

Number Theory and Cryptology

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Part I

Number Theory

Definition 1 (Binary Operation). A binary operation on a set S is a function from $S \times S$ to S .

Eg: $A : \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$, i.e., $(a, b) \mapsto a + b$

Definition 2 (Domain). A domain is triple $(D, +, \cdot)$, where $|D| > 1$ and $+$ and \cdot are two operations on D such that :

i) $a + b = b + a$ and $a \cdot b = b \cdot a, \forall a, b \in D$

ii) $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ and $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c), \forall a, b, c \in D$

iii) $\exists 0, 1 \in D, a + 0 = a$ and $a \cdot 1 = a, \forall a \in D$

iv) $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c, \forall a, b, c \in D$

v) $\forall a \in D, \exists a', a + a' = 0$

vi) $a \cdot b = 0 \implies$ either $a = 0$ or $b = 0$

Eg: $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ and $(\mathbb{R}[X], +, \cdot)$, where $\mathbb{R}[X]$ is the Set of real polynomials

Definition 3 (Field). If every non-zero elements of a domain D has an inverse, i.e., units are $D - \{0\}$, then D is called a field.

Division Algorithm

Theorem 1. Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $b \in \mathbb{N}$. Then \exists unique $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$a = bq + r, 0 \leq r < b$$

Proof. If $a = 0$ (trivial). Let's prove for $a \in \mathbb{N}$ by induction. If $a = 1$, take $r = 1$ and $q = 0$ (Base Case). Assume the statement is true $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n < a$, then we prove the statement for a . If $a \geq b$ then $a - b < a$. Then by induction, we have

$$a - b = qb + r, 0 \leq r < b \implies a = (q + 1)b + r$$

If $a < b$, then take $q = 0$ and $r = a$. Hence the theorem is proved for $a \in \mathbb{N}$.
Now let $a \in \mathbb{Z}_-$. Then $-a \in \mathbb{N}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \exists q \text{ and } r, -a &= bq + r, 0 \leq r < b \\ \implies a &= (-q)b + (-r) \\ \implies a &= (-q-1)b + (b-r), \text{ where } 0 \leq b-r < b \end{aligned}$$

This ends the existence proof.

Now we prove the uniqueness. Let (q, r) and (q', r') be two pairs that satisfy the theorem. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} a &= bq + r, 0 \leq r < b \\ a &= bq' + r', 0 \leq r' < b \end{aligned}$$

WLOG, assume $r' \geq r$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \implies 0 &\leq r' - r < b \\ \implies bq + r &= bq' + r' \\ \implies b(q - q') &= r' - r \\ \implies b \mid (r' - r) \\ \implies r' &= r \text{ and } q' = q \quad (\text{since } r' - r < b) \end{aligned}$$

This completes the uniqueness proof. \square

Lemma 2 (Modified Division Algorithm). *Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $b \in \mathbb{N}$. Then \exists unique $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that*

$$a = bq + r, |r| \leq \frac{b}{2}$$

Theorem 3. *Let $a(X), b(X) \in \mathbb{R}[X]$. Then $\exists q(X), r(X) \in \mathbb{R}[X]$ such that*

$$a(X) = b(X)q(X) + r(X), \text{ either } r(X) = 0 \text{ or } \deg(r(X)) < \deg(b(X))$$

Proof. Proof by induction on $\deg(a(X))$. If $\deg(a(X)) < \deg(b(X))$, then take $q(X) = 0$ and $r(X) = a(X)$. If $\deg(b(X)) = 0$, i.e., $b(X) = b_0$, then take $q(X) = b_0^{-1}a(X)$ and $r(X) = 0$.

Now assume $\deg(b(X)) > 0$ and $\deg(a(X)) \geq \deg(b(X))$ and also assume the theorem is true $\forall h(X) \in \mathbb{R}[X], \deg(h(X)) < \deg(a(X))$.

Then if $\deg(a(X)) = m$ and $\deg(b(X)) = n$,

$$\begin{aligned} \implies a(X) &= a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_mX^m \\ \text{and } b(X) &= b_0 + b_1X + \cdots + b_nX^n, \quad (m \geq n) \end{aligned}$$

Now consider the polynomial $g(X) = a(X) - b_n^{-1}a_mX^{m-n}b(X)$. It can be easily verified that $\deg(g(X)) < m$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \exists q(X), r(X) &\in \mathbb{R}[X], g(X) = b(X)q(X) + r(X), \\ \text{where } r(X) &= 0 \text{ or } \deg(r(X)) \leq \deg(b(X)) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \implies a(X) - b_n^{-1}a_mX^{m-n}b(X) &= b(X)q(X) + r(X) \\ \implies a(X) &= b(X)(q(X) + b_n^{-1}a_mX^{m-n}) + r(X), \end{aligned}$$

where $r(X) = 0$ or $\deg(r(X)) \leq \deg(b(X))$

□

Definition 4 (Unit). *The multiplicatively invertible elements in a domain are called units of a domain.*

Eg: Units in $\mathbb{Z} = \{\pm 1\}$ and Units in $\mathbb{R}[X] = \{c \mid c \in \mathbb{R} - \{0\}\}$

Definition 5 (Prime). *a is prime if $a = uv \implies$ either u or v is a unit, but not both.*

Definition 6 (Associate). *b is an associate of a if $a \mid b$ and $b \mid a$ or equivalently $a = ub$, where u is a unit.*

Theorem 4. *If x is a prime and u is a unit, then ux is also a prime.*

Proof. Suppose $ux = st$. Since u is a unit, $x = (u^{-1}s)t$. But we know, x is a prime, then either of $u^{-1}s$ or t is a unit. If t is unit, proof is completed. Else $u^{-1}s$ must be a unit. We know that the product of two units is again a unit. So is $uu^{-1}s$, i.e, s is a unit. □

Definition 7 (Greatest Common Divisor). *d is said to be gcd of a and b if $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$ and every common divisor c of a and b must divide d , i.e, if $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$, then $c \mid d$. It is written as $d = (a, b)$.*

Remark. *If d is a gcd a and b and then an associate of d is also a gcd of a and b , i.e, if u is a unit, then $d = (a, b) = ud$.*

Definition 8. *If a and $b \in \mathbb{Z}$, then we define*

$$a\mathbb{Z} + b\mathbb{Z} = \{ax + by \mid x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

Remark. *It can be seen that $a, b \in a\mathbb{Z} + b\mathbb{Z}$ and if s_1 and $s_2 \in a\mathbb{Z} + b\mathbb{Z}$ then $s_1x + s_2y \in a\mathbb{Z} + b\mathbb{Z}$, $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore $a\mathbb{Z} + b\mathbb{Z} \cap \mathbb{N} \neq \emptyset$.*

Theorem 5. *If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $\exists d \in \mathbb{Z}$, $a\mathbb{Z} + b\mathbb{Z} = d\mathbb{Z}$, where $d = (a, b)$.*

Proof. We first prove the existence of such a d . Since $a\mathbb{Z} + b\mathbb{Z} \cap \mathbb{N} \neq \emptyset$, let d be least natural number in $a\mathbb{Z} + b\mathbb{Z}$. Then $d\mathbb{Z} \subseteq a\mathbb{Z} + b\mathbb{Z}$. Now let $s \in a\mathbb{Z} + b\mathbb{Z}$, then by division algorithm on \mathbb{Z} ,

$$\exists q, r \in \mathbb{Z}, s = qd + r, 0 \leq r < d.$$

$$\implies r = s - qd \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\implies r = 0, \text{ i.e, } s = qd$$

$$\implies a\mathbb{Z} + b\mathbb{Z} \subseteq d\mathbb{Z}$$

$$\text{Therefore, } a\mathbb{Z} + b\mathbb{Z} = d\mathbb{Z}.$$

Now we prove that $d = (a, b)$. Since $a, b \in a\mathbb{Z} + b\mathbb{Z}$, $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$. But $d \in a\mathbb{Z} + b\mathbb{Z}$, so $d = ax + by$ for some $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$. Suppose $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$, then $a = a_1c$ and $b = b_1c$. Then $d = c(xa_1 + yb_1)$, implies $c \mid d$. □

Corollary 5.1. *If $a \mid bc$ and $(a, b) = 1$, then $a \mid c$.*

Theorem 6. \mathbb{Z} is a UFD (Unique factorization Domain), i.e, every non-zero, non-unit can be written as product of primes and this factorization is unique upto order and association, i.e, if n is a non-zero, non-unit in \mathbb{Z} , and $n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_r = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_s$, where p_i 's and q_i 's are primes, then $r = s$ and every p_i is an associate of some q_j and vice versa.

Proof. The existence of such factorization can be proved by using strong induction for non-negative integers and using this result, we can multiply by a -1 (unit) and show it's true for negative integers as well.

Now, we prove the uniqueness by induction. Suppose n is a non-zero, non-unit.

$$\text{Suppose } n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_r = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_s.$$

If $r = 1$ (Base Case), then $n = p_1 = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_s$. But p_1 is a prime, therefore, $s = 1$ and $n = p_1 = u q_1$, where u is a unit. Assume the statement is true $\forall a \in \mathbb{N}$, $a < n$. Now we prove the statement for n .

$$p_r \mid n, \text{ i.e, } p_r \mid q_1(q_2 \cdots q_s).$$

$$\text{If } (p_r, q_1) = 1 \implies p_r \mid q_2(q_3 \cdots q_s)$$

This way, we get some q_j which is an associate of p_r . WLOG, we can assume p_r is an associate of q_s , i.e, $u p_r = q_s$.

$$\begin{aligned} \implies p_1 p_2 \cdots p_r - u q_1 q_2 \cdots q_{s-1} p_r &= 0 \\ \implies p_r (p_2 \cdots p_{r-1} - u q_1 q_2 \cdots q_{s-1}) &= 0 \\ \implies p_2 \cdots p_{r-1} = u q_1 q_2 \cdots q_{s-1} &< n \end{aligned}$$

□

Definition 9 ($\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$). $\mathbb{Z}[\omega] = \{a + b\omega \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\} \subset \mathbb{C}$, where $\omega = \frac{-1 \pm i\sqrt{3}}{2}$.

$$\text{and } N(\alpha) = \alpha \bar{\alpha}.$$

Remark. If $\alpha = a + b\omega$, then

$$\begin{aligned} N(a + b\omega) &= (a + b\omega)(\overline{a + b\omega}) \\ &= (a + b\omega)(a + b\omega^2) \\ &= a^2 - ab + b^2 \\ &= \frac{(2a - b)^2 + 3b^2}{4} \end{aligned}$$

Remark. The only element whose norm is 0 is 0.

Proposition. $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ is a unit iff $N(\alpha) = 1$.

Proof. Suppose $N(\alpha) = 1$, then $\alpha \bar{\alpha} = 1$. Therefore α is a unit in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$. Conversely, suppose α is a unit in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$.

$$\begin{aligned} \exists \alpha' \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega], \alpha \alpha' &= 1 \\ \implies N(\alpha \alpha') &= 1 \\ \implies N(\alpha) N(\alpha') &= 1 \\ \implies N(\alpha) &= 1 \quad (\text{since, } N(\alpha) \in \mathbb{N}, \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]). \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 7. *The units in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ are $\pm 1, \pm\omega, \pm\omega^2$.*

Theorem 8. *There is no element in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ with norm 2.*

Theorem 9. *The only elements in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ with norm 3 are $\pm\pi, \pm\pi\omega, \pm\pi\omega^2$, where $\pi = 1 - \omega$.*

Theorem 10. *$\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ is a Euclidean Domain, i.e.,*

$$\forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega], \beta \neq 0, \exists \gamma, \delta \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega], \alpha = \beta\gamma + \delta, N(\delta) < N(\beta).$$

Proof. Let $\alpha = a + b\omega, \beta = c + d\omega, a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}, \beta \neq 0$, then $c, d \neq 0$.

Case i) Let $d = 0$. Then by Modified Division Algorithm, we have

$$\begin{aligned} a &= cq_1 + r_1, & (q_1, r_1 \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } |r_1| \leq \frac{c}{2}) \\ b &= cq_2 + r_2, & (q_2, r_2 \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } |r_2| \leq \frac{c}{2}) \\ \implies \alpha &= a + b\omega = c(q_1 + q_2\omega) + (r_1 + r_2\omega) \\ \implies N(\delta) &= N(r_1 + r_2\omega) \\ &= r_1^2 - r_1r_2 + r_2^2 \\ &\leq |r_1|^2 + |r_1||r_2| + |r_2|^2 \\ &= \frac{c^2}{4} + \frac{c^2}{4} + \frac{c^2}{4} \\ &= \frac{3c^2}{4} < c^2 = N(b) = N(\beta) \end{aligned}$$

Case ii) If $d \neq 0$, consider $\alpha' = \alpha\bar{\beta}, \beta' = \beta\bar{\beta}$, then $\beta' \in \mathbb{Z}$, then by Case i),

$$\exists \gamma', \delta' \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega], \alpha' = \beta'\gamma' + \delta', N(\delta') < N(\beta') = (N(\beta))^2.$$

Let $\delta = \alpha - \beta\gamma$, then $\delta\bar{\beta} = \alpha\bar{\beta} - \beta\bar{\beta}\gamma = \delta'. N(\delta\bar{\beta}) = N(\delta') < (N(\beta))^2$

$$\begin{aligned} \implies N(\delta)N(\beta) &< (N(\beta))^2 \\ \implies N(\delta) &< N(\beta). \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 11. *If $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]$, then $\exists \delta \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega], \alpha\mathbb{Z}[\omega] + \beta\mathbb{Z}[\omega] = \delta\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$, where $\delta = (\alpha, \beta)$.*

Definition 10. *If $a, b, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $m \neq 0$, we say that a is congruent to b modulo m if $m \mid b - a$. This relation is written $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.*

Definition 11 $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n, \cdot_n)$. -FILL IN-

Theorem 12. *If $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n - \{0\}$ is a unit iff $(a, n) = 1$.*

Proof. Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n - \{0\}$ be a unit. Then $\exists a' \in \mathbb{Z}_n - \{0\}$, such that $a \cdot_n a' = 1$, i.e., $\exists q, aa' = qn + 1$.

$$\implies (a, n) = 1.$$

Now let $(a, n) = 1$, then $\exists u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$, $au + nv = 1$. By Division Algorithm, $\exists q, r$, such that $u = qn + r$, $r \in \mathbb{Z}_n$.

$$\begin{aligned} &\implies a(qn + r) + nv = 1 \\ &\implies ar = n(-aq - v) + 1 \\ &\implies a \cdot_n r = 1 \quad (\text{Since, } a, r \in \mathbb{Z}_n). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, a is a unit in \mathbb{Z}_n . \square

Definition 12. We define U_n to be the set of all units in \mathbb{Z}_n and $\phi(n)$ to be the cardinality of U_n , where ϕ_n is called Euler totient function, i.e.,

$$U_n = \{a \in \mathbb{Z}_n - \{0\} \mid (a, n) = 1\}, \quad \phi(n) = |U_n|.$$

We define $\phi(1) = 1$.

Remark. If $n = p$, p is prime, then every element is relatively prime to p , i.e., $U_p = \mathbb{Z}_p - \{0\} = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$. And also $(\mathbb{Z}_p, +_p, \cdot_p)$ is a field. If $n = p^t$, $\phi(n) = p^{t-1}(p-1)$. If $n = pq$, $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$.

Theorem 13 (Euler's Theorem). If $(a, n) = 1$, then $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

Proof. Let's prove it for elements in U_n first and then for any element in general. Let $U_n = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{\phi(n)}\}$ and let $a \in U_n$. Then,

$$a \cdot_n U_n = \{a \cdot_n a_1, a \cdot_n a_2, \dots, a \cdot_n a_{\phi(n)}\} \subseteq U_n$$

Claim. All elements of $a \cdot_n U_n$ are distinct, i.e., $a \cdot_n U_n = U_n$.

We prove this by contradiction. Assume, $a \cdot_n a_i = a \cdot_n a_j$, such that $i \neq j$. Then $a^{-1} \cdot_n a \cdot_n a_i = a^{-1} \cdot_n a \cdot_n a_j$, hence $a_i = a_j$. Therefore, $a \cdot_n U_n = U_n$.

$$\begin{aligned} &\implies \prod_{i=1}^{\phi(n)} a \cdot_n a_i = \prod_{j=1}^{\phi(n)} a_j \\ &\implies a^{\phi(n)} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{\phi(n)} a_i \right) = \prod_{j=1}^{\phi(n)} a_j \\ &\implies a^{\phi(n)} b = b, \text{ where } b = \prod_{i=1}^{\phi(n)} a_i \in U_n \\ &\implies a^{\phi(n)} = 1 \text{ in } (\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n, \cdot_n). \end{aligned}$$

Now, let's prove the theorem for any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, such that $(a, n) = 1$. By Division Algorithm, $\exists q, r$, such that $a = qn + r$, $r \in \mathbb{Z}_n$. Since $(a, n) = 1$, we have $(r, n) = 1$.

$$\begin{aligned} &\implies a^{\phi(n)} = (qn + r)^{\phi(n)} \\ &\quad = r^{\phi(n)} + \binom{\phi(n)}{1} (nq) + \dots + (nq)^{\phi(n)} \\ &\quad = r^{\phi(n)} + nk \\ &\implies a^{\phi(n)} - 1 = r^{\phi(n)} - 1 + nk \\ &\text{But } n \mid r^{\phi(n)} - 1, \text{ then } n \mid a^{\phi(n)} - 1 \\ &\implies a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n} \end{aligned}$$

\square

Notation: $\mathbb{Z}_p^x = \mathbb{Z}_p - \{0\}$ and $\mathbb{Z}_p^{x^2}$ to be set of elements in \mathbb{Z}_p^x which are square. Here p is a prime.

Proposition. $|\mathbb{Z}_p^{x^2}| = \frac{p-1}{2}$, therefore $\exists u \in \mathbb{Z}_p^x$ which is a non-square. Then $u\mathbb{Z}_p^{x^2}$ will be the set of all non-square in \mathbb{Z}_p^x .

Proof. First, we prove that $|\mathbb{Z}_p^{x^2}| = \frac{p-1}{2}$. Consider the following mapping:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{Z}_p^x &\mapsto \mathbb{Z}_p^{x^2} \\ x &\mapsto x^2 \\ \implies p-x &\mapsto (p-x)^2 = p^2 - 2px + x^2 = x^2 + pk \\ \implies p-x &\mapsto x^2 \text{ in } (\mathbb{Z}_p, +_p, \cdot_p)\end{aligned}$$

Therefore this mapping is a 2-1 mapping and hence $|\mathbb{Z}_p^{x^2}| = \frac{p-1}{2}$. There are $\frac{p-1}{2}$ non-square elements in \mathbb{Z}_p^x . Let u be a non-square. Then consider the following mapping:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{Z}_p^{x^2} &\mapsto u\mathbb{Z}_p^{x^2} \\ x^2 &\mapsto ux^2\end{aligned}$$

We prove that this mapping is bijective. It is enough to show that all the elements in $u\mathbb{Z}_p^{x^2}$ are distinct and non-squares. Consider two elements $ux^2, uy^2 \in u\mathbb{Z}_p^{x^2}$.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{If } ux^2 &= uy^2 \\ \implies u^{-1}ux^2 &= u^{-1}uy^2 \quad (\text{since } \mathbb{Z}_p \text{ is a field}) \\ \implies x^2 &= y^2\end{aligned}$$

This shows that all the elements of $u\mathbb{Z}_p^{x^2}$ are distinct. Now we show that elements of $u\mathbb{Z}_p^{x^2}$ are all the non-square elements in \mathbb{Z}_p^x . Suppose some element in $u\mathbb{Z}_p^{x^2}$ is a square, i.e,

$$\begin{aligned}\implies ux^2 &= y^2 \\ \implies ux^2x^{-2} &= y^2x^{-2} \\ \implies u &= (yx^{-1})^2 \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{x^2}\end{aligned}$$

But u is a non-square, which is a contradiction. Therefore, this mapping is not just a bijection, but none of the elements in one set belongs to other. Hence, $u\mathbb{Z}_p^{x^2}$ is the set of all non-squares in \mathbb{Z}_p^x . \square

Remark. From the above proposition it can be concluded that

$$\mathbb{Z}_p^x = u\mathbb{Z}_p^{x^2} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_p^{x^2}.$$

Definition 13. We define a mapping such that,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{Z} &\rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n \\ x &\mapsto \bar{x}, \bar{x} = x(\text{mod } n)\end{aligned}$$

Theorem 14. *The following properties hold for $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$:*

$$i) \overline{x+y} = \bar{x} +_n \bar{y} \qquad ii) \overline{xy} = \bar{x} \cdot_n \bar{y}$$

Define the following mapping from $\mathbb{Z}_{mn} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$ in the similar way as above. Then the following properties hold:

$$i) \overline{x+_{mn}y} = \bar{x} +_n \bar{y} \qquad ii) \overline{x \cdot_{mn} y} = \bar{x} \cdot_n \bar{y}$$

Theorem 15 (Chinese Remainder Theorem). *Suppose $(m, n) = 1$. Let $\bar{x} = x(\text{mod } m)$ and $\bar{\bar{x}} = x(\text{mod } n)$, $x \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then the following mapping is bijection which preserves operation:*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{Z}_{mn} &\rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n \\ x &\mapsto (\bar{x}, \bar{\bar{x}}) \end{aligned}$$

Proof. Since the sets are finite, by pigeon hole principle, it is enough to show the mapping $f : \mathbb{Z}_{mn} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n, x \mapsto (\bar{x}, \bar{\bar{x}})$ is onto for it to be bijective, i.e., if $\forall (u, v) \in \mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n \exists x \in \mathbb{Z}_{mn}$, such that $\bar{x} = x(\text{mod } m)$ and $\bar{\bar{x}} = x(\text{mod } n)$. We will first show that $\exists x \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfying the above conditions. Since $(m, n) = 1$, $\exists M, N \in \mathbb{Z}, Mm + nN = 1$. Let $x = mMv + nNu$, then $x - u = mMv + (nN - 1)u = mM(v - u) = mq \implies x = mq + u \implies \bar{x} = u$. Similarly, $\bar{\bar{x}} = v$. So $\exists x \in \mathbb{Z}, \bar{x} = u, \bar{\bar{x}} = v$, then by division algorithm, $\exists r \in \mathbb{Z}_{mn}, q, x = mnq + r$. Notice that $u = \bar{x} = \overline{mnq + r} = \overline{mnq} +_m \bar{r} = \bar{r}$ and similarly $\bar{\bar{r}} = v$. Therefore,

$$\exists x \in \mathbb{Z}, \bar{x} = x(\text{mod } m) \text{ and } \bar{\bar{x}} = x(\text{mod } n).$$

We know,

$$\begin{aligned} i) \overline{x+_{mn}y} &= \bar{x} +_m \bar{y} & ii) \overline{x \cdot_{mn} y} &= \bar{x} \cdot_m \bar{y} \\ i) \overline{\overline{x+_{mn}y}} &= \bar{\bar{x}} +_n \bar{\bar{y}} & ii) \overline{\overline{x \cdot_{mn} y}} &= \bar{\bar{x}} \cdot_n \bar{\bar{y}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x+_{mn}y) &= (\overline{x+_{mn}y}, \overline{\overline{x+_{mn}y}}) \\ &= (\bar{x} +_m \bar{y}, \bar{\bar{x}} +_n \bar{\bar{y}}) \\ &= (\bar{x}, \bar{\bar{x}}) + (\bar{y}, \bar{\bar{y}}) \\ &= f(x) + f(y). \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, $f(x \cdot_{mn} y) = f(x) \times f(y)$. Here addition(+) and multiplication(\times) are component-wise. Therefore, f is onto and hence bijective(???). \square

Theorem 16. *If $(m, n) = 1$, then $\phi(m) = \phi(m)\phi(n)$.*

Proof. First we show that under this bijection mapping defined above the elements of U_{mn} group map bijectively to the elements of $U_m \times U_n$, i.e.,

- i) if $x \in U_{mn}$, then $\bar{x} \in U_m$ and $\bar{\bar{x}} \in U_n$. If $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{mn}$, then $(x, mn) = 1$, i.e., $ax + bmn = 1$, this implies $(x, m) = 1$ and $(x, n) = 1$, i.e., $\bar{x} \in U_m$ and $\bar{\bar{x}} \in U_n$.
- ii) if $\bar{x} \in U_m$ and $\bar{\bar{x}} \in U_n$, then $x \in U_{mn}$. Then $\exists u \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ and $v \in \mathbb{Z}_n$, such that $\bar{x} \cdot_m u = 1$ and $\bar{\bar{x}} \cdot_n v = 1$. Since f is onto, $\exists y \in \mathbb{Z}_{mn}, \bar{y} = u$ and $\bar{\bar{y}} = v$. Then $\bar{x} \cdot_{mn} \bar{y} = \bar{x} \cdot_m \bar{y} = 1$ and $\overline{\bar{x} \cdot_{mn} \bar{y}} = \bar{\bar{x}} \cdot_n \bar{\bar{y}} = 1$. Therefore, $f(x \cdot_{mn} y) = (\bar{1}, \bar{\bar{1}}) = f(1)$. Since f is one-to-one, $x \cdot_{mn} y = 1$, i.e., $x \in U_{mn}$.

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} U_{mn} &\leftrightarrow U_m \times U_n \\ \implies |U_{mn}| &= |U_m||U_n| \\ \implies \phi(mn) &= \phi(m)\phi(n). \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 17. *Some important facts from group theory that are used later.*

- i) *If order of an element in the group is equal to order of the group, then the group is cyclic.*
- ii) *Let $(G, *)$ be a finite group and $(H, *)$ be a subgroup of G , then $|H| \mid |G|$.*
- iii) *In a finite group the order of an element must divide the order of the group.*
- iv) *If $a \in G$, $(G, *)$ be a finite group, then $a^{|G|} = e$.*
- v) *If $a \in G$, $(G, *)$ be a finite group and if $a^i = e$, then $o(a) \mid i$.*
- vi) *If $a \in G$, $(G, *)$ be a finite group, then $o(a^i) = \frac{o(a)}{(i, o(a))}$ and $o(a^i) = o(a)$ iff $(i, o(a)) = 1$. Therefore, there are $\phi(n)$ generators in a cyclic group of order n .*

Lemma 18. $\sum_{d|n} \phi(d) = n \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. Define $f(n) = \sum_{d|n} \phi(d)$. We show that if $(m, n) = 1$, then $f(mn) = f(m)f(n)$. Let $m = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_r^{e_r}$ and $n = q_1^{e_1} q_2^{e_2} \cdots q_s^{e_s}$. If $d \mid mn$, then $d = (p_1^{l_1} p_2^{l_2} \cdots p_r^{l_r})(q_1^{r_1} q_2^{r_2} \cdots q_s^{r_s}) = d_1 d_2$, such that $(d, m) = d_1$ and $(d, n) = d_2$. Now,

$$\begin{aligned} f(mn) &= \sum_{d|mn} \phi(d) = \sum_{d_1|m, d_2|n} \phi(d_1 d_2) = \sum_{d_1|m, d_2|n} \phi(d_1) \phi(d_2) \\ &= \sum_{d_1|m} \phi(d_1) \sum_{d_2|n} \phi(d_2) = f(m)f(n) \end{aligned}$$

Let n be a non-zero, such that $n > 1$. Let $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_r^{e_r}$, where p_i 's are distinct primes.

$$\begin{aligned} f(p_1^{e_1}) &= \sum_{d|p_1^{e_1}} \phi(d) = \phi(1) + \phi(p_1) + \phi(p_1^2) + \cdots + \phi(p_1^{e_1}) \\ &= 1 + p_1 + \cdots + p_1^{e_1-1}(p_1 - 1) = p_1^{e_1} \\ \text{Then, } f(n) &= f(p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_r^{e_r}) = f(p_1^{e_1}) f(p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_r^{e_r}) \\ &= p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_r^{e_r} = n = \sum_{d|n} \phi(d). \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 19. *Let $(\mathbb{F}, +, \cdot)$ be a field and G a finite subgroup of $(\mathbb{F} - \{0\}, \cdot)$, then G is a cyclic group.*

Proof. Given that $G \subseteq (\mathbb{F} - \{0\}, \cdot)$ is finite, i.e, $|G| < \infty$. Let $|G| = n$. If $d \mid n$ define G_d as the set containing all the elements in G of order d . We have $G = \coprod_{d \mid n} G_d$, then $|G| = \sum_{d \mid n} |G_d|$. If $G_d = \phi$, then $|G_d| = 0$. Suppose $|G_d| \neq 0$, let $a \in G_d$, then $o(a) = d$. Consider $H = \{1, a, a^2, \dots, a^{d-1}\}$, $a^d = 1$. Then $X^d - 1$ is a polynomial in $\mathbb{F}[X]$. Notice that all the elements of H are the roots of the polynomial and these are the only roots of $X^d - 1$ in \mathbb{F} . Therefore, $G_d \subseteq H$. Notice that the number of elements in H of order d are $\phi(d)$, since $o(a^i) = o(a) = d$ iff $(i, d) = 1$, then $|G_d| = \phi(d)$. Hence, $G_d = \phi(d)$ or 0. We know, $\sum_{d \mid n} \phi(d) = n$ and $n = \sum_{d \mid n} |G_d|$, hence $|G_d|$ is never 0, i.e, G_d is never empty $\forall d \mid n$. In particular, $G_n \neq \phi$, therefore there exists an element of order n . Hence, G is cyclic. \square

Corollary 19.1. $(\mathbb{Z}_p - \{0\}, \cdot_p)$ is cyclic group in $F = (\mathbb{Z}_p - \{0\}, +, \cdot_p)$.

Definition 14 (Legendre Symbol). Let $c \in \mathbb{Z}$, p is an odd prime. Then we define:

$$\left(\frac{c}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } p \mid c \\ 1, & \text{if } \exists x \in \mathbb{Z}, x^2 \equiv c \pmod{p} \\ -1, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Theorem 20. The properties of Legendre Symbol are listed below:

- i) If $a \equiv b \pmod{p}$, then $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{p}\right)$.
- ii) $\left(\frac{xy}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{x}{p}\right)\left(\frac{y}{p}\right)$.
- iii) $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \bar{a}^{\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)}$, where $\bar{a} = a \pmod{p}$.
- iv)