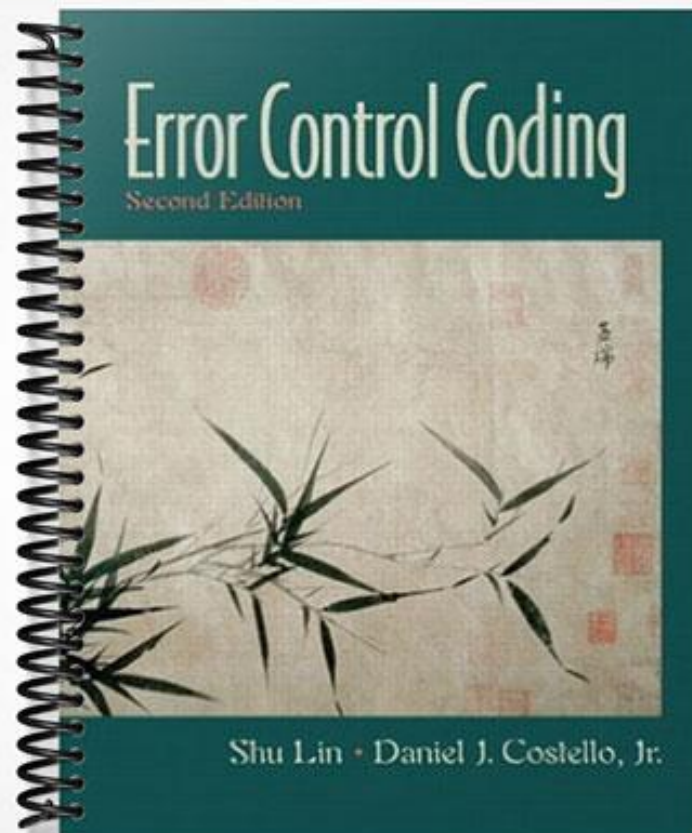


SOLUTIONS MANUAL



Chapter 2

2.3 Since m is not a prime, it can be factored as the product of two integers a and b ,

$$m = a \cdot b$$

with $1 < a, b < m$. It is clear that both a and b are in the set $\{1, 2, \dots, m-1\}$. It follows from the definition of modulo- m multiplication that

$$a \boxtimes b = 0.$$

Since 0 is not an element in the set $\{1, 2, \dots, m-1\}$, the set is not closed under the modulo- m multiplication and hence can not be a group.

2.5 It follows from Problem 2.3 that, if m is not a prime, the set $\{1, 2, \dots, m-1\}$ can not be a group under the modulo- m multiplication. Consequently, the set $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, m-1\}$ can not be a field under the modulo- m addition and multiplication.

2.7 First we note that the set of sums of unit element contains the zero element 0. For any $1 \leq \ell < \lambda$,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{\lambda-\ell} 1 = \sum_{i=1}^{\lambda} 1 = 0.$$

Hence every sum has an inverse with respect to the addition operation of the field $\text{GF}(q)$. Since the sums are elements in $\text{GF}(q)$, they must satisfy the associative and commutative laws with respect to the addition operation of $\text{GF}(q)$. Therefore, the sums form a commutative group under the addition of $\text{GF}(q)$.

Next we note that the sums contain the unit element 1 of $\text{GF}(q)$. For each nonzero sum

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} 1$$

with $1 \leq \ell < \lambda$, we want to show it has a multiplicative inverse with respect to the multiplication operation of $\text{GF}(q)$. Since λ is prime, ℓ and λ are relatively prime and there exist two

integers a and b such that

$$a \cdot \ell + b \cdot \lambda = 1, \quad (1)$$

where a and λ are also relatively prime. Dividing a by λ , we obtain

$$a = k\lambda + r \quad \text{with} \quad 0 \leq r < \lambda. \quad (2)$$

Since a and λ are relatively prime, $r \neq 0$. Hence

$$1 \leq r < \lambda$$

Combining (1) and (2), we have

$$\ell \cdot r = -(b + k\ell) \cdot \lambda + 1$$

Consider

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} 1 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^r 1 &= \sum_{i=1}^{\ell \cdot r} 1 = \sum_{i=1}^{-(b+k\ell) \cdot \lambda} 1 + 1 \\ &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\lambda} 1 \right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^{-(b+k\ell)} 1 \right) + 1 \\ &= 0 + 1 = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, every nonzero sum has an inverse with respect to the multiplication operation of $\text{GF}(q)$. Since the nonzero sums are elements of $\text{GF}(q)$, they obey the associative and commutative laws with respect to the multiplication of $\text{GF}(q)$. Also the sums satisfy the distributive law. As a result, the sums form a field, a subfield of $\text{GF}(q)$.

2.8 Consider the finite field $\text{GF}(q)$. Let n be the maximum order of the nonzero elements of $\text{GF}(q)$ and let α be an element of order n . It follows from Theorem 2.9 that n divides $q - 1$, i.e.

$$q - 1 = k \cdot n.$$

Thus $n \leq q - 1$. Let β be any other nonzero element in $\text{GF}(q)$ and let e be the order of β .

Suppose that e does not divide n . Let (n, e) be the greatest common factor of n and e . Then $e/(n, e)$ and n are relatively prime. Consider the element

$$\beta^{(n,e)}$$

This element has order $e/(n, e)$. The element

$$\alpha\beta^{(n,e)}$$

has order $ne/(n, e)$ which is greater than n . This contradicts the fact that n is the maximum order of nonzero elements in $\text{GF}(q)$. Hence e must divide n . Therefore, the order of each nonzero element of $\text{GF}(q)$ is a factor of n . This implies that each nonzero element of $\text{GF}(q)$ is a root of the polynomial

$$X^n - 1.$$

Consequently, $q - 1 \leq n$. Since $n \leq q - 1$ (by Theorem 2.9), we must have

$$n = q - 1.$$

Thus the maximum order of nonzero elements in $\text{GF}(q)$ is $q-1$. The elements of order $q - 1$ are then primitive elements.

2.11 (a) Suppose that $f(X)$ is irreducible but its reciprocal $f^*(X)$ is not. Then

$$f^*(X) = a(X) \cdot b(X)$$

where the degrees of $a(X)$ and $b(X)$ are nonzero. Let k and m be the degrees of $a(X)$ and $b(X)$ respectively. Clearly, $k + m = n$. Since the reciprocal of $f^*(X)$ is $f(X)$,

$$f(X) = X^n f^*\left(\frac{1}{X}\right) = X^k a\left(\frac{1}{X}\right) \cdot X^m b\left(\frac{1}{X}\right).$$

This says that $f(X)$ is not irreducible and is a contradiction to the hypothesis. Hence $f^*(X)$ must be irreducible. Similarly, we can prove that if $f^*(X)$ is irreducible, $f(X)$ is also irreducible. Consequently, $f^*(X)$ is irreducible if and only if $f(X)$ is irreducible.

(b) Suppose that $f(X)$ is primitive but $f^*(X)$ is not. Then there exists a positive integer k less than $2^n - 1$ such that $f^*(X)$ divides $X^k + 1$. Let

$$X^k + 1 = f^*(X)q(X).$$

Taking the reciprocals of both sides of the above equality, we have

$$\begin{aligned} X^k + 1 &= X^k f^*\left(\frac{1}{X}\right) q\left(\frac{1}{X}\right) \\ &= X^n f^*\left(\frac{1}{X}\right) \cdot X^{k-n} q\left(\frac{1}{X}\right) \\ &= f(X) \cdot X^{k-n} q\left(\frac{1}{X}\right). \end{aligned}$$

This implies that $f(X)$ divides $X^k + 1$ with $k < 2^n - 1$. This is a contradiction to the hypothesis that $f(X)$ is primitive. Hence $f^*(X)$ must be also primitive. Similarly, if $f^*(X)$ is primitive, $f(X)$ must also be primitive. Consequently $f^*(X)$ is primitive if and only if $f(X)$ is primitive.

2.15 We only need to show that $\beta, \beta^2, \dots, \beta^{2^e-1}$ are distinct. Suppose that

$$\beta^{2^i} = \beta^{2^j}$$

for $0 \leq i, j < e$ and $i < j$. Then,

$$(\beta^{2^{j-i}-1})^{2^i} = 1.$$

Since the order β is a factor of $2^m - 1$, it must be odd. For $(\beta^{2^{j-i}-1})^{2^i} = 1$, we must have

$$\beta^{2^{j-i}-1} = 1.$$

Since both i and j are less than e , $j - i < e$. This is contradiction to the fact that the e is the smallest nonnegative integer such that

$$\beta^{2^e-1} = 1.$$

Hence $\beta^{2^i} \neq \beta^{2^j}$ for $0 \leq i, j < e$.

2.16 Let n' be the order of β^{2^i} . Then

$$(\beta^{2^i})^{n'} = 1$$

Hence

$$(\beta^{n'})^{2^i} = 1. \quad (1)$$

Since the order n of β is odd, n and 2^i are relatively prime. From (1), we see that n divides n' and

$$n' = kn. \quad (2)$$

Now consider

$$(\beta^{2^i})^n = (\beta^n)^{2^i} = 1$$

This implies that n' (the order of β^{2^i}) divides n . Hence

$$n = \ell n' \quad (3)$$

From (2) and (3), we conclude that

$$n' = n.$$

2.20 Note that $c \cdot \mathbf{v} = c \cdot (\mathbf{0} + \mathbf{v}) = c \cdot \mathbf{0} + c \cdot \mathbf{v}$. Adding $-(c \cdot \mathbf{v})$ to both sides of the above equality, we have

$$\begin{aligned} c \cdot \mathbf{v} + [-(c \cdot \mathbf{v})] &= c \cdot \mathbf{0} + c \cdot \mathbf{v} + [-(c \cdot \mathbf{v})] \\ \mathbf{0} &= c \cdot \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $\mathbf{0}$ is the additive identity of the vector space, we then have

$$c \cdot \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}.$$

2.21 Note that $0 \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$. Then for any c in F ,

$$(-c + c) \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$(-c) \cdot \mathbf{v} + c \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}.$$

Hence $(-c) \cdot \mathbf{v}$ is the additive inverse of $c \cdot \mathbf{v}$, i.e.

$$-(c \cdot \mathbf{v}) = (-c) \cdot \mathbf{v} \tag{1}$$

Since $c \cdot \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$ (problem 2.20),

$$c \cdot (-\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$$

$$c \cdot (-\mathbf{v}) + c \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}.$$

Hence $c \cdot (-\mathbf{v})$ is the additive inverse of $c \cdot \mathbf{v}$, i.e.

$$-(c \cdot \mathbf{v}) = c \cdot (-\mathbf{v}) \tag{2}$$

From (1) and (2), we obtain

$$-(c \cdot \mathbf{v}) = (-c) \cdot \mathbf{v} = c \cdot (-\mathbf{v})$$

2.22 By Theorem 2.22, S is a subspace if (i) for any \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in S , $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ is in S and (ii) for any c in F and \mathbf{u} in S , $c \cdot \mathbf{u}$ is in S . The first condition is now given, we only have to show that the second condition is implied by the first condition for $F = GF(2)$. Let \mathbf{u} be any element in S . It follows from the given condition that

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$$

is also in S . Let c be an element in $GF(2)$. Then, for any \mathbf{u} in S ,

$$c \cdot \mathbf{u} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{0} & \text{for } c = 0 \\ \mathbf{u} & \text{for } c = 1 \end{cases}$$

Clearly $c \cdot \mathbf{u}$ is also in S . Hence S is a subspace.

2.24 If the elements of $GF(2^m)$ are represented by m -tuples over $GF(2)$, the proof that $GF(2^m)$ is

a vector space over $\text{GF}(2)$ is then straight-forward.

2.27 Let \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} be any two elements in $S_1 \cap S_2$. It is clear the \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are elements in S_1 , and \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are elements in S_2 . Since S_1 and S_2 are subspaces,

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \in S_1$$

and

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \in S_2.$$

Hence, $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ is in $S_1 \cap S_2$. Now let \mathbf{x} be any vector in $S_1 \cap S_2$. Then $\mathbf{x} \in S_1$, and $\mathbf{x} \in S_2$. Again, since S_1 and S_2 are subspaces, for any c in the field F , $c \cdot \mathbf{x}$ is in S_1 and also in S_2 . Hence $c \cdot \mathbf{x}$ is in the intersection, $S_1 \cap S_2$. It follows from Theorem 2.22 that $S_1 \cap S_2$ is a subspace.