

**COMP 2711H Discrete Mathematical Tools for Computer Science  
Solutions to Tutorial Problems: Number Theory and Cryptography**

Q1. The digit in the unit's place of a number  $a$  is  $a \bmod 10$ . We work modulo 10.

(a) Since  $3^2 \equiv -1$ , we have that

$$3^{70} \equiv (3^2)^{35} \equiv (-1)^{35} \equiv -1 \equiv 9.$$

(b) Since  $9^2 \equiv 1$ , we have that

$$9^{1573} \equiv 9^{2 \cdot 786} \cdot 9 \equiv (1^{786} \cdot 9) \equiv 9.$$

Q2. (a) We run Euclidean algorithm on  $(1009, 17)$ . We have that

$$1009 = 59 \cdot 17 + 6$$

$$17 = 2 \cdot 6 + 5$$

$$6 = 1 \cdot 5 + 1.$$

Then we work backwards to find the inverse of 17 modulo 1009.

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= 6 - 5 &&= 6 - (17 - 2 \cdot 6) \\ &= -17 + 3 \cdot 6 &&= -17 + 3 \cdot (1009 - 59 \cdot 17) \\ &= 3 \cdot 1009 - 178 \cdot 17 \end{aligned}$$

So, the inverse of 17 modulo 1009 is  $(1009 - 178) = 831$ .

(b) 111

(c) 735

Q3. For any  $a \in Z_m$ , we know that  $a$  has inverse modulo  $m$  if and only if  $a$  and  $m$  are co-prime. Hence, to prove that at least  $\sqrt{m}$  elements of  $Z_m$  do not have multiplicative inverses, it suffices to show that at least  $\sqrt{m}$  elements of  $Z_m$  are not relatively prime to  $m$ . Since  $m$  is not prime, there is some integer  $a \in Z_m$  such that  $a|m$  and  $a > 1$ . Without loss of generality, we assume  $a \leq \sqrt{m}$  since otherwise we can take the number  $m/a$ . Now consider  $S = \{0, a, 2a, \dots, (\lceil \sqrt{m} \rceil - 1)a\} \subseteq Z_m$ . One can easily see that all these  $\lceil \sqrt{m} \rceil$  numbers in  $S$  are not relatively prime to  $m$ .

Q4. Recall that an integer  $a$  is relatively prime to  $n$  if and only if  $a$  has a inverse modulo  $n$ . To prove that  $n$  is a prime, it suffices to show that for any number  $a \in \{1, \dots, n-1\}$ ,  $a$  is relatively prime to  $n$ , or equivalently,  $a$  has a inverse modulo  $n$ . Note that for any  $a \in \{1, \dots, n-1\}$ ,  $a$  is not a multiple of  $n$ . By the hypothesis, we have that

$$a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}.$$

Hence,  $(a^{n-2} \bmod n)$  is the inverse of  $a$  modulo  $n$ . This completes the proof.

Q5. Note that  $2730 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 13$ . We can prove that  $2730|n^{13} - n$  using an argument similar to that in Q8.

Q6. For any prime  $p > 5$ , 10 is not a multiple of  $p$ . By Fermat's little theorem, we have that

$$10^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Hence, for any positive integer  $k$ , we have that

$$(10^{p-1})^k \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

So,  $p \mid (10^{k(p-1)} - 1)$  for any integer  $k > 0$ .

Q7. As in the tutorial, the given system of congruences is equivalent to the following system.

$$x \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$$

$$x \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

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

(a) Use the construction in the proof of Chinese remainder theorem.

- $a_1 = 0, a_2 = 1, a_3 = 3$
- $m_1 = 2, m_2 = 3$ , and  $m_3 = 5$
- $M = m_1 m_2 m_3 = 30$
- $M_1 = M/m_1 = 15, M_2 = M/m_2 = 10, M_3 = M/m_3 = 6$
- $M_1^{-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{m_1}, M_2^{-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{m_2}, M_3^{-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{m_3}$
- solution  $x = a_1 M_1 M_1^{-1} + a_2 M_2 M_2^{-1} + a_3 M_3 M_3^{-1} = 28$

(b) Use back substitution. From the first congruence, we know that  $x = 2u$  for some integer  $u$ . Substitute this into the second congruence, we get

$$2u \equiv 1 \pmod{3}.$$

Solving this congruence, we get  $u \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ . So,  $u = 3s + 2$  for some integer  $s$ , and  $x = 2u = 6s + 4$ . Then substituting this into the third congruence, we get

$$6s + 4 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}.$$

Solving this congruence yields  $s \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$ . So,  $s = 5t + 4$  for some integer  $t$ , and the following is a solution to the system.

$$x = 6(5t + 4) + 4 = 30t + 28.$$

So,  $x \equiv 28 \pmod{30}$  is the solution to the system of congruence.

Q8. • If part: Since  $(n-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$  and  $(n-1) \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$ , we have that

$$(n-1)! \cdot (n-1) \equiv 1 \pmod{n}.$$

Note that for any number  $a \in \{1, \dots, n-1\}$ ,

$$a \cdot \frac{(n-1)!}{a} \cdot (n-1) \equiv 1 \pmod{n}.$$

$a$  has an inverse modulo  $n$ , so  $a$  is relatively prime to  $n$ . Therefore  $n$  is a prime.

- Only-if part: When  $n = 2$ , the congruence obviously holds. Without loss of generality, we assume that  $n$  is a prime greater than or equal to 3. Now consider the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, (n-1)\}$ . We claim that 1 and  $n-1$  are the only numbers in this set, which have their inverse to be themselves. To see this, consider the following equation.

$$a^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

or, equivalently,

$$(a-1)(a+1) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}.$$

The roots of the equation are  $a \equiv 1$  and  $a \equiv -1$ .

Since, for any number  $a \in \{2, 3, \dots, (n-2)\}$ ,  $a$  has a unique inverse  $a^{-1}$  and  $a^{-1} \neq a$ , we can pair  $a$  with its inverse. We get  $(n-3)/2$  such pairs. So,

$$2 \cdot 3 \cdots (n-3) \cdot (n-2) \equiv 1^{(n-3)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod{n},$$

and

$$(n-1)! \equiv 1 \cdot (n-1) \equiv -1 \pmod{n}.$$

- Q9. When  $n = 1$ , the equation holds. Now suppose that the equation holds for  $n = k$ . In the inductive step, we show that the equation also holds for  $n = k + 1$ .

$$\begin{aligned} 1^3 + 2^3 + \cdots + (k)^3 + (k+1)^3 &= \left[ \frac{k(k+1)}{2} \right]^2 + (k+1)^3 \quad (\text{by inductive hypothesis}) \\ &= (k+1)^2 \left[ \left( \frac{k}{2} \right)^2 + (k+1) \right] \\ &= (k+1)^2 \left[ \frac{k^2 + 4k + 4}{4} \right] \\ &= (k+1)^2 \left[ \frac{(k+2)^2}{4} \right] \\ &= \left[ \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2} \right]^2 \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof.