

# Session 1

## Intro to Modular Arithmetic

You may have encountered “clock arithmetic” in grade school, where after you get to 12, the next number is 1.

This leads to odd-looking equations such as

$$6 + 9 = 3 \text{ and } 2 - 3 = 11.$$

These look strange, but they are true using clock arithmetic, since for example 11 o'clock is 3 h before 2 o'clock. So what we are really doing is first computing  $2 - 3 = -1$  and then adding 12 to the answer.

Similarly, 9 h after 6 o'clock is 3 o'clock, since  $6 + 9 - 12 = 3$ .



The theory of congruences is a powerful method in number theory that is based on the simple idea of clock arithmetic.

**Definition.** Let  $m \geq 1$  be an integer.

We say that the integers  $a$  and  $b$  are congruent modulo  $m$  if their difference  $a - b$  is divisible by  $m$ .

We write:

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

to indicate that  $a$  and  $b$  are congruent modulo  $m$ . The number  $m$  is called the modulus

**Proposition.** Let  $m \geq 1$  be an integer.

(a) If  $a_1 \equiv a_2 \pmod{m}$  and  $b_1 \equiv b_2 \pmod{m}$ , then

$$a_1 \pm b_1 \equiv a_2 \pm b_2 \pmod{m} \text{ and } a_1 \cdot b_1 \equiv a_2 \cdot b_2 \pmod{m}.$$

(b) Let  $a$  be an integer. Then

$$a \cdot b \equiv 1 \pmod{m} \text{ for some integer } b \text{ if and only if } \gcd(a, m) = 1$$

Further, if  $a \cdot b_1 \equiv a \cdot b_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ , then  $b_1 \equiv b_2 \pmod{m}$ . We call  $b$  the (multiplicative) inverse of  $a$  modulo  $m$

## Fermat Little Theorem (FLM):

let  $p$  be a prime number,  $a$  be a positive integer

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

### Example:

$a = 2, p = 7$

$$2^7 \pmod{7} = 2$$

### Another form of FLM:

let  $p$  be a prime number,  $a$  be a positive integer

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

## Euler's Totient Function:

$\phi(n) =$

the number of positive integers smaller than  $n$  and relatively prime to  $n$

We have 3 cases

1.  $n$  is prime:  $\phi(n) = n - 1$
2.  $n$  is a product of 2 primes ( $p$  and  $q$ ):  $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$
3.  $n$  is a squared prime:  $\phi(n) = p \cdot (p-1)$

There's a 4th case but you look it up ;)

## Euler's Theorem:

let  $p$  and  $q$  be distinct primes and  $n = p \cdot q$

and  $a$  is relatively prime to  $n$ , then

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod n \text{ which is similar to } a^{(p-1) \times (q-1)} \pmod n$$

## The Chinese Remainder Theorem

Suppose we wish to solve

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$$

for  $x$ . If we have a solution  $y$ , then  $y+35$  is also a solution. So we only need to look for solutions modulo 35. By brute force, we find the only solution is  $x \equiv 17 \pmod{35}$ .

For any system of equations like this, the Chinese Remainder Theorem tells us there is always a unique solution up to a certain modulus, and describes how to find the solution efficiently.

Given pairwise coprime positive integers  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k$  and arbitrary integers  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k$  the system of simultaneous congruences

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{n_1}$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{n_2}$$

$$x \equiv a_k \pmod{n_k}$$

has a solution, and the solution is unique modulo  $N = n_1 n_2 \dots n_k$ .

The following is a general construction to find a solution to a system of congruences using the Chinese remainder theorem:

1. Compute  $N = n_1 \times n_2 \times \dots \times n_k$ .
2. For each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ , compute

$$y_i = \frac{N}{n_i} = n_1 n_2 \dots n_{i-1} n_{i+1} \dots n_k.$$

3. For each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ , compute  $z_i \equiv y_i^{-1} \pmod{n_i}$  using Euclid's extended algorithm ( $z_i$  exists since  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k$  are pairwise coprime).
4. The integer  $x = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i y_i z_i$  is a solution to the system of congruences, and  $x \pmod N$  is the unique solution modulo  $N$ .