

Communicating with Errors

We learned how to *encrypt* communication so that an eavesdropper cannot find out your personal information.

What if your enemy is not an eavesdropper, but *nature*?

Soon, we will learn how to send messages *reliably*, even when nature is *deleting* parts of your message.

Communicating with Errors

We learned how to *encrypt* communication so that an eavesdropper cannot find out your personal information.

What if your enemy is not an eavesdropper, but *nature*?

Soon, we will learn how to send messages *reliably*, even when nature is *deleting* parts of your message.

Today: We finish modular arithmetic and learn about polynomials.

Composite Moduli

Look at a composite modulus, $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$.

Composite Moduli

Look at a composite modulus, $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$. Here, $35 = 5 \cdot 7$.

Composite Moduli

Look at a composite modulus, $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$. Here, $35 = 5 \cdot 7$.

How is $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$ related to $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z}$?

Composite Moduli

Look at a composite modulus, $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$. Here, $35 = 5 \cdot 7$.

How is $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$ related to $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z}$?

Take a number in $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$, e.g., 24.

Composite Moduli

Look at a composite modulus, $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$. Here, $35 = 5 \cdot 7$.

How is $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$ related to $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z}$?

Take a number in $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$, e.g., 24.

- ▶ In $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$, we have $24 \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$.

Composite Moduli

Look at a composite modulus, $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$. Here, $35 = 5 \cdot 7$.

How is $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$ related to $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z}$?

Take a number in $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$, e.g., 24.

- ▶ In $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$, we have $24 \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$.
- ▶ In $\mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z}$, we have $24 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$.

Composite Moduli

Look at a composite modulus, $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$. Here, $35 = 5 \cdot 7$.

How is $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$ related to $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z}$?

Take a number in $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$, e.g., 24.

- ▶ In $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$, we have $24 \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$.
- ▶ In $\mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z}$, we have $24 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$.

So, we have $24 = (4 \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}, 3 \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z})$.

Composite Moduli

Look at a composite modulus, $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$. Here, $35 = 5 \cdot 7$.

How is $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$ related to $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z}$?

Take a number in $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$, e.g., 24.

- ▶ In $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$, we have $24 \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$.
- ▶ In $\mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z}$, we have $24 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$.

So, we have $24 = (4 \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}, 3 \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z})$.

- ▶ From $(4, 3)$, can we go back to 24?

Solving Modular Congruences

Does the system

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$$

have a solution in $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$?

Solving Modular Congruences

Does the system

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$$

have a solution in $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$?

Manual way of finding the solution: first, list all numbers which are equal to 3, modulo 7.

Solving Modular Congruences

Does the system

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$$

have a solution in $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$?

Manual way of finding the solution: first, list all numbers which are equal to 3, modulo 7.

- ▶ 3, 10, 17, 24, 31.

Solving Modular Congruences

Does the system

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$$

have a solution in $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$?

Manual way of finding the solution: first, list all numbers which are equal to 3, modulo 7.

- ▶ 3, 10, 17, 24, 31.

The **highlighted number** also equals 4, modulo 5.

Solving Modular Congruences

Does the system

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$$

have a solution in $\mathbb{Z}/35\mathbb{Z}$?

Manual way of finding the solution: first, list all numbers which are equal to 3, modulo 7.

- ▶ 3, 10, 17, 24, 31.

The **highlighted number** also equals 4, modulo 5.

Does a solution always exist?

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Idea: Construct numbers Δ_1 and Δ_2 so that:

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$$

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{7} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Idea: Construct numbers Δ_1 and Δ_2 so that:

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$$

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{7} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

Then, we can check that $4 \cdot \Delta_1 + 3 \cdot \Delta_2$ satisfies

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{5} \qquad \text{and} \qquad x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}.$$

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Idea: Construct numbers Δ_1 and Δ_2 so that:

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$$

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{7} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

Then, we can check that $4 \cdot \Delta_1 + 3 \cdot \Delta_2$ satisfies

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{5} \qquad \text{and} \qquad x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}.$$

To construct Δ_1 :

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Idea: Construct numbers Δ_1 and Δ_2 so that:

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$$

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{7} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

Then, we can check that $4 \cdot \Delta_1 + 3 \cdot \Delta_2$ satisfies

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{5} \qquad \text{and} \qquad x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}.$$

To construct Δ_1 :

- ▶ Any multiple of 7 is 0 modulo 7.

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Idea: Construct numbers Δ_1 and Δ_2 so that:

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$$

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{7} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

Then, we can check that $4 \cdot \Delta_1 + 3 \cdot \Delta_2$ satisfies

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{5} \qquad \text{and} \qquad x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}.$$

To construct Δ_1 :

- ▶ Any multiple of 7 is 0 modulo 7.
- ▶ So consider $\Delta_1 = 7 \cdot (7^{-1} \bmod 5)$.

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Idea: Construct numbers Δ_1 and Δ_2 so that:

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$$

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{7} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

Then, we can check that $4 \cdot \Delta_1 + 3 \cdot \Delta_2$ satisfies

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{5} \qquad \text{and} \qquad x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}.$$

To construct Δ_1 :

- ▶ Any multiple of 7 is 0 modulo 7.
- ▶ So consider $\Delta_1 = 7 \cdot (7^{-1} \text{ mod } 5)$. This satisfies $\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \text{ mod } 5$.

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Idea: Construct numbers Δ_1 and Δ_2 so that:

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$$

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{7} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

Then, we can check that $4 \cdot \Delta_1 + 3 \cdot \Delta_2$ satisfies

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{5} \qquad \text{and} \qquad x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}.$$

To construct Δ_1 :

- ▶ Any multiple of 7 is 0 modulo 7.
- ▶ So consider $\Delta_1 = 7 \cdot (7^{-1} \bmod 5)$. This satisfies $\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$.
- ▶ Here, $7^{-1} \bmod 5 = 2^{-1} \bmod 5 = 3$.

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Idea: Construct numbers Δ_1 and Δ_2 so that:

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$$

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{7} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

Then, we can check that $4 \cdot \Delta_1 + 3 \cdot \Delta_2$ satisfies

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{5} \qquad \text{and} \qquad x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}.$$

To construct Δ_1 :

- ▶ Any multiple of 7 is 0 modulo 7.
- ▶ So consider $\Delta_1 = 7 \cdot (7^{-1} \bmod 5)$. This satisfies $\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$.
- ▶ Here, $7^{-1} \bmod 5 = 2^{-1} \bmod 5 = 3$. So, $\Delta_1 = 21$.

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Idea: Construct numbers Δ_1 and Δ_2 so that:

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$$

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{7} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

Then, we can check that $4 \cdot \Delta_1 + 3 \cdot \Delta_2$ satisfies

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{5} \qquad \text{and} \qquad x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}.$$

To construct Δ_1 :

- ▶ Any multiple of 7 is 0 modulo 7.
- ▶ So consider $\Delta_1 = 7 \cdot (7^{-1} \bmod 5)$. This satisfies $\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$.
- ▶ Here, $7^{-1} \bmod 5 = 2^{-1} \bmod 5 = 3$. So, $\Delta_1 = 21$.
- ▶ Similarly, $\Delta_2 = 5 \cdot (5^{-1} \bmod 7) = 15$.

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Idea: Construct numbers Δ_1 and Δ_2 so that:

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$$

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{7} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

Then, we can check that $4 \cdot \Delta_1 + 3 \cdot \Delta_2$ satisfies

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{5} \qquad \text{and} \qquad x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}.$$

To construct Δ_1 :

- ▶ Any multiple of 7 is 0 modulo 7.
- ▶ So consider $\Delta_1 = 7 \cdot (7^{-1} \pmod{5})$. This satisfies $\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$.
- ▶ Here, $7^{-1} \pmod{5} = 2^{-1} \pmod{5} = 3$. So, $\Delta_1 = 21$.
- ▶ Similarly, $\Delta_2 = 5 \cdot (5^{-1} \pmod{7}) = 15$.
- ▶ So, $x = 4 \cdot 21 + 3 \cdot 15 = 129 \dots$

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Idea: Construct numbers Δ_1 and Δ_2 so that:

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$$

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{7} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

Then, we can check that $4 \cdot \Delta_1 + 3 \cdot \Delta_2$ satisfies

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{5} \qquad \text{and} \qquad x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}.$$

To construct Δ_1 :

- ▶ Any multiple of 7 is 0 modulo 7.
- ▶ So consider $\Delta_1 = 7 \cdot (7^{-1} \bmod 5)$. This satisfies $\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$.
- ▶ Here, $7^{-1} \bmod 5 = 2^{-1} \bmod 5 = 3$. So, $\Delta_1 = 21$.
- ▶ Similarly, $\Delta_2 = 5 \cdot (5^{-1} \bmod 7) = 15$.
- ▶ So, $x = 4 \cdot 21 + 3 \cdot 15 = 129$. . . which equals 24, modulo 35.

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Idea: Construct numbers Δ_1 and Δ_2 so that:

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$$

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{7} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

Then, we can check that $4 \cdot \Delta_1 + 3 \cdot \Delta_2$ satisfies

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{5} \qquad \text{and} \qquad x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}.$$

To construct Δ_1 :

- ▶ Any multiple of 7 is 0 modulo 7.
- ▶ So consider $\Delta_1 = 7 \cdot (7^{-1} \bmod 5)$. This satisfies $\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$.
- ▶ Here, $7^{-1} \bmod 5 = 2^{-1} \bmod 5 = 3$. So, $\Delta_1 = 21$.
- ▶ Similarly, $\Delta_2 = 5 \cdot (5^{-1} \bmod 7) = 15$.
- ▶ So, $x = 4 \cdot 21 + 3 \cdot 15 = 129$. . . which equals 24, modulo 35.

This requires $\gcd(5, 7) = 1$.

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT): If y_1, \dots, y_n are fixed numbers and the moduli m_1, \dots, m_n are **pairwise coprime** (i.e., $\gcd(m_i, m_j) = 1$ for all $i \neq j$), then the system

$$x \equiv y_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x \equiv y_n \pmod{m_n}$$

has a unique solution in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \cdots m_n \mathbb{Z}$.¹

¹The construction is the same as before—see notes for details.

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT): If y_1, \dots, y_n are fixed numbers and the moduli m_1, \dots, m_n are **pairwise coprime** (i.e., $\gcd(m_i, m_j) = 1$ for all $i \neq j$), then the system

$$x \equiv y_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x \equiv y_n \pmod{m_n}$$

has a unique solution in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \cdots m_n \mathbb{Z}$.¹

- ▶ Why is the solution unique?

¹The construction is the same as before—see notes for details.

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT): If y_1, \dots, y_n are fixed numbers and the moduli m_1, \dots, m_n are **pairwise coprime** (i.e., $\gcd(m_i, m_j) = 1$ for all $i \neq j$), then the system

$$x \equiv y_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x \equiv y_n \pmod{m_n}$$

has a unique solution in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \cdots m_n \mathbb{Z}$.¹

- ▶ Why is the solution unique? Consider the map

$$f : \mathbb{Z}/m_1 \cdots m_n \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times \cdots \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_n \mathbb{Z})$$

given by $f(x) = (x \bmod m_1, \dots, x \bmod m_n)$.

¹The construction is the same as before—see notes for details.

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT): If y_1, \dots, y_n are fixed numbers and the moduli m_1, \dots, m_n are **pairwise coprime** (i.e., $\gcd(m_i, m_j) = 1$ for all $i \neq j$), then the system

$$x \equiv y_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x \equiv y_n \pmod{m_n}$$

has a unique solution in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \cdots m_n \mathbb{Z}$.¹

- ▶ Why is the solution unique? Consider the map

$$f : \mathbb{Z}/m_1 \cdots m_n \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times \cdots \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_n \mathbb{Z})$$

given by $f(x) = (x \bmod m_1, \dots, x \bmod m_n)$.

- ▶ The CRT says that the map is surjective.

¹The construction is the same as before—see notes for details.

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT): If y_1, \dots, y_n are fixed numbers and the moduli m_1, \dots, m_n are **pairwise coprime** (i.e., $\gcd(m_i, m_j) = 1$ for all $i \neq j$), then the system

$$x \equiv y_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x \equiv y_n \pmod{m_n}$$

has a unique solution in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \cdots m_n \mathbb{Z}$.¹

- ▶ Why is the solution unique? Consider the map

$$f : \mathbb{Z}/m_1 \cdots m_n \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times \cdots \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_n \mathbb{Z})$$

given by $f(x) = (x \bmod m_1, \dots, x \bmod m_n)$.

- ▶ The CRT says that the map is surjective. But the domain and range are the same size— f is a bijection.

¹The construction is the same as before—see notes for details.

Isomorphism

For pairs $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2) \in (\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$, where $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$, define addition and multiplication:

$$(a_1, b_1) + (a_2, b_2) := (a_1 + a_2 \bmod m_1, b_1 + b_2 \bmod m_2),$$

$$(a_1, b_1)(a_2, b_2) := (a_1 a_2 \bmod m_1, b_1 b_2 \bmod m_2).$$

Isomorphism

For pairs $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2) \in (\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$, where $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$, define addition and multiplication:

$$(a_1, b_1) + (a_2, b_2) := (a_1 + a_2 \bmod m_1, b_1 + b_2 \bmod m_2),$$

$$(a_1, b_1)(a_2, b_2) := (a_1 a_2 \bmod m_1, b_1 b_2 \bmod m_2).$$

Consider the map f (the CRT map).

Isomorphism

For pairs $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2) \in (\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$, where $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$, define addition and multiplication:

$$(a_1, b_1) + (a_2, b_2) := (a_1 + a_2 \bmod m_1, b_1 + b_2 \bmod m_2),$$

$$(a_1, b_1)(a_2, b_2) := (a_1 a_2 \bmod m_1, b_1 b_2 \bmod m_2).$$

Consider the map f (the CRT map). Then, for $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x + y) &= (x + y \bmod m_1, x + y \bmod m_2) \\ &= (x \bmod m_1, x \bmod m_2) + (y \bmod m_1, y \bmod m_2) \\ &= f(x) + f(y). \end{aligned}$$

Isomorphism

For pairs $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2) \in (\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$, where $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$, define addition and multiplication:

$$(a_1, b_1) + (a_2, b_2) := (a_1 + a_2 \bmod m_1, b_1 + b_2 \bmod m_2),$$

$$(a_1, b_1)(a_2, b_2) := (a_1 a_2 \bmod m_1, b_1 b_2 \bmod m_2).$$

Consider the map f (the CRT map). Then, for $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x + y) &= (x + y \bmod m_1, x + y \bmod m_2) \\ &= (x \bmod m_1, x \bmod m_2) + (y \bmod m_1, y \bmod m_2) \\ &= f(x) + f(y). \end{aligned}$$

What does this say?

Isomorphism

For pairs $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2) \in (\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$, where $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$, define addition and multiplication:

$$(a_1, b_1) + (a_2, b_2) := (a_1 + a_2 \bmod m_1, b_1 + b_2 \bmod m_2),$$

$$(a_1, b_1)(a_2, b_2) := (a_1 a_2 \bmod m_1, b_1 b_2 \bmod m_2).$$

Consider the map f (the CRT map). Then, for $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x + y) &= (x + y \bmod m_1, x + y \bmod m_2) \\ &= (x \bmod m_1, x \bmod m_2) + (y \bmod m_1, y \bmod m_2) \\ &= f(x) + f(y). \end{aligned}$$

What does this say?

- ▶ Add $x + y$ in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$, then convert to $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$.

Isomorphism

For pairs $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2) \in (\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$, where $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$, define addition and multiplication:

$$(a_1, b_1) + (a_2, b_2) := (a_1 + a_2 \bmod m_1, b_1 + b_2 \bmod m_2),$$

$$(a_1, b_1)(a_2, b_2) := (a_1 a_2 \bmod m_1, b_1 b_2 \bmod m_2).$$

Consider the map f (the CRT map). Then, for $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x + y) &= (x + y \bmod m_1, x + y \bmod m_2) \\ &= (x \bmod m_1, x \bmod m_2) + (y \bmod m_1, y \bmod m_2) \\ &= f(x) + f(y). \end{aligned}$$

What does this say?

- ▶ Add $x + y$ in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$, then convert to $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$. We get $f(x + y)$.

Isomorphism

For pairs $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2) \in (\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$, where $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$, define addition and multiplication:

$$(a_1, b_1) + (a_2, b_2) := (a_1 + a_2 \bmod m_1, b_1 + b_2 \bmod m_2),$$

$$(a_1, b_1)(a_2, b_2) := (a_1 a_2 \bmod m_1, b_1 b_2 \bmod m_2).$$

Consider the map f (the CRT map). Then, for $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x + y) &= (x + y \bmod m_1, x + y \bmod m_2) \\ &= (x \bmod m_1, x \bmod m_2) + (y \bmod m_1, y \bmod m_2) \\ &= f(x) + f(y). \end{aligned}$$

What does this say?

- ▶ Add $x + y$ in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$, then convert to $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$. We get $f(x + y)$.
- ▶ Convert x and y to $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$, then add them as pairs.

Isomorphism

For pairs $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2) \in (\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$, where $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$, define addition and multiplication:

$$(a_1, b_1) + (a_2, b_2) := (a_1 + a_2 \bmod m_1, b_1 + b_2 \bmod m_2),$$

$$(a_1, b_1)(a_2, b_2) := (a_1 a_2 \bmod m_1, b_1 b_2 \bmod m_2).$$

Consider the map f (the CRT map). Then, for $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x + y) &= (x + y \bmod m_1, x + y \bmod m_2) \\ &= (x \bmod m_1, x \bmod m_2) + (y \bmod m_1, y \bmod m_2) \\ &= f(x) + f(y). \end{aligned}$$

What does this say?

- ▶ Add $x + y$ in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$, then convert to $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$. We get $f(x + y)$.
- ▶ Convert x and y to $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$, then add them as pairs. We get $f(x) + f(y)$.

Isomorphism

We showed: $f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y)$.

Isomorphism

We showed: $f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y)$. Similarly, it holds that $f(xy) = f(x)f(y)$.

$$\begin{aligned} f(xy) &= (xy \bmod m_1, xy \bmod m_2) \\ &= (x \bmod m_1, x \bmod m_2)(y \bmod m_1, y \bmod m_2) = f(x)f(y). \end{aligned}$$

²To learn more about this, take Math 113.

Isomorphism

We showed: $f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y)$. Similarly, it holds that $f(xy) = f(x)f(y)$.

$$\begin{aligned} f(xy) &= (xy \bmod m_1, xy \bmod m_2) \\ &= (x \bmod m_1, x \bmod m_2)(y \bmod m_1, y \bmod m_2) = f(x)f(y). \end{aligned}$$

It does not really matter whether you do addition/multiplication in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1m_2\mathbb{Z}$, or $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$.

²To learn more about this, take Math 113.

Isomorphism

We showed: $f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y)$. Similarly, it holds that $f(xy) = f(x)f(y)$.

$$\begin{aligned} f(xy) &= (xy \bmod m_1, xy \bmod m_2) \\ &= (x \bmod m_1, x \bmod m_2)(y \bmod m_1, y \bmod m_2) = f(x)f(y). \end{aligned}$$

It does not really matter whether you do addition/multiplication in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1m_2\mathbb{Z}$, or $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$. **They are the same.**

²To learn more about this, take Math 113.

Isomorphism

We showed: $f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y)$. Similarly, it holds that $f(xy) = f(x)f(y)$.

$$\begin{aligned} f(xy) &= (xy \bmod m_1, xy \bmod m_2) \\ &= (x \bmod m_1, x \bmod m_2)(y \bmod m_1, y \bmod m_2) = f(x)f(y). \end{aligned}$$

It does not really matter whether you do addition/multiplication in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1m_2\mathbb{Z}$, or $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$. **They are the same.**

This is saying *more* than “bijection”—the bijection *preserves* addition and multiplication.

²To learn more about this, take Math 113.

Isomorphism

We showed: $f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y)$. Similarly, it holds that $f(xy) = f(x)f(y)$.

$$\begin{aligned} f(xy) &= (xy \bmod m_1, xy \bmod m_2) \\ &= (x \bmod m_1, x \bmod m_2)(y \bmod m_1, y \bmod m_2) = f(x)f(y). \end{aligned}$$

It does not really matter whether you do addition/multiplication in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1m_2\mathbb{Z}$, or $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$. **They are the same.**

This is saying *more* than “bijection”—the bijection *preserves* addition and multiplication. **Isomorphism.**²

$$\mathbb{Z}/m_1m_2\mathbb{Z} \cong (\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z}).$$

²To learn more about this, take Math 113.

Consequences of Isomorphism

CRT: If m_1 and m_2 are coprime, then
 $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z} \cong (\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$.

Consequences of Isomorphism

CRT: If m_1 and m_2 are coprime, then

$$\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z} \cong (\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z}). \text{ (isomorphism)}$$

Consequences of Isomorphism

CRT: If m_1 and m_2 are coprime, then

$\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z} \cong (\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$. (isomorphism)

Fact: a has an inverse in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if

$(a \bmod m_1, a \bmod m_2)$ has an inverse in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$.

Consequences of Isomorphism

CRT: If m_1 and m_2 are coprime, then

$\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z} \cong (\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$. (isomorphism)

Fact: a has an inverse in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if

$(a \bmod m_1, a \bmod m_2)$ has an inverse in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$.

What does it mean for (a, b) to have an inverse (x, y) ?

Consequences of Isomorphism

CRT: If m_1 and m_2 are coprime, then

$\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z} \cong (\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$. (isomorphism)

Fact: a has an inverse in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if

$(a \bmod m_1, a \bmod m_2)$ has an inverse in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$.

What does it mean for (a, b) to have an inverse (x, y) ?

$$(a, b)(x, y) = (1, 1).$$

Consequences of Isomorphism

CRT: If m_1 and m_2 are coprime, then

$\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z} \cong (\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$. (isomorphism)

Fact: a has an inverse in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if

$(a \bmod m_1, a \bmod m_2)$ has an inverse in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$.

What does it mean for (a, b) to have an inverse (x, y) ?

$$(a, b)(x, y) = (1, 1).$$

In $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$, $(1, 1)$ is the multiplicative identity.

Consequences of Isomorphism

CRT: If m_1 and m_2 are coprime, then $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z} \cong (\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$. (isomorphism)

Fact: a has an inverse in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if $(a \bmod m_1, a \bmod m_2)$ has an inverse in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$.

What does it mean for (a, b) to have an inverse (x, y) ?

$$(a, b)(x, y) = (1, 1).$$

In $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$, $(1, 1)$ is the multiplicative identity.

So, a has an inverse in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$ if and only if it has an inverse in both $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z}$.

Consequences of Isomorphism

CRT: If m_1 and m_2 are coprime, then $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z} \cong (\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$. (isomorphism)

Fact: a has an inverse in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if $(a \bmod m_1, a \bmod m_2)$ has an inverse in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$.

What does it mean for (a, b) to have an inverse (x, y) ?

$$(a, b)(x, y) = (1, 1).$$

In $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$, $(1, 1)$ is the multiplicative identity.

So, a has an inverse in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$ if and only if it has an inverse in both $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z}$.

This happens if and only if $\gcd(a, m_1) = \gcd(a, m_2) = 1$.

Consequences of Isomorphism

CRT: If m_1 and m_2 are coprime, then $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z} \cong (\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$. (isomorphism)

Fact: a has an inverse in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if $(a \bmod m_1, a \bmod m_2)$ has an inverse in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$.

What does it mean for (a, b) to have an inverse (x, y) ?

$$(a, b)(x, y) = (1, 1).$$

In $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$, $(1, 1)$ is the multiplicative identity.

So, a has an inverse in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$ if and only if it has an inverse in both $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z}$.

This happens if and only if $\gcd(a, m_1) = \gcd(a, m_2) = 1$. But m_1 and m_2 are pairwise coprime.

Consequences of Isomorphism

CRT: If m_1 and m_2 are coprime, then $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z} \cong (\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$. (isomorphism)

Fact: a has an inverse in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if $(a \bmod m_1, a \bmod m_2)$ has an inverse in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$.

What does it mean for (a, b) to have an inverse (x, y) ?

$$(a, b)(x, y) = (1, 1).$$

In $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$, $(1, 1)$ is the multiplicative identity.

So, a has an inverse in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$ if and only if it has an inverse in both $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z}$.

This happens if and only if $\gcd(a, m_1) = \gcd(a, m_2) = 1$. But m_1 and m_2 are pairwise coprime. So, $\gcd(a, m_1 m_2) = 1$.

CRT, Euler's Totient Function

If $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$, a has an inverse in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1m_2\mathbb{Z}$ if and only if $(a \bmod m_1, a \bmod m_2)$ has an inverse in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$.

³To learn more about the Euler totient function, multiplicative functions, and number theory, try Math 115.

CRT, Euler's Totient Function

If $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$, a has an inverse in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if $(a \bmod m_1, a \bmod m_2)$ has an inverse in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$.

In particular, $|(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z})^\times| = |(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z})^\times \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})^\times|$.

³To learn more about the Euler totient function, multiplicative functions, and number theory, try Math 115.

CRT, Euler's Totient Function

If $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$, a has an inverse in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1m_2\mathbb{Z}$ if and only if $(a \bmod m_1, a \bmod m_2)$ has an inverse in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})$.

In particular, $|(\mathbb{Z}/m_1m_2\mathbb{Z})^\times| = |(\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z})^\times \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})^\times|$.

The RHS is $|(\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z})^\times| \cdot |(\mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z})^\times|$.

³To learn more about the Euler totient function, multiplicative functions, and number theory, try Math 115.

CRT, Euler's Totient Function

If $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$, a has an inverse in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if $(a \bmod m_1, a \bmod m_2)$ has an inverse in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$.

In particular, $|(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z})^\times| = |(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z})^\times \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})^\times|$.

The RHS is $|(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z})^\times| \cdot |(\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})^\times|$.

So, for coprime m_1 and m_2 , $\varphi(m_1 m_2) = \varphi(m_1) \varphi(m_2)$.

³To learn more about the Euler totient function, multiplicative functions, and number theory, try Math 115.

CRT, Euler's Totient Function

If $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$, a has an inverse in $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if $(a \bmod m_1, a \bmod m_2)$ has an inverse in $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})$.

In particular, $|(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 m_2 \mathbb{Z})^\times| = |(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z})^\times \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})^\times|$.

The RHS is $|(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z})^\times| \cdot |(\mathbb{Z}/m_2 \mathbb{Z})^\times|$.

So, for coprime m_1 and m_2 , $\varphi(m_1 m_2) = \varphi(m_1) \varphi(m_2)$.

So, φ is called **multiplicative**.³

³To learn more about the Euler totient function, multiplicative functions, and number theory, try Math 115.

Formula for Euler's Totient Function

For $n \geq 2$, write $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$ (prime factorization).

Formula for Euler's Totient Function

For $n \geq 2$, write $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$ (prime factorization).

By multiplicativity, $\varphi(n) = \varphi(p_1^{\alpha_1}) \cdots \varphi(p_k^{\alpha_k})$.

Formula for Euler's Totient Function

For $n \geq 2$, write $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$ (prime factorization).

By multiplicativity, $\varphi(n) = \varphi(p_1^{\alpha_1}) \cdots \varphi(p_k^{\alpha_k})$.

So, what is $\varphi(p^\alpha)$ for p prime and a positive integer α ?

Formula for Euler's Totient Function

For $n \geq 2$, write $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$ (prime factorization).

By multiplicativity, $\varphi(n) = \varphi(p_1^{\alpha_1}) \cdots \varphi(p_k^{\alpha_k})$.

So, what is $\varphi(p^\alpha)$ for p prime and a positive integer α ?

There are p^α numbers from 1 to p^α .

Formula for Euler's Totient Function

For $n \geq 2$, write $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$ (prime factorization).

By multiplicativity, $\varphi(n) = \varphi(p_1^{\alpha_1}) \cdots \varphi(p_k^{\alpha_k})$.

So, what is $\varphi(p^\alpha)$ for p prime and a positive integer α ?

There are p^α numbers from 1 to p^α . How many of them are *not* coprime with p^α ?

Formula for Euler's Totient Function

For $n \geq 2$, write $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$ (prime factorization).

By multiplicativity, $\varphi(n) = \varphi(p_1^{\alpha_1}) \cdots \varphi(p_k^{\alpha_k})$.

So, what is $\varphi(p^\alpha)$ for p prime and a positive integer α ?

There are p^α numbers from 1 to p^α . How many of them are *not* coprime with p^α ?

$p, 2p, 3p, \dots, p^\alpha$.

Formula for Euler's Totient Function

For $n \geq 2$, write $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$ (prime factorization).

By multiplicativity, $\varphi(n) = \varphi(p_1^{\alpha_1}) \cdots \varphi(p_k^{\alpha_k})$.

So, what is $\varphi(p^\alpha)$ for p prime and a positive integer α ?

There are p^α numbers from 1 to p^α . How many of them are *not* coprime with p^α ?

$p, 2p, 3p, \dots, p^\alpha$. There are $p^{\alpha-1}$ of them.

Formula for Euler's Totient Function

For $n \geq 2$, write $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$ (prime factorization).

By multiplicativity, $\varphi(n) = \varphi(p_1^{\alpha_1}) \cdots \varphi(p_k^{\alpha_k})$.

So, what is $\varphi(p^\alpha)$ for p prime and a positive integer α ?

There are p^α numbers from 1 to p^α . How many of them are *not* coprime with p^α ?

$p, 2p, 3p, \dots, p^\alpha$. There are $p^{\alpha-1}$ of them. So,
 $\varphi(p^\alpha) = p^\alpha - p^{\alpha-1} = p^{\alpha-1}(p-1)$.

Formula for Euler's Totient Function

For $n \geq 2$, write $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$ (prime factorization).

By multiplicativity, $\varphi(n) = \varphi(p_1^{\alpha_1}) \cdots \varphi(p_k^{\alpha_k})$.

So, what is $\varphi(p^\alpha)$ for p prime and a positive integer α ?

There are p^α numbers from 1 to p^α . How many of them are *not* coprime with p^α ?

$p, 2p, 3p, \dots, p^\alpha$. There are $p^{\alpha-1}$ of them. So,
 $\varphi(p^\alpha) = p^\alpha - p^{\alpha-1} = p^{\alpha-1}(p-1)$.

Thus, $\varphi(n) = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{\alpha_i-1} (p_i - 1)$.

Using Euler's Theorem for Exponentiation

We can use Euler's Theorem to calculate $5^{1000000} \pmod{12}$.

Using Euler's Theorem for Exponentiation

We can use Euler's Theorem to calculate $5^{1000000} \pmod{12}$.

By Euler's Theorem, since $\gcd(5, 12) = 1$, then $5^{\varphi(12)} \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$.

Using Euler's Theorem for Exponentiation

We can use Euler's Theorem to calculate $5^{1000000} \pmod{12}$.

By Euler's Theorem, since $\gcd(5, 12) = 1$, then $5^{\varphi(12)} \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$.

So, $\varphi(12) = \varphi(2^2)\varphi(3) = 2 \cdot 2 = 4$.

Using Euler's Theorem for Exponentiation

We can use Euler's Theorem to calculate $5^{1000000} \pmod{12}$.

By Euler's Theorem, since $\gcd(5, 12) = 1$, then $5^{\varphi(12)} \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$.

So, $\varphi(12) = \varphi(2^2)\varphi(3) = 2 \cdot 2 = 4$.

- ▶ In fact, $(\mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z})^\times = \{1, 5, 7, 11\}$.

Using Euler's Theorem for Exponentiation

We can use Euler's Theorem to calculate $5^{1000000} \pmod{12}$.

By Euler's Theorem, since $\gcd(5, 12) = 1$, then $5^{\varphi(12)} \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$.

So, $\varphi(12) = \varphi(2^2)\varphi(3) = 2 \cdot 2 = 4$.

► In fact, $(\mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z})^\times = \{1, 5, 7, 11\}$.

So, write $5^{1000000} \equiv 5^{250000 \cdot 4} \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$.

Using Euler's Theorem for Exponentiation

We can use Euler's Theorem to calculate $5^{1000000} \pmod{12}$.

By Euler's Theorem, since $\gcd(5, 12) = 1$, then $5^{\varphi(12)} \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$.

So, $\varphi(12) = \varphi(2^2)\varphi(3) = 2 \cdot 2 = 4$.

► In fact, $(\mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z})^\times = \{1, 5, 7, 11\}$.

So, write $5^{1000000} \equiv 5^{250000 \cdot 4} \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$.

In general, $a^k \equiv a^{k \bmod \varphi(m)} \pmod{m}$, if $\gcd(a, m) = 1$.

Polynomials

A **polynomial** is a function

$$P(x) = a_d x^d + a_{d-1} x^{d-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0.$$

Polynomials

A **polynomial** is a function

$$P(x) = a_d x^d + a_{d-1} x^{d-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0.$$

The integer $d \in \mathbb{N}$ is called the **degree** of the polynomial.

Polynomials

A **polynomial** is a function

$$P(x) = a_d x^d + a_{d-1} x^{d-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0.$$

The integer $d \in \mathbb{N}$ is called the **degree** of the polynomial.

- ▶ Exception: If $P(x) = 0$ for all x , the zero polynomial, then the degree is sometimes considered to be $-\infty$.

Polynomials

A **polynomial** is a function

$$P(x) = a_d x^d + a_{d-1} x^{d-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0.$$

The integer $d \in \mathbb{N}$ is called the **degree** of the polynomial.

- ▶ Exception: If $P(x) = 0$ for all x , the zero polynomial, then the degree is sometimes considered to be $-\infty$.

The numbers a_0, a_1, \dots, a_d are the **coefficients**.

Polynomials

A **polynomial** is a function

$$P(x) = a_d x^d + a_{d-1} x^{d-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0.$$

The integer $d \in \mathbb{N}$ is called the **degree** of the polynomial.

- ▶ Exception: If $P(x) = 0$ for all x , the zero polynomial, then the degree is sometimes considered to be $-\infty$.

The numbers a_0, a_1, \dots, a_d are the **coefficients**. We say this is the coefficient representation.

Polynomials

A **polynomial** is a function

$$P(x) = a_d x^d + a_{d-1} x^{d-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0.$$

The integer $d \in \mathbb{N}$ is called the **degree** of the polynomial.

- ▶ Exception: If $P(x) = 0$ for all x , the zero polynomial, then the degree is sometimes considered to be $-\infty$.

The numbers a_0, a_1, \dots, a_d are the **coefficients**. We say this is the coefficient representation.

Polynomials involve addition, multiplication.

Polynomials

A **polynomial** is a function

$$P(x) = a_d x^d + a_{d-1} x^{d-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0.$$

The integer $d \in \mathbb{N}$ is called the **degree** of the polynomial.

- ▶ Exception: If $P(x) = 0$ for all x , the zero polynomial, then the degree is sometimes considered to be $-\infty$.

The numbers a_0, a_1, \dots, a_d are the **coefficients**. We say this is the coefficient representation.

Polynomials involve addition, multiplication.

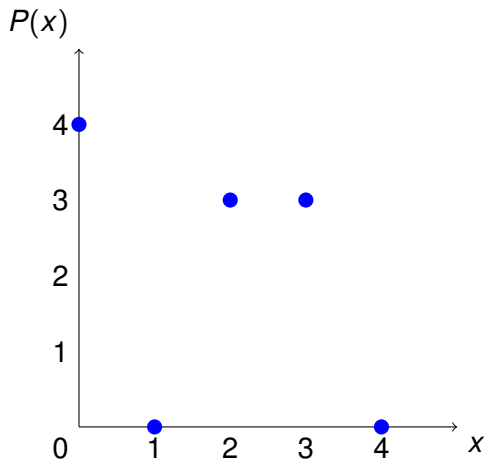
- ▶ We can also consider polynomials over $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$.

Polynomials in Modular Arithmetic

What does the polynomial $P(x) = x^2 + 4$ look like, modulo 5?

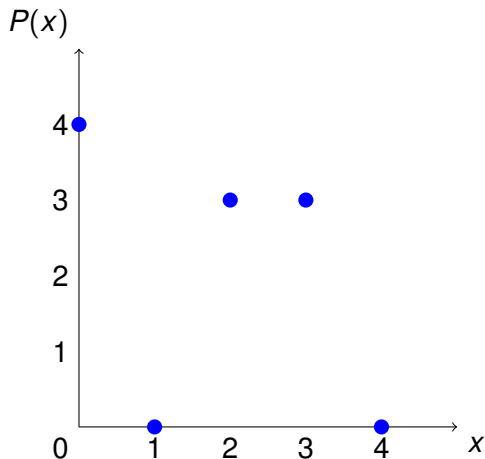
Polynomials in Modular Arithmetic

What does the polynomial $P(x) = x^2 + 4$ look like, modulo 5?



Polynomials in Modular Arithmetic

What does the polynomial $P(x) = x^2 + 4$ look like, modulo 5?



Not a continuous curve!

Polynomial Degree

Consider polynomials P and Q of degrees $d_1, d_2 > 0$.

Polynomial Degree

Consider polynomials P and Q of degrees $d_1, d_2 > 0$.

What is the degree of $P + Q$?

Polynomial Degree

Consider polynomials P and Q of degrees $d_1, d_2 > 0$.

What is the degree of $P + Q$?

- ▶ $\deg(P + Q)$ is at most $\max\{d_1, d_2\}$.

Polynomial Degree

Consider polynomials P and Q of degrees $d_1, d_2 > 0$.

What is the degree of $P + Q$?

- ▶ $\deg(P + Q)$ is at most $\max\{d_1, d_2\}$.
- ▶ Potentially $-\infty$, if $P = -Q$.

Polynomial Degree

Consider polynomials P and Q of degrees $d_1, d_2 > 0$.

What is the degree of $P + Q$?

- ▶ $\deg(P + Q)$ is at most $\max\{d_1, d_2\}$.
- ▶ Potentially $-\infty$, if $P = -Q$.

What is the degree of PQ ?

Polynomial Degree

Consider polynomials P and Q of degrees $d_1, d_2 > 0$.

What is the degree of $P + Q$?

- ▶ $\deg(P + Q)$ is at most $\max\{d_1, d_2\}$.
- ▶ Potentially $-\infty$, if $P = -Q$.

What is the degree of PQ ?

- ▶ $d_1 + d_2$.

Fields

Without being too formal, a **field** is

Fields

Without being too formal, a **field** is

- ▶ a set with two operations, $+$ (addition) and \cdot (multiplication)

Fields

Without being too formal, a **field** is

- ▶ a set with two operations, $+$ (addition) and \cdot (multiplication)
- ▶ such that addition and multiplication are associative and commutative;

Fields

Without being too formal, a **field** is

- ▶ a set with two operations, $+$ (addition) and \cdot (multiplication)
- ▶ such that addition and multiplication are associative and commutative;
- ▶ multiplication distributes over addition;

Fields

Without being too formal, a **field** is

- ▶ a set with two operations, $+$ (addition) and \cdot (multiplication)
- ▶ such that addition and multiplication are associative and commutative;
- ▶ multiplication distributes over addition;
- ▶ every element has an additive inverse;

Fields

Without being too formal, a **field** is

- ▶ a set with two operations, $+$ (addition) and \cdot (multiplication)
- ▶ such that addition and multiplication are associative and commutative;
- ▶ multiplication distributes over addition;
- ▶ every element has an additive inverse;
- ▶ every non-zero element has a multiplicative inverse.

Fields

Without being too formal, a **field** is

- ▶ a set with two operations, $+$ (addition) and \cdot (multiplication)
- ▶ such that addition and multiplication are associative and commutative;
- ▶ multiplication distributes over addition;
- ▶ every element has an additive inverse;
- ▶ every non-zero element has a multiplicative inverse.

What are some examples of fields?

Fields

Without being too formal, a **field** is

- ▶ a set with two operations, $+$ (addition) and \cdot (multiplication)
- ▶ such that addition and multiplication are associative and commutative;
- ▶ multiplication distributes over addition;
- ▶ every element has an additive inverse;
- ▶ every non-zero element has a multiplicative inverse.

What are some examples of fields?

- ▶ \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} .

Fields

Without being too formal, a **field** is

- ▶ a set with two operations, $+$ (addition) and \cdot (multiplication)
- ▶ such that addition and multiplication are associative and commutative;
- ▶ multiplication distributes over addition;
- ▶ every element has an additive inverse;
- ▶ every non-zero element has a multiplicative inverse.

What are some examples of fields?

- ▶ \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} .
- ▶ $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ where p is prime.

Fields

Without being too formal, a **field** is

- ▶ a set with two operations, $+$ (addition) and \cdot (multiplication)
- ▶ such that addition and multiplication are associative and commutative;
- ▶ multiplication distributes over addition;
- ▶ every element has an additive inverse;
- ▶ every non-zero element has a multiplicative inverse.

What are some examples of fields?

- ▶ \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} .
- ▶ $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ where p is prime.

What is not a field?

Fields

Without being too formal, a **field** is

- ▶ a set with two operations, $+$ (addition) and \cdot (multiplication)
- ▶ such that addition and multiplication are associative and commutative;
- ▶ multiplication distributes over addition;
- ▶ every element has an additive inverse;
- ▶ every non-zero element has a multiplicative inverse.

What are some examples of fields?

- ▶ \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} .
- ▶ $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ where p is prime.

What is not a field?

- ▶ \mathbb{Z} , $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$ for m composite: missing multiplicative inverses.

Polynomial Long Division

Recall the Division Algorithm: Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$, then there exist unique $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r \in \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$ with $a = qb + r$.

Polynomial Long Division

Recall the Division Algorithm: Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$, then there exist unique $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r \in \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$ with $a = qb + r$.

Polynomial Division: Given polynomials A and B where B is not constant, there exist unique polynomials Q and R with $A = QB + R$, and $\deg R < \deg B$.

Polynomial Long Division

Recall the Division Algorithm: Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$, then there exist unique $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r \in \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$ with $a = qb + r$.

Polynomial Division: Given polynomials A and B where B is not constant, there exist unique polynomials Q and R with $A = QB + R$, and $\deg R < \deg B$.

Example: To divide $6x^4 + 4x^3 + 2x + 1$ by $3x + 2$:

Polynomial Long Division

Recall the Division Algorithm: Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$, then there exist unique $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r \in \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$ with $a = qb + r$.

Polynomial Division: Given polynomials A and B where B is not constant, there exist unique polynomials Q and R with $A = QB + R$, and $\deg R < \deg B$.

Example: To divide $6x^4 + 4x^3 + 2x + 1$ by $3x + 2$:

- ▶ Match coefficients.

Polynomial Long Division

Recall the Division Algorithm: Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$, then there exist unique $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r \in \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$ with $a = qb + r$.

Polynomial Division: Given polynomials A and B where B is not constant, there exist unique polynomials Q and R with $A = QB + R$, and $\deg R < \deg B$.

Example: To divide $6x^4 + 4x^3 + 2x + 1$ by $3x + 2$:

- ▶ Match coefficients. Multiply $3x + 2$ by $2x^3$.

Polynomial Long Division

Recall the Division Algorithm: Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$, then there exist unique $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r \in \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$ with $a = qb + r$.

Polynomial Division: Given polynomials A and B where B is not constant, there exist unique polynomials Q and R with $A = QB + R$, and $\deg R < \deg B$.

Example: To divide $6x^4 + 4x^3 + 2x + 1$ by $3x + 2$:

- ▶ Match coefficients. Multiply $3x + 2$ by $2x^3$. Then $2x^3(3x + 2) = 6x^4 + 4x^3$.

Polynomial Long Division

Recall the Division Algorithm: Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$, then there exist unique $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r \in \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$ with $a = qb + r$.

Polynomial Division: Given polynomials A and B where B is not constant, there exist unique polynomials Q and R with $A = QB + R$, and $\deg R < \deg B$.

Example: To divide $6x^4 + 4x^3 + 2x + 1$ by $3x + 2$:

- ▶ Match coefficients. Multiply $3x + 2$ by $2x^3$. Then $2x^3(3x + 2) = 6x^4 + 4x^3$.
- ▶ The remaining terms are $2x + 1$.

Polynomial Long Division

Recall the Division Algorithm: Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$, then there exist unique $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r \in \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$ with $a = qb + r$.

Polynomial Division: Given polynomials A and B where B is not constant, there exist unique polynomials Q and R with $A = QB + R$, and $\deg R < \deg B$.

Example: To divide $6x^4 + 4x^3 + 2x + 1$ by $3x + 2$:

- ▶ Match coefficients. Multiply $3x + 2$ by $2x^3$. Then $2x^3(3x + 2) = 6x^4 + 4x^3$.
- ▶ The remaining terms are $2x + 1$. Match coefficients.

Polynomial Long Division

Recall the Division Algorithm: Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$, then there exist unique $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r \in \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$ with $a = qb + r$.

Polynomial Division: Given polynomials A and B where B is not constant, there exist unique polynomials Q and R with $A = QB + R$, and $\deg R < \deg B$.

Example: To divide $6x^4 + 4x^3 + 2x + 1$ by $3x + 2$:

- ▶ Match coefficients. Multiply $3x + 2$ by $2x^3$. Then $2x^3(3x + 2) = 6x^4 + 4x^3$.
- ▶ The remaining terms are $2x + 1$. Match coefficients. Multiply $3x + 2$ by $2/3$.

Polynomial Long Division

Recall the Division Algorithm: Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$, then there exist unique $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r \in \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$ with $a = qb + r$.

Polynomial Division: Given polynomials A and B where B is not constant, there exist unique polynomials Q and R with $A = QB + R$, and $\deg R < \deg B$.

Example: To divide $6x^4 + 4x^3 + 2x + 1$ by $3x + 2$:

- ▶ Match coefficients. Multiply $3x + 2$ by $2x^3$. Then $2x^3(3x + 2) = 6x^4 + 4x^3$.
- ▶ The remaining terms are $2x + 1$. Match coefficients. Multiply $3x + 2$ by $2/3$. $(2/3)(3x + 2) = 2x + 4/3$.

Polynomial Long Division

Recall the Division Algorithm: Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$, then there exist unique $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r \in \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$ with $a = qb + r$.

Polynomial Division: Given polynomials A and B where B is not constant, there exist unique polynomials Q and R with $A = QB + R$, and $\deg R < \deg B$.

Example: To divide $6x^4 + 4x^3 + 2x + 1$ by $3x + 2$:

- ▶ Match coefficients. Multiply $3x + 2$ by $2x^3$. Then $2x^3(3x + 2) = 6x^4 + 4x^3$.
- ▶ The remaining terms are $2x + 1$. Match coefficients. Multiply $3x + 2$ by $2/3$. $(2/3)(3x + 2) = 2x + 4/3$.
- ▶ So, $(2x^3 + 2/3)(3x + 2) = 6x^4 + 4x^3 + 2x + 4/3$.

Polynomial Long Division

Recall the Division Algorithm: Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$, then there exist unique $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r \in \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$ with $a = qb + r$.

Polynomial Division: Given polynomials A and B where B is not constant, there exist unique polynomials Q and R with $A = QB + R$, and $\deg R < \deg B$.

Example: To divide $6x^4 + 4x^3 + 2x + 1$ by $3x + 2$:

- ▶ Match coefficients. Multiply $3x + 2$ by $2x^3$. Then $2x^3(3x + 2) = 6x^4 + 4x^3$.
- ▶ The remaining terms are $2x + 1$. Match coefficients. Multiply $3x + 2$ by $2/3$. $(2/3)(3x + 2) = 2x + 4/3$.
- ▶ So, $(2x^3 + 2/3)(3x + 2) = 6x^4 + 4x^3 + 2x + 4/3$.
- ▶ So, $6x^4 + 4x^3 + 2x + 1 = (2x^3 + 2/3)(3x + 2) - 1/3$.

Polynomial Long Division

Recall the Division Algorithm: Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$, then there exist unique $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r \in \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$ with $a = qb + r$.

Polynomial Division: Given polynomials A and B where B is not constant, there exist unique polynomials Q and R with $A = QB + R$, and $\deg R < \deg B$.

Example: To divide $6x^4 + 4x^3 + 2x + 1$ by $3x + 2$:

- ▶ Match coefficients. Multiply $3x + 2$ by $2x^3$. Then $2x^3(3x + 2) = 6x^4 + 4x^3$.
- ▶ The remaining terms are $2x + 1$. Match coefficients. Multiply $3x + 2$ by $2/3$. $(2/3)(3x + 2) = 2x + 4/3$.
- ▶ So, $(2x^3 + 2/3)(3x + 2) = 6x^4 + 4x^3 + 2x + 4/3$.
- ▶ So, $6x^4 + 4x^3 + 2x + 1 = (2x^3 + 2/3)(3x + 2) - 1/3$.

The algorithm needs **multiplicative inverses**—work in a field.

Polynomial Roots

A **root** of a polynomial P is a value a such that $P(a) = 0$.

Polynomial Roots

A **root** of a polynomial P is a value a such that $P(a) = 0$.

Theorem: The polynomial P has the root a if and only if $P(x) = (x - a)Q(x)$ for a polynomial Q .

Polynomial Roots

A **root** of a polynomial P is a value a such that $P(a) = 0$.

Theorem: The polynomial P has the root a if and only if $P(x) = (x - a)Q(x)$ for a polynomial Q .

Proof.

Polynomial Roots

A **root** of a polynomial P is a value a such that $P(a) = 0$.

Theorem: The polynomial P has the root a if and only if $P(x) = (x - a)Q(x)$ for a polynomial Q .

Proof.

- ▶ (\Leftarrow): Plug in $x = a$ to get $P(a) = 0$.

Polynomial Roots

A **root** of a polynomial P is a value a such that $P(a) = 0$.

Theorem: The polynomial P has the root a if and only if $P(x) = (x - a)Q(x)$ for a polynomial Q .

Proof.

- ▶ (\Leftarrow): Plug in $x = a$ to get $P(a) = 0$.
- ▶ (\Rightarrow): By Division Algorithm, $P(x) = (x - a)Q(x) + R$, where $\deg R < 1$.

Polynomial Roots

A **root** of a polynomial P is a value a such that $P(a) = 0$.

Theorem: The polynomial P has the root a if and only if $P(x) = (x - a)Q(x)$ for a polynomial Q .

Proof.

- ▶ (\Leftarrow): Plug in $x = a$ to get $P(a) = 0$.
- ▶ (\Rightarrow): By Division Algorithm, $P(x) = (x - a)Q(x) + R$, where $\deg R < 1$. So, R is a constant.

Polynomial Roots

A **root** of a polynomial P is a value a such that $P(a) = 0$.

Theorem: The polynomial P has the root a if and only if $P(x) = (x - a)Q(x)$ for a polynomial Q .

Proof.

- ▶ (\Leftarrow): Plug in $x = a$ to get $P(a) = 0$.
- ▶ (\Rightarrow): By Division Algorithm, $P(x) = (x - a)Q(x) + R$, where $\deg R < 1$. So, R is a constant.
- ▶ Plug in $x = a$.

Polynomial Roots

A **root** of a polynomial P is a value a such that $P(a) = 0$.

Theorem: The polynomial P has the root a if and only if $P(x) = (x - a)Q(x)$ for a polynomial Q .

Proof.

- ▶ (\Leftarrow): Plug in $x = a$ to get $P(a) = 0$.
- ▶ (\Rightarrow): By Division Algorithm, $P(x) = (x - a)Q(x) + R$, where $\deg R < 1$. So, R is a constant.
- ▶ Plug in $x = a$. $0 = P(a) = R$. \square

Degree d Has At Most d Roots

Theorem: If a non-zero polynomial P is degree d , it has at most d roots.

Degree d Has At Most d Roots

Theorem: If a non-zero polynomial P is degree d , it has at most d roots.

Proof.

Degree d Has At Most d Roots

Theorem: If a non-zero polynomial P is degree d , it has at most d roots.

Proof.

- ▶ If a is a root of P , then factor $P(x) = (x - a)Q(x)$.

Degree d Has At Most d Roots

Theorem: If a non-zero polynomial P is degree d , it has at most d roots.

Proof.

- ▶ If a is a root of P , then factor $P(x) = (x - a)Q(x)$.
- ▶ Each root we factor out reduces the degree of the remaining polynomial by 1.

Degree d Has At Most d Roots

Theorem: If a non-zero polynomial P is degree d , it has at most d roots.

Proof.

- ▶ If a is a root of P , then factor $P(x) = (x - a)Q(x)$.
- ▶ Each root we factor out reduces the degree of the remaining polynomial by 1.
- ▶ Since P has degree d , we can only factor out at most d roots. \square

Polynomials vs. Functions

Consider polynomials P and Q over $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ for p prime.

Polynomials vs. Functions

Consider polynomials P and Q over $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ for p prime.

Two definitions of equality:

Polynomials vs. Functions

Consider polynomials P and Q over $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ for p prime.

Two definitions of equality:

- ▶ $P = Q$ if every coefficient is the same.

Polynomials vs. Functions

Consider polynomials P and Q over $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ for p prime.

Two definitions of equality:

- ▶ $P = Q$ if every coefficient is the same.
- ▶ $P = Q$ as *functions*: $P = Q$ if $P(x) = Q(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

Polynomials vs. Functions

Consider polynomials P and Q over $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ for p prime.

Two definitions of equality:

- ▶ $P = Q$ if every coefficient is the same.
- ▶ $P = Q$ as *functions*: $P = Q$ if $P(x) = Q(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

By the first definition, there are infinitely many distinct polynomials.

Polynomials vs. Functions

Consider polynomials P and Q over $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ for p prime.

Two definitions of equality:

- ▶ $P = Q$ if every coefficient is the same.
- ▶ $P = Q$ as *functions*: $P = Q$ if $P(x) = Q(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

By the first definition, there are infinitely many distinct polynomials.

By the second definition, there are only finitely many polynomials.

Polynomials vs. Functions

Consider polynomials P and Q over $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ for p prime.

Two definitions of equality:

- ▶ $P = Q$ if every coefficient is the same.
- ▶ $P = Q$ as *functions*: $P = Q$ if $P(x) = Q(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

By the first definition, there are infinitely many distinct polynomials.

By the second definition, there are only finitely many polynomials. There are finitely many functions $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

Polynomials vs. Functions

Consider polynomials P and Q over $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ for p prime.

Two definitions of equality:

- ▶ $P = Q$ if every coefficient is the same.
- ▶ $P = Q$ as *functions*: $P = Q$ if $P(x) = Q(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

By the first definition, there are infinitely many distinct polynomials.

By the second definition, there are only finitely many polynomials. There are finitely many functions $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

- ▶ There are p possible outputs for the first input.

Polynomials vs. Functions

Consider polynomials P and Q over $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ for p prime.

Two definitions of equality:

- ▶ $P = Q$ if every coefficient is the same.
- ▶ $P = Q$ as *functions*: $P = Q$ if $P(x) = Q(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

By the first definition, there are infinitely many distinct polynomials.

By the second definition, there are only finitely many polynomials. There are finitely many functions $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

- ▶ There are p possible outputs for the first input.
- ▶ Then p possible outputs for the second input.

Polynomials vs. Functions

Consider polynomials P and Q over $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ for p prime.

Two definitions of equality:

- ▶ $P = Q$ if every coefficient is the same.
- ▶ $P = Q$ as *functions*: $P = Q$ if $P(x) = Q(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

By the first definition, there are infinitely many distinct polynomials.

By the second definition, there are only finitely many polynomials. There are finitely many functions $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

- ▶ There are p possible outputs for the first input.
- ▶ Then p possible outputs for the second input.
- ▶ ... and p possible outputs for the p th input.

Polynomials vs. Functions

Consider polynomials P and Q over $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ for p prime.

Two definitions of equality:

- ▶ $P = Q$ if every coefficient is the same.
- ▶ $P = Q$ as *functions*: $P = Q$ if $P(x) = Q(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

By the first definition, there are infinitely many distinct polynomials.

By the second definition, there are only finitely many polynomials. There are finitely many functions $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

- ▶ There are p possible outputs for the first input.
- ▶ Then p possible outputs for the second input.
- ▶ ... and p possible outputs for the p th input.
- ▶ There are p^p functions $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

Polynomial Interpolation

Say we are given $d + 1$ points $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$.

Polynomial Interpolation

Say we are given $d + 1$ points $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$.

Can we find a polynomial that goes through these points?

Polynomial Interpolation

Say we are given $d + 1$ points $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$.

Can we find a polynomial that goes through these points?

A degree d polynomial has the representation

$$P(x) = a_d x^d + \dots + a_1 x + a_0.$$

Polynomial Interpolation

Say we are given $d + 1$ points $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$.

Can we find a polynomial that goes through these points?

A degree d polynomial has the representation

$$P(x) = a_d x^d + \dots + a_1 x + a_0.$$

Try solving the system:

$$y_1 = a_d x_1^d + \dots + a_1 x_1 + a_0$$

\vdots

$$y_{d+1} = a_d x_{d+1}^d + \dots + a_1 x_{d+1} + a_0$$

Polynomial Interpolation

Say we are given $d + 1$ points $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$.

Can we find a polynomial that goes through these points?

A degree d polynomial has the representation

$$P(x) = a_d x^d + \dots + a_1 x + a_0.$$

Try solving the system:

$$y_1 = a_d x_1^d + \dots + a_1 x_1 + a_0$$

\vdots

$$y_{d+1} = a_d x_{d+1}^d + \dots + a_1 x_{d+1} + a_0$$

There are $d + 1$ equations, $d + 1$ unknown coefficients.

Polynomial Interpolation

Say we are given $d + 1$ points $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$.

Can we find a polynomial that goes through these points?

A degree d polynomial has the representation

$$P(x) = a_d x^d + \dots + a_1 x + a_0.$$

Try solving the system:

$$y_1 = a_d x_1^d + \dots + a_1 x_1 + a_0$$

\vdots

$$y_{d+1} = a_d x_{d+1}^d + \dots + a_1 x_{d+1} + a_0$$

There are $d + 1$ equations, $d + 1$ unknown coefficients. The system is **linear**.

Polynomial Interpolation

Say we are given $d + 1$ points $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$.

Can we find a polynomial that goes through these points?

A degree d polynomial has the representation

$$P(x) = a_d x^d + \dots + a_1 x + a_0.$$

Try solving the system:

$$y_1 = a_d x_1^d + \dots + a_1 x_1 + a_0$$

\vdots

$$y_{d+1} = a_d x_{d+1}^d + \dots + a_1 x_{d+1} + a_0$$

There are $d + 1$ equations, $d + 1$ unknown coefficients. The system is **linear**.

- ▶ Try solving this system with linear algebra.

Lagrange Interpolation

Remember CRT?

Lagrange Interpolation

Remember CRT? To solve

$$x \equiv y_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$x \equiv y_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

find Δ_1 and Δ_2 so that

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_1} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{m_2} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_2}$$

and then take $x = y_1\Delta_1 + y_2\Delta_2$.

Lagrange Interpolation

Remember CRT? To solve

$$x \equiv y_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$x \equiv y_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

find Δ_1 and Δ_2 so that

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_1} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{m_2} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_2}$$

and then take $x = y_1\Delta_1 + y_2\Delta_2$.

Same idea for polynomials.

Lagrange Interpolation

Remember CRT? To solve

$$x \equiv y_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$x \equiv y_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

find Δ_1 and Δ_2 so that

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_1} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{m_2} \qquad \Delta_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_2}$$

and then take $x = y_1\Delta_1 + y_2\Delta_2$.

Same idea for polynomials. For $i = 1, \dots, d+1$, we want:

$$\Delta_i(x_j) = \begin{cases} 1, & j = i \\ 0, & j \neq i \end{cases}$$

Lagrange Interpolation

Remember CRT? To solve

$$x \equiv y_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$x \equiv y_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

find Δ_1 and Δ_2 so that

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_1} \quad \Delta_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$\Delta_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{m_2} \quad \Delta_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_2}$$

and then take $x = y_1\Delta_1 + y_2\Delta_2$.

Same idea for polynomials. For $i = 1, \dots, d+1$, we want:

$$\Delta_i(x_j) = \begin{cases} 1, & j = i \\ 0, & j \neq i \end{cases}$$

and then $P(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{d+1} y_i \Delta_i(x)$.

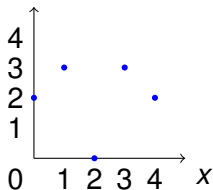
Picture of Lagrange Interpolation

Consider points $(0,2)$, $(1,3)$, and $(2,0)$ in $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$.

Picture of Lagrange Interpolation

Consider points $(0,2)$, $(1,3)$, and $(2,0)$ in $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$.

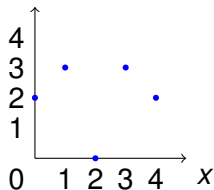
$$P(x) = 3x^2 + 3x + 2$$



Picture of Lagrange Interpolation

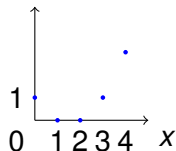
Consider points $(0,2)$, $(1,3)$, and $(2,0)$ in $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$.

$$P(x) = 3x^2 + 3x + 2$$

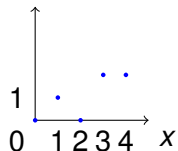


Here, $P(x) = 2 \cdot \Delta_1(x) + 3 \cdot \Delta_2(x)$.

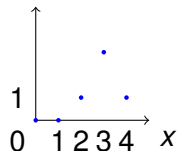
$$\Delta_1(x) = 3x^2 + x + 1$$



$$\Delta_2(x) = 4x^2 + 2x$$



$$\Delta_3(x) = 3x^2 + 2x$$



Constructing Δ Polynomials

For distinct points x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} , construct:

$$\Delta_i(x_j) = \begin{cases} 1, & j = i \\ 0, & j \neq i \end{cases}$$

Constructing Δ Polynomials

For distinct points x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} , construct:

$$\Delta_i(x_j) = \begin{cases} 1, & j = i \\ 0, & j \neq i \end{cases}$$

How?

Constructing Δ Polynomials

For distinct points x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} , construct:

$$\Delta_i(x_j) = \begin{cases} 1, & j = i \\ 0, & j \neq i \end{cases}$$

How? First, consider the polynomial

$$Q(x) = \prod_{j \neq i} (x - x_j).$$

Constructing Δ Polynomials

For distinct points x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} , construct:

$$\Delta_i(x_j) = \begin{cases} 1, & j = i \\ 0, & j \neq i \end{cases}$$

How? First, consider the polynomial

$$Q(x) = \prod_{j \neq i} (x - x_j).$$

This polynomial is zero at all $x_j, j \neq i$.

Constructing Δ Polynomials

For distinct points x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} , construct:

$$\Delta_i(x_j) = \begin{cases} 1, & j = i \\ 0, & j \neq i \end{cases}$$

How? First, consider the polynomial

$$Q(x) = \prod_{j \neq i} (x - x_j).$$

This polynomial is zero at all $x_j, j \neq i$. Now set:

$$\Delta_i(x) = \frac{\prod_{j \neq i} (x - x_j)}{\prod_{j \neq i} (x_i - x_j)}.$$

Constructing Δ Polynomials

For distinct points x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} , construct:

$$\Delta_i(x_j) = \begin{cases} 1, & j = i \\ 0, & j \neq i \end{cases}$$

How? First, consider the polynomial

$$Q(x) = \prod_{j \neq i} (x - x_j).$$

This polynomial is zero at all $x_j, j \neq i$. Now set:

$$\Delta_i(x) = \frac{\prod_{j \neq i} (x - x_j)}{\prod_{j \neq i} (x_i - x_j)}.$$

This polynomial satisfies the required conditions.

Constructing Δ Polynomials

For distinct points x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} , construct:

$$\Delta_i(x_j) = \begin{cases} 1, & j = i \\ 0, & j \neq i \end{cases}$$

How? First, consider the polynomial

$$Q(x) = \prod_{j \neq i} (x - x_j).$$

This polynomial is zero at all $x_j, j \neq i$. Now set:

$$\Delta_i(x) = \frac{\prod_{j \neq i} (x - x_j)}{\prod_{j \neq i} (x_i - x_j)}.$$

This polynomial satisfies the required conditions. (Note: Division requires a field.)

Constructing Δ Polynomials

For distinct points x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} , construct:

$$\Delta_i(x_j) = \begin{cases} 1, & j = i \\ 0, & j \neq i \end{cases}$$

How? First, consider the polynomial

$$Q(x) = \prod_{j \neq i} (x - x_j).$$

This polynomial is zero at all $x_j, j \neq i$. Now set:

$$\Delta_i(x) = \frac{\prod_{j \neq i} (x - x_j)}{\prod_{j \neq i} (x_i - x_j)}.$$

This polynomial satisfies the required conditions. (Note: Division requires a field.) Also, $\deg \Delta_j = d$.

Polynomial Interpolation

Theorem: Given $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$, where x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} are *distinct*, there is a *unique* polynomial P of degree at most d going through these points.

Polynomial Interpolation

Theorem: Given $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$, where x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} are *distinct*, there is a *unique* polynomial P of degree at most d going through these points.

Proof.

Polynomial Interpolation

Theorem: Given $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$, where x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} are *distinct*, there is a *unique* polynomial P of degree at most d going through these points.

Proof.

- ▶ Existence: We constructed the polynomial using Lagrange interpolation!

Polynomial Interpolation

Theorem: Given $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$, where x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} are *distinct*, there is a *unique* polynomial P of degree at most d going through these points.

Proof.

- ▶ Existence: We constructed the polynomial using Lagrange interpolation!
- ▶ Each Δ_j has degree at most d , so $\deg P \leq d$.

Polynomial Interpolation

Theorem: Given $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$, where x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} are *distinct*, there is a *unique* polynomial P of degree at most d going through these points.

Proof.

- ▶ Existence: We constructed the polynomial using Lagrange interpolation!
- ▶ Each Δ_j has degree at most d , so $\deg P \leq d$.
- ▶ Uniqueness: Say that P_1 and P_2 both go through these points.

Polynomial Interpolation

Theorem: Given $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$, where x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} are *distinct*, there is a *unique* polynomial P of degree at most d going through these points.

Proof.

- ▶ Existence: We constructed the polynomial using Lagrange interpolation!
- ▶ Each Δ_j has degree at most d , so $\deg P \leq d$.
- ▶ Uniqueness: Say that P_1 and P_2 both go through these points. Then, $P_1 - P_2$ has $d + 1$ roots, x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} .

Polynomial Interpolation

Theorem: Given $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$, where x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} are *distinct*, there is a *unique* polynomial P of degree at most d going through these points.

Proof.

- ▶ Existence: We constructed the polynomial using Lagrange interpolation!
- ▶ Each Δ_j has degree at most d , so $\deg P \leq d$.
- ▶ Uniqueness: Say that P_1 and P_2 both go through these points. Then, $P_1 - P_2$ has $d + 1$ roots, x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} .
- ▶ Since $P_1 - P_2$ has degree at most d , then $P_1 - P_2$ must be the zero polynomial, i.e., $P_1 = P_2$. \square

Polynomial Interpolation

Theorem: Given $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$, where x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} are *distinct*, there is a *unique* polynomial P of degree at most d going through these points.

Proof.

- ▶ Existence: We constructed the polynomial using Lagrange interpolation!
- ▶ Each Δ_j has degree at most d , so $\deg P \leq d$.
- ▶ Uniqueness: Say that P_1 and P_2 both go through these points. Then, $P_1 - P_2$ has $d + 1$ roots, x_1, \dots, x_{d+1} .
- ▶ Since $P_1 - P_2$ has degree at most d , then $P_1 - P_2$ must be the zero polynomial, i.e., $P_1 = P_2$. \square

Slogan: $d + 1$ points uniquely determine a degree $\leq d$ polynomial.

Summary

- ▶ CRT: $\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \cdots m_n \mathbb{Z}$ and $(\mathbb{Z}/m_1 \mathbb{Z}) \times \cdots \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_n \mathbb{Z})$ are isomorphic if m_1, \dots, m_n are pairwise coprime.
- ▶ If $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$, then $\varphi(m_1 m_2) = \varphi(m_1) \varphi(m_2)$ (φ is multiplicative).
- ▶ Thus, $\varphi(p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}) = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{\alpha_i-1} (p_i - 1)$ for a prime factorization.
- ▶ We work over fields: $\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ (AKA $\text{GF}(p)$) for p prime.
- ▶ A polynomial has a root a if and only if $P(x) = (x - a)Q(x)$ for some polynomial Q .
- ▶ A polynomial of degree d has at most d roots.
- ▶ Lagrange Interpolation: $d + 1$ distinct points uniquely determine a degree $\leq d$ polynomial.