

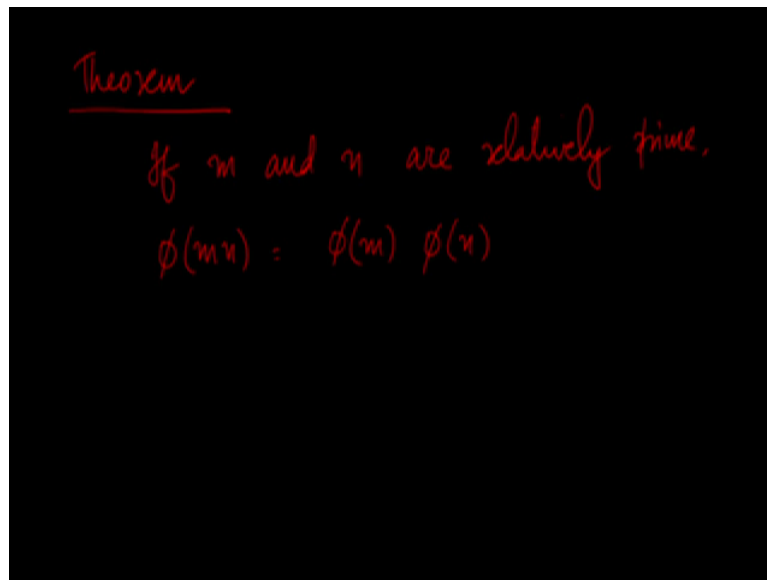
Discreet Mathematics
Professor. Sajith Gopalan
Department of Computer Science and Engineering,
Indian Institute of Technology, Guwahati.

Lecture 36

Totient; Congruence, Floor and Ceiling Functions

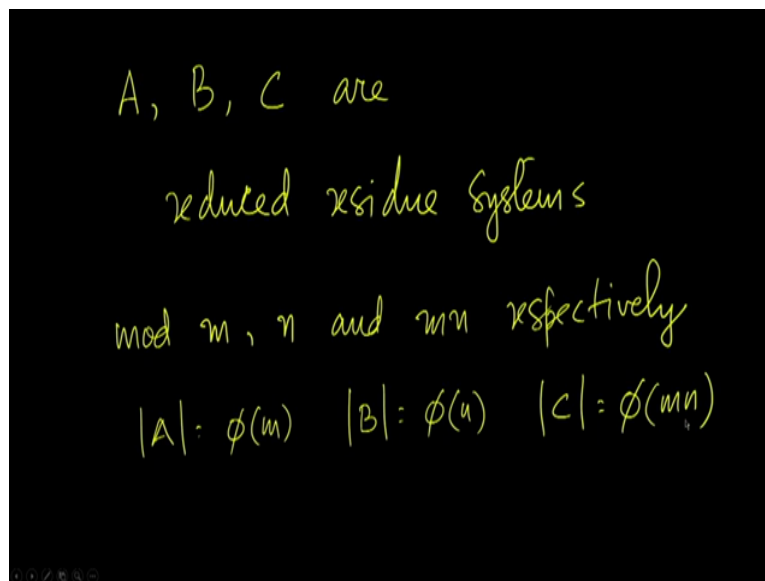
Welcome to the NPTEL mock on discreet mathematics this is the 7 th lecture on number theory.

(Refer Slide Time: 00:36)



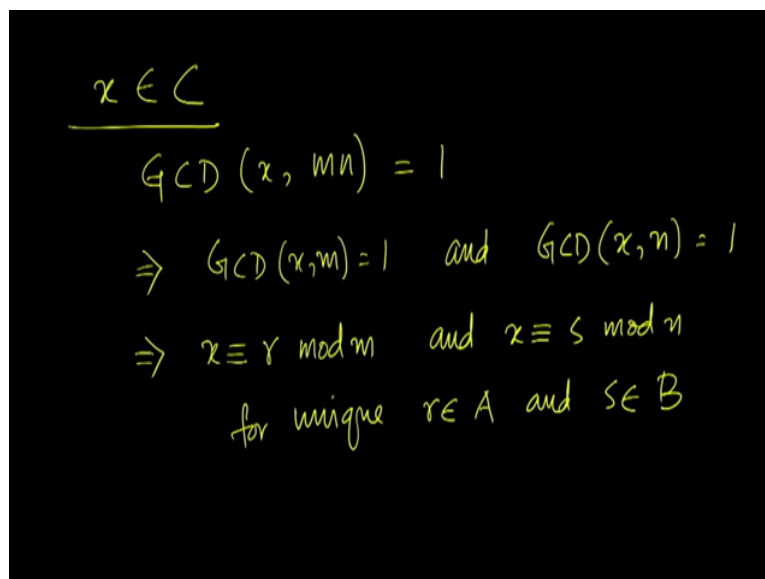
First we will consider a theorem regarding (ϕ)(0:43) five functions, if m and n are relatively prime then ϕ of mn is equal to ϕ of m into ϕ of n , for any 2 positive integers m and n that are relatively prime to each other ϕ of m into ϕ of n .

(Refer Slide Time: 1:23)



So let us prove this, let us say A, B, C are three set they are 3 reduced residue systems, modulo m and n , mn respectively. Then the size of A is phi of m , size of B is phi of n and size of C is phi of m into n .

(Refer Slide Time: 02:04)



Let us say x is some member of C, the reduced residue systems modulo mn , then GCD of x and mn is 1 by definition. So x does not divide m and n there is no common factor between x and mn , therefore GCD of x and m should be 1 and the GCD of x and n should be 1 to which means x is $r \pmod{m}$ and x is $s \pmod{n}$ for unique r and s .

Where r belongs to A and S belongs to B . If x is relatively prime to m and x is relatively prime to n then x belongs to the reduced residue systems modulo m and x also belongs to the reduced residue systems modulo n . Which means in this residue systems A and B that we consider there are some elements unique elements r and s so that x is congruent to $r \pmod{m}$ and x is congruent to $s \pmod{n}$.

(Refer Slide Time: 03:23)

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow |C| &\leq |A \times B| \\ \Rightarrow \phi(mn) &\leq \phi(m) \phi(n) \end{aligned}$$

Which means the size of C is less than or equal to the size of A cross B, because we take an arbitrary element x belonging to C and correspondingly we find an ordered pair or s belonging to A cross B. Therefore, the size of C must be less than or equal to the size of A cross B, but what is the size of C? That is phi of mn this is less than or equal to phi of m into phi of n. so that is what we have established that is one way.

(Refer Slide Time: 04:00)

$$\begin{aligned} (r, s) &\in A \times B \\ \Rightarrow \text{by CRT, } &\begin{cases} x \equiv r \pmod{m} \\ x \equiv s \pmod{n} \end{cases} \\ &\text{have a unique soln in } [0, mn-1] \\ \Rightarrow \text{if } x_0 &\text{ is that soln then} \\ &\text{GCD}(x_0, mn) = 1 \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{GCD}(r, m) = 1 \\ \text{GCD}(s, n) = 1 \end{array} \right. \end{aligned}$$

Now let us take an ordered pair r, s belonging to A cross B, then by Chinese Remainder Theorem x is r mod m and x is s mod n these two congruences have a unique solution in 0 to mn minus 1. So if x naught is that solution then GCD of x naught mn is 1 because GCD of r, m equal to 1, r belongs to A and GCD of s belongs to n. GCD of s, n is 1 because s belongs to

B which is a reduced residue systems modulo n. Therefore, x naught is relatively prime to mn.

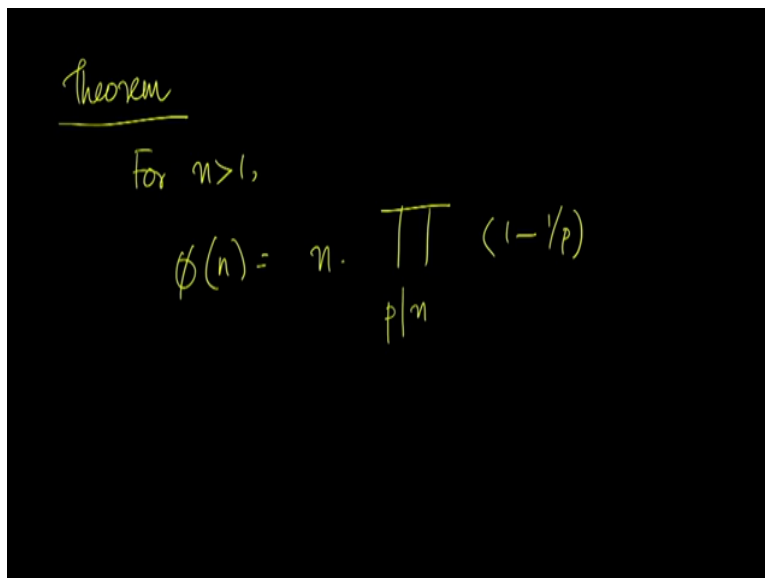
(Refer Slide Time: 05:25)

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \exists x_0' \in C & \left[x_0 \equiv x_0' \pmod{mn} \right] \\ \Rightarrow |C| & \geq |A \times B| \\ \Rightarrow \phi(mn) & \geq \phi(m) \phi(n) \end{aligned}$$

$$\phi(mn) = \phi(m) \phi(n)$$

Which means there exists an x not prime belonging to C, such that x naught is congruent to x naught prime modulo mn, C is reduced residue systems modulo mn therefore there should be an x naught prime which is congruent to x naught in that. This establishes that the size of C is greater than or equal to the size of A cross B, that is for each ordered pair or s belonging to A cross B. We have been able to find an element x naught prime in other words phi of mn is greater than or equal to phi of m into phi of n. So combining both we have the theorem when m and n are relatively prime then phi of mn is equal to phi of m into phi of n.

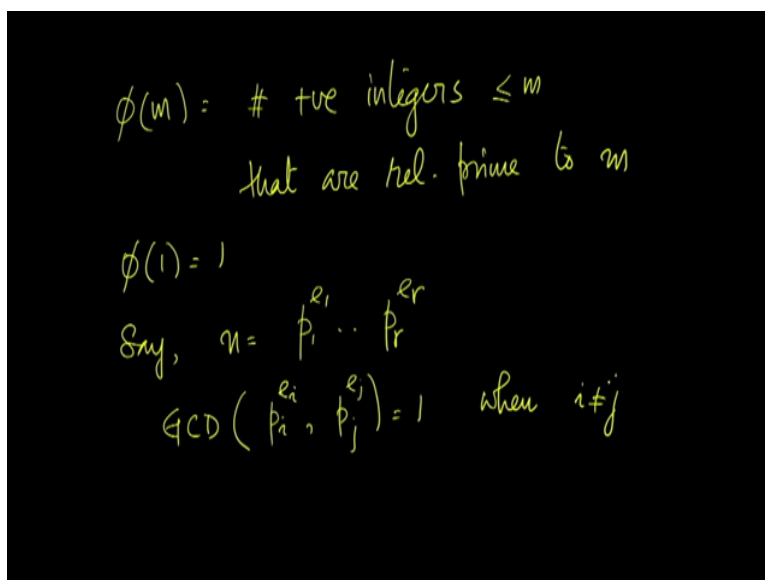
(Refer Slide Time: 06:30)



Theorem
For $n > 1$,
$$\phi(n) = n \cdot \prod_{p|n} (1 - 1/p)$$

Another interesting theorem which allows us to calculate phi easily, for n greater than 1 phi of n is equal to n times the product over all p which divides n of 1 minus 1 by p . So this makes it easy to calculate the phi function for you unfairly large numbers.

(Refer Slide Time: 07:04)



$$\phi(m) = \# \text{ +ve integers } \leq m$$

that are rel. prime to m
$$\phi(1) = 1$$

Say, $n = p_1^{e_1} \cdot p_r^{e_r}$
$$\text{GCD}(p_i^{e_i}, p_j^{e_j}) = 1 \text{ when } i \neq j$$

From the definition we know that phi m is the number of positive integers greater than or equal to 1, less than or equal to m that are relatively prime to m , we know phi of 1 equal to 1. Say the given number n is prime factorized in this fashion p_1 power e_1 etc upto p_r power e_r where p_i is the i th prime number. So this is the prime factorization therefore p_i and p_j are not

the same when i not equal to j , which means the GCD of p_i power e_i and p_j power e_j is 1 when i not equal to j .

(Refer Slide Time: 08:09)

The image shows a handwritten derivation on a black background. The first line is $\phi(n) = \prod_{i=1}^r \phi(p_i^{e_i})$, with a question mark below the product term. The second line is $\phi(p^e) = p^e - |\{p, p^2, \dots, p^e\}|$. The third line is $= p^e - \frac{p^e}{p} = \underline{\underline{p^e(1 - 1/p)}}$.

So by default the previous theorem we can express phi of n as the product over i varying from 1 to r of phi of p_i power e_i but what is this quantity? Let us compute this first phi of p power e so here we consider all integers less than or equal to p power e all positive integers less than or equal to p power e and from this we remove all numbers that are divisors of p power e .

The size of the resultant that is phi of p power e , that is we consider the reduced residue systems, then the reduced residue system will have these many elements, p power e minus the size of all divisors of p power e but what are the divisors of p power e . there p , p square, etc upto p power e , but what is this quantity? That is p power e divided by p , so this can be written as p power e into $1 - 1/p$, so that is the phi value of p power e .

(Refers Slide Time: 09:35)

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(n) &= \prod_{i=1}^r p_i^{e_i} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right) \\ &= \left(\prod_{i=1}^r p_i^{e_i} \right) \left(\prod_{i=1}^r \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right) \right) \\ &= \boxed{n \cdot \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)}\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, coming back to this equation we can write phi of n as product of i varying from 1 to r of p i power e i into 1 minus 1 by using this form, but this is pie varying from 1 to r of pi power e i and again pie varying from 1 to r of 1 minus 1 by pi but the quantity within the first bracket is nothing but n, so this is n multiplied by the product over phi varying from 1 to r of 1 minus 1 by pi.

Which means we are considering all prime numbers that divide n, so this product is actually over all prime numbers that divide n, for each such prime number 1 minus 1 by p has to be multiplied together, so this product is what phi of n is.

(Refer Slide Time: 10:46)

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(10) &= \phi(2 \cdot 5) = 10 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{5}\right) \\ &= 10 \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{4}{5} = \underline{\underline{4}} \\ \phi(400) &= \phi(2^4 \cdot 5^2) = 400 \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{5}\right) \\ &= 400 \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{4}{5} = \underline{\underline{160}}\end{aligned}$$

For example, let us calculate phi of 10 which is taking the prime factorization of 10 this is phi of 2 into 5 then that would be 10 multiplied by 1 minus 1 by 2, 2 is a prime which divides 10 and 5 is a prime which divides 10 therefore this is 10 into half into 4 by 5, so phi of 10 is 4. Let us now compute phi of 400, phi of 400 is phi of 2 power 4 into 5 power 2 so there are two primes here 2 and 5 again, so this will be n into 1 minus 1 by 2 into 1 minus 1 by 5, this is 400 into half into 4 by 5, 200 into 0.8 which is 160. So phi of 400 is 160 which we have used in an example earlier in one of the earlier lectures.

(Refer Slide Time: 12:03)

The image shows a handwritten derivation on a black background. It starts with the expression $\phi(2^4 \cdot 7^6 \cdot 13^3)$. The calculation proceeds as follows:

$$\phi(2^4 \cdot 7^6 \cdot 13^3) = 2^4 \cdot 7^6 \cdot 13^3 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{6}{7} \cdot \frac{12}{13}$$

$$= \underline{\underline{2^3 \cdot 7^5 \cdot 13^2 \cdot 6 \cdot 12}}$$
 The final result is underlined twice.

Phi of 2 power 4 multiplied by 7 power 6 multiplied by 13 power 3 is this number 2 power 4 into 7 power 6 into 13 power 3 multiplied by 1 minus 1 by 2 which is 1 by 2, 1 minus 1 by 7 which is 6 by 7 and 1 minus 1 by 13 which is 12 by 13, that would be 2 power 3, 7 power 5, 13 power 2, multiplied by 6 and 12. So this is phi value of this number.

(Refer Slide Time: 12:51)

Theorem If $n > 1$, $\sum_{d|n} \phi(d) = n$

Proof $n = p^e$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{d|n} \phi(d) &= \phi(1) + \phi(p) + \phi(p^2) + \dots + \phi(p^e) \\ &= 1 + (p-1) + (p^2-p) + \dots + (p^e - p^{e-1}) \\ &= p^e = n \end{aligned}$$

Now from this we can prove another interesting result, if n is a positive integer sum of ϕ of d over all divisors d of n is n , the proof goes this way first consider numbers of the form p power e so n is p power e let us say, then we are summing over all divisors of n of ϕ of d .

So this would be ϕ of 1 plus ϕ of p plus ϕ of p square etc, all the way upto ϕ of p power e , these are the divisors of n when n is of the form p power e , $1, p, p$ square etc are the divisors of n . but ϕ of 1 is 1 , ϕ of p is p minus 1 as we have seen before ϕ of p power e is p power into 1 minus 1 by p .

So, ϕ of p square would be p square into 1 minus 1 by p which is p square minus p then we have p cube minus p squared eliminating with p power e minus p power e minus 1 , so we find that the sum telescopes 1 and 1 cancel, p and minus p cancel, p squared and minus p squared cancel, p cube cancels, p power e minus 1 cancels what remains is p power e which is nothing but n . So the theorem holds when n is of the form p power e .

(Refer Slide Time: 14:44)

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{Say } n = k \cdot p^e \text{ for integer } k \\
 & \quad \text{s.t. } p \nmid k \\
 \\
 & \sum_{d|n} \phi(d) = \sum_{d|k} \phi(d) + \sum_{d|k} \phi(pd) + \dots + \sum_{d|k} \phi(p^e d) \\
 \\
 & = \sum_{d|k} \phi(d) + \sum_{d|k} \phi(p) \phi(d) + \dots + \sum_{d|k} \phi(p^e) \phi(d) \\
 \\
 & = \left[\sum_{d|k} \phi(d) \right] \left(1 + \phi(p) + \phi(p^2) + \dots + \phi(p^e) \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, suppose n is of the form k times p power e for integer k such that p does not divide k , so k and p power e are relatively prime to each other, then our required sum, sum over all divisors of n of ϕ of d can be written like this. First consider all divisors of k , so this is the part of the sum but then that is not the whole of it.

We also consider all divisors of pd that have not been considered before that is for every divisor d of k we consider pd , continuing like this if you sum in this fashion we would exhaust all divisors of n , so all these sums are over divisors of k , but then since d and p are relatively prime to each other this can be written in this fashion the first term does not change the second term can be written like this ϕ of p into ϕ of d .

Here it is ϕ of p power e into ϕ of d , then this is a common factor this is taken outside we have $1 + \phi$ of p plus ϕ of p square plus etc all the way up to ϕ of p power e , but this is the sum that we have just seen since 1 is the same as ϕ of 1 it is identical to this sum which we know evaluates to p power e .

(Refer Slide Time: 17:00)

$$= \left[\sum_{d|k} \phi(d) \right] p^e$$

$$= \underline{k \cdot p^e} = \underline{n}$$

Therefore, this is the quantity within the square brackets which is sigma d that divides k of phi of d into p power e, but this quantity inductively we assume is k then we have the sum reducing to k into p power e which is nothing but n, and that is what we seek to prove so the case for p power e is the basis and inductively here we apply the hypothesis that this sum evaluates to k, therefore the induction holds so inductively we prove the statement.

(Refer Slide Time: 17:51)

eg: $n = 24$

1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12, 24

$\phi(1) = 1$ $\phi(6) = 6 \times (1 - \frac{1}{2}) \times (1 - \frac{1}{3})$
 $\phi(2) = 1$ $= 6 \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{2}{3} = 2$
 $\phi(3) = 2$ $\phi(8) = 4$
 $\phi(4) = 2$ $\phi(12) = 12 \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{2}{3} = 4$
 $\phi(24) = 8$

1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 4, 4, 8 \rightarrow 24

For example, let us say n equals to 24 and the divisors 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12 and 24. Phi of 1 is 1, phi of 2 is 1, phi of 3 is 2, phi of 4 is 2 that is 1 and 3 now phi of 6 using the formula would be 6 multiplied by 1 minus 1 by p for every primes, so 2 and 3 are the primes which coexist

and 6 so have 1 minus 1 by 2 into 1 minus 1 by 3 which is 6 into half into 2 by 3 which is 2, So phi of 6 is 2. Phi of 8 similarly is 4, phi of 12 is 12 into half into 2 by 3 which is 4, phi of 24 is 8 so summing all these values 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 4, 4 and 8 you find that the sum comes to 24.

(Refer Slide Time: 19:19)

eg: 3000

1	1	3000	800
2	1	1500	400
3	2	1000	400
4	2	750	200
5	4	600	160
6	2	500	200
8	4	375	200
10	4	300	80
12	4	250	100
15	8	200	80

Taking the larger example, consider n equals 3000 then the factors would be 1 3000, 2 1500, 3 1000, 4 750, 5 600, 6 500, 8 375, 10 300, 12 250, 15 200. So these are sum of the factors if you compute the corresponding phi values you find these are 3000 you can see that the phi value is 800, 1500 it is 400 for 1000 again it is 400, for 750 it is 200, 600 is 160, 500 is 200, 375 is 200, 300 is 80, 250 is 100, 200 is 80.

(Refer Slide Time: 20:59)

20	8	150	40
24	8	125	100
25	20	120	32
30	8	100	40
40	16	75	40
50	20	60	16

3000

The remaining factors would be 20, 24, 25, 30, 40, 50, 50 into 60 is 3000, 40 into 75, 30 into 100, 25 into 120, 24 into 125, 20 into 150 so the corresponding phi values would be 8, 8, 20, 8, 16, 20 for 150 it is 40, for 125 it is 100, for 120 it is 32, for 100 it is 40, 75 it is 40 again, for 60 it is 16. So these are the phi values if you add up all the phi values together you find that the sum comes to 3000 again, this is what n is.

(Refer Slide Time: 22:16)

Z_m : integers mod m
 $Z_m = \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$ $|Z_m| = m$
 Z is a CRS mod.

By Z_m we denote integers modulo m , there is Z_m is 0 to m minus 1 the cardinality of Z_m would be m , so as you can see Z_m is a complete a residue system module m .

(Refer Slide Time: 22:48)

+ operation Z_5

+	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4	0
2	2	3	4	0	1
3	3	4	0	1	2
4	4	0	1	2	3

We can define the addition operation on Z_m plus you can draw up a table so here let us consider the table of Z_5 , so 0 plus X is X, 1 plus 4 is 5 which is 0 modulo 5, 2 plus 4 is 6 which is 1 modulo 5, 3 plus 4 is 7 which is 2 modulo 5, 4 plus 4 is 8 which is 3 modulo 5. So this is the addition table for Z_5 .

(Refer Slide Time: 24:00)

x operation on Z_5

x	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4
2	0	2	4	1	3
3	0	3	1	4	2
4	0	4	3	2	①

When we come to the multiplication operation on Z_5 0 into X is 0. So the top row is all 0 similarly the left most column is also all 0, 1 into X is X so here we have values in this fashion, now 2 into 2 is 4, 4 is 4 mod 5, 2 into 3 is 6 so we have 1 mod 5 here 2 into 4 is 8 which is 3 mod 5, 3 into 2 is 6 which is 1 mod 5, 3 into 3 is 9 which is 4 mod 5, 3 into 4 7 which is 2 mod 5, 4 into is 8 which is 3 mod 5, 4 into 3 is 7 which is 2 mod 5, 4 into 4 is 16

which is $1 \pmod{5}$. So this is the multiplication table on \mathbb{Z}_5 , so from the table you find that 4 into 4 is 16 which is $1 \pmod{5}$.

(Refer Slide Time: 25:23)

Handwritten mathematical work on a blackboard:

$$4 \times 4 = 16 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$$

i.e., 4 is a soln of $4x \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$

$$\text{GCD}(5, 4) : \text{GCD}(4, 1) = 1$$
$$1 = 1 \times 5 - 1 \times 4$$
$$1 \equiv 4 \times (-1) \pmod{5}$$
$$\underline{x \equiv -1 \pmod{5}} \qquad x \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$$

For example, that is 4 is the solution of $4x$ equals $1 \pmod{5}$. Recalled we solved such equations using Euclid's algorithm, GCD of 5, 4 is the same as GCD of 4, 1 which is 1 therefore 1 is $1 \pmod{5}$ minus $1 \pmod{4}$ if you take $\pmod{5}$ on both sides you have 1 congruent to 4 into minus 1 $\pmod{5}$. So minus 1 is a solution for this equation. So x congruent to minus 1 $\pmod{5}$ is a solution but then minus 1 is congruent to 4 so this is the same as x congruent 4 $\pmod{5}$.

(Refer Slide Time: 26:37)

$$\begin{aligned} & \underline{x^2 + 2x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}} \\ & \text{CRS mod 4 } \{0, 1, 2, 3\} \\ & 0^2 + 2 \times 0 + 1 = 1 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{4} \\ & 1^2 + 2 \times 1 + 1 = 4 \equiv 0 \pmod{4} \quad (1) \\ & 4 + 4 + 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ & 9 + 6 + 1 = 16 \equiv 0 \pmod{4} \quad (3) \end{aligned}$$

Let us now consider some quadratic congruencies, $x^2 + 2x + 1$ is congruent to 0 mod 4, the complete residue system mod 4 has 4 members this is one complete residue system, so we can try its members. So when x equals to 0 we have 0 squared plus 2 into 0 plus 1 which is 1 this is not congruent to 0 mod 4, so 0 is not a solution so if you put 1 here we have 1 squared plus 2 into 1 plus 1 which is 1 plus 2 plus 1 which is 4 that is 0 mod 4.

Which means 1 is a solution, if you put 2 in we have 2 squared which is 4 plus 2 into 2 which is 4 plus 1 so that is 8 plus 1 9 which is 1 mod 4 so this is not a solution when you have 3 into 3 9, 2 into 3 6 plus 1 which is 16 which is 0 mod 4. So this is a solution 2, so 1 and 3 or two solutions for this quadratic congruence and modulo 4 this are the only solutions, modulo 4 there could be 4 solutions we have tried all of them and we found that only 1 and 3 are solutions. By what we have seen earlier if for in any complete residue system modulo 4 there will be exactly 2 members that are solutions for this quadratic congruent those two solutions would be congruent to 1 and 3 respectively modulo 4.

(Refer Slide Time: 28:35)

$$x^2 + x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$

0	1	2	3
1	3	3	1

No solution

Consider another quadratic congruence, again we are considering CRS modulo 4 so we can consider the members of CRS 0, 1, 2, 3 or members of Z_4 then when you plug in these values for x from 0 you get 1, from 1 you get 1 plus 1 plus 1 which is 3, from 2 you have 4 plus 2 6 plus 1 7, 7 mod 4 is 3 and then from 3 you find 9 plus 3 12 plus 1 13 which is 1 mod 4. So we find that none of them will provide a solution, so this quadratic congruent is without a solution so it is possible for congruence to have no solution.

(Refer Slide Time: 29:32)

$$x^2 + 3x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$

0	1	2	3
1	1	3	3

No soln

$$2x^2 + x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$

0	1	2	3
1	0	3	2

→ 1 is a unique soln

Consider another one $x^2 + 3x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ this is what we want to solve again when you consider 0, 1, 2, 3 you find that the values are 1 1 3 3 again there is no solution. If

you consider $2x^2 + x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$, if this is the case then for 0, 1, 2, 3 you find that the values are 1, 0, 3 and 2, so there is a unique solution here, 1 is a unique solution.

(Refer Slide Time: 30:22)

$x^2 - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{8}$

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	0	3	0	7	0	3	0

4 solutions .
 $\{1, 3, 5, 7\}$

Consider $x^2 - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{8}$, so here the members of \mathbb{Z}_8 would be 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7. So if you evaluate here for 0 $x^2 - 1$ is -1 which is $7 \pmod{8}$, for 1 it is $1 - 1 = 0$, for 2 it is $4 - 1 = 3$, for 3 it is $9 - 1 = 8$ which is 0 , for 4 it is $16 - 1 = 15$ which is 7 again.

For 5 $25 - 1 = 24$, for 6 $35 - 1 = 34$ which is 3 , for 7 it is $49 - 1 = 48$ which is $0 \pmod{8}$ so you find that there are 4 solutions, so the solution set is $\{1, 3, 5, 7\}$. If you find that the number of solutions could be larger than the degree of the polynomial, so here we have a quadratic polynomial for the number of solutions is 4.

(Refer Slide Time: 31:38)

Consider polynomials over \mathbb{Z}_5

$$f(x) = 6x^3 - 4x^2 + 5x - 4$$
$$g(x) = 3x^3 + x^2 - 6x + 1$$

$$f(x) \equiv x^3 + x^2 + 0x + 1 \pmod{5}$$
$$g(x) \equiv 3x^3 + x^2 + 4x + 1 \pmod{5}$$

$$f(x) + g(x) \equiv 4x^3 + 2x^2 + 4x + 2 \pmod{5}$$

Regarding polynomial addition, multiplication consider these 2 polynomials over \mathbb{Z}_5 , let us say f of x is $6x$ cube minus $4x$ squared plus $5x$ minus 4 , g of x is $3x$ cube plus x squared minus $6x$ plus 1 . These can be simplified in this fashion, f of x is the sum of the first term of $6x$ cube but since $5x$ cube for any integer x is divisible by 5 this can be written as x cube minus 4 is congruent to 1 modulo 5 .

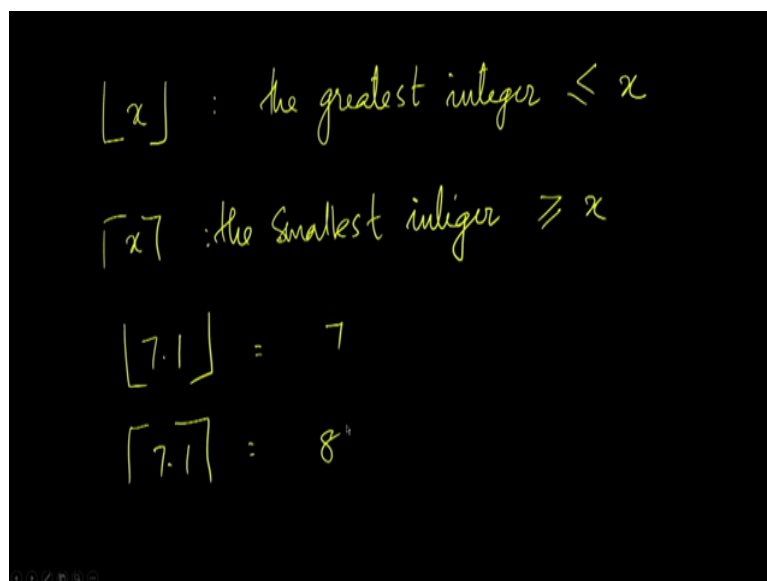
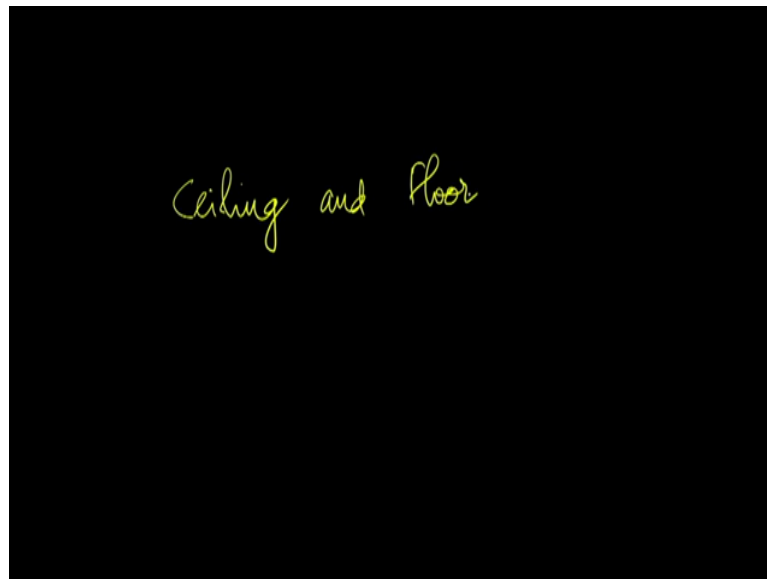
So this can be written as x squared, $5x$ is divisible by 5 so we have $0x$ and then minus 4 is congruent to plus 1 again so we have plus 1 , so f of x can be written in this simplified form modulo 5 . So we say f of x is congruent to this polynomial modulo 5 , similarly g of x is congruent to $3x$ cube plus x squared minus $6x$ is the same as minus x which is the same plus $4x$ and plus 1 . If you were to add these polynomials the sum would be $4x$ cube plus $2x$ squared plus $4x$ plus 2 mod 5 .

(Refer Slide Time: 33:44)

$$\begin{array}{l} f(x) = 6x^3 - 4x^2 + 5x - 4 \\ h(x) = 2x + 7 \\ \hline f(x) \equiv x^3 + x^2 + 1 \pmod{5} \\ h(x) \equiv 2x + 2 \pmod{5} \\ \hline f(x)h(x) = \begin{array}{r} 2x^4 + 2x^3 + 2x \\ 2x^3 + 2x^2 + 2 \\ \hline 2x^4 + 4x^3 + 4x^2 + 2 \pmod{5} \end{array} \end{array}$$

Once again if f of x is $6x$ cube minus $4x$ squared plus $5x$ minus 4 and h of x is $2x$ plus 7 then as before we can simplify the f of x is congruent to x cube plus x squared plus 1 h of x is congruent to this is of course mod 5 , f of x is congruent to $2x$ plus 2 mod 5 again then if you take the product f of x into h of x to get $2x$ power 4 plus $2x$ cube plus $2x$, $2x$ cube plus $2x$ square plus 2 which is $2x$ power 4 plus $4x$ cube plus $4x$ squared plus 2 . So that is how you add and multiply polynomials in modular arithmetic.

(Refer Slide Time: 35:05)



Now, let us study the Ceiling and Floor functions. The floor of x is defined as the greatest integer less than or equal to x and the ceiling effects is defined as the smallest integer greater than or equal to x , for example floor of 7.1 is 7 ceiling of 7.1 is 8.

(Refer Slide Time: 35:53)

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Thm 1} \quad \lfloor x \rfloor \leq x < \lfloor x \rfloor + 1 ; \\ \quad \quad \quad x - 1 < \lfloor x \rfloor ; \\ \quad \quad \quad 0 \leq x - \lfloor x \rfloor < 1 \\ \hline \text{Proof} \quad x = n + \epsilon \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad 0 \leq \epsilon < 1 \\ \quad \quad \quad \lfloor x \rfloor = \lfloor n + \epsilon \rfloor = n \leq n + \epsilon = x \\ \quad \quad \quad < n + 1 = \lfloor x \rfloor + 1 \end{array}$$

So, let us see a few results regarding the ceiling and floor functions, the first theorem says that floor of x is less than or equal to x . which is less than floor of x plus 1 and x minus 1 is less than floor of x and 0 is less than or equal to x minus floor of x which is less than 1, so to prove this suppose x is n plus epsilon for an integer n and a epsilon which is between 0 and 1.

Epsilon could be 0 but epsilon is less than 1, then the floor of x is the floor of n plus epsilon which is n this is less than or equal to n plus epsilon naturally because epsilon is between 0 and 1 but this is what x is. So we have that the floor of x is less than or equal to x but x is n plus epsilon which is less than n plus 1 because epsilon is less than 1 this is as we have seen n is floor of x so this is floor of x plus 1, so which proves the first line here.

(Refer Slide Time: 37:30)

$$x-1 = n+\epsilon-1 < n \leq n+\epsilon$$
$$0 \leq n+\epsilon-n = \epsilon < 1$$

x minus 1 is n plus ϵ minus 1 which is less than n which is less than or equal to n plus ϵ which proves the second line, 0 is less than or equal to n plus ϵ minus n because ϵ is greater than or equal to 0 this is of course ϵ which is less than 1 which proves the third line.

(Refer Slide Time: 37:57)

Thm 2 $\lfloor x \rfloor = \sum_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq x \\ i \in \mathbb{Z}}} 1$

Proof $x = n + \epsilon$
 $\lfloor x \rfloor = n \quad \sum_{1 \leq i \leq x} 1 = n$

Floor of x is also equal to the sum over 1 less than or equal to i less than or equal to x . Where i is an integer of 1 thus the prove consider x is n plus ϵ where ϵ is as before then

floor of x is n that is what the left hand side then sigma 1 less than or equal to i less than or equal to x for integer i would be less than n .

(Refer Slide Time: 38:38)

Theorem 3 $\lfloor x+j \rfloor = \lfloor x \rfloor + j \quad j \in \mathbb{Z}$

Say $x = n + \epsilon$

$$\lfloor x+j \rfloor = \lfloor n+j+\epsilon \rfloor = n+j = \text{LHS}$$

$$\lfloor x \rfloor = n \quad \text{RHS } n+j$$

Thirdly the floor of x plus j is the floor of x plus j for any integer j belonging to \mathbb{Z} any j belonging to \mathbb{Z} , say x is n plus epsilon where epsilon is as before then floor of x plus j would be the floor of n plus j plus epsilon, n is an integer j is also an integer so n plus j is an integer, so this would be n plus j . Floor of x is n so the right hand side is n plus j which is the same as the left hand side.

(Refer Slide Time: 39:30)

Theorem 4 $\lfloor x \rfloor + \lfloor y \rfloor \leq \lfloor x+y \rfloor \leq \lfloor x \rfloor + \lfloor y \rfloor + 1$

$x = n + \epsilon \quad 0 \leq \epsilon, \delta < 1$
 $y = m + \delta$

$$n+m = \lfloor x \rfloor + \lfloor y \rfloor \leq \lfloor x+y \rfloor = \lfloor n+m+\epsilon+\delta \rfloor$$

$$= \begin{matrix} n+m \\ \text{or} \\ n+m+1 \end{matrix} \leq n+m+1 = \lfloor x \rfloor + \lfloor y \rfloor + 1$$

The next theorem says that floor of x plus floor of y is less than or equal to floor of x plus y , which is less than or equal to floor of x plus floor of y plus 1. Let us say x is n plus epsilon and y is m plus delta where 0 less than or equal to epsilon and delta which are less than 1. Then n plus m this is what floor of x plus floor of y is this is less than or equal to floor of x plus y which is n plus m plus epsilon plus delta.

So depending on epsilon and delta this is either n plus m or n plus m plus 1, so indeed the first inequality holds n plus m is less than or equal to this and this is less than or equal to n plus m plus 1 which is what floor of x plus floor of y plus 1 is therefore the second inequality 2.

(Refer Slide Time: 40:53)

Thm 5 $\lfloor x \rfloor + \lfloor -x \rfloor = 0$ if x is an int
is -1 otherwise

$x = n + \epsilon \quad 0 < \epsilon < 1$
 $\lfloor x \rfloor = n \quad \lfloor -x \rfloor = \lfloor -n - \epsilon \rfloor = -(n+1)$

$n + -(n+1) = -1$
 $x = n \quad \lfloor x \rfloor = n \quad \lfloor -x \rfloor = -n \quad \underline{0}$

Floor of x plus floor of minus x equal to 0 if x is an integer is minus 1 otherwise, so let us consider a non-integer first, suppose x is n plus epsilon where epsilon is neither 0 nor 1. It is strictly between 0 and 1 in which case floor of x is n floor of minus x is floor of minus n minus epsilon, so we are looking at the integer which is smaller than this but as the greatest there will be minus of n plus 1.

Therefore, when you take the sum you have n plus minus of n plus 1 which is minus 1, now if x is an integer floor of x is the same as n minus of x is minus n the floor of minus n is minus n therefore the sum would be 0 as a theorem claims.

(Refer Slide Time: 42:21)

Thm 6 $\lfloor \frac{\lfloor x \rfloor}{j} \rfloor = \lfloor \frac{x}{j} \rfloor$ if j is a +ve integer

Proof $x = n + \delta$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ $0 \leq \delta < 1$

$n = qj + r$, $0 \leq r < j$

$x = qj + r + \delta$

LHS: $\lfloor \frac{\lfloor x \rfloor}{j} \rfloor = \lfloor \frac{qj+r}{j} \rfloor = \lfloor q + \frac{r}{j} \rfloor = \underline{\underline{q}}$

The floor of floor of x by j is floor of x by j if j is a positive integer, to prove this let us assume that x is n plus δ for an integer n and $0 \leq \delta < 1$, suppose n is qj plus r for any n and any j we can write n as qj plus r where r is greater than or equal to 0 but less than j .

Then x is qj plus r plus δ now let us consider the left hand side the ceiling the floor of x is qj plus r so we have the floor of qj plus r by j which is the floor of q plus r by j , since r is less than j this fraction r by j is strictly less than 1 , therefore this would be q , so the left hand side is q .

(Refer Slide Time: 43:50)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{RHS} &= \left\lfloor \frac{x}{j} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{qj+r+\delta}{j} \right\rfloor \\ &= \left\lfloor q + \frac{r+\delta}{j} \right\rfloor \quad r+\delta < j \\ &= q = \text{LHS} \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

Now the right hand side is floor of x by j which is floor of qj plus r plus δ divided by j which is q plus r plus δ by j floor but r plus δ is less than j , r is less than j so r can be at most j minus 1 and δ is strictly less than 1, so r plus δ is less than j therefore the fraction r plus δ by j is less than 1 so this would be q , which is same as the left hand side. So theorem is then proved.

(Refer Slide Time: 44:37)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Theorem 7} \quad & -\lfloor -x \rfloor = \lceil x \rceil \\ \text{Say } x &= n+\epsilon \quad 0 < \epsilon \leq 1 \\ \lceil x \rceil &= n+1 = \text{RHS} \\ -x &= -n-\epsilon \quad \lfloor -x \rfloor = -n-1 \\ \text{LHS} &= -\lfloor -x \rfloor = n+1 = \text{RHS} \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

The seventh result would be this, the negative of the floor of minus x is same as ceiling affects say x is n plus ϵ for 0 less than ϵ less than or equal to 1 , note here I have

taken epsilon as strictly greater than 0 where n is an integer. Then ceiling of x is n plus 1 this is what right hand side is.

Minus of x is minus n minus epsilon, the floor of minus x therefore is minus n minus 1 then negative of that this is what the left hand side is that will be n plus 1 this is the right hand side, hence the result holds.

(Refer Slide Time: 45:40)

Theorem 8 $\lfloor x + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor = \text{round}(x)$
 where $\frac{1}{2}$'s are rounded upwards

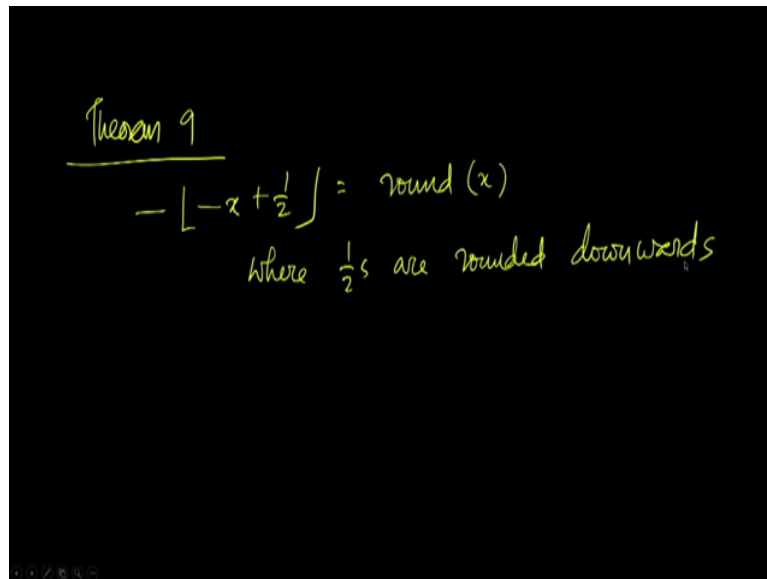
if $x = n$ $\lfloor x + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor = \lfloor n + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor = n = \text{round}(x)$
 if $x = n + \epsilon$ $0 < \epsilon < \frac{1}{2}$ $\lfloor x + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor = \lfloor n + \epsilon + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor = n = \text{round}(x)$
 if $x = n + \epsilon$ $\frac{1}{2} \leq \epsilon < 1$ $\lfloor x + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor = \lfloor n + \epsilon + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor = n + 1 = \text{round}(x)$

The floor of x plus half is round of x where halves are rounded upwards, for example round of 7.5 is 8 because a half is rounded upwards to prove this first consider x is equal to n there is no fractional part then floor of x plus half is the floor of n plus half which is n but this is the same as round of x.

Since x is an integer round of x is the same as round of n if x is n plus epsilon where epsilon is greater than 0 but less than half then floor of x plus half is the floor of n plus epsilon plus half which is n. epsilon is less than half so epsilon plus half together will not make up one so the floor here is 1, floor here is n.

Which is the same as round of x, since epsilon is not large enough the round function will not round upwards if x is n plus epsilon for epsilon there is greater than or equal to half but less than 1 floor of x plus half would be floor of n plus epsilon plus half which is n plus 1 which is the same as round of x, so in this case epsilon could be half in which case x would be rounded upwards.

(Refer Slide Time: 47:58)



Theorem 9
$$- \lfloor -x + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor = \text{round}(x)$$

where $\frac{1}{2}$ s are rounded downwards

Analogously, negative of the floor of negative x plus half is round of x where halves are rounded downwards, the prove is a develop a previous one so I leave it as an exercise.

(Refer Slide Time: 48:21)

Theorem 10 $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$
 $\lfloor n/m \rfloor$ is the no. of integers in $[1, n]$
divisible by m

Say $n = qm + r$, $0 \leq r < m$
 $\lfloor n/m \rfloor = \lfloor q + \frac{r}{m} \rfloor = q$
integers in $[1, n]$ divisible by m are
 $\{m, 2m, \dots, qm\}$

there are q of them.

Another result about ceiling and floor is this for n and m belonging to \mathbb{Z} plus set of positive integers floor of n by m is the number of integers in the range 1 to n divisible by m , say n is qm plus r for any 2 positive integers n and m we can write n as qm plus r for r that is greater than or equal to 0 but less than m .

Then, floor of n by m is the floor of q plus r by m which is q because r by m is less than 1, so integers n 1 to n divisible by m are will formed the set $m, 2m, 3m$, etc upto qm , n is qm plus r therefore n is greater than or equal to qm . So there are q of them hence the theorem.

(Refer Slide Time: 50:00)

Theorem 11

$$\text{For } n, m \in \mathbb{Z}^+, \quad \lfloor \frac{n}{m} \rfloor = \lceil \frac{n-m+1}{m} \rceil$$

$$\lfloor \frac{n}{m} \rfloor = \lfloor \frac{qm+r}{m} \rfloor = \lfloor q + \frac{r}{m} \rfloor = q$$

$$\lceil \frac{n-m+1}{m} \rceil = \lceil \frac{qm+r-m+1}{m} \rceil = \lceil q-1 + \frac{r+1}{m} \rceil$$

$$= \lceil q-1 + \epsilon \rceil \text{ if } r+1 < m \quad (\underline{q})$$

$$= \lceil q-1+1 \rceil = \lceil q \rceil = \underline{q} \text{ if } r+1 = m$$

For n, m which are in \mathbb{Z} plus floor of n by m is the same as the ceiling of n minus m plus 1 divided by m , so again assume that n can be expressed as qm plus r as before so floor of n by m is the floor of q plus r by m which is floor of q plus r by m which is q as we have seen before.

Then the ceiling of n minus m plus 1 by m would be the ceiling of qm plus r minus plus 1 divided by m , which is the ceiling of q minus 1 plus r plus 1 by m , this is q minus 1 plus a fraction epsilon r plus 1 by m is less than 1 when r plus 1 is less than m and therefore this quantity will be q , this would be ceiling of q minus 1 plus 1 which is a ceiling of q which is again q if r plus 1 equal to m .

Since our range is from 0 to r minus 1 both inclusive r plus 1 is either less than 1 or is equal to m either less than m or is equal to m so these are the only 2 possibilities in both the cases we find that the right hand side evaluates to q hence the theorem. So that is it from this lecture this is the last lecture of the module and number theory hope to see you in the other modules thank you.