

Equivalence Classes define Partitions

Math1510 - Discrete Mathematics

Modular arithmetic

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UoN

Theorem

If R is an equivalence relation on a set X , then the set of equivalence classes of R is a partition of X .

Example

The set of all people is partitioned into 366 disjoint sets based on their birthdays.

- If you were born on the 14th of March, then you are in the same equivalence class (under the birthday relation) as Albert Einstein.

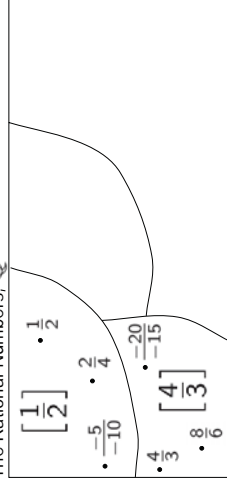
Example (A second Equivalence Classes Example)

- $\left[\frac{1}{2}\right] = \left\{ \frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{4}, \frac{-5}{10}, \frac{50}{100}, \dots \right\}$
- $\left[\frac{2}{4}\right] = \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \right\}$
- $\left[\frac{4}{3}\right] = \left\{ \frac{4}{3}, \frac{8}{6}, \frac{-20}{15}, \frac{100}{75}, \dots \right\}$

Each of these equivalence classes is the set of all fractions representing the same given rational number. We write $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d}$ iff $ad = bc$ for $b, d \neq 0$.

The Rational Numbers.

This relation is a partition on all pairs of integers $\left[\frac{a}{b}\right], b \neq 0$



This relation can be used to *define* \mathbb{Q} in terms of pairs of elements of \mathbb{Z} .

Proof of the Partition Theorem

Theorem

If R is an equivalence relation on a set X , then the set of equivalence classes of R is a partition of X .

Proof outline (see p 161 of textbook for details)

- Define notation. Let X be the set and R be the relation, so that the equivalence class of $a \in X$ is:

$$[a] := \{x \in X : xRa\}$$

and the collection of equivalence classes is

$$S := \{[a] : a \in X\}$$

We need to show:

- for each $a \in X$, the equivalence class $[a]$ is non-empty
- the union of all the classes is the whole set, i.e. $\bigcup S = X$
- pairwise disjointness, i.e. if $x \in X$ and $x \in [a] \cap [b]$ then $[a] = [b]$

The converse is also true

Theorem

Given any partition S on a set X , each of the members of S is an equivalence class, under equivalence relation R given by

$$aRb \iff a \text{ and } b \text{ are in the same member of } S$$

\mathbb{Z}_{12} , clock arithmetic: aRb iff $a - b = 12k$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$

$[0] = \{\dots, -24, -12, 0, 12, 24, \dots\}$
 $[1] = \{\dots, -23, -11, 1, 13, 25, \dots\}$
 $[2] = \{\dots, -22, -10, 2, 14, 26, \dots\}$
 $[3] = \{\dots, -21, -9, 3, 15, 27, \dots\}$
 $[4] = \{\dots, -20, -8, 4, 16, 28, \dots\}$
 $[5] = \{\dots, -19, -7, 5, 17, 29, \dots\}$
 $[6] = \{\dots, -18, -6, 6, 18, 30, \dots\}$
 $[7] = \{\dots, -17, -5, 7, 19, 31, \dots\}$
 $[8] = \{\dots, -16, -4, 8, 20, 32, \dots\}$
 $[9] = \{\dots, -15, -3, 9, 21, 33, \dots\}$
 $[10] = \{\dots, -14, -2, 10, 22, 34, \dots\}$
 $[11] = \{\dots, -13, -1, 11, 23, 35, \dots\}$
 loops back to $[12] = \{\dots, -12, 0, 12, 24, 36, \dots\} = [0]$

Definition (\mathbb{Z}_m and its arithmetic)

Let $m \geq 2$ be an integer and define the relation

$$a R b \quad \text{iff} \quad a - b = mk \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Define equivalence classes for each $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ by

$$[a] = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} : x R a\}$$

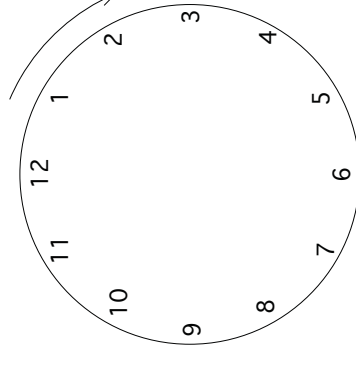
Define arithmetic operations addition and multiplication as follows:

$$[a] + [b] = \{x + y : x \in [a], y \in [b]\}$$

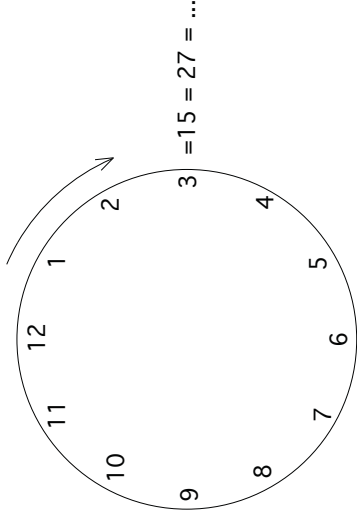
$$[a][b] = \{xy : x \in [a], y \in [b]\}$$

The set of equivalence classes is called \mathbb{Z}_m , where m is called the **modulus**.

\mathbb{Z}_{12} , clock arithmetic: aRb iff $a - b = 12k$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$



- Clock arithmetic wraps around every time you go past 12 o'clock.
- For example, 11 o'clock + 4 hours = 3 o'clock



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Wrapping in modular arithmetic

- To understand the wrapping, look at a smaller modulus.
- \mathbb{Z}_3 is defined using equivalence relation aRb if $a - b = 3k$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, giving equivalence classes

$$[0] = \{ \dots - 6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots \}$$

$$[1] = \{ \dots - 5, -2, 1, 4, 7, \dots \}$$

$$[2] = \{ \dots - 4, -1, 2, 5, 8, \dots \}$$

$$[3] = \{ \dots - 3, 0, 3, 6, 9, \dots \} = [0] \quad (\text{wrapping})$$

- We choose $[0], [1], [2]$ as standard names for the three classes.

Modular Arithmetic, modulo 12

Clock arithmetic, where we don't bother to write the square brackets, is an example of **modular arithmetic**.

We write

$$a \equiv b \pmod{12}$$

and say

a is equivalent to b modulo 12

whenever

$$a - b = 12k \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Examples of true statements in arithmetic, modulo 12

- $10 + 1 \equiv 11 \pmod{12}$
- $10 + 2 \equiv 12 \pmod{12} \equiv 0 \pmod{12}$ (ie. wraps around)
- $10 + 3 \equiv 13 \pmod{12} \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$ "
- \vdots

Wrapping in modular arithmetic

- Now recall the definition

$$[a] + [b] = \{x + y : x \in [a], y \in [b]\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} [0] + [1] &= \{ \dots - 6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots \} + \{ \dots - 5, -2, 1, 4, 7, \dots \} \\ &= \begin{matrix} \dots & -5 & -2 & 1 & 4 & 7 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ -6 & \dots -11 & -8, -5, -2, 1, \dots \\ -3 & \dots -8, -5, -2, 1, 4, \dots \\ 0 & \dots -5, -2, 1, 4, 7, \dots \\ 3 & \dots -2, 1, 4, 7, 10, \dots \\ 6 & \dots 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{matrix} \\ &= \{ \dots - 11, -8, -5, -2, 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, \dots \} \\ &= [1] \end{aligned}$$

Addition Table for \mathbb{Z}_3

Checking each sum in turn gives:

+	[0]	[1]	[2]
[0]	[0]	[1]	[2]
[1]	[1]	[2]	[0]
[2]	[2]	[0]	[1]

Addition Table for \mathbb{Z}_3 and Multiplication Table for \mathbb{Z}_3

When the context is clear we do not write the brackets:

+	0	1	2	·	0	1	2
0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0
1	1	1	2	0	1	0	1
2	2	2	0	1	2	0	2

Addition Table for \mathbb{Z}_3 and Multiplication Table for \mathbb{Z}_3

Checking each sum in turn gives: and products:

+	[0]	[1]	[2]	·	[0]	[1]	[2]
[0]	[0]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[0]	[0]	[0]
[1]	[1]	[1]	[2]	[0]	[1]	[0]	[1]
[2]	[2]	[2]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[0]	[2]

Modular arithmetic, modulo m

In \mathbb{Z}_m , when we do not write the brackets indicating equivalence classes, we do **arithmetic modulo m** . We write

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

and say

a is equivalent to b modulo m

whenever

$$a - b = mk \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Which claim is false?

A $2 + 3 \equiv 5 \pmod{4}$

B $2 + 3 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$

☐ $2 + 3 \equiv -3 \pmod{4}$

C $2.2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ (the dot means multiplication here)

D $2.3 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$

Check digits

Modulo arithmetic is often exploited in the production of *check digits*, where extra digit(s) are added to a number to verify that it is valid.

Example

ISBN and ISSN use modulo-11 arithmetic to construct and also verify the final digit for the “check digit”. To see this, consider the ISBN for Johnsonbaugh: 0-13-135430-2
Our check is that $1d_1 + 2d_2 + 3d_3 + \dots + 9d_9 \equiv d_{10} \pmod{11}$. If this fails then data did not transfer correctly.

Some comments about Modular Arithmetic

Modular arithmetic has:

- an additive identity, $[0]$,
- a multiplicative identity, $[1]$,
- additive inverses, **always**, eg in \mathbb{Z}_3

$$[1] + [2] = [0]$$

so that $[1]$ is the additive inverse of $[2]$. *Check all cases!*

- multiplicative inverses, **sometimes**, e.g. in \mathbb{Z}_3 ,

$$[2][2] = [4] = [1]$$

so that $[2]$ is the multiplicative inverse of itself, but in \mathbb{Z}_6 the element $[2]$ has no multiplicative inverse. *What is the important difference between \mathbb{Z}_3 and \mathbb{Z}_6 ?*

The modulo operator

The operation of finding the remainder on division by n is often written using a *modulo operator*. This is often written `mod` or `%`.

Example

In C, C++, Java, and related languages, the statement

```
a = 2016 % 7
```

invokes the calculation $2016 \div 7 = 288 \text{ rem } 0$ and assigns the value 0 to the variable a .

If $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ then

- ① $a + c \equiv b + c \pmod{n}$
- ② $ac \equiv bc \pmod{n}$
- ③ $a^2 \equiv b^2 \pmod{n}$

Example

Solve the following equations

- $3x + 1 \equiv 2x + 4 \pmod{6}$
- $4x + 1 \equiv 2x + 4 \pmod{5}$
- $4x + 1 \equiv 2x + 4 \pmod{6}$
- $5x + 1 \equiv 2x + 1 \pmod{7}$

To solve $2x = 3$ in \mathbb{R} , the real number system, we multiply LHS & RHS by $\frac{1}{2}$, the *reciprocal* (a.k.a. *inverse*) of 2.

To see what to do in the corresponding situation for modulo arithmetic, we analyse this more closely:

$$\begin{aligned} 2x &= 3 \\ \implies 2x \times q &= 3 \times q \text{ for some suitable } q \\ \implies x \times 2q &= 3q \\ \implies x &= 3q \text{ providing } 2q = 1 \end{aligned}$$

This solution relies on finding suitable q such that $2q = 1$, i.e. the *reciprocal of 2*. In \mathbb{R} , the suitable number is $\frac{1}{2} = 0.5$, and then the solution is $x = 3 \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{3}{2}$.

Questions

- Which numbers have reciprocals $\pmod{10}$?
- Which numbers have reciprocals $\pmod{12}$?
- Which numbers have reciprocals $\pmod{7}$?
- Which numbers have reciprocals \pmod{p} ? For a prime p .
- If a number m has an reciprocal mod n , how do you find it?

Theorem

m has a reciprocal \pmod{n} if and only if the greatest common divisor of m and n is 1.

That is, m has a multiplicative inverse in \mathbb{Z}_n if and only if m and n are coprime/relatively prime/ $\gcd(m, n) = 1$.

We can now look to solve

$$2x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

Use trial and error / observation, to find reciprocal of 2 (this turns out to be 3), then the solution is $x = 3 \times 3 = 9 \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$.

The Euclidean Algorithm

If a number m has a reciprocal $(\text{mod } n)$, how do you find it?
 The *Euclidean Algorithm*.
 This allows you to find the greatest common divisor of m and n , denoted $\text{gcd}(m, n)$, and then s and t such that $sm + tn = \text{gcd}(m, n)$. Once s and t are found, if $\text{gcd}(m, n) = 1$, then $sm \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ so that s is the reciprocal of m .

Example

Find the $\text{gcd}(246, 144)$.

$$\begin{aligned} (246, 144) : 246 &= 1 \times 144 + 102 \\ (144, 102) : 144 &= 1 \times 102 + 42 \\ (102, 42) : 102 &= 2 \times 42 + 18 \\ (42, 18) : 42 &= 2 \times 18 + 6 \\ (18, 6) : 18 &= 3 \times 6 + 0 \end{aligned}$$

We stop when the remainder is 0 and conclude $\text{gcd}(246, 144) = 6$

Since the gcd is not 1, there is no multiplicative inverse of 144 $(\text{mod } 246)$.
 If the gcd was one, we could continue and find the inverse!

Example

Find the reciprocal of 7 $(\text{mod } 18)$

Stage 1:

$$\begin{aligned} (18, 7) : 18 &= 2 \times 7 + 4 &\Rightarrow 4 &= 18 - 2 \times 7 \\ (7, 4) : 7 &= 1 \times 4 + 3 &\Rightarrow 3 &= 7 - 1 \times 4 \\ (4, 3) : 4 &= 1 \times 3 + 1 &\Rightarrow 1 &= 4 - 1 \times 3 \\ (3, 1) : 3 &= 3 \times 1 + 0 &&\text{stop, } \text{gcd}(18, 7) = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Conclusion $\text{gcd}(18, 7) = 1$ and so the reciprocal exists

$$\begin{aligned} (4, 3) : 1 &= 4 - 1 \times 3 \\ (7, 4) : 1 &= 4 - 1 \times (7 - 1 \times 4) \\ &= 4 - 1 \times 7 + 1 \times 4 \\ &= 2 \times 4 - 1 \times 7 \\ (18, 7) : 1 &= 2 \times (18 - 2 \times 7) - 1 \times 7 \\ &= 2 \times 18 - 4 \times 7 - 1 \times 7 \\ &= 2 \times 18 - 5 \times 7 \end{aligned}$$

Example

Stage 2:

Work backwards and substitute the equations on the RHS to write 1 as a combination of each a and b .

We can do this procedure with different setting out if you prefer:

Example

Find the reciprocal of 7 (mod 18)

Stage 1:

Start with $(a, b) = (m, n)$ and replace (a, b) with $(b, a \% b)$, and repeat until $b = 1$. Also, for later reference, write each remainder as a subtraction.

$$\begin{aligned}(18, 7) : 18 \div 7 &= 2r4 \Rightarrow 4 = 18 - 2 \times 7 \\ (7, 4) : 7 \div 4 &= 1r3 \Rightarrow 3 = 7 - 1 \times 4 \\ (4, 3) : 4 \div 3 &= 1r1 \Rightarrow 1 = 4 - 1 \times 3 \\ (3, 1) : 3 \div 1 &= 3r0 \text{ stop, } \gcd(18, 7) = 1\end{aligned}$$

Conclusion $\gcd(18, 7) = 1$ so the reciprocal exists

Example

Stage 2:

Work backwards using the equations on the RHS to write 1 as a combination of each a and b :

$$\begin{aligned}(4, 3) : 1 &= 4 - 3 \\ (7, 4) : 1 &= 4 - (7 - 4) = 2 \times 4 - 7 \\ (18, 7) : 1 &= 2 \times (18 - 2 \times 7) - 7 = 2 \times 18 - 5 \times 7\end{aligned}$$

Stage 3:

Since $sm + tn = 2 \times 18 - 5 \times 7 = 1$, we have $-5 \times 7 \equiv 1 \pmod{18}$. Thus $-5 \equiv 13$ is the modulo-18 reciprocal of 7.
Checking, $7 \times 13 = 91 \equiv 1 \pmod{18}$

Textbook exercises

Exercise section 3.1

- 53-54

Exercise section 5.3

- 1-11 (find the gcd using the Euclidean algorithm)
- 33-39 (extended Euclidean algorithm to find inverses)