

Modular arithmetic

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Question: If I run a computer program 30 times (in sequence) that
takes 5 hours to run each time, when will it be done?

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Recall the division algorithm: For $a, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $n \neq 0$, there exist unique $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $0 \leq r < |n|$ satisfying $a = nq + r$.

In logic:

$$\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\neq 0}, \exists! q \in \mathbb{Z}, r \in \{0, 1, \dots, |n| - 1\} (a = bq + r).$$

($\exists!$ means “there exist(s) unique”—not only do they exist, but they’re the only ones.)

We say q is the **quotient** and r is the **remainder** of n divided into a , also called the **least residue** of a modulo n .

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If a and b have the same remainder when divided by n , we say

a is **congruent** to b **modulo** (mod) n

written

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n} \quad \text{or} \quad a \equiv_n b.$$

L^AT_EX: ‘ \equiv ’ is `\equiv`, ‘(mod b)’ is `\pmod{b}`

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$$14 \equiv 2 \pmod{12}, \quad 26 \equiv 2 \pmod{12}$$

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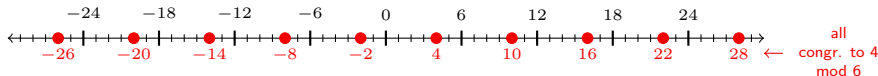
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Example: The numbers that are equivalent to 4 modulo 6 are



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Lemma. For $a, b, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $n \neq 0$, we have $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ if and only if $n|a - b$.

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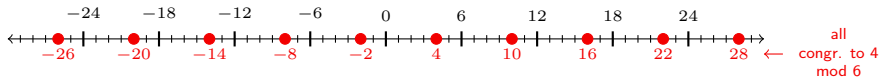
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Lemma. For $a, b, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $n \neq 0$, we have $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ if and only if $n|a - b$.

Proof. Fix $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. By the division algorithm, there exist $q_1, q_2, r_1, r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $0 \leq r_1, r_2 < |n|$ satisfying

$$a = q_1n + r_1 \quad \text{and} \quad b = q_2n + r_2.$$

If $a \equiv_n b$, then $r_1 = r_2$, so that

$$a - b = q_1n + r_1 - (q_2n + r_2) = (q_1 - q_2)n.$$

Since $q_1 - q_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have $n|a - b$, as desired.

Conversely, if $n|a - b$, then $a - b = kn$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Thus,

$$kn = a - b = q_1n + r_1 - (q_2n + r_2) = (q_1 - q_2)n + (r_1 - r_2).$$

Therefore,

$$r_1 - r_2 = (k - q_1 + q_2)n, \quad \text{so that} \quad n|r_1 - r_2.$$

But since $0 \leq r_1, r_2 < |n|$, we have $-|n| < r_1 - r_2 < |n|$.

Therefore, $r_1 - r_2 = 0$, so that $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$, as desired. \square

For the rest of today, fix $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$, and assume all other variables are integers.

Proposition. If $a_1 \equiv b_1 \pmod{n}$ and $a_2 \equiv b_2 \pmod{n}$, then

(a) $a_1 + a_2 \equiv b_1 + b_2 \pmod{n}$, and

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$$a \equiv_n b \iff n|a - b \iff a - b = kn$$

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$$a_1 - b_1 = k_1 n \quad \text{and} \quad a_2 - b_2 = k_2 n$$

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for some $k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$. To prove the lemma, show (by direct computation) that

$$(a_1 + a_2) - (b_1 + b_2) = kn \quad \text{and} \quad a_1 a_2 - b_1 b_2 = \ell n$$

for some $k, \ell \in \mathbb{Z}$.

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For example, $x = 2$ is a solution to $3x \equiv 6 \pmod{10}$. But so are

$$12, 22, 31, \dots, \quad \text{as well as} \quad -8, -18, -28, \dots$$

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Homework: If $\gcd(c, n) = 1$, then

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Prop. If $\gcd(c, n) \neq 1$, then there are a and b such that

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Proof. Letting $\gcd(n, c) = g > 1$, there are $2 \leq k < n$ and $2 \leq \ell < c$ such that $kg = n$ and $\ell g = c$. So $ck = \ell g k = \ell n$.

Therefore

$$ck \equiv_n 0 \equiv_n c \cdot 0.$$

But since $2 \leq k < n$, $k \not\equiv 0 \pmod{n}$.

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Solving addition problems involves subtraction, which is straightforward:

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$$x \equiv_5 2 - 3 = -1 \equiv_5 \boxed{4}.$$

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Since $\gcd(4, 10) = 2$, we end up having more than one solution. . .

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Example: $4x \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$.

Since $\gcd(4, 7) = 1$, there will be a unique solution (up to congruence).

And since $1 \equiv_7 8 = 4 \cdot 2$, we have $x \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$ is that solution.

Example: $4x \equiv 8 \pmod{10}$.

Since $\gcd(4, 10) = 2$, we end up having more than one solution. . .

x	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
$4x$	0	4	8	12	16	20	24	28	32	36
least residue	0	4	8	2	6	0	4	8	2	6

If $a_1 \equiv b_1 \pmod{n}$ and $a_2 \equiv b_2 \pmod{n}$, then

(a) $a_1 + a_2 \equiv b_1 + b_2 \pmod{n}$, and

(b) $a_1 a_2 \equiv b_1 b_2 \pmod{n}$.

And if $\gcd(n, c) = 1$ and $ac \equiv bc \pmod{n}$, then $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$.

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$$x \equiv_{19} 5 \cdot 4 \cdot x \equiv_{19} 5 \cdot 3 \equiv_{19} 15.$$

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Claim: If you want to solve congruences of the form

$$ax \equiv b \pmod{n},$$

you have two cases, based on $d = \gcd(a, n)$.

1. If $d \nmid b$, then there are no solutions.
2. If $d \mid b$, then there are exactly d solutions \pmod{n} .

To find them, compute $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $ua + vn = d$. Then

$$b = (b/d)d = (b/d)ua + (b/d)vn,$$

so that $x = (b/d)u$ is one solution. For the rest, add n/d until you have a full set.

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(Very Important) Corollary. An integer b has a (unique) multiplicative inverse modulo n if and only if $\gcd(b, n) = 1$. Namely, if p is prime, then b has a multiplicative inverse modulo p if and only if $b \not\equiv_p 0$.

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We will prove the theorem for $x \geq 0$ by induction on x . First, we have $0^p = 0 \equiv_p 0$, as desired. Next, fix $x \geq 0$, and assume $x^p \equiv_p x$. Then, using the binomial theorem,

$$(x + 1)^p \equiv_p \dots \quad \text{Homework!}$$

Wrapping up elementary number theory...

Chapters 27–29 in “How to think...” (on primes, divisors, gcd, Euclidean algorithm, modular arithmetic, etc.) are a *brief* introduction to elementary number theory.

To learn more: Take “Theory of Numbers” (Math 345).

Where else this is used: Modular arithmetic is a *Very Important Example* in “Modern Algebra” (a.k.a. “abstract algebra”), Math 347/A49.