

## Sheet 20: Modulo

**Theorem 1** Let  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  if  $n \mid b - a$ . Then  $\equiv$  is an equivalence relation.

*Proof.* Let  $a, b$  and  $c$  be integers. Note that  $n \mid a - a$  because  $0 \cdot n = 0 = a - a$  so  $a \equiv a \pmod{n}$ . Let  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ . Then there exists  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $kn = b - a$  and so  $-kn = a - b$ . Since  $-k \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have  $n \mid a - b$  so  $b \equiv a \pmod{n}$ . Now let  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  and  $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$ . Then there exists  $k, l \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $nk = b - a$  and  $nl = c - b$ . Then  $n(l + k) = b - a + c - b = c - a$  so  $n \mid c - a$ . Thus  $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$ . Hence we have shown reflexivity, symmetry and transitivity so  $\equiv$  is an equivalence relation.  $\square$

**Definition 2** The equivalence classes of integers under this relation are called residue classes modulo  $n$ . We denote it by  $Z_n$ .

**Theorem 3** There are exactly  $n$  residue classes modulo  $n$ .

We first prove a lemma showing that every  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$  can be written as  $x = an + b$  where  $b \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $x \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$  and let  $S = \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ . Then let  $T = \{b \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \mid \text{there exists } a \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } x = an + b\}$ . Then we see that  $T \neq \emptyset$  since  $x = n(0) + x$  and  $x \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$  and  $0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then we see there exists a least element  $m$  of  $T$  and so  $x = an + m$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . If  $m \in S$  then we are done. If  $m \notin S$  then  $m > n$  and so  $m - n > 0$ . Therefore we can write  $x = n(a + 1) + (m - n)$  and so  $(m - n) \in T$ . But  $m - n < m$  and since  $m$  is the least element of  $T$  this is a contradiction so  $m \in S$ . Therefore every  $x \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$  can be written as  $an + b$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $b \in S$ . We now consider the case where  $x \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus (\mathbb{N} \cup \{0\})$ . We see that  $-x = -an - b = n(-a - 1) + (-b + n)$ . But if  $b \neq 0$  then  $-b + n \in S$  and if  $b = 0$  then  $x = an$  and so  $-x = a(-n)$  and so we see that for  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$  we can write  $x = an + b$  for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $b \in S$ .  $\square$

Now we prove the original result.

*Proof.* Let  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$  and let  $S = \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ . Then we see that  $x = an + b$  and  $x - b = an$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $b \in S$ . But then  $x \equiv a \pmod{n}$  and so  $x \in \bar{b}$ . Since there are only  $n$  possible values for  $b$ , we see that there are at most  $n$  equivalence classes. If we choose two elements  $p, q \in S$  such that  $p \neq q$  then without loss of generality we can assume  $p > q$  and so  $(p - q) \in S$ . But then  $p - q \neq an$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  and so  $p$  is not equivalent to  $q$  modulo  $n$  and  $\bar{p} \neq \bar{q}$ . So no two equivalence classes are the same. Additionally, for every  $p \in S$  we see that  $p = n(0) + p$  and since  $0 \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $p \in S$ , we see every element of  $p$  is in an equivalence class. So we see that there are at least  $n$  and at most  $n$  equivalence classes so there must be exactly  $n$  equivalence classes.  $\square$

**Definition 4** For  $a, b \in Z_n$  let  $x \in a, y \in b$  and let

$$a + b = \overline{(x + y)}$$

$$a \cdot b = \overline{(x \cdot y)}$$

where  $\bar{z}$  denotes the residue class of  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Theorem 5** The operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$  are well-defined on  $Z_n$ . Also  $(Z_n, +, \cdot)$  is a ring.

*Proof.* Let  $a_1, b_1, a_2, b_2 \in Z_n$  such that  $a_1 = b_1$  and  $a_2 = b_2$ . Let  $x_1 \in a_1, y_1 \in b_1, x_2 \in a_2$  and  $y_2 \in b_2$ . Then

$$a_1 + a_2 = \overline{x_1 + x_2} = \overline{y_1 + y_2} = b_1 + b_2$$

and

$$a_1 \cdot a_2 = \overline{x_1 \cdot x_2} = \overline{y_1 \cdot y_2} = b_1 \cdot b_2$$

so  $+$  and  $\cdot$  are well defined. Now let  $a_3 \in Z_n$  such that  $x_3 \in a_3$ . Note that

$$a_1 + a_2 = \overline{x_1 + x_2} = \overline{x_2 + x_1} = a_2 + a_1$$

and

$$(a_1 + a_2) + a_3 = \overline{x_1 + x_2} + \overline{x_3} = \overline{x_1 + x_2 + x_3} = \overline{x_1 + x_2 + x_3} = a_1 + (a_2 + a_3).$$

Also let  $0 = \overline{0}$  so we have

$$a_1 + 0 = \overline{x_1 + 0} = \overline{x_1} = a_1$$

and let  $-a_1 = \overline{-x_1}$  so we have

$$a_1 + -a_1 = \overline{x_1 + -x_1} = \overline{0} = 0.$$

Now note that

$$a_1 \cdot a_2 = \overline{x_1 \cdot x_2} = \overline{x_2 \cdot x_1} = a_2 \cdot a_1$$

and

$$(a_1 \cdot a_2) \cdot a_3 = \overline{x_1 \cdot x_2 \cdot x_3} = \overline{x_1 \cdot x_2 \cdot x_3} = \overline{x_1 \cdot x_2 \cdot x_3} = a_1 \cdot (a_2 \cdot a_3).$$

Now let  $1 = \overline{1}$  so we have

$$a_1 \cdot 1 = \overline{x_1 \cdot 1} = \overline{x_1} = a_1.$$

Finally we have

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 \cdot (a_2 + a_3) &= \overline{x_1 \cdot x_2 + x_3} \\ &= \overline{x_1 \cdot x_2 + x_1 \cdot x_3} \\ &= \overline{x_1 \cdot x_2} + \overline{x_1 \cdot x_3} \\ &= a_1 \cdot a_2 + a_1 \cdot a_3. \end{aligned}$$

So we've show additive commutativity, associativity, identity, inverse, multiplicative commutativity, associativity, identity and also distributivity so  $Z_n$  is a ring.  $\square$

**Exercise 6** Solve the following congruencies:

- 1)  $2x + 1 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$ ;
- 2)  $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{17}$ ;
- 3)  $2x \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$ ;
- 4)  $3x \equiv 3 \pmod{6}$ .

**Definition 7** Let  $R$  be a ring. An element  $0 \neq a \in R$  is a zero divisor if there exists  $0 \neq b \in R$  with  $ab = 0$ .

**Exercise 8** What are the zero divisors modulo 6, 7 and 12?

The zero divisors of 6 are 2 and 3. Since 7 is prime is has no zero divisors. The zero divisors of 12 are 2, 3, 4 and 6.

**Lemma 9** Let  $0 \neq a \in R$  be a non-zero-divisor. Then  $ax = ay$  implies  $x = y$ .

*Proof.* We have  $a(x - y) = ax - ay = 0$ . But  $a$  is not a zero divisor so for all  $0 \neq b \in R$  we have  $ab \neq 0$ . Therefore  $(x - y) = 0$  and so  $x = y$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 10** Let  $R$  be a finite ring. Then  $0 \neq a \in R$  has a multiplicative inverse if and only if  $a$  is not a zero divisor.

*Proof.* Suppose that  $a$  is not a zero divisor. Then for all  $0 \neq b \in R$  we have  $ab \neq 0$ . Multiply  $a$  by every element of  $R$  which is not a zero divisor. Note that Lemma 9 implies that this is an injective process and so it must return every element which is not a zero divisor. But 1 is not a zero divisor and so there must exist  $b \in R$  such that  $ab = 1$ .

Conversely assume that  $0 \neq a \in R$  has a multiplicative inverse,  $b$ . Then  $ab = 1$ . If  $a$  is a zero divisor then there exists  $0 \neq c \in R$  such that  $ac = 0$ . Then  $a(b + c) = ab + ac = 1$  but then  $b + c$  is a multiplicative inverse of  $a$  and since multiplicative inverses are unique,  $b + c = b$  and  $c = 0$ . This is a contradiction and so  $a$  is a zero divisor.  $\square$

**Definition 11** For a prime  $p$  let  $\mathbb{F}_p = \mathbb{Z}_p$ .

**Theorem 12** For a prime  $p$  every nonzero element of  $\mathbb{F}_p$  is invertible.

*Proof.* Let  $0 \neq a \in \mathbb{F}_p$ . Suppose there exists  $0 \neq b \in \mathbb{F}_p$  such that  $ab = 0$ . Then  $p \mid ab$  and so there exists  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $pc = ab$ . But then because of unique factorization we have  $p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b$ . Thus either  $a = 0$  or  $b = 0$  which is a contradiction. Thus  $a$  is not a zero divisor and so it has a multiplicative inverse (20.10).  $\square$

**Theorem 13 (Wilson's Theorem)** Let  $p$  be a prime. Then

$$(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}.$$

*Proof.* Since  $p$  is prime, every term in  $(p-2)!$  is invertible in the field  $\mathbb{F}_p$  (20.12). Note that 1 has its own inverse and for  $p > 2$  we have  $p-3$  terms with inverses in the product  $(p-2)!$  that aren't 1. Each of these pairs will multiply to 1 and 1 will multiply with that and so we're left with just  $p-1 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 14** For all  $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_p$  we have

$$(a+b)^p = a^p + b^p.$$

*Proof.* We have

$$(a+b)^p = \sum_{k=1}^p \binom{p}{k} a^k b^{p-k} = \sum_{k=1}^p \frac{p!}{k!(p-k)!} a^k b^{p-k}$$

and each term of this sum will be 0 unless  $k = 0$  or  $k = p$  because of the  $p!$  term. Thus we have

$$(a+b)^p = a^p + b^p.$$

$\square$

**Theorem 15 (Fermat's Little Theorem)** Let  $p$  be a prime and let  $a$  be an integer. Then

$$a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}.$$

*Proof.* Note that if  $p \mid a$  then we are done so assume that  $a$  is not a multiple of  $p$ . Consider the product

$$a^{p-1}(p-1)! \equiv \prod_{i=1}^{p-1} ia \equiv (p-1)! \pmod{p}$$

since  $a$  is not a zero divisor using the same injective logic as in Theorem 10 (20.10, 20.12). But then we have

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

and so

$$a^p = a$$

since  $a$  is not a zero divisor. □

**Corollary 16** *Let  $p$  be a prime and let  $a$  be an integer not divisible by  $p$ . Then*

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

*Proof.* This follows from Theorem 15 (20.15). □

**Theorem 17** *Let  $R$  be a finite ring and let  $a \in R$  be invertible. Then there exists a natural number  $k$  with  $a^k = 1$ .*

*Proof.* Note that  $R$  is a finite ring and so there must exist  $k, l \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $k \neq l$  such that  $a^k = a^l$ . Without loss of generality assume that  $k > l$ . But then  $k - l \in \mathbb{N}$  and since  $a$  is invertible, it's not a zero divisor (20.10). Then  $a^l$  is not a zero divisor as well. Thus  $a^l = a^k = a^k a^{-l} a^l = a^{k-l} a^l$  implies  $a^{k-l} = 1$  (20.9). □

**Definition 18** *The minimal  $n$  with the above property is called the multiplicative order of  $a$ . We denote it by  $o(a)$ .*

**Theorem 19** *Let  $0 \neq a \in \mathbb{F}_p$ . Then  $o(a)$  divides  $p - 1$ .*

*Proof.* Note that  $a^{o(a)} = a^{p-1}$  and since  $o(a) \leq p - 1$  by definition we have  $a^{\frac{p-1}{o(a)}} = 1$  so  $o(a) \mid p - 1$ . □

**Theorem 20** *Let  $a$  be an integer and let  $n$  be a natural number. Then the following are equivalent:*

- 1)  $a$  is relatively prime to  $n$ ;
- 2)  $a$  is invertible modulo  $n$ ;
- 3) There exist integers  $x, y$  with  $ax + ny = 1$ .

*Proof.* Let  $a$  be relatively prime to  $n$ . Then  $a$  and  $n$  share no common factors and so for all  $0 \neq b \in Z_n$  we have  $ab \neq 0$ . Thus  $a$  is not a zero divisor and so it must be invertible modulo  $n$  (20.10). Now assume that  $a$  is invertible modulo  $n$ . Then there exists  $x$  such that  $ax = 1 \pmod{n}$  which means that there exists  $y \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $ny = 1 - ax$  and so  $ax + ny = 1$ . Finally assume that there exists integers  $x$  and  $y$  such that  $ax + ny = 1$ . Then  $ny = 1 - ax$  and since  $ny$  and  $ax$  differ by a factor of 1 they share no common factors and so  $n$  and  $a$  are relatively prime. □

**Definition 21 (Euler's Totient Function)** *For a natural number  $n$  let  $U(n)$  denote the set of invertible elements of  $Z_n$ . Let  $\phi(n)$  be the size of  $U(n)$ .*

**Exercise 22** *Find a formula for  $\phi(n)$ .*

**Lemma 23** *If  $a, b \in U(n)$  then  $ab \in U(n)$ .*

*Proof.* Since  $a, b \in U(n)$  there exist  $a^{-1}, b^{-1} \in Z_n$ . Then take  $a^{-1}b^{-1} \in Z_n$  and note that  $ab \cdot a^{-1}b^{-1} = 1$ . Thus  $ab \in U(n)$ . □

**Theorem 24** *Let  $0 \neq a \in Z_n$  be invertible. Then  $o(a)$  divides  $\phi(n)$ .*

**Theorem 25 (Euler's Theorem)** *Let  $n$  be a natural number and let  $a$  be an integer relatively prime to  $n$ . Then*

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}.$$

*Proof.* Since  $a$  is relatively prime to  $n$  we have  $a$  is invertible modulo  $n$  (20.20). Then since  $o(a) \mid \phi(n)$  we have

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv a^{o(a)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

using Theorem 24 (20.24). □

**Definition 26** *Complex numbers are  $\mathbb{R}[x]$  modulo  $x^2 + 1$ .*