## Session 20: Modular arithmetic

Discrete Mathematics

Escuela Técnica Superior de Ingeniería Informática (UPV)

### 1 Introduction

In this session we are going to introduce two operations, sum and product, in the set of congruence classes modulo m (for any natural number m > 1),  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ . These will give rise to arithmetic properties in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  that considerably differ from the properties of usual arithmetic with natural (and real) numbers.

## 2 Sum and product in $\mathbb{Z}_m$

Consider a natural number m > 1 and its associated set of congruence classes modulo m:

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \dots, \overline{m-1}\}.$$

If  $\overline{a}$  and  $\overline{b}$  are two elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ , then the **sum** and **product** of  $\overline{a}$  and  $\overline{b}$  is defined as follows:

$$\overline{a} + \overline{b} = \overline{a + b}, \quad \overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} = \overline{a \cdot b}$$

For example, for m = 8, we have that  $\overline{5} + \overline{7}$  is  $\overline{12}$ , which is equal to  $\overline{4}$  (it is strongly convenient to take the "main representative" of each congruence class; in this case is 4, the remainder of the division  $12 \div 8$ ). Therefore:

$$\overline{5} + \overline{7} = \overline{4}$$
.

Another example (for m = 5):  $\overline{-7} + \overline{14} = \overline{7}$ , which is  $\overline{2}$ . Therefore, in  $\mathbb{Z}_5$ :

$$\overline{-7} + \overline{14} = \overline{2}.$$

The definition of the sum does not depend on the chosen representatives of the classes. In the above example, for the class  $\overline{-7}$ , one could take a different representative; say, for example, -2. But this does not affect to the sum:  $\overline{-2} + \overline{14} = \overline{12} = \overline{2}$ . We will omit the proof of this fact here.

For the product consider, for example, the classes  $\overline{5}$  and  $\overline{-2}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_8$ . Then

$$\overline{5} \cdot (\overline{-2}) = \overline{-10} = \overline{6}.$$

As in the case of the sum, the product does not depend on the chosen representatives.

We can construct a table with double input with all the possible results of the sum in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  (and also for the product). This kind of tables are known as the **Cayley table** of the operation.

**Example 1.** These are the Cayley tables of the sum and the product in  $\mathbb{Z}_4$ . Every "black class" is equal to the sum (or product) of the "blue class" associated to its row and that associated to its column.

| +                                   | $\overline{0}$                      | 1                                   | $\frac{\overline{2}}{\overline{2}}$ | $\frac{\overline{3}}{\overline{3}}$ |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| $\overline{0}$                      | $\frac{0}{\overline{0}}$            | $\overline{1}$                      | $\overline{2}$                      | 3                                   |
| $\overline{1}$                      | 1                                   | $\overline{2}$                      | 3                                   | $\overline{0}$                      |
| $\frac{\overline{2}}{\overline{3}}$ | $\frac{\overline{2}}{\overline{3}}$ | $\frac{\overline{2}}{\overline{3}}$ | $\overline{0}$                      | $\frac{\overline{1}}{\overline{2}}$ |
| 3                                   | 3                                   | $\overline{0}$                      | $\overline{1}$                      | $\overline{2}$                      |

| ×                                   | $\overline{0}$ | $\overline{1}$ | $\overline{2}$ | 3                                   |
|-------------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-------------------------------------|
| $\overline{0}$                      | $\overline{0}$ | $\overline{0}$ | $\overline{0}$ | $\overline{0}$                      |
| $\overline{1}$                      | $\overline{0}$ | $\overline{1}$ | $\overline{2}$ | $\frac{\overline{3}}{\overline{2}}$ |
| $\frac{\overline{2}}{\overline{3}}$ | $\overline{0}$ | $\overline{1}$ | $\overline{0}$ | $\overline{2}$                      |
| $\overline{3}$                      | $\overline{0}$ | 3              | $\overline{2}$ | $\overline{1}$                      |

## 3 Properties

The sum and the product in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  satisfy the following properties (The proofs are very easy and we omit them):

#### Properties of sum and product:

- The sum and the product in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  are commutative and associative.
- The product is distributive respect to the sum.
- $\overline{0}$  and  $\overline{1}$  are identity elements with respect to sum and the product, respectively.
- Every element of  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  has a symmetric element respect to the sum (also known as **opposite**). In particular, the opposite of  $\overline{a}$  is  $\overline{-a}$  because  $\overline{a} + \overline{-a} = \overline{0}$ .

Every element of  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  has a symmetric element with respect to the sum. However, with respect to the product:

- The element 0 has not symmetric element with respect to the product.
- Not every non-zero element has symmetric element with respect to the product. For example, in the case of  $\mathbb{Z}_4$ , looking at the Cayley table you can see that there is not  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_4$  such that  $2 \cdot \overline{x} = \overline{1}$  and, then,  $\overline{2}$  has not symmetric element.

If an element  $\overline{a}$  of  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  has symmetric with respect to the product then it is called **invertible** and its symmetric element (denoted by  $\overline{a}^{-1}$ ) is called **inverse** of  $\overline{a}$ .

It can be proved that both identity elements are unique, the opposite of any element is unique and the inverse of an invertible element is also unique.

**Example 2.** In the case of  $\mathbb{Z}_4$ , looking at the Cayley tables we have that the invertible elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_4$  are  $\overline{1}$  and  $\overline{3}$ . Moreover:

$$\overline{1}^{-1} = \overline{1}$$
, and  $\overline{3}^{-1} = \overline{3}$  because  $\overline{3} \cdot \overline{3} = \overline{1}$ 

The next result characterizes which are the invertible elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ :

**Theorem 1.** Let m > 1 be a natural number. A class  $\overline{a}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$  is **invertible** if and only if

$$GCD(a, m) = 1,$$

that is, if and only if a and m are relatively primes (that is, if GCD(a, m) = 1).

*Proof.*  $\Rightarrow$  To prove the direct implication, assume that  $\overline{a}$  is invertible. Then there exists  $\overline{b} \in \mathbb{Z}_m$  such that  $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} = \overline{1}$ . This means that  $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ , that is, ab - 1 is a multiple of m. Then, there exists an integer number k such that ab - 1 = km, that is,

$$ab - km = 1.$$

Let us see that the unique positive common divisor of a and m is 1 (this will prove that GCD(a, m) = 1):

Let x be a positive common divisor of a and m. Then there exist integers  $s_1$  and  $s_2$  such that  $a = s_1 x$  and  $m = s_2 x$ . Replacing a and m in the equality above we obtain:

$$s_1bx - ks_2x = 1,$$

that is,

$$(s_1b - ks_2)x = 1.$$

Since  $s_1b - ks_2$  and x are both integers whose product is 1, then both must be equal to 1 or to -1. Since x is positive, both must be equal to 1; in particular, x = 1.

 $\Leftarrow$  To prove the converse implication, assume that GCD(a, m) = 1. Then, considering a Bézout Identity of a and m, there exist integers x and y such that

$$ax + my = 1$$
.

Then, the congruence class (modulo m) of the left-hand-side of this equality coincides with the congruence class of the right-hand-side:

$$\overline{ax + my} = \overline{1}.$$

But  $\overline{ax + my} = \overline{ax} + \overline{my} = \overline{ax} = \overline{a} \cdot \overline{x}$ , because my is a multiple of m and, then, its class is  $\overline{0}$ . Then we have

$$\overline{a} \cdot \overline{x} = \overline{1}$$
.

This means that  $\overline{x}$  is the inverse of  $\overline{a}$ , that is:

$$\overline{a}^{-1} = \overline{x}$$
.

Notice that the proof of the converse implication of the above theorem gives a method to compute the inverse of an invertible element a of  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ :

Method to compute the inverse of  $\overline{a}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  (provided that GCD(a,m)=1):

- Compute a Bézout Identity for a and m: ax + my = 1.
- Then  $\overline{a}^{-1} = \overline{x}$ , where x is the coefficient of a.

This is shown in the following example:

**Example 3.** We are going to prove that  $\overline{11}$  is invertible in  $\mathbb{Z}_{27}$  and we'll find its inverse. Applying the Euclidean Algorithm to 11 and 27 we obtain, on the one hand, that gcd(27,11) = 1 (and, therefore, by the above theorem,  $\overline{11}$  is invertible in  $\mathbb{Z}_{27}$ . On the other hand, we can obtain the following Bézout Identity:

$$5 \cdot 11 - 2 \cdot 27 = 1 \tag{1}$$

Then:  $\overline{11}^{-1} = \overline{5}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{27}$  because, from Equation (1):

$$\overline{5} \cdot \overline{11} + \overline{-2} \cdot \overline{27} = \overline{1}$$

and, since  $\overline{27} = \overline{0}$ :

$$\overline{5} \cdot \overline{11} = \overline{1}$$
.

# 4 Solving linear congruence equations

In the previous section we have analyzed the problem of finding the inverse (if there exists) of an element  $\bar{a}$  of  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ , that is, the problem of solving the following equation in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  (if there exists a solution):

$$\overline{a} \cdot \overline{x} = \overline{1}$$

We will deal with the more general problem of solving any linear equation of first order in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ , that is, any equation in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  of the form:

$$\overline{a} \cdot \overline{x} = \overline{b}, \tag{2}$$

where  $\overline{a}, \overline{b} \in \mathbb{Z}_m \setminus \{\overline{0}\}$ , and  $\overline{x}$  is an unknown that represents a class of  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ .

The next proposition will show that these equations can also be written in the "equivalent" form:

$$a \cdot x \equiv b \pmod{m}$$
.

Notice that this equation is defined in  $\mathbb{Z}$ , that is, to solve it, we need to find all the **integers** x such that ax is congruent to b modulo m (that is, ax - b is multiple of m). However, equation (2) is defined in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ , that is, to solve it, we need to find all the **classes**  $\overline{x}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  satisfying the equality.

#### **Proposition 1.** If the equation

$$a \cdot x \equiv b \pmod{m}$$

has solution, then its solutions are unions of solutions  $\overline{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_m$  of the equation

$$\overline{a} \cdot \overline{x} = \overline{b}$$
.

*Proof.* Let  $x_0$  be a solution of the equation  $a \cdot x \equiv b \pmod{m}$ . This means that ax and b are in the same congruence class in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  and, therefore,  $\overline{ax_0} = \overline{b}$ . Then  $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{x_0} = \overline{b}$ , that is, the class  $\overline{x_0} \in \mathbb{Z}_m$  is a solution of the equation  $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{x} = \overline{b}$ .

Now, we are going to prove that **every integer** in the class  $\overline{x_0}$  is also a solution of the equation  $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{x} = \overline{b}$ :

Let  $y \in \overline{x_0}$ . Then  $y \equiv x_0 \pmod{m}$  and, therefore,  $y = x_0 + k \cdot m$  for some integer k. Replacing x by y in the equation  $a \cdot x \equiv b \pmod{m}$  we have:

$$a(x_0 + km) \equiv b \pmod{m}$$
,

and this is true because  $a(x_0 + km) - b = ax_0 - b + akm$  is a multiple of m (notice that  $ax_0 - b$  is a multiple of m because  $x_0$  is a solution of the equation  $a \cdot x \equiv b \pmod{m}$ ).

Hence we have proved that, if  $x_0$  is a solution of the equation  $a \cdot x \equiv b \pmod{m}$  then every element in its class  $\overline{x_0}$  is also a solution. Then the solution set of  $a \cdot x \equiv b \pmod{m}$  is a union of solutions of (2).

The previous proposition means that, to solve the equation  $a \cdot x \equiv b \pmod{m}$ , one can solve the equation

$$\overline{a} \cdot \overline{x} = \overline{b}$$

in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  and take the union of its solutions. Then, essentially, both equations are "equivalent".

Example 4. Let us consider the equation

$$2x \equiv 6 \pmod{8}$$
.

By the above proposition, this is equivalent to solve the equation

$$\overline{2} \cdot \overline{x} = \overline{6}$$

in  $\mathbb{Z}_8$ . Since 8 is a small number, we can compute directly the solutions of this last equation by checking it for every class in  $\mathbb{Z}_8$ :

- $\overline{2} \cdot \overline{0} = \overline{6}$  is false.
- $\overline{2} \cdot \overline{1} = \overline{6}$  is false.
- $\overline{2} \cdot \overline{2} = \overline{6}$  is false.
- $\overline{2} \cdot \overline{3} = \overline{6}$  is true.
- $\overline{2} \cdot \overline{8} = \overline{6}$  is false.
- $\overline{2} \cdot \overline{5} = \overline{6}$  is false.
- $\overline{2} \cdot \overline{6} = \overline{6}$  is false.

#### $\overline{2} \cdot \overline{7} = \overline{6}$ is true.

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Therefore the second equation has two solutions:  $\overline{3}$  and  $\overline{7}$ . Using the proposition we conclude that the solutions of the initial equation are those integers in the union  $\overline{3} \cup \overline{7}$ . In other words, the solution set is

$${3 + 8k \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}} \cup {7 + 8k \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}}.$$

In the previous example we have solved the equation  $\overline{2} \cdot \overline{x} = \overline{6}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_8$  by checking it for every class of  $\mathbb{Z}_8$ . When the modulo and coefficients are big numbers, this "brute force" method is not efficient.

The following theorem (that we admit without proof) provides a practical method to solve any linear congruence equation of the form  $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{x} = \overline{b}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ :

**Proposition 2.** Consider a linear congruence equation  $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{x} = \overline{b}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ . Set

$$d = GCD(a, m).$$

Then:

- (a) The equation has solution/s if and only if d divides b.
- (b) If d=1 then the equation has exactly one solution, which is  $\overline{tb} \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ , where t is a representative of the class  $\overline{a}^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ .

(c) If the equation has solution/s and d > 1, it has exactly d solutions which are the following classes of  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ :

$$\overline{s}$$
,  $\overline{s+\frac{m}{d}}$ ,  $\overline{s+2\cdot\frac{m}{d}}$ , ...,  $\overline{s+(d-1)\cdot\frac{m}{d}}$ ,

where s is the main representative of the (unique) solution  $\overline{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\frac{m}{d}}$  of the equation

$$\frac{\overline{a}}{d} \cdot \overline{x} = \frac{\overline{b}}{d}, \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_{\frac{m}{d}}$$

(that corresponds to Case (b) because GCD(a/d, m/d) = 1).

We will apply this theorem in the exercises.

