

The Rings \mathbb{Z}_n

Daniel H. Luecking

March 11, 2024

A couple of examples of finding inverses. Find the inverse of 100 in the ring \mathbb{Z}_{711} . Here's the Euclidean algorithm:

$$711 = 7(100) + 11$$

$$100 = 9(11) + 1$$

A couple of examples of finding inverses. Find the inverse of 100 in the ring \mathbb{Z}_{711} . Here's the Euclidean algorithm:

$$711 = 7(100) + 11$$

$$100 = 9(11) + 1$$

So $\gcd(711, 100) = 1$ and we know that 100 is invertible.

A couple of examples of finding inverses. Find the inverse of 100 in the ring \mathbb{Z}_{711} . Here's the Euclidean algorithm:

$$711 = 7(100) + 11$$

$$100 = 9(11) + 1$$

So $\gcd(711, 100) = 1$ and we know that 100 is invertible. With $n = 711$, $k = 100$, $r_1 = 11$ and $r_2 = 1$:

$$n = 7k + r_1$$

$$k = 9r_1 + r_2$$

A couple of examples of finding inverses. Find the inverse of 100 in the ring \mathbb{Z}_{711} . Here's the Euclidean algorithm:

$$711 = 7(100) + 11$$

$$100 = 9(11) + 1$$

So $\gcd(711, 100) = 1$ and we know that 100 is invertible. With $n = 711$, $k = 100$, $r_1 = 11$ and $r_2 = 1$:

$$n = 7k + r_1$$

$$k = 9r_1 + r_2$$

we can eliminate r_1 by inserting its value ($n - 7k$) in the second equation:

$$k = 9(n - 7k) + r_2 \quad \text{or} \quad r_2 = 64k - 9n \quad \text{or} \quad 1 = 64(100) - 9(711)$$

A couple of examples of finding inverses. Find the inverse of 100 in the ring \mathbb{Z}_{711} . Here's the Euclidean algorithm:

$$711 = 7(100) + 11$$

$$100 = 9(11) + 1$$

So $\gcd(711, 100) = 1$ and we know that 100 is invertible. With $n = 711$, $k = 100$, $r_1 = 11$ and $r_2 = 1$:

$$n = 7k + r_1$$

$$k = 9r_1 + r_2$$

we can eliminate r_1 by inserting its value ($n - 7k$) in the second equation:

$$k = 9(n - 7k) + r_2 \quad \text{or} \quad r_2 = 64k - 9n \quad \text{or} \quad 1 = 64(100) - 9(711)$$

This tells us that $64 \cdot 100 = 1$ in \mathbb{Z}_{711} so, $100^{-1} = 64$.

Lets take the same ring, \mathbb{Z}_{711} and find the inverse of 101.

$$711 = 7(101) + 4$$

$$101 = 25(4) + 1$$

Lets take the same ring, \mathbb{Z}_{711} and find the inverse of 101.

$$711 = 7(101) + 4$$

$$101 = 25(4) + 1$$

So $\gcd(711, 101) = 1$ and we know that 101 is invertible.

Lets take the same ring, \mathbb{Z}_{711} and find the inverse of 101.

$$711 = 7(101) + 4$$

$$101 = 25(4) + 1$$

So $\gcd(711, 101) = 1$ and we know that 101 is invertible. We can eliminate the intermediate remainder 4 by substituting $4 = (711) - 7(101)$ into the second equation:

$$(101) = 25((711) - 7(101)) + 1,$$

$$= 25(711) - 175(101) + 1,$$

or

$$1 = 176(101) - 25(711)$$

Lets take the same ring, \mathbb{Z}_{711} and find the inverse of 101.

$$711 = 7(101) + 4$$

$$101 = 25(4) + 1$$

So $\gcd(711, 101) = 1$ and we know that 101 is invertible. We can eliminate the intermediate remainder 4 by substituting $4 = (711) - 7(101)$ into the second equation:

$$(101) = 25((711) - 7(101)) + 1,$$

$$= 25(711) - 175(101) + 1,$$

or

$$1 = 176(101) - 25(711)$$

This tells us that $176 \cdot 101 = 1$ in \mathbb{Z}_{711} so, $101^{-1} = 176$.

Counting units

Counting how many units \mathbb{Z}_n has is the same as counting the number of integers k between 1 and n that satisfy $\gcd(n, k) = 1$.

Counting units

Counting how many units \mathbb{Z}_n has is the same as counting the number of integers k between 1 and n that satisfy $\gcd(n, k) = 1$. This was first accomplished by *Euler*, who denoted the number by $\phi(n)$. Nowadays, ϕ is called *Euler's totient function* or the *Euler ϕ -function*.

Counting units

Counting how many units \mathbb{Z}_n has is the same as counting the number of integers k between 1 and n that satisfy $\gcd(n, k) = 1$. This was first accomplished by *Euler*, who denoted the number by $\phi(n)$. Nowadays, ϕ is called *Euler's totient function* or the *Euler ϕ -function*.

That is, $\phi(n)$ is the number of units in \mathbb{Z}_n or the number of k with $1 \leq k \leq n$ such that $\gcd(n, k) = 1$.

Counting units

Counting how many units \mathbb{Z}_n has is the same as counting the number of integers k between 1 and n that satisfy $\gcd(n, k) = 1$. This was first accomplished by *Euler*, who denoted the number by $\phi(n)$. Nowadays, ϕ is called *Euler's totient function* or the *Euler ϕ -function*.

That is, $\phi(n)$ is the number of units in \mathbb{Z}_n or the number of k with $1 \leq k \leq n$ such that $\gcd(n, k) = 1$.

If we know the prime factorization of n there is a relatively simple formula for $\phi(n)$. The first thing we remark is that if d evenly divides both k and n , then any prime factor of d also does so.

So, if we want to eliminate numbers with $\gcd(n, k) > 1$ we only need to test primes.
In fact we only need to test primes that divide n .

So, if we want to eliminate numbers with $\gcd(n, k) > 1$ we only need to test primes. In fact we only need to test primes that divide n .

Suppose p_1, p_2, p_3 are all the prime divisors of n . Then we want to count how many integers from 1 to n *do not* satisfy any of the following conditions

So, if we want to eliminate numbers with $\gcd(n, k) > 1$ we only need to test primes. In fact we only need to test primes that divide n .

Suppose p_1, p_2, p_3 are all the prime divisors of n . Then we want to count how many integers from 1 to n *do not* satisfy any of the following conditions

c_1 : divisible by p_1

c_2 : divisible by p_2

c_3 : divisible by p_3

So, if we want to eliminate numbers with $\gcd(n, k) > 1$ we only need to test primes. In fact we only need to test primes that divide n .

Suppose p_1, p_2, p_3 are all the prime divisors of n . Then we want to count how many integers from 1 to n *do not* satisfy any of the following conditions

c_1 : divisible by p_1

c_2 : divisible by p_2

c_3 : divisible by p_3

So we need to process an inclusion/exclusion problem:

So, if we want to eliminate numbers with $\gcd(n, k) > 1$ we only need to test primes. In fact we only need to test primes that divide n .

Suppose p_1, p_2, p_3 are all the prime divisors of n . Then we want to count how many integers from 1 to n *do not* satisfy any of the following conditions

c_1 : divisible by p_1

c_2 : divisible by p_2

c_3 : divisible by p_3

So we need to process an inclusion/exclusion problem: $N = n$,

So, if we want to eliminate numbers with $\gcd(n, k) > 1$ we only need to test primes. In fact we only need to test primes that divide n .

Suppose p_1, p_2, p_3 are all the prime divisors of n . Then we want to count how many integers from 1 to n *do not* satisfy any of the following conditions

c_1 : divisible by p_1

c_2 : divisible by p_2

c_3 : divisible by p_3

So we need to process an inclusion/exclusion problem: $N = n$, $N(c_1) = n/p_1$,

So, if we want to eliminate numbers with $\gcd(n, k) > 1$ we only need to test primes. In fact we only need to test primes that divide n .

Suppose p_1, p_2, p_3 are all the prime divisors of n . Then we want to count how many integers from 1 to n *do not* satisfy any of the following conditions

c_1 : divisible by p_1

c_2 : divisible by p_2

c_3 : divisible by p_3

So we need to process an inclusion/exclusion problem: $N = n$, $N(c_1) = n/p_1$,
 $N(c_2) = n/p_2$,

So, if we want to eliminate numbers with $\gcd(n, k) > 1$ we only need to test primes. In fact we only need to test primes that divide n .

Suppose p_1, p_2, p_3 are all the prime divisors of n . Then we want to count how many integers from 1 to n *do not* satisfy any of the following conditions

c_1 : divisible by p_1

c_2 : divisible by p_2

c_3 : divisible by p_3

So we need to process an inclusion/exclusion problem: $N = n$, $N(c_1) = n/p_1$,
 $N(c_2) = n/p_2$, $N(c_3) = n/p_3$,

So, if we want to eliminate numbers with $\gcd(n, k) > 1$ we only need to test primes. In fact we only need to test primes that divide n .

Suppose p_1, p_2, p_3 are all the prime divisors of n . Then we want to count how many integers from 1 to n *do not* satisfy any of the following conditions

c_1 : divisible by p_1

c_2 : divisible by p_2

c_3 : divisible by p_3

So we need to process an inclusion/exclusion problem: $N = n$, $N(c_1) = n/p_1$, $N(c_2) = n/p_2$, $N(c_3) = n/p_3$, So,

$$S_1 = n \left(\frac{1}{p_1} + \frac{1}{p_2} + \frac{1}{p_3} \right).$$

Continuing: The numbers that satisfy both c_1 and c_2 , those divisible by both p_1 and p_2 must be divisible by p_1p_2

Continuing: The numbers that satisfy both c_1 and c_2 , those divisible by both p_1 and p_2 must be divisible by p_1p_2 and there are $N(c_1c_2) = n/(p_1p_2)$ of those.

Continuing: The numbers that satisfy both c_1 and c_2 , those divisible by both p_1 and p_2 must be divisible by p_1p_2 and there are $N(c_1c_2) = n/(p_1p_2)$ of those. Similarly, $N(c_1c_3) = n/(p_1p_3)$, $N(c_2c_3) = n/(p_2p_3)$

Continuing: The numbers that satisfy both c_1 and c_2 , those divisible by both p_1 and p_2 must be divisible by p_1p_2 and there are $N(c_1c_2) = n/(p_1p_2)$ of those. Similarly, $N(c_1c_3) = n/(p_1p_3)$, $N(c_2c_3) = n/(p_2p_3)$ and so,

$$S_2 = n \left(\frac{1}{p_1p_2} + \frac{1}{p_1p_3} + \frac{1}{p_2p_3} \right).$$

Continuing: The numbers that satisfy both c_1 and c_2 , those divisible by both p_1 and p_2 must be divisible by p_1p_2 and there are $N(c_1c_2) = n/(p_1p_2)$ of those. Similarly, $N(c_1c_3) = n/(p_1p_3)$, $N(c_2c_3) = n/(p_2p_3)$ and so,

$$S_2 = n \left(\frac{1}{p_1p_2} + \frac{1}{p_1p_3} + \frac{1}{p_2p_3} \right).$$

and lastly

$$S_3 = n \left(\frac{1}{p_1p_2p_3} \right).$$

Continuing: The numbers that satisfy both c_1 and c_2 , those divisible by both p_1 and p_2 must be divisible by p_1p_2 and there are $N(c_1c_2) = n/(p_1p_2)$ of those. Similarly, $N(c_1c_3) = n/(p_1p_3)$, $N(c_2c_3) = n/(p_2p_3)$ and so,

$$S_2 = n \left(\frac{1}{p_1p_2} + \frac{1}{p_1p_3} + \frac{1}{p_2p_3} \right).$$

and lastly

$$S_3 = n \left(\frac{1}{p_1p_2p_3} \right).$$

Putting these together

$$\begin{aligned} N(\bar{c}_1\bar{c}_2\bar{c}_3) &= n - n \left(\frac{1}{p_1} + \frac{1}{p_2} + \frac{1}{p_3} \right) + n \left(\frac{1}{p_1p_2} + \frac{1}{p_1p_3} + \frac{1}{p_2p_3} \right) - n \left(\frac{1}{p_1p_2p_3} \right) \\ &= n \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1} - \frac{1}{p_2} - \frac{1}{p_3} + \frac{1}{p_1p_2} + \frac{1}{p_1p_3} + \frac{1}{p_2p_3} - \frac{1}{p_1p_2p_3} \right) \\ &= n \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1} \right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2} \right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_3} \right) \end{aligned}$$

All that was for 3 prime factors.

All that was for 3 prime factors. The formula for any number of primes is: if p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k are the *different* primes that divide n then

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(n) &= n \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_k}\right) \\ &= n \left(\frac{p_1 - 1}{p_1}\right) \left(\frac{p_2 - 1}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(\frac{p_k - 1}{p_k}\right)\end{aligned}$$

All that was for 3 prime factors. The formula for any number of primes is: if p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k are the *different* primes that divide n then

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(n) &= n \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_k}\right) \\ &= n \left(\frac{p_1 - 1}{p_1}\right) \left(\frac{p_2 - 1}{p_2}\right) \cdots \left(\frac{p_k - 1}{p_k}\right)\end{aligned}$$

In particular, if p is a prime number then $\phi(p) = p(1 - 1/p) = p - 1$, $\phi(p^2) = p^2(1 - 1/p) = p(p - 1)$, etc.

All that was for 3 prime factors. The formula for any number of primes is: if p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k are the *different* primes that divide n then

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(n) &= n \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_k}\right) \\ &= n \left(\frac{p_1 - 1}{p_1}\right) \left(\frac{p_2 - 1}{p_2}\right) \cdots \left(\frac{p_k - 1}{p_k}\right)\end{aligned}$$

In particular, if p is a prime number then $\phi(p) = p(1 - 1/p) = p - 1$, $\phi(p^2) = p^2(1 - 1/p) = p(p - 1)$, etc.

Some examples. $90 = 2(3^2)5$ so the prime divisors are 2, 3, and 5.

All that was for 3 prime factors. The formula for any number of primes is: if p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k are the *different* primes that divide n then

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(n) &= n \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_k}\right) \\ &= n \left(\frac{p_1 - 1}{p_1}\right) \left(\frac{p_2 - 1}{p_2}\right) \cdots \left(\frac{p_k - 1}{p_k}\right)\end{aligned}$$

In particular, if p is a prime number then $\phi(p) = p(1 - 1/p) = p - 1$, $\phi(p^2) = p^2(1 - 1/p) = p(p - 1)$, etc.

Some examples. $90 = 2(3^2)5$ so the prime divisors are 2, 3, and 5. Then

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(90) &= 90 \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{3}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{5}\right) \\ &= 2(3^2)5 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) \left(\frac{4}{5}\right) \\ &= 3(1)(2)(4) = 24\end{aligned}$$

Another example: find $\phi(2200)$. Since $2200 = 2^3 5^2 11$ we get

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(2200) &= 2^3 5^2 11 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{4}{5}\right) \left(\frac{10}{11}\right) \\ &= 2^2 5(1)(4)(10) = 800.\end{aligned}$$

Another example: find $\phi(2200)$. Since $2200 = 2^3 5^2 11$ we get

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(2200) &= 2^3 5^2 11 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{4}{5}\right) \left(\frac{10}{11}\right) \\ &= 2^2 5(1)(4)(10) = 800.\end{aligned}$$

Two final examples: $\phi(100) = 100(1/2)(4/5) = 40$. From $1155 = 3(5)(7)(11)$ we have $\phi(1155) = 1155(2/3)(4/5)(6/7)(10/11) = 480$.

Another example: find $\phi(2200)$. Since $2200 = 2^3 5^2 11$ we get

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(2200) &= 2^3 5^2 11 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{4}{5}\right) \left(\frac{10}{11}\right) \\ &= 2^2 5(1)(4)(10) = 800.\end{aligned}$$

Two final examples: $\phi(100) = 100(1/2)(4/5) = 40$. From $1155 = 3(5)(7)(11)$ we have $\phi(1155) = 1155(2/3)(4/5)(6/7)(10/11) = 480$.

Counting proper zero divisors

Because every element of \mathbb{Z}_n is either 0 or a unit or a proper zero divisor, there must be $n - \phi(n) - 1$ proper zero divisors.

Another example: find $\phi(2200)$. Since $2200 = 2^3 5^2 11$ we get

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(2200) &= 2^3 5^2 11 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{4}{5}\right) \left(\frac{10}{11}\right) \\ &= 2^2 5(1)(4)(10) = 800.\end{aligned}$$

Two final examples: $\phi(100) = 100(1/2)(4/5) = 40$. From $1155 = 3(5)(7)(11)$ we have $\phi(1155) = 1155(2/3)(4/5)(6/7)(10/11) = 480$.

Counting proper zero divisors

Because every element of \mathbb{Z}_n is either 0 or a unit or a proper zero divisor, there must be $n - \phi(n) - 1$ proper zero divisors.

Since $\phi(90) = 24$, the ring \mathbb{Z}_{90} has 24 units and $90 - 24 - 1 = 65$ proper zero divisors.

The ring \mathbb{Z}_{2200} has $\phi(2200) = 800$ units and $2200 - 800 - 1 = 1399$ proper zero divisors.

The ring \mathbb{Z}_{2200} has $\phi(2200) = 800$ units and $2200 - 800 - 1 = 1399$ proper zero divisors.

The ring \mathbb{Z}_{100} has $\phi(100) = 40$ units and $100 - 40 - 1 = 59$ proper zero divisors.

The ring \mathbb{Z}_{2200} has $\phi(2200) = 800$ units and $2200 - 800 - 1 = 1399$ proper zero divisors.

The ring \mathbb{Z}_{100} has $\phi(100) = 40$ units and $100 - 40 - 1 = 59$ proper zero divisors.

The ring \mathbb{Z}_{1155} has $\phi(1155) = 480$ units and $1155 - 480 - 1 = 674$ proper zero divisors.

The ring \mathbb{Z}_{2200} has $\phi(2200) = 800$ units and $2200 - 800 - 1 = 1399$ proper zero divisors.

The ring \mathbb{Z}_{100} has $\phi(100) = 40$ units and $100 - 40 - 1 = 59$ proper zero divisors.

The ring \mathbb{Z}_{1155} has $\phi(1155) = 480$ units and $1155 - 480 - 1 = 674$ proper zero divisors.

The ring \mathbb{Z}_{911} has $\phi(911) = 910$ units and $911 - 910 - 1 = 0$ proper zero divisors.

(911 is prime so $\phi(911) = 911 \left(1 - \frac{1}{911}\right) = 911 - 1 = 910$.)

One more way to create a new ring

One more way to create a new ring

Theorem

Suppose $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a ring and $(Y, +, \cdot)$ is a set with operations of $+$ and \cdot .

One more way to create a new ring

Theorem

Suppose $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a ring and $(Y, +, \cdot)$ is a set with operations of $+$ and \cdot . If there is a function h from R to Y such that

1. *For every pair x, y in R , $h(x + y) = h(x) + h(y)$.*

One more way to create a new ring

Theorem

Suppose $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a ring and $(Y, +, \cdot)$ is a set with operations of $+$ and \cdot . If there is a function h from R to Y such that

1. For every pair x, y in R , $h(x + y) = h(x) + h(y)$.
2. For every pair x, y in R , $h(x \cdot y) = h(x) \cdot h(y)$.

One more way to create a new ring

Theorem

Suppose $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a ring and $(Y, +, \cdot)$ is a set with operations of $+$ and \cdot . If there is a function h from R to Y such that

1. For every pair x, y in R , $h(x + y) = h(x) + h(y)$.
2. For every pair x, y in R , $h(x \cdot y) = h(x) \cdot h(y)$.
3. $Y = \{h(x) : x \in R\}$. (We say h is 'onto' or 'surjective'.)

One more way to create a new ring

Theorem

Suppose $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a ring and $(Y, +, \cdot)$ is a set with operations of $+$ and \cdot . If there is a function h from R to Y such that

1. For every pair x, y in R , $h(x + y) = h(x) + h(y)$.
2. For every pair x, y in R , $h(x \cdot y) = h(x) \cdot h(y)$.
3. $Y = \{h(x) : x \in R\}$. (We say h is 'onto' or 'surjective'.)

Then $(Y, +, \cdot)$ is also a ring.

One more way to create a new ring

Theorem

Suppose $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a ring and $(Y, +, \cdot)$ is a set with operations of $+$ and \cdot . If there is a function h from R to Y such that

1. For every pair x, y in R , $h(x + y) = h(x) + h(y)$.
2. For every pair x, y in R , $h(x \cdot y) = h(x) \cdot h(y)$.
3. $Y = \{h(x) : x \in R\}$. (We say h is 'onto' or 'surjective'.)

Then $(Y, +, \cdot)$ is also a ring.

An example of this is the function from \mathbb{Z} to \mathbb{Z}_n defined by $h(x) = x \bmod n$. Checking the three conditions of the theorem is not particularly difficult.

One more way to create a new ring

Theorem

Suppose $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a ring and $(Y, +, \cdot)$ is a set with operations of $+$ and \cdot . If there is a function h from R to Y such that

1. For every pair x, y in R , $h(x + y) = h(x) + h(y)$.
2. For every pair x, y in R , $h(x \cdot y) = h(x) \cdot h(y)$.
3. $Y = \{h(x) : x \in R\}$. (We say h is 'onto' or 'surjective'.)

Then $(Y, +, \cdot)$ is also a ring.

An example of this is the function from \mathbb{Z} to \mathbb{Z}_n defined by $h(x) = x \bmod n$. Checking the three conditions of the theorem is not particularly difficult.

Proving the theorem is maybe a little tricky but not particularly long. The first two conditions are the definition of h being a *homomorphism*.

The 'Chinese Remainder' Theorem

If the homomorphism is also one-to-one, it is called an *isomorphism*.

The 'Chinese Remainder' Theorem

If the homomorphism is also one-to-one, it is called an *isomorphism*. In this case the inverse h^{-1} from Y to R is also a homomorphism.

The 'Chinese Remainder' Theorem

If the homomorphism is also one-to-one, it is called an *isomorphism*. In this case the inverse h^{-1} from Y to R is also a homomorphism. Then the two rings share all properties that can be defined by multiplication and addition.

The 'Chinese Remainder' Theorem

If the homomorphism is also one-to-one, it is called an *isomorphism*. In this case the inverse h^{-1} from Y to R is also a homomorphism. Then the two rings share all properties that can be defined by multiplication and addition. For example”

- h is a one-to-one correspondence between the units in R and the units in Y .

The 'Chinese Remainder' Theorem

If the homomorphism is also one-to-one, it is called an *isomorphism*. In this case the inverse h^{-1} from Y to R is also a homomorphism. Then the two rings share all properties that can be defined by multiplication and addition. For example”

- h is a one-to-one correspondence between the units in R and the units in Y .
- h is a one-to-one correspondence between proper zero divisors in R and the proper zero divisors in Y .

The 'Chinese Remainder' Theorem

If the homomorphism is also one-to-one, it is called an *isomorphism*. In this case the inverse h^{-1} from Y to R is also a homomorphism. Then the two rings share all properties that can be defined by multiplication and addition. For example"

- h is a one-to-one correspondence between the units in R and the units in Y .
- h is a one-to-one correspondence between proper zero divisors in R and the proper zero divisors in Y .
- If R has a unity 1 , so does Y and $h(1)$ is the unity of Y . Also if $x \in R$ is a unit then $h(x^{-1}) = h(x)^{-1}$.

The 'Chinese Remainder' Theorem

If the homomorphism is also one-to-one, it is called an *isomorphism*. In this case the inverse h^{-1} from Y to R is also a homomorphism. Then the two rings share all properties that can be defined by multiplication and addition. For example"

- h is a one-to-one correspondence between the units in R and the units in Y .
- h is a one-to-one correspondence between proper zero divisors in R and the proper zero divisors in Y .
- If R has a unity 1 , so does Y and $h(1)$ is the unity of Y . Also if $x \in R$ is a unit then $h(x^{-1}) = h(x)^{-1}$.
- $h(0) = 0$ and $h(-x) = -h(x)$ for all $x \in R$.

The 'Chinese Remainder' Theorem

If the homomorphism is also one-to-one, it is called an *isomorphism*. In this case the inverse h^{-1} from Y to R is also a homomorphism. Then the two rings share all properties that can be defined by multiplication and addition. For example"

- h is a one-to-one correspondence between the units in R and the units in Y .
- h is a one-to-one correspondence between proper zero divisors in R and the proper zero divisors in Y .
- If R has a unity 1 , so does Y and $h(1)$ is the unity of Y . Also if $x \in R$ is a unit then $h(x^{-1}) = h(x)^{-1}$.
- $h(0) = 0$ and $h(-x) = -h(x)$ for all $x \in R$.

Theorem

If $n = lm$ then h defined by $h(k) = (k \bmod l, k \bmod m)$ is a homomorphism from \mathbb{Z}_n to $\mathbb{Z}_l \times \mathbb{Z}_m$.

The 'Chinese Remainder' Theorem

If the homomorphism is also one-to-one, it is called an *isomorphism*. In this case the inverse h^{-1} from Y to R is also a homomorphism. Then the two rings share all properties that can be defined by multiplication and addition. For example"

- h is a one-to-one correspondence between the units in R and the units in Y .
- h is a one-to-one correspondence between proper zero divisors in R and the proper zero divisors in Y .
- If R has a unity 1 , so does Y and $h(1)$ is the unity of Y . Also if $x \in R$ is a unit then $h(x^{-1}) = h(x)^{-1}$.
- $h(0) = 0$ and $h(-x) = -h(x)$ for all $x \in R$.

Theorem

If $n = lm$ then h defined by $h(k) = (k \bmod l, k \bmod m)$ is a homomorphism from \mathbb{Z}_n to $\mathbb{Z}_l \times \mathbb{Z}_m$. If $\gcd(l, m) = 1$ then this is an isomorphism,

The 'Chinese Remainder' Theorem

If the homomorphism is also one-to-one, it is called an *isomorphism*. In this case the inverse h^{-1} from Y to R is also a homomorphism. Then the two rings share all properties that can be defined by multiplication and addition. For example"

- h is a one-to-one correspondence between the units in R and the units in Y .
- h is a one-to-one correspondence between proper zero divisors in R and the proper zero divisors in Y .
- If R has a unity 1 , so does Y and $h(1)$ is the unity of Y . Also if $x \in R$ is a unit then $h(x^{-1}) = h(x)^{-1}$.
- $h(0) = 0$ and $h(-x) = -h(x)$ for all $x \in R$.

Theorem

If $n = lm$ then h defined by $h(k) = (k \bmod l, k \bmod m)$ is a homomorphism from \mathbb{Z}_n to $\mathbb{Z}_l \times \mathbb{Z}_m$. If $\gcd(l, m) = 1$ then this is an isomorphism, otherwise it is not.

A special case is $n = pq$ where p and q are different primes.