p>Proof:</p> <p>Let S be the set of positive linear combination of a and b; that is</p> $S = \{ma + nb \mid ma + nb > 0, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ <p>To show that S has a least element:</p> <p>Since $a > 0$, $a = 1 \cdot a + 0 \cdot b \in S$, So S is non empty.</p> <p>So, by the well-ordering principle, S has a least positive element d.</p> <p>To show that $d = (a, b)$:</p> <p>Since d belongs to S, $d = \alpha a + \beta b$ for some integer α and β.</p> <p>1. First we will show that $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$:</p> <p>By the division algorithm,</p> <p>there exist integers q and r such that $a = dq + r$, where $0 \leq r < d$.</p> $\begin{aligned} r &= a - dq \\ &= a - (\alpha a + \beta b)q \quad \text{substituting for } d. \\ &= (1 - \alpha q)a + (-\beta q)b \end{aligned}$ <p>This shows r is a linear combination of a and b.</p> <p>If $r > 0$, then $r \in S$. Since $r < d$, r is less than the smallest element in S.</p> <p>Which is a contradiction. So $r = 0$; thus, $a = dq$, so $d \mid a$.</p> <p>Similarly, $d \mid b$. Thus d is common divisor of a and b.</p> <p>2. To show that any positive common divisor d' of a and b is $\leq d$:</p> <p>Since $d' \mid a$, and $d' \mid b \Rightarrow d' \mid (\alpha a + \beta b)$</p> <p>that is $d' \mid d$. So $d' \leq d$.</p> <p>Thus, by parts (1) and (2), $d = (a, b)$</p>
3ii)	<p>Show that for any integer n, $n^2 - n$ is divisible by 2 and $n^5 - n$ is divisible by 30.</p> <p>Solution:</p> <p>$n^2 - n = n(n-1)$, product of two consecutive natural numbers is always divisible by 2</p> <p>To Prove: $n^5 - n$ is divisible by 6</p> $n^5 - n = n(n^4 - 1) = n(n^2 - 1)(n^2 + 1) = n(n-1)(n+1)(n^2 + 1)$ <p>Now, as we know that product of 3 consecutive natural numbers is always divisible by 3 and that of 2 consecutive natural numbers is always divisible by 2 so this expression is always divisible by 6.</p>

	<p>Now to prove divisibility by 5, First we write the factorization as under</p> $n(n-1)(n+1)(n^2+1) = n(n-1)(n+1)((n^2-4)+5)$ $= n(n-1)(n+1)((n-2)(n+2)+5)$ $= (n-2)(n-1)n(n+1)(n+2)+5n(n-1)(n+1)$ <p>We see that second term is divisible by 5 and first term is also divisible by 5 as it is product of 5 consecutive natural numbers. Hence the given expression is divisible by $5 \times 6 = 30$. Hence the proof.</p>
4i)	Using recursion, evaluate (18, 30, 60, 75, 132).
	<p>Solution.:</p> $(18, 30, 60, 75, 132) = ((18, 30, 60, 75), 132)$ $= (((18, 30, 60), 75), 132)$ $= (((((18, 30), 60), 75), 132)$ $= (((6, 60), 75), 132)$ $= ((6, 75), 132) = (3, 132) = 3$
4ii)	Find the number of positive integers ≤ 3000 and divisible by 3, 5, or 7. [NOV/DEC 20]
	<p>Solution:</p> <p>Let A,B,C be the set of numbers ≤ 3000 and divisible by 3, 5,7 respectively.</p> <p>Required $A \cup B \cup C$</p> <p>By inclusion and exclusion principle, we get</p> $ A \cup B \cup C = S_1 - S_2 + S_3$ <p>Now</p> $ A = \left\lfloor \frac{3000}{3} \right\rfloor = [1000] = 1000$ $ B = \left\lfloor \frac{3000}{5} \right\rfloor = [600] = 600$ $ C = \left\lfloor \frac{3000}{7} \right\rfloor = [428.57] = 428$ $S_1 = A + B + C = 1000 + 600 + 428 = 2028$ $ A \cap B = \left\lfloor \frac{3000}{3 \times 5} \right\rfloor = [200] = 200$ $ A \cap C = \left\lfloor \frac{3000}{3 \times 7} \right\rfloor = [142.85] = 142$ $ B \cap C = \left\lfloor \frac{3000}{5 \times 7} \right\rfloor = [85.71] = 85$ $S_2 = A \cap B + A \cap C + B \cap C = 200 + 142 + 85 = 427$ <p>Now $S_3 = A \cap B \cap C = \left\lfloor \frac{3000}{3 \times 5 \times 7} \right\rfloor = [28.57] = 28$</p> $ A \cup B \cup C = S_1 - S_2 + S_3 = 2028 - 427 + 28 = 1629$

4iii)	Show that product of k consecutive integers is divisible by k!
	<p>Proof:</p> <p>Let $(n+1), (n+2), \dots, (n+k)$ be the 'k' consecutive integer.</p> <p>Product of 'k' consecutive integer $= (n+1)(n+2) \dots (n+k)$</p> $= \frac{n!}{n!} (n+1)(n+2) \dots (n+k) = \frac{(n+k)!}{n!}$ <p>Product of 'k' consecutive integer $= \frac{k!(n+k)!}{k! n!} = k! n + rC_r = \text{Integer}$</p> <p>Hence the product of k consecutive integers is divisible by k!</p>
5i)	State and prove fundamental theorem of arithmetic. [NOV/DEC 20]
	<p>Statement:</p> <p>Every integer $n \geq 2$ either is a prime or can be expressed as a product of primes. The factorization into primes is unique except for the order of the factors.</p> <p>Proof:</p> <p>First, we will show by strong induction that n either is a prime or can be expressed as a product of primes. Then we will establish the uniqueness of such a factorization.</p> <p>Let P(n) denote the statement that n is a prime or can be expressed as a product of primes.</p> <p>To show that P(n) is true for every integer $n \geq 2$:</p> <hr/> <p>since 2 is a prime, clearly P(2) is true.</p> <p>Now assume P(2), P(3), ..., P(k) are true; that is every integer 2 through k either is a prime or can be expressed as a product of primes.</p> <p>If k+1 is a prime, then P(k+1) is true. So suppose k+1 is composite.</p> <p>Then $k+1 = ab$ for some integers a and b, where $1 < a, b < k+1$.</p> <p>By the inductive hypothesis, a and b either are primes or can be expressed as products of primes; in any event, $k+1 = ab$ can be expressed as products of primes.</p> <p>Thus, P(k+1) is also true.</p> <p>Thus by strong induction, the result holds for every integer $n \geq 2$</p> <p><u>To Establish the Uniqueness of the Factorization:</u></p> <p>Let n be a composite number with two factorization into primes; $n = p_1 p_2 \dots p_r = q_1 q_2 \dots q_s$</p> <p>we will show that $r = s$ and every p_i equals some q_j, where $1 \leq i, j \leq r$;</p> <p>that is, the primes q_1, q_2, \dots, q_s are a permutation of the primes $p_1 p_2 \dots p_r$</p> <p>Assume, for convenience that $r \leq s$</p> <p>since $p_1 p_2 \dots p_r = q_1 q_2 \dots q_s$, $p_1 / q_1 q_2 \dots q_s$,</p> $\Rightarrow p_1 = q_i \text{ for some } i.$ <p>Dividing both sides p_1, we get: $p_2 \dots p_r = q_1 q_2 \dots q_{i-1} q_{i+1} \dots q_s$</p> <p>Now, p_2 divides the RHS, so $p_2 = q_j$ for some j. cancel p_2 from both sides :</p> $p_3 \dots p_r = q_1 q_2 \dots q_{i-1} q_i q_{i+1} \dots q_{j-1} q_{j+1} q_s$ <p>Since $r \leq s$, continuing like this, we can cancel p_i with some q_k.</p> <p>This yields a 1 on the LHS at the end.</p> <p>Then the RHS cannot be left with any primes, since a product of primes can never yield a 1; thus, we must have exhausted all q_k's by now.</p> <p>therefore, $r = s$ and hence the primes q_1, q_2, \dots, q_s are the same as the primes $p_1 p_2 \dots p_r$ in some order.</p> <p>Thus, the factorization of n is unique, except for the order in which the primes as written.</p>

5ii)	<p>Prove that the product of gcd and lcm of any two positive integers a and b is equal to their products. [NOV/DEC 19]</p>
	<p>Proof: Let $a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \dots p_n^{a_n}$, $b = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \dots p_n^{b_n}$ be the canonical decomposition of a and b. Then $[a, b] = p_1^{\max\{a_1, b_1\}} p_2^{\max\{a_2, b_2\}} \dots p_n^{\max\{a_n, b_n\}}$ $(a, b) = p_1^{\min\{a_1, b_1\}} p_2^{\min\{a_2, b_2\}} \dots p_n^{\min\{a_n, b_n\}}$ $\Rightarrow a, b = p_1^{\max\{a_1, b_1\} + \min\{a_1, b_1\}} p_2^{\max\{a_2, b_2\} + \min\{a_2, b_2\}} \dots p_n^{\max\{a_n, b_n\} + \min\{a_n, b_n\}}$ $= p_1^{a_1 + b_1} p_2^{a_2 + b_2} \dots p_n^{a_n + b_n}$ $= (p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \dots p_n^{a_n}) (p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \dots p_n^{b_n})$ $= ab$ Hence $[a, b] = \frac{ab}{(a, b)}$</p>
<p align="center">UNIT – IV DIOPHANTINE EQUATIONS AND CONGRUENCES PART- A</p>	
1	<p>Define congruence modulo m.</p>
	<p>If an integer $m (\neq 0)$ divides the difference $a - b$, we say that a is congruent to b modulo m. (i.e) $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.</p>
2	<p>Define linear congruence.</p>
	<p>A congruence of the form $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ is called a linear congruence. An integer x_1 is said to be a solution or root of this congruence, if $ax_1 \equiv b \pmod{m}$ (i.e) $m \mid ax_1 - b$.</p>
3	<p>Solve the congruence $4x \equiv 5 \pmod{6}$.</p>
	<p>$4x \equiv 5 \pmod{6}$ Here $a = 4, b = 5, m = 6$ $(a, m) = (4, 6) = 2 \Rightarrow 2 \nmid 5$ (i.e) $(a, m) \nmid b$ \therefore The congruence has no solution.</p>
4	<p>What is digital root of a positive integer? What are the digital roots of square numbers? Is 16151613924 a square?</p>
	<p>Let $N = (a_n a_{n-1} \dots a_1 a_0)_{10}$ and d be its digital root, then $d \equiv (a_n + a_{n-1} + \dots + a_1 + a_0) \pmod{9}$. (i.e) the digital root of N is the remainder when N is divided by 9 with one exception: it is 9 if the remainder is 0. The digital roots of square numbers are 1, 4, 7, or 9. $1+6+1+5+1+6+1+3+9+2+4=39 \Rightarrow$ remainder is 3 when divided by 9 Therefore digital root of 16151613924 is 3. Hence 16151613924 is not a square.</p>

5	Solve $x^7 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{7}$
	<p>The complete residue system (CRS) is $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ But $4 \equiv -3 \pmod{7}$ $5 \equiv -2 \pmod{7}$ $6 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}$ The CRS is $\{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3\}$ The CRS does not satisfy the congruence $x^2 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{7}$ \therefore The given congruence has no solution.</p>
6	State Chinese remainder theorem.
	<p>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 be any r integers. Then the congruence $x \equiv a_i \pmod{m_i}$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$ have common solution.</p>
7	Determine whether the LDEs $12x + 18y = 30$, $2x + 3y = 4$, and $6x + 8y = 25$ are solvable.
	<p>$(12, 18) = 6$ and $6 \mid 30$, so the LDE $12x + 18y = 30$ has a solution. $(2, 3) = 1$, so the LDE has a solution. $(6, 8) = 2$, but $2 \nmid 25$, so the LDE $6x + 8y = 25$ is not solvable.</p>
8	Prove that $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ if and only if $a = b + km$ for some integer k .
	<p>Suppose $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$. Then $m \mid (a - b)$, so $a - b = km$ for some integer k. (i.e) $a = b + km$. Conversely, suppose $a = b + km$. Then $a - b = km$, so $m \mid (a - b)$ and consequently, $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.</p>
9	Find the remainder when $1! + 2! + \dots + 100!$ is divided by 15.
	<p>Notice that when $k \geq 5$, $k! \equiv 0 \pmod{15}$ $1! + 2! + \dots + 100! \equiv 1! + 2! + 3! + 4! + 0 + \dots + 0 \pmod{15}$ $\equiv 1 + 2 + 6 + 24 \pmod{15}$ $\equiv 1 + 2 + 0 \pmod{15}$ $\equiv 3 \pmod{15}$ Thus, when the given sum is divided by 15, the remainder is 3.</p>
10	Let $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$, then prove that $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$.
	<p>Since $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$, $a = b + lm$ and $c = d + km$ for some integers l and m. Then $a + c = (b + lm) + (d + km)$ $= (b + d) + (l + k)m$ $= b + d \pmod{m}$</p>
11	Let $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$, then prove that $ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$.
	<p>Since $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$, $a = b + lm$ and $c = d + km$ for some integers l and m. Then $ac - bd = (ac - bc) + (bc - bd)$ $= c(a - b) + b(c - d)$ $= clm + bkm$ $= (cl + bk)m$ $\therefore ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$</p>

12	Find the remainder when 16^{53} is divided by 7.
	$16 \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$. If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, then $a^n \equiv b^n \pmod{m}$ for any positive integer $n \Rightarrow 16^n \equiv 2^n \pmod{7}$. $16^{53} \equiv 2^{53} \pmod{7}$ $2^3 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$ $\therefore 2^{53} \equiv 2^{3(17)+2}$ $\equiv (2^3)^{17} \cdot 2^2$ $\equiv 1^{17} \cdot 4 \pmod{7} \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$ So $16^{53} \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$, by the transitive property. Thus, when 16^{53} is divided by 7, the remainder is 4
13	Find the remainder when 3^{31} is divided by 7. [NOV/DEC 19]
	$3^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$ $(3^2)^3 \equiv 2^3 \pmod{7} \equiv 1 \pmod{7} \Rightarrow 3^6 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$ $\therefore 3^{31} = (3^6)^5 \cdot 3 \equiv 1^5 \cdot 3 \pmod{7}$ $\equiv 3 \pmod{7}$ Thus the remainder is 3.
14	Determine whether the LDE $2x + 3y + 4z = 5$ is solvable? [NOV/DEC 19]
	The gcd(2, 3, 4) = 1 i.e., (2, 3, 4) = 1 and $1/5 \Rightarrow$ The given LDE is Solvable.
15	Define 2X2 linear system
	A 2×2 linear system is a system of linear congruences of the form, $ax + by \equiv e \pmod{m}; cx + dy \equiv f \pmod{m}$ A solution of the linear system is a pair $x \equiv x_0 \pmod{m}, y \equiv y_0 \pmod{m}$ that satisfies both congruences.
16	Show that $x \equiv 12 \pmod{13}$ and $y \equiv 2 \pmod{13}$ is a solution of the 2×2 linear system $2x + 3y \equiv 4 \pmod{13}$ $3x + 4y \equiv 5 \pmod{13}$.
	When $x \equiv 12 \pmod{13}$ and $y \equiv 2 \pmod{13}$, $2x + 3y \equiv 2(12) + 3(2) \equiv 4 \pmod{13}$ $3x + 4y \equiv 3(12) + 4(2) \equiv 5 \pmod{13}$ Therefore, every pair $x \equiv 12 \pmod{13}, y \equiv 2 \pmod{13}$ is a solution of the system.
17	Verify that the linear system $2x + 3y \equiv 4 \pmod{13}$ and $3x + 4y \equiv 5 \pmod{13}$ has a unique solution modulo 13.
	We know that the system has a unique solution modulo m if and only if $(\Delta, m) = 1$ $\Delta = ad - bc = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 \end{vmatrix} = -1 \equiv 12 \pmod{13}$. Since $(12, 13) = 1$ Therefore the system has a unique solution modulo 13.
18	Prove that no prime of the form $4n + 3$ can be expressed as the sum of two squares. [NOV/DEC 20]
	Let N be a prime of the form $4n + 3$. Then $N \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. Suppose $N = A^2 + B^2$ for some integers A and B. Since N is odd, one of the squares (say A^2) must be odd and hence B^2 must be even. Then A must be odd and B even.

	<p>Let $A = 2a + 1$ and $B = 2b$ for some integers a and b.</p> <p>Then $N = (2a + 1)^2 + (2b)^2$</p> $= 4(a^2 + b^2 + a) + 1$ $= 1 \pmod{4}$ <p>which is a contradiction, since $N = 3 \pmod{4}$</p>
19	Show that a palindrome with an even number of digits is divisible by 11.
	<p>Let be $n = n_{2k-1}n_{2k-2}\dots n_1n_0$ palindrome with an even number of digits</p> $n = (n_0 + n_2 + \dots + n_{2k-2}) - (n_1 + n_3 + \dots + n_{2k-1}) \pmod{11}$ $= 0 \pmod{11}$ <p>because n is palindrome with an even number of digits Thus, $11 \mid n$.</p>
20	Define complete residue system.
	A set x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m is a complete residue system mod m if for integer y , there is one and only one x_j such that $y \equiv x_j \pmod{m}$.
PART B	
1i)	Show that $n^2 + n \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ for any positive integer n.
	<p>Proof:</p> $a \equiv b \pmod{k} \Rightarrow a - b \equiv km, \quad m \in \mathbb{Z}$ <p>$a - b$ is divisible by k</p> <p>$n = \text{even} = 2m$</p> $n^2 + n = (2m)^2 + (2m) = 4m^2 + 2m = 2(2m^2 + m)$ <p>$n^2 + n$ is divisible by 2</p> <p>$n = \text{odd} = 2m + 1$</p> $n^2 + n = (2m + 1)^2 + (2m + 1)$ $= 4m^2 + 4m + 1 + 2m + 1$ $= 4m^2 + 6m + 2$ $= 2(2m^2 + 3m + 1)$ <p>$n^2 + n$ is divisible by 2 $\Rightarrow n^2 + n \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$</p>
1ii)	Prove that p is a prime iff $(p - 1)! + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.
	<p>Proof:</p> <p>Suppose p is not a prime then $p = p_1 p_2$ where $1 < p_1, p_2 < p - 1$</p> <p>since $1 < p_1 < p - 1$, we find p_1 is a factor of $(p - 1)!$</p> <p>(ie) $p_1 / (p - 1)!$ Also p_1 / p</p> <p>we are given $(p - 1)! + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$</p> $\therefore p / (p - 1)! + 1$ $\therefore p_1 / (p - 1)! + 1$ <p>Thus $p_1 / (p - 1)! + 1$ & $p_1 / (p - 1)! \Rightarrow p_1 / [(p - 1)! + 1] - (p - 1)!$</p> $\therefore p_1 / 1 \quad \text{which is not possible} \quad \therefore p_1 > 1 \quad \text{Hence } p \text{ must be prime.}$

2	<p>State and prove Chinese remainder theorem. Using it find the least positive integer that leaves the remainder 1 when divided by 3, 2 when divided by 4 and 3 when divided by 5. [NOV/DEC 19]</p>
	<p>Statement: 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 be any r integers. Then the congruence $x \equiv a_i \pmod{m_i}$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$ have common solution.</p> <p>Proof: <i>Part1: Existence of the solution</i> Let $n = m_1 \cdot m_2 \cdot m_3 \dots m_k$ & $n_i = \frac{n}{m_i}$, $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k$. Since $m_1, m_2, m_3 \dots m_k$ are pairwise relatively prime $(n_i, m_i) = 1$, $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k$ Also $n_i \equiv 0 \pmod{m_j}$, $i \neq j$ Since $(n_i, m_i) = 1$, the congruence $n_i y_i \equiv 1 \pmod{m_i}$ has a unique solution y_i, $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k$ Let $x = a_1 n_1 y_1 + a_2 n_2 y_2 + \dots + a_k n_k y_k$ Now, we will show that x is a solution of the system of congruences. Since $n_i \equiv 0 \pmod{m_k}$ for $i \neq k$, all terms except the k^{th} term in this are congruent to 0 modulo m_k Since $n_k y_k \equiv 1 \pmod{m_k}$, we see that $x = a_k n_k y_k \equiv a_k \pmod{m_k}$, for $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$ Thus x satisfies every congruence in the system. Hence x is a solution of the linear system. <i>Part2: Uniqueness of the solution</i> Solution is unique in modulo $n = m_1 \cdot m_2 \dots m_k$. Let x_1, x_2 be two solutions of the system To prove $x_1 \equiv x_2 \pmod{n}$ Since $x_1 \equiv a_j \pmod{m_j}$ and $x_2 \equiv a_j \pmod{m_j}$, $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k$ we have $x_1 - x_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{m_j} \Rightarrow m_j \mid x_1 - x_2$ for every j Since m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k are pairwise relatively prime, $LCM[m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k] = m_1 \cdot m_2 \dots m_k \mid x_1 - x_2$ $\Rightarrow n \mid x_1 - x_2 \Rightarrow x_1 \equiv x_2 \pmod{n}$ Hence the solution is unique mod $m_1 m_2 \dots m_k$. Given system is $x \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$; $x \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$; $x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$ Here $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 2$, $a_3 = 3$; $m_1 = 3$, $m_2 = 4$, $m_3 = 5$ We find m_1, m_2, m_3 are pairwise relatively prime Let $n = m_1 m_2 m_3 = 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 = 60$ and $n_1 = \frac{n}{m_1} = \frac{3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5}{3} = 20$; $n_2 = \frac{n}{m_2} = \frac{3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5}{4} = 15$; $n_3 = \frac{n}{m_3} = \frac{3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5}{5} = 12$ 1. We find y_1, y_2, y_3 from the congruences $n_1 y_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_1}$ $n_2 y_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_2}$ $n_3 y_3 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_3}$</p>

	<p>We have $n_1 y_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_1}$, $20y_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, Since $20 \cdot 2 \equiv 40 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, we see $y_1 = 2$ is a solution We have $n_2 y_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_2}$, $15y_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, Since $15 \cdot 3 \equiv 45 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, we see $y_2 = 3$ is a solution We have $n_3 y_3 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_3}$, $12y_3 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$, Since $12 \cdot 3 \equiv 36 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$, we see $y_3 = 3$ is a solution 2. Then solution is $x \equiv a_1 n_1 y_1 + a_2 n_2 y_2 + a_3 n_3 y_3 \pmod{n}$ $\therefore x \equiv 1 \cdot 20 \cdot 2 + 2 \cdot 15 \cdot 3 + 3 \cdot 12 \cdot 3 \pmod{60}$ $\Rightarrow x \equiv 40 + 90 + 72 \pmod{60}$ $\Rightarrow x \equiv 238 \pmod{60}$ $\Rightarrow x \equiv 58 \pmod{60}$ $\therefore 58$ is the unique solution $\pmod{60}$ \therefore the solution of the system is $x \equiv 58 \pmod{60}$ and it is the unique solution.</p>
3i)	<p>Solve the congruence $x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, $x \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$, $x \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$.</p> <p>Solution: Here $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 0$, $a_3 = 5$; $m_1 = 4$, $m_2 = 3$, $m_3 = 7$ $m = m_1 \cdot m_2 \cdot m_3 = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 7 = 84$ $\frac{m}{m_1} = \frac{84}{4} = 21$; $\frac{m}{m_2} = \frac{84}{3} = 28$; $\frac{m}{m_3} = \frac{84}{7} = 12$ $\left(\frac{m}{m_1}, m_1\right) = (21, 4) = 1$; $\left(\frac{m}{m_2}, m_2\right) = (28, 3) = 1$; $\left(\frac{m}{m_3}, m_3\right) = (12, 7) = 1$ we know that $\left(\frac{m}{m_j}\right) b_j \equiv 1 \pmod{m_j}$ For $m_1 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{m}{m_1}\right) b_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_1}$ $(21)b_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \Rightarrow 4 \mid 21b_1 - 1$ $\Rightarrow 21b_1 - 1 = 4k$, k is an integer $21b_1 = 1 + 4k$ $b_1 = \frac{1+4k}{21}$ put $k = 5$, $b_1 = 1$ For $m_2 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{m}{m_2}\right) b_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_2}$ $(28)b_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \Rightarrow 3 \mid 28b_2 - 1$</p>

	$\Rightarrow 28b_2 - 1 = 3k, \quad k \text{ is an integer}$ $28b_2 = 1 + 3k$ $b_2 = \frac{1+3k}{28}$ <p>put $k = 9, \quad b_2 = 1$</p> <p>For $m_3 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{m}{m_3}\right)b_3 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_3}$</p> $(12)b_3 \equiv 1 \pmod{7} \Rightarrow 7/12b_3 - 1$ $\Rightarrow 12b_3 - 1 = 7k_2, \quad k_2 \text{ is an integer}$ $12b_3 = 1 + 7k_2$ $b_3 = \frac{1+7k_2}{12}$ <p>put $k_2 = 5, \quad b_3 = 3$</p> <p>By chinese remainder theorem,</p> $x = \sum_{i=1}^3 \left(\frac{m}{m_i}\right) a_i b_i \pmod{m}$ $= \left(\frac{m}{m_1} a_1 b_1 + \frac{m}{m_2} a_2 b_2 + \frac{m}{m_3} a_3 b_3\right) \pmod{m}$ $= [(21 \times 1 \times 1) + (28 \times 0 \times 1) + (12 \times 5 \times 3)] \pmod{84}$ $= (21 + 180) \pmod{84}$ $= 201 \pmod{84}$
3ii)	<p>Determine whether the system $x \equiv 3 \pmod{10}; \quad x \equiv 8 \pmod{15}; \quad x \equiv 5 \pmod{84}$ has a solution and find them all if it exists.</p>
	<p>Solution: The first congruence $x \equiv 3 \pmod{10}$ is equivalent to the simultaneous congruences $x \equiv 3 \pmod{2}$ ----- (1) $x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$ ----- (2) The congruence $x \equiv 8 \pmod{15}$ is equivalent to, $x \equiv 8 \pmod{3}$ ----- (3) $x \equiv 8 \pmod{5}$ ----- (4) The congruence $x \equiv 5 \pmod{84}$ is equivalent to, $x \equiv 5 \pmod{3}$ ----- (5) $x \equiv 5 \pmod{4}$ ----- (6) $x \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$ ----- (7) The congruence (1) & (6) $x \equiv 3 \pmod{2}$ $x \equiv 5 \pmod{4}$ reduces to $x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ ----- (8) The congruence (3) & (5) $x \equiv 8 \pmod{3}$ $x \equiv 5 \pmod{3}$ reduces to $x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ ----- (9)</p>

The congruence (2) & (4)

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 8 \pmod{5} \text{ reduces to } x \equiv 3 \pmod{5} \text{----- (10)}$$

$$\text{From (7)} \Rightarrow x \equiv 2 \pmod{7} \text{----- (11)}$$

we have solve the congruence of (8), (9), (10) & (11)

$$\text{Here } a_1 = 1, a_2 = 2, a_3 = 3, a_4 = 5; m_1 = 4, m_2 = 3, m_3 = 5, m_4 = 7$$

$$m = m_1 \cdot m_2 \cdot m_3 \cdot m_4 = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 = 420$$

$$\frac{m}{m_1} = 105, \frac{m}{m_2} = 140, \frac{m}{m_3} = 84, \frac{m}{m_4} = 60$$

$$\text{we know that } \left(\frac{m}{m_j} \right) b_j \equiv 1 \pmod{m_j}$$

$$\text{For } m_1 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{m}{m_1} \right) b_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$(105)b_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \Rightarrow 4 / 105b_1 - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow 105b_1 - 1 = 4k_1, k_1 \text{ is an integer}$$

$$105b_1 = 1 + 4k_1$$

$$b_1 = \frac{1 + 4k_1}{105}$$

$$\text{put } k_1 = 26, b_1 = 1$$

$$\text{For } m_2 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{m}{m_2} \right) b_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_2}$$

$$(140)b_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \Rightarrow 3 / 140b_2 - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow 140b_2 - 1 = 3k_2, k_2 \text{ is an integer}$$

$$140b_2 = 1 + 3k_2$$

$$b_2 = \frac{1 + 3k_2}{140}$$

$$\text{put } k_2 = 93, b_2 = 2$$

$$\text{For } m_3 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{m}{m_3} \right) b_3 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_3}$$

$$(84)b_3 \equiv 1 \pmod{5} \Rightarrow 5 / 84b_3 - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow 84b_3 - 1 = 5k_3, k_3 \text{ is an integer}$$

$$84b_3 = 1 + 5k_3$$

$$b_3 = \frac{1 + 5k_3}{84}$$

	<p>For $m_4 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{m}{m_4}\right)b_4 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_4}$</p> $(60)b_4 \equiv 1 \pmod{7} \Rightarrow 7 \mid 60b_4 - 1$ $\Rightarrow 60b_4 - 1 = 7k_4, \quad k_4 \text{ is an integer}$ $84b_4 = 1 + 7k_4$ $b_4 = \frac{1 + 7k_4}{84}$ <p>put $k_4 = 17, \quad b_3 = 2$</p> <p>By chinese remainder theorem,</p> $x = \sum_{i=1}^4 \left(\frac{m}{m_i}\right) a_i b_i \pmod{m}$ $= \left(\frac{m}{m_1} a_1 b_1 + \frac{m}{m_2} a_2 b_2 + \frac{m}{m_3} a_3 b_3 + \frac{m}{m_4} a_4 b_4\right) \pmod{m}$ $= [(105 \times 1 \times 1) + (140 \times 2 \times 2) + (84 \times 3 \times 4) + (60 \times 5 \times 2)] \pmod{420}$ $= (105 + 560 + 1008 + 600) \pmod{420}$ $= 2273 \pmod{420} = 173 \pmod{420}$
4i)	Prove that $4^{2n} + 10n \equiv 1 \pmod{25}$.
	<p>Proof :</p> $4^{2n} + 10n \equiv 1 \pmod{25}$ <p>proof by mathematical induction</p> $\Rightarrow n = 0$ $(4^0 + 0) - 1 = 1 - 1 = 0$ $\Rightarrow 0 \text{ is divisible by } 25$ <p>statement is true for $n = 0$.</p> $n = 1, \quad (4^2 + 10) - 1 = 25$ $\Rightarrow 25 \text{ is divisible by } 25$ <p>statement is true for $n = 1$.</p> <p>Assume that the statement is true for $n = k$</p> <p>(ie), $4^{2k} + 10k - 1 = 25l$</p> <p>Consider $4^{2k+2} + 10(k+1) - 1$</p> $= 4^{2k} \cdot 16 + 10k + 10 - 1$ $= 16(25l - 10k + 1) + 10k + 9$ $= 16(25l) - 160k + 16 + 10k + 9$ $= 16(25l) - 150k + 25$ $= 25(16l - 6k + 1)$ $= 25(y)$ $4^{2k+2} + 10(k+1) - 1 \text{ is divisible by } 25$ <p>Statement is true for $n = k + 1$</p> <p>By principle of mathematical induction, statement is true for all n.</p>

4ii)	Find the remainder when $(n^2 + n + 41)^2$ is divisible by 12.
	<p>Solution: First notice that product of four consecutive integers is divisible by 12, (ie), $(n-1)n(n+1)(n+2) \equiv 0 \pmod{12}$ $(n^2 + n + 41)^2 \equiv (n^2 + n + 5)^2 \pmod{12}$ $\equiv (n^4 + 2n^3 + 11n^2 + 10n + 25) \pmod{12}$ $\equiv n(n^3 + 2n^2 - n - 2) + 1 \pmod{12}$ $\equiv n[n^2(n+2) - (n+2)] + 1 \pmod{12}$ $\equiv n((n+2)(n^2 - 1) + 1) \pmod{12}$ $\equiv (n-1)n(n+1)(n+2) + 1 \pmod{12}$ $\equiv 1 \pmod{12}$</p> <p>Thus when $(n^2 + n + 41)^2$ is divided by 12, the remainder is 1.</p>
5i)	Find the general solution of the LDE $6x + 8y + 12z = 10$ [NOV/DEC 20]
	<p>Solution: Given the LDE is $6x + 8y + 12z = 10$ -----(1) Here $a_1 = 6, a_2 = 8, a_3 = 12, c = 10$ $\therefore (a_1, a_2, a_3) = (6, 8, 12) = 2$ and $c = 10$ $\therefore d = (a_1, a_2, a_3) = 2$ Since $2 \mid 10, d \mid c$ So, the given LDE is solvable. Since $8y + 12z$ is a linear combination of 8 and 12, it must be a multiple of $(8, 12) = 4$ $\therefore 8y + 12z = 4u$ -----(2) $\therefore (1) \Rightarrow 6x + 4u = 10$ -----(3) First we solve the LDE (3) in two variables x and u Here $a = 6, b = 4, c = 10$ $(a, b) = (6, 4) = 2$ $d = (a, b) = 2$ and $c = 10$ Since $2 \mid 10, d \mid c$ So, the given LDE (3) is solvable. We find $x_0 = 1, u_0 = 1$ is a solution of (3) is $x = x_0 + \frac{b}{d}t$ and $u = u_0 - \frac{a}{d}t, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ $x = 1 + \frac{4}{2}t$ and $u = 1 - \frac{6}{2}t, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ $x = 1 + 2t$ and $u = 1 - 3t, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ Substituting for u in (2), we get $\therefore 8y + 12z = 4(1 - 3t)$ Since $d = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 8 & 12 \end{pmatrix} = 4$ and $4 = 2.8 + (-1).12$ is a linear combination of 8 and 12. Multiplying by $(1 - 3t)$, we get $4(1 - 3t) = 2(1 - 3t).8 + (-1)(1 - 3t).12$ $= (2 - 6t).8 + (-1 + 3t).12$</p>

	<p>\therefore a solution of (2) is</p> $y_0 = 2 - 6t \quad \text{and} \quad z_0 = -1 + 3t, \quad t \in \mathbb{Z}$ <p>So, the general solution of (2) is</p> $y = y_0 + \frac{b}{d}t' \quad \text{and} \quad z = z_0 - \frac{a}{d}t', \quad t' \in \mathbb{Z}$ $y = 2 - 6t + \frac{12}{4}t' \quad \text{and} \quad z = -1 + 3t - \frac{8}{4}t', \quad t' \in \mathbb{Z}$ $y = 2 - 6t + 3t' \quad \text{and} \quad z = -1 + 3t - 2t', \quad t' \in \mathbb{Z}$ <p>Thus the general solution of (1) is</p> $x = 1 + 2t, \quad y = 2 - 6t + 3t', \quad z = -1 + 3t - 2t', \quad t' \in \mathbb{Z}$	
5ii)	Find the general solution of the LDE $15x + 21y = 39$	[NOV/DEC 19]
	<p>Solution:</p> $15x + 21y = 39 \Rightarrow a = 15, b = 21, c = 39.$ $d = (15, 21) \text{ and } d / 39 \Rightarrow d = 3$ <p>So, the given LDE is solvable.</p> $15x + 21y = 39 \Rightarrow 5x + 7y = 13 \text{----- (1)}$ <p>then $(5, 7) = d = 1 \therefore d / 13$</p> $a = 5, b = 7, d = 1$ <p>We find $x_0 = -3, y_0 = 4$ is a solution of (1) is</p> $x = x_0 + \frac{b}{d}t \quad \text{and} \quad y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d}t, \quad t \in \mathbb{Z}$ $x = -3 + \frac{7}{1}t \quad \text{and} \quad y = 4 - \frac{5}{1}t, \quad t \in \mathbb{Z}$ $x = -3 + 7t \quad \text{and} \quad y = 4 - 5t, \quad t \in \mathbb{Z}$	
6i)	Solve the linear system $5x + 6y \equiv 10 \pmod{13}; 6x - 7y \equiv 2 \pmod{13}$.	[NOV/DEC 19]
	<p>Solution:</p> $5x + 6y \equiv 10 \pmod{13}$ $6x - 7y \equiv 2 \pmod{13}$ $\Rightarrow a = 5, b = 6, c = 10, d = -7, e = 10, f = 2.$ $m = 13, \Delta = ad - bc = -35 - 36 = -71 \pmod{13} = 7 \pmod{13}$ $(\Delta, m) = (7, 13) = 1.$ <p>Hence unique solution.</p> $x_0 = \Delta^{-1} \begin{vmatrix} 10 & 6 \\ 2 & -7 \end{vmatrix} \pmod{13} \text{----- (1)}$ $y_0 = \Delta^{-1} \begin{vmatrix} 5 & 10 \\ 6 & 2 \end{vmatrix} \pmod{13} \text{----- (2)}$ $\Delta \Delta^{-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{13}$ $7 \Delta^{-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{13}$ $\Rightarrow \Delta^{-1} \equiv 2 \pmod{13}$ $(1) \Rightarrow x_0 \equiv \Delta^{-1}(-70 - 12) \pmod{13} \equiv 2(-70 - 12) \pmod{13}$ $\equiv -8 \pmod{13}$ $\equiv 5 \pmod{13}$	

	$(2) \Rightarrow y_0 \equiv \Delta^{-1}(10 - 60)(\text{mod } 13) \equiv 2(-50)(\text{mod } 13)$ $\equiv 2.2(\text{mod } 13)$ $\equiv 4(\text{mod } 13)$ $\therefore x \equiv 5(\text{mod } 13); y \equiv 4(\text{mod } 13).$
6ii)	Compute the remainder when 3^{247} is divisible by 25.
	<p>Solution:</p> <p>We have to find the remainder when 3^{247} is divisible by 25.</p> <p>We have $3^2 \equiv 9(\text{mod } 25)$</p> $3^4 \equiv 9^2 = 81 \equiv 6(\text{mod } 25)$ $3^8 \equiv 6^2 = 36 \equiv 11(\text{mod } 25)$ $3^{16} \equiv 11^2 = 121 \equiv 21(\text{mod } 25)$ $3^{32} \equiv 21^2 \equiv 16(\text{mod } 25)$ $3^{64} \equiv 16^2 \equiv 6(\text{mod } 25)$ $3^{128} \equiv 6^2 \equiv 11(\text{mod } 25)$ $3^{247} = 3^{128+64+32+16+4+2+1}$ $= 3^{128} \cdot 3^{64} \cdot 3^{32} \cdot 3^{16} \cdot 3^4 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 3$ $3^{247} \equiv 11 \cdot 6 \cdot 16 \cdot 21 \cdot 6 \cdot 9 \cdot 3(\text{mod } 25)$ $\equiv 11(96)(21)(54)3(\text{mod } 25)$ $\equiv 11(-4)(-4)(4)3(\text{mod } 25)$ $\equiv 44 \cdot 48(\text{mod } 25)$ $\equiv (-6)(-2)(\text{mod } 25)$ $\equiv 12(\text{mod } 25)$ <p>\therefore the remainder is 12 when 3^{247} is divisible by 25.</p>
UNIT – V CLASSICAL THEOREMS AND MULTIPLICATIVE FUNCTIONS	
PART A	
1	State Wilson's Theorem. [NOV/DEC 20]
	If p is prime, then $(p-1)! \equiv -1(\text{mod } p)$
2	Find the remainder when 100! is divided by 101.
	<p>We know that, By Wilson theorem "If p is prime, then $(p-1)! \equiv -1(\text{mod } p)$"</p> <p>p = 101 is a prime, by Wilson's theorem, $(101-1)! \equiv -1(\text{mod } 101)$.</p> <p>Therefore, Remainder when 100! Is divided by 101 is 101-1=100</p>
3	What is the remainder when 100! is divided by $(97)^2$?
	$100! \text{ Mod } 97^2 = 97 * (100 * 99 * 98 * 96! \text{ Mod } 97)$ <p>97 is prime. So, $96! (\text{mod } 97) = 96$</p> $\Rightarrow 100 * 99 * 98 * 96! (\text{mod } 97) = 3 * 2 * 1 * 96 (\text{mod } 97)$ $= 3 * 2 * 1 * (-1) (\text{mod } 97)$ $= -6 (\text{mod } 97)$ $= 91 (\text{mod } 97)$ <p>So, required remainder = $91 * 97$</p> $= 8827$
4	State Fermat's Little Theorem. [NOV/DEC 19]
	Let p be a prime and 'a' any integer such that $p \nmid a$, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1(\text{mod } p)$

5	Using Fermat's theorem, find the last digit of 3^{100} when divided by 10.
	<p>We know that $3^2 = 9 \equiv -1 \pmod{10}$</p> $3^{(2n)} \equiv (-1)^n \pmod{10}$ $3^{(2 \times 50)} \equiv (-1)^{50} \pmod{10}$ <p>Therefore last digit = 1</p>
6	What is the remainder when 109 divides 17^{325}?
	<p>By Fermat's theorem, remainder when 109 divides $17^{(109-1)}$ is 1 as 109 is prime & 109 does not divide 17. Remainder when 109 divides $17^{3(109-1)}$ is 1 remainder when 109 divides $[17^{3(108)}] \times 17$ is 1 x 17 remainder when 109 divides $17^{(324+1)}$ is 17</p>
7	Define Multiplicative function
	A number-theoretic function f is multiplicative if $f(mn) = f(m)f(n)$ whenever m and n are relatively prime.
8	State Fundamental theorem for multiplicative function
	<p>Let f be a multiplicative function and n a positive integer with canonical decompositions $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \dots p_k^{e_k}$ then $f(n) = f(p_1^{e_1}) f(p_2^{e_2}) \dots f(p_k^{e_k})$</p>
9	Define Euler phi function or totient function or Indicator function.
	Euler phi function represent as $\phi(n)$ gives for a number 'n' the number of co-primes in the $[1, 2, \dots, n]$, in other words, the quantity number in the range $[1, 2, \dots, n]$ whose greatest common divisor with n is the unity.
10	Find all positive integers n such that $\phi(n)=6$.
	<p>We know that $\phi(7)=6$, $\phi(3^2)=6$, and $\phi(2)=1$ and ϕ is multiplicative Therefore, the numbers should be 7, $7 \cdot 2=14$, $3^2=9$, and $3^2 \cdot 2=18$</p>
11	Find $\phi(221)$
	$\phi(221) = \phi(13 \cdot 17) = \phi(13) \cdot \phi(17) \quad [\because \text{the function } \phi \text{ is multiplicative}]$ $= 12 \cdot 16 \quad [\because \text{A positive integer } p \text{ is prime iff } \phi(p) = p - 1]$ $= 192$
12	Find $\phi(8)$, $\phi(81)$ and $\phi(15625)$
	<p>We know that $\phi(p^e) = p^e - p^{e-1}$, p be prime and e be any positive integer</p> $\phi(8) = \phi(2^3) = 2^3 - 2^2 = 8 - 4 = 4$ $\phi(81) = \phi(3^4) = 3^4 - 3^3 = 81 - 27 = 54$ $\phi(15625) = \phi(5^6) = 5^6 - 5^5 = 12500$
13	If $n = 2^k$, then show that the value of Euler's phi function $\phi(n) = \frac{n}{2}$ [NOV/DEC 19]
	<p>We know that $\phi(p^e) = p^e - p^{e-1}$, p be prime and e be any positive integer Given $n = 2^k$</p> $\phi(n) = \phi(2^k)$ $= 2^k - 2^{k-1}$ $= 2^k \left\{ 1 - \frac{1}{2} \right\} = \frac{2^k}{2} = \frac{n}{2}$

14	State Euler's Theorem.
	Let m be a positive integer and a be any integer with $(a, m)=1$ then $a^{\phi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$
15	Verify that $\sum_{d 18} \phi(d) = 18$
	The positive divisors of 18 are 1,2,3,6,9,18 $\sum_{d 18} \phi(d) = \phi(1) + \phi(2) + \phi(3) + \phi(6) + \phi(9) + \phi(18) = 1+1+2+2+6+6=18$
16	Define Tau function
	Let n be a positive integer then $\tau(n)$ denotes the number of positive factors of n that is $\tau(n) = \sum_{d n} 1$
17	Define sigma function.
	Let n be a positive integer then $\sigma(n)$ denotes the sum of the positive factors of n that is $\sigma(n) = \sum_{d n} d$
18	Evaluate $\tau(18)$ and $\tau(23)$
	The positive divisors of 18 are 1,2,3,6,9,18 so that $\tau(18) = 6$ 23 being a prime, has exactly two positive divisors so $\tau(23) = 2$
19	Evaluate $\sigma(12)$ and $\sigma(28)$
	The positive divisors of 12 are 1,2,3,4,6,12 so that $\sigma(12) = 1+2+3+4+6+12 = 28$ The positive divisors of 28 are 1,2,4,7,14,28 so that $\sigma(28) = 1+2+4+7+14+28 = 56$
20	Find the number of divisors and the sum of the divisors of 600.
	Decomposition of 600 in canonical form $600 = 2^3 \times 3 \times 5^2$ where $p_1 = 2, p_2 = 3, p_3 = 5, \alpha_1 = 3, \alpha_2 = 1, \alpha_3 = 2$ If decomposition of N by canonical form = $p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} p_3^{\alpha_3} \dots$ Number of divisor = $(\alpha_1 + 1)(\alpha_2 + 1)(\alpha_3 + 1) \dots (\alpha_n + 1)$ $= (3+1)(1+1)(2+1) = 24$ Sum of divisor = $\left(\frac{p_1^{\alpha_1+1} - 1}{p_1 - 1} \right) \left(\frac{p_2^{\alpha_2+1} - 1}{p_2 - 1} \right) \dots = \left(\frac{2^4 - 1}{2 - 1} \right) \left(\frac{3^2 - 1}{3 - 1} \right) \left(\frac{5^3 - 1}{5 - 1} \right) = 1860$
PART-B	
1i)	State and prove Wilson's Theorem [NOV/DEC 19]
	Statement: If p is prime, then $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$. Proof : We have to prove $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ When $p = 2$, $(p-1)! = (2-1)! = 1 \equiv -1 \pmod{2}$. So, the theorem is true when $p = 2$. Now let $p > 2$ and let a be a positive integer such that $1 \leq a \leq p-1$. Since p is a prime and $a < p$, $(a, p) = 1$. Then the congruence $ax \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ has a solution a' congruence modulo p . $\therefore aa' \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, where $1 \leq a' < p-1$ $\therefore a, a'$ are inverses of each other modulo p . If $a' = a$, then $a \cdot a \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ $\Rightarrow a^2 - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ $\therefore p \mid a^2 - 1 \Rightarrow p \mid (a-1)(a+1)$

	$\Rightarrow p \mid a-1 \text{ or } p \mid a+1$ <p>Since $a < p$, if $p \mid a+1$ then $a=p-1$. If $p \mid a-1$, then $a-1=0 \Rightarrow a=1$. $\Rightarrow a=1 \text{ or } p-1 \quad \text{if } a=a'$ i.e., 1 and $p-1$ are their own inverses. If $a' \neq a$, excluding 1 and $p-1$, the remaining $p-3$ residues 2, 3, 4, ..., $(p-3)$, $(p-2)$ can be grouped into $\frac{p-3}{2}$ pairs of the type a, a' such that $aa' \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ Multiplying all these pairs together we get, $2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \dots (p-3)(p-2) \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ $\Rightarrow 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \dots (p-2)(p-1) \equiv p-1 \pmod{p}$ $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p} \quad (\text{Since } p-1 \equiv -1 \pmod{p})$ Hence the theorem. This can be rewritten as $(p-1)! + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ $\Rightarrow p \mid (p-1)! + 1,$ which is the result suggested by Wilson. </p>
1ii)	<p>Let p be a prime and n any positive integer. Prove that $\frac{(np)!}{n!p^n} \equiv (-1)^n \pmod{p}$</p>
	<p>Proof: First, we can make an observation. Let a be any positive integer congruent to 1 modulo p. Then by Wilson's theorem, $a(a+1)\dots(a+(p-2)) \equiv (p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ In other words, the product of the $p-1$ integers between any two consecutive multiples of p is congruent to $-1 \pmod{p}$. Then $\frac{(np)!}{n!p^n} = \frac{(np)!}{p \cdot 2p \cdot 3p \dots (np)}$ $= \prod_{r=1}^n [(r-1)p+1] \dots [(r-1)p+(p-1)]$ $\equiv \prod_{r=1}^n (p-1)! \pmod{p}$ $\equiv \prod_{r=1}^n (-1) \pmod{p}$ $\equiv (-1)^n \pmod{p}$ </p>
2i)	<p>State and prove Fermat's little theorem. [NOV/DEC 20]</p>
	<p>Statement: If p is a prime and a is any integer not divisible by p, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ Proof: Given p is a prime and a is any integer not divisible by p When an integer is divided by p, the set of possible remainders are 0, 1, 2, 3, ..., $p-1$ Consider the set of integers $1 \cdot a, 2 \cdot a, 3 \cdot a, \dots, (p-1) \cdot a$ ----- (1) Suppose $ia \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, then $p \mid ia$. But $p \nmid a \therefore p \mid i$, which is impossible, since $i < p$. $Ia \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p} \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, p-1.$ So, no term of (1) is zero. Next we prove they are all distinct Suppose $ia \equiv ja \pmod{p}$, where $1 \leq i, j \leq p-1$. Then $(i-j)a \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \Rightarrow p \mid (i-j)a$ Since $p \nmid a$, $p \mid i-j$ and $i, j < p \Rightarrow i-j < p$. </p>

	$\therefore i - j = 0 \Rightarrow i \equiv j \pmod{p}$ $\therefore i \neq j \Rightarrow ia \not\equiv ja.$ <p>This means, no two of the integers in (1) are congruent modulo p.</p> <p>\therefore The least residues (or remainders) of the integers $a, 2a, 3a, \dots, (p-1)a$ modulo p are the same as the integers $1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1$ in some order.</p> <p>So, their products are congruent modulo p.</p> $A \cdot 2a \cdot 3a \dots (p-1)a \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \dots (p-1) \pmod{p}$ $\Rightarrow l \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \dots (p-1) \cdot a^{p-1} \equiv (p-1)! \pmod{p}$ $\Rightarrow (p-1)! a^{p-1} \equiv (p-1)! \pmod{p}$ $\Rightarrow a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \text{ (since } p \nmid (p-1) \text{)}$ <p>The result $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ is equivalent to $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$.</p>
2ii)	<p>Find the remainder when 24^{1947} is divided by 17</p> <p>Solution.</p> <p>We have to find the remainder when 24^{1947} is divided by 17.</p> <p>Here $a = 24, p = 17$</p> <p>We know 17 is a prime & $17 \nmid 24$</p> <p>\therefore By Fermat's theorem, $24^{17-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{17}$</p> $\Rightarrow 24^{16} \equiv 1 \pmod{17}$ $\therefore (24^{16})^{121} \equiv 1^{121} \pmod{17}$ $\Rightarrow 24^{1936} \equiv 1 \pmod{17}$ <p>Now $24^{1947} = 24^{1936+11} = 24^{1936} \cdot 24^{11}$</p> $24^2 = 576 \equiv -2 \pmod{17}$ $\therefore (24^2)^2 \equiv (-2)^2 \pmod{17}$ $\Rightarrow 24^4 \equiv 4 \pmod{17}$ $(24^4)^2 \equiv 4^2 \pmod{17}$ $\Rightarrow 24^8 \equiv 16 \pmod{17}$ $\equiv -1 \pmod{17}$ $24^{11} = 24^8 \cdot 24^2 \cdot 24 \equiv (-1)(-2) \cdot 7 \pmod{17}$ $\equiv 14 \pmod{17}$ $\therefore 24^{1947} \equiv 14 \pmod{17}$ $\equiv 14 \pmod{17}$ <p>\therefore the remainder is 14 when 24^{1947} is divided by 17.</p>
3i)	<p>State and prove Euler's theorem.</p> <p>Statement:</p> <p>Let m be a positive integer and a be any integer such that $(a, m) = 1$. Then $a^{\Phi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$.</p> <p>Proof :</p> <p>Given m is a positive integer and a is any integer such that $(a, m) = 1$.</p> <p>Let $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_{\Phi(m)}$ be all the positive integers $< m$ and relatively prime to m.</p> <p>Since $r_i - r_j < m$, clearly $r_i \not\equiv r_j \pmod{m}$ if $i \neq j$</p> <p>Consider the products $ar_1, ar_2, \dots, ar_{\Phi(m)}$</p> <p>Since $(a, m) = 1, ar_i \not\equiv ar_j \pmod{m}$ if $i \neq j$</p> <p>we find $ar_1, ar_2, \dots, ar_{\Phi(m)} \pmod{m}$ are distinct.</p> <p>We now prove $(ar_i, m) = 1$</p> <p>For, suppose $(ar_i, m) > 1$, then let p be a prime factor of $(ar_i, m) = d$.</p> $\therefore p \mid ar_i \text{ and } p \mid m$ $\Rightarrow p \mid a \text{ or } p \mid r_i \text{ and } p \mid m.$ <p>If $p \mid r_i$ and $p \mid m$ then, $(r_i, m) \neq 1$, a contradiction.</p> <p>If $p \mid a$ and $p \mid m$, then $p \mid (a, m) \Rightarrow (a, m) \neq 1$, which is again a contradiction.</p> $\therefore (ar_i, m) = 1, i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, \Phi(m)$

	<p>$\therefore \phi(m)$ least residues $ar_1, ar_2, \dots, ar_{\phi(m)}$ modulo m are distinct and relatively prime to m. So, they are the same as integers $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_{\phi(m)}$, in some order modulo m.</p> <p>\therefore their product $ar_1 \cdot ar_2 \cdot \dots \cdot ar_{\phi(m)} \equiv r_1 \cdot r_2 \cdot \dots \cdot r_{\phi(m)} \pmod{m}$</p> <p>$\Rightarrow a^{\phi(m)} r_1 \cdot r_2 \cdot \dots \cdot r_{\phi(m)} \equiv r_1 r_2 \cdot \dots \cdot r_{\phi(m)} \pmod{m}$</p> <p>Since each r_i is relatively prime to m, $(r_1 r_2 \cdot \dots \cdot r_{\phi(m)}, m) = 1$</p> <p>We get $a^{\phi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$</p>
3ii)	<p>Using Euler's theorem, find the remainder when 245^{1040} is divided by 18. [NOV/DEC 19]</p> <p>Solution.</p> <p>We have to find the remainder when 245^{1040} is divided by 18.</p> <p>Here $a = 245 = 5 \cdot 72$ and $m = 18 = 32 \cdot 2$, $(a, m) = 1$</p> <p>Hence by Euler's theorem, $a^{\phi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$</p> <p>$\Rightarrow 245^{\phi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$</p> <p>$\phi(18) = \phi(3^2 \cdot 2)$</p> <p>$= \phi(3^2) \cdot \phi(2)$</p> <p>$= 3^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{3}\right) \cdot 1 = 6$</p> <p>$\therefore 245^6 \equiv 1 \pmod{18}$</p> <p>$\therefore (245^6)^{173} \equiv 1^{173} \pmod{18}$</p> <p>$245^{1038} \equiv 1 \pmod{18}$</p> <p>$245^{1040} = 245^{1038+2}$</p> <p>$= 245^{1038} \cdot 245^2$</p> <p>But $245 \equiv 11 \pmod{18}$</p> <p>$245^2 \equiv 11^2 \pmod{18}$</p> <p>$\equiv 121 \pmod{18}$</p> <p>$\equiv 13 \pmod{18}$</p> <p>$245^{1040} \equiv 1 \cdot 13 \pmod{18}$</p> <p>$\equiv 13 \pmod{18}$</p> <p>$\therefore$ the remainder is 13 when 245^{1040} is divided by 18.</p>
4i)	<p>If $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \dots p_k^{e_k}$ is the canonical decomposition of a positive integer n then derive the formula for the phi function $\phi(n)$ and use it to find $\phi(6860)$ & $\phi(6125)$ [NOV/DEC 19, 20]</p>
	<p>Proof:</p> <p>To prove :</p> <p>If p is prime and e any positive integer then $\phi(p^e) = p^e - p^{e-1} = p^e \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)$</p> <p>$\phi(p^e)$ = number of positive integers $\leq p^e$ and relatively prime to it</p> <p>$= \{\text{number of positive integers } \leq p^e\} - \{\text{number of positive integers } \leq p^e \text{ and not relatively prime to it}\}$</p> <p>The number of positive integers $\leq p^e$ is p^e (because they are $1, 2, 3, \dots, p^e$)</p> <p>The number of positive integers $\leq p^e$ and not prime to it are the various multiples of p.</p> <p>They are $p, 2p, 3p, \dots, (p^{e-1})p$</p> <p>The number of such numbers $= p^{e-1}$</p> <p>Hence $\phi(p^e) = p^e - p^{e-1} = p^e \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)$</p>

	<p>Since $\varphi(p^e) = p^e - p^{e-1} = p^e(1 - \frac{1}{p})$ is a multiplicative function,</p> $\begin{aligned}\varphi(n) &= \varphi(p_1^e p_2^e \dots p_k^e) = \varphi(p_1^e) \varphi(p_2^e) \dots \varphi(p_k^e) \\ &= p_1^e(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}) p_2^e(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}) \dots p_k^e(1 - \frac{1}{p_k}) \\ &= p_1^e p_2^e \dots p_k^e (1 - \frac{1}{p_1})(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}) \dots (1 - \frac{1}{p_k}) \\ &= n(1 - \frac{1}{p_1})(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}) \dots (1 - \frac{1}{p_k})\end{aligned}$ <p>To find $\varphi(6860)$:</p> $\begin{aligned}\varphi(6860) &= \varphi(2^2) \cdot \varphi(5) \cdot \varphi(7^3) \\ &= 2^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) 4 \cdot 7^3 \left(1 - \frac{1}{7}\right) = 252\end{aligned}$ <p>To find $\varphi(6125)$:</p> $\begin{aligned}\varphi(6125) &= \varphi(5^3) \cdot \varphi(7^2) \\ &= 5^3 \left(1 - \frac{1}{5}\right) \cdot 7^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{7}\right) = 4200\end{aligned}$
4ii)	<p>Prove that τ and σ are multiplicative functions.</p> <p>Proof: We know that $F(n) = \sum_{d n} f(d)$ is multiplicative if f is multiplicative.</p> <p>(i) To prove τ is multiplicative If $f(d) = d^0 = 1$, is constant for each $d n$ If d_1, d_2 are two divisors $(d_1, d_2) = 1$, then $f(d_1 d_2) = 1$, $f(d_1) = 1$; $f(d_2) = 1$ $\therefore f(d_1 d_2) = f(d_1) f(d_2)$ So, constant function is multiplicative. Then $F(n) = \sum_{d n} 1 = \tau(n)$ If $(m, n) = 1$, then $F(mn) = F(m) F(n)$ $\Rightarrow \tau(mn) = \tau(m) \tau(n)$ So τ is multiplicative.</p> <p>(ii) To prove σ is multiplicative Take $f(d) = d$, identity function If d_1, d_2 are two divisors and $(d_1, d_2) = 1$, then $f(d_1 d_2) = d_1 d_2 = f(d_1) f(d_2)$ $\therefore f$ is multiplicative Hence $F(n) = \sum_{d n} d = \sigma(n)$ For $(m, n) = 1$, $F(mn) = F(m) F(n)$ Then $\sigma(mn) = \sigma(m) \sigma(n)$ So σ is multiplicative. $\therefore \tau$ and σ are multiplicative functions.</p>
5	<p>Define Euler phi function and prove that it is multiplicative.</p> <p>Solution: Euler phi function: Let $\varphi: N \rightarrow N$ be a function defined by $\varphi(1) = 1$ and for $n > 1$ $\varphi(n)$ = the number of positive integer $\leq n$ and relative prime to n.</p>

	<p>To prove that it is multiplicative: Let m and n be positive integers such that $(m, n) = 1$. To prove $\phi(mn) = \phi(m) \phi(n)$ Arrange the mn integers $1, 2, 3, \dots, mn$ in m rows of n numbers each.</p> <table> <tr><td>1</td><td>$m+1$</td><td>$2m+1$</td><td>$3m+1$</td><td>...</td><td>$(n-1)m+1$</td></tr> <tr><td>2</td><td>$m+2$</td><td>$2m+2$</td><td>$3m+2$</td><td>...</td><td>$(n-1)m+2$</td></tr> <tr><td>3</td><td>$m+3$</td><td>$2m+3$</td><td>$3m+3$</td><td>...</td><td>$(n-1)m+3$</td></tr> <tr><td>:</td><td>:</td><td>:</td><td>:</td><td>:</td><td>:</td></tr> <tr><td>:</td><td>:</td><td>:</td><td>:</td><td>:</td><td>:</td></tr> <tr><td>r^{th} row r</td><td>$m+r$</td><td>$2m+r$</td><td>$3m+r$</td><td>...</td><td>$(n-1)m+r$</td></tr> <tr><td>:</td><td>:</td><td>:</td><td>:</td><td>:</td><td>:</td></tr> <tr><td>:</td><td>:</td><td>:</td><td>:</td><td>:</td><td>:</td></tr> <tr><td>m</td><td>$2m$</td><td>$3m$</td><td>$4m$</td><td>...</td><td>nm</td></tr> </table> <p>Let r be a positive integer $\leq m$ such that $(r, m) > 1$. We will now show that no element of the r^{th} row in the array is relatively prime to mn. Let $d = (r, m)$. Then $d \mid r$ and $d \mid m \Rightarrow d \mid km + r$ for any integer k This means d is a factor of every element in the r^{th} row. Thus, no element in the r^{th} row is relatively prime to m and hence to mn if $(r, m) > 1$. In other words, the elements in the array relatively prime to mn come from the r^{th} row only if $(r, m) = 1$. Since $r < m$ and relatively prime to m, we find there are $\phi(m)$ such integers r and have $\phi(m)$ such rows. Now let us consider the r^{th} row where $(r, m) = 1$. The elements in the r^{th} row are $r, m+r, 2m+r, \dots, (n-1)m+r$. When they are divided by n, the remainders are $0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$ in some order of which $\phi(n)$ are relatively prime to n. Therefore, exactly $\phi(n)$ elements in the r^{th} row are relatively prime to n and hence to mn. Thus there are $\phi(m)$ rows containing positive integers relatively prime to mn and each row contain $\phi(n)$ elements relatively prime to it. Hence the array contains $\phi(m) \phi(n)$ positive integers $\leq mn$ and relatively prime to mn. That is $\phi(mn) = \phi(m) \phi(n)$. Hence ϕ is multiplicative function.</p>	1	$m+1$	$2m+1$	$3m+1$...	$(n-1)m+1$	2	$m+2$	$2m+2$	$3m+2$...	$(n-1)m+2$	3	$m+3$	$2m+3$	$3m+3$...	$(n-1)m+3$:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	r^{th} row r	$m+r$	$2m+r$	$3m+r$...	$(n-1)m+r$:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	m	$2m$	$3m$	$4m$...	nm
1	$m+1$	$2m+1$	$3m+1$...	$(n-1)m+1$																																																		
2	$m+2$	$2m+2$	$3m+2$...	$(n-1)m+2$																																																		
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6i)	<p>If p is prime and e any positive integer then prove that $\phi(p^e) = p^e - p^{e-1}$. Also show that $\phi(n) = \frac{n}{2}$ when $n = 2^k$</p>																																																						
	<p>Proof: $\phi(p^e)$ = number of positive integers $\leq p^e$ and relatively prime to it = {number of positive integers $\leq p^e$ } - { number of positive integers $\leq p^e$ and not relatively prime to it}</p> <p>The number of positive integers $\leq p^e$ is p^e (because they are $1, 2, 3, \dots, p^e$) The number of positive integers $\leq p^e$ and not prime to it are the various multiples of p. They are $p, 2p, 3p, \dots, (p^{e-1})p$ The number of such numbers = p^{e-1}</p>																																																						

	<p>Hence $\phi(p^e) = p^e - p^{e-1}$</p> <p>To prove that $\phi(n) = \frac{n}{2}$ when $n = 2^k$</p> <p>Given $n = 2^k$</p> $\therefore \phi(n) = \phi(2^k) = 2^k \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right)$ $= 2^k \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{n}{2}$
6ii)	<p>Find the primes p for which $\frac{2^{p-1}-1}{p}$ is a square.</p> <p>Solution:</p> <p>Suppose $\frac{2^{p-1}-1}{p} = n^2$ for some positive integer n. Then $2^{p-1} - 1 = pn^2$</p> <p>Clearly both p and n must be odd.</p> <p>Let $p = 2k+1$ for some positive integer k.</p> <p>Then $2^{2k} - 1 = pn^2 \Rightarrow (2^k - 1)(2^k + 1) = pn^2$</p> <p>Suppose $(2^k - 1)$ is a perfect square, $(2^k - 1) = r^2 \Rightarrow 2^k = r^2 + 1$</p> $2^{p-1} = 2^{2k} = (2^k)^2 = (r^2 + 1)^2$ <p>Since $r \geq 1$ and is odd, $r = 2i + 1$ for some integer $i \geq 0$.</p> <p>Then $r^2 = (2i + 1)^2$ has to be an odd number.</p> <p>But $r^2 + 1 = 2^k \Rightarrow r^2 + 1$ has to divide 2.</p> $\Rightarrow r^2 + 1 = 1 \text{ or } 2.$ $\Rightarrow r = 0 \text{ or } 1$ <p>$r = 0$, $2^{p-1} = (0^2 + 1)^2 = 1 \Rightarrow p = 0$ which is not possible</p> <p>$r = 1$, $2^{p-1} = (1^2 + 1)^2 = 4 \Rightarrow p = 3$</p> <p>Suppose $(2^k + 1)$ is a perfect square</p> $(2^k + 1) = s^2 \Rightarrow 2^k = s^2 - 1$ $2^{p-1} = (s+1)^2 (s-1)^2$ <p>Then both $s-1$ and $s+1$ both must be the factors of 2</p> $s-1=1 \text{ or } 2, \text{ \& } s+1=1 \text{ or } 2 \Rightarrow s=0, 1, 2 \text{ or } 3$ <p>If $s = 0$; $2^{p-1} = (0+1)^2 (0-1)^2 = 1 \Rightarrow p = 1$ which is not possible</p> <p>If $s = 1$; $2^{p-1} = (1+1)^2 (1-1)^2 = 0$ which is not possible</p> <p>If $s = 2$; $2^{p-1} = (2+1)^2 (2-1)^2 = 9$ which is not possible</p> <p>If $s = 3$; $2^{p-1} = (3+1)^2 (3-1)^2 = 2^6 \Rightarrow p = 7$. Thus p must be 3 or 7</p>