

Monday, February 26: Modular arithmetic calculations

Learning Objectives. By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Use Wilson's Theorem to find the least nonnegative residue modulo a prime
- Use Fermat's Little Theorem to find the least nonnegative residue modulo a prime.

Reading None

Multiplicative inverses using Wilson's Theorem (30 min)

First, some important algebra for multiplicative inverses

Example 1. (a) Let n be an odd positive integer. Then

$$2 \left(\frac{n+1}{2} \right) = n+1 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}.$$

So $\frac{n+1}{2}$ is the multiplicative inverse of 2 modulo n .

Think-Pair-Share 0.1. Why is $\left(\frac{n+1}{2}, n \right) = 1$?

We also have that $n - \frac{n+1}{2} = \frac{n-1}{2}$ and $n-2 \equiv -2 \pmod{n}$, so $\frac{n-1}{2}$ is the multiplicative inverse of $n-2$ modulo n . Another way to see this is

$$-2 \left(\frac{n-1}{2} \right) = -n+1 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}.$$

(b) Let m and n be positive integers such that $n \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$. Then there exists $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n = mk+1$ by the $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$. Then

$$-m \left(\frac{n-1}{m} \right) = -n+1 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}.$$

(c) Let m and n be positive integers such that $n \equiv -1 \pmod{m}$. Then there exists $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n = mk-1$ by definition. Then

$$m \left(\frac{n+1}{m} \right) = n+1 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}.$$

Example 2. (a) Practice with Wilson's Theorem: Find $\frac{31!}{23!} \pmod{11}$.

$$\begin{aligned} x \equiv \frac{31!}{23!} &\equiv 24(25)(26)(27)(28)(29)(30)(31) \pmod{11} \\ &\equiv 2(3)(4)(5)(6)(7)(8)(9) \pmod{11}. \end{aligned}$$

Then $-x \equiv 10! \equiv -1 \pmod{11}$. Therefore, $x \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$.

(b) Let p be an odd prime p , then $2(p-3)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$.

Proof Let p be an odd prime, then $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ by Wilson's Theorem. Multiplying both sides of the congruence by -1 gives $(p-2)! \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Since $(p-2)! = (p-3)!(p-2)$ by the definition of factorial, $p-2 \equiv -2 \pmod{p}$ is the multiplicative inverse of $(p-3)!$ modulo p . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} -2(p-3)! &\equiv 1 \pmod{p} \\ 2(p-3)! &\equiv -1 \pmod{p}. \end{aligned}$$

■

Finding least nonnegative residue Fermat's Little Theorem (20 min)

Example 3. (a) Find the least nonnegative residue of 29^{202} modulo 13.

First, note that $29 \equiv 3 \pmod{13}$ and $202 = 12(10) + 82 = 12(10) + 12(6) + 10 = 12(16) + 10$. Thus,

$$29^{202} \equiv 3^{202} \equiv (3^{12})^{16} 3^{10} \equiv 1^{16} 3^{10} \pmod{13}$$

From here, we have two options:

Keep reducing: For this problem, this is the easier method:

$$3^{10} \equiv (3^3)^3 3 \equiv (27)^3 3 \equiv 3 \pmod{13}.$$

Find inverse: Note that $3^{12} \equiv 1 \pmod{13}$, so 3^{10} is the multiplicative inverse of $3^2 \equiv 9 \pmod{13}$. Since $9(3) \equiv 1 \pmod{13}$, $3^{10} \equiv 1 \pmod{13}$.

(b) Find the least nonnegative residue of 71^{71} modulo 17.

First, note that $71 \equiv 3 \pmod{17}$ and $71 = 8(8) + 7$. Thus,

$$71^{71} \equiv 3^{71} \equiv (3^8)^8 3^7 \equiv 1^8 3^7 \pmod{17}$$

Then

$$3^7 \equiv 3^3(3^3)(3) \equiv 10(10)(3) \equiv 10(-4) \equiv -6 \equiv 11 \pmod{17}.$$

Corollary (Corollary 2.14). Let p be a prime. If $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p \nmid a$, then a^{p-2} is the multiplicative inverse of a modulo p .

Think-Pair-Share 0.2. Prove: Let p be a prime. If $a, k \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p \nmid a$ and $0 \leq k < p$, then a^{p-k} is the multiplicative inverse of a^k modulo p .

Proof Let p be a prime. If $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p \nmid a$, then by Fermat's Little Theorem, $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. If $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $0 \leq k < p$, then $a^{p-1} = a^{p-k} a^k$. Thus, $a^{p-k} a^k \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. ■

Example 4. Find all incongruent solutions to $9x \equiv 21 \pmod{23}$.

Since $(9, 23) = 1$, there is only one incongruent solution modulo 23. By Corollary 2.14, 9^{21} is the multiplicative inverse of 9 modulo 23. Thus, $x \equiv 21(9^{21}) \pmod{23}$.

Alternately, 3^{20} is the multiplicative inverse of 3^2 modulo 23, so $x \equiv 21(3^{20}) \equiv (3^{21})7 \pmod{23}$. Since 3^{21} is the multiplicative inverse of 3 modulo 23, so $3^{21} \equiv 8 \pmod{23}$. Thus, $x \equiv 7(8) \equiv 10 \pmod{23}$.

Example 5. Let p be prime and $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p \nmid a$ and $p \nmid b$. Then $a^p \equiv b^p \pmod{p}$ if and only if $a \equiv b \pmod{p}$.

Proof Let p be prime and $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p \nmid a$ and $p \nmid b$.

(\Leftarrow) If $a \equiv b \pmod{p}$, then $a^p \equiv b^p \pmod{p}$ by repeated applications of Proposition 2.4.

(\Rightarrow) If $a^p \equiv b^p \pmod{p}$, then by Fermat's Little Theorem,

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

■

Warning 1. This statement is only true for primes. Since

$$1^2 \equiv 3^2 \equiv 5^2 \equiv 7^2 \pmod{8}, \quad 2^2 \equiv 6^2 \pmod{8},$$

$$1^8 \equiv 3^8 \equiv 5^8 \equiv 7^8 \pmod{8}, \quad 2^8 \equiv 6^8 \pmod{8}.$$

Wednesday, February 28: Modular arithmetic calculations and the ϕ -function

Learning Objectives. By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Use Euler's Theorem to find the least nonnegative residue modulo a composite
- Use Euler's Theorem to find the multiplicative inverse of an integer modulo m
- Prove $\phi(4)\phi(5) = \phi(20)$ using an outline that mirrors the proof that $\phi(m)\phi(n) = \phi(mn)$ when $(m, n) = 1$.

Reading None

Multiplicative inverses using Euler's Extension of Fermat's Little Theorem (30 min)

Example 6. (a) Find the least nonnegative residue of 29^{202} modulo 20.

The integers 1, 3, 7, 9, 11, 13, 17, 19 are relatively prime to 20. Thus $\phi(20) = 8$. Also note that $29 \equiv 9 \pmod{20}$ and $202 = 8(25) + 2$, so

$$29^{202} \equiv 9^{202} \equiv (9^8)^{25}9^2 \equiv 1^{25}9^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{20}$$

(b) Find the least nonnegative residue of 71^{71} modulo 16.

The integers 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15 are relatively prime to 16. Thus $\phi(16) = 8$. Also note that $71 \equiv 7 \pmod{16}$ and $71 = 8(8) + 7$, so

$$71^{71} \equiv 7^{71} \equiv (7^8)^87^7 \equiv 1^87^7 \pmod{16}$$

Since $7^8 \equiv 7^77 \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$, 7^7 is the multiplicative inverse of 7 mod 16.

Using the Euclidean algorithm,

$$\begin{aligned} 16 &= 7(2) + 2, & 2 &= 16 + 7(-2) \\ 7 &= 2(3) + 1, & 1 &= 7 - 2(3) = 7 - (16 + 7(-2))(3) = 16(-3) + 7(7) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $7(7) \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$, and $7^7 \equiv 7 \pmod{16}$.

Corollary (Corollary 2.19). Let $a, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m > 0$. If $(a, m) = 1$, then $a^{\phi(m)-1}$ is the multiplicative inverse of a modulo m .

Example 7. Find all incongruent solutions to $9x \equiv 21 \pmod{25}$.

The only positive integers less than 25 that are not relatively prime to 25 are 5, 10, 15, 20. Thus, $\phi(25) = 24 - 4 = 20$.

Since $(9, 25) = 1$, there is only one incongruent solution modulo 25. By Corollary 2.19, 9^{19} is the multiplicative inverse of 9 modulo 25. Thus, $x \equiv 21(9^{19}) \pmod{25}$.

Alternately, 3^{18} is the multiplicative inverse of 3^2 modulo 25, so $x \equiv 21(3^{18}) \equiv (3^{19})7 \pmod{25}$.

The previous example does not ask for the least nonnegative residue, but let's find it anyway.

Example 8. Find the least nonnegative residue of $(9^{19})21$ modulo 25.

First, note that $(9^{19})21 = (3^2)^{19}9(21)$. From here there are two options:

Factor 21:

$$(9^{19})21 \equiv (3^2)^{19}9(3)(7) \equiv (3^{39})(7) \equiv (3^{20})(3^{19})(7) \pmod{25}$$

By Euler's Generalization of Fermat's Little Theorem, $3^{20} \equiv 1 \pmod{25}$ and by Corollary 2.19, 3^{19} is the multiplicative inverse of 3 modulo 25. Since $3(-8) \equiv -24 \equiv 1 \pmod{25}$, $3^{19} \equiv -8 \pmod{25}$. Thus,

$$(9^{19})21 \equiv (-8)(7) \equiv -56 \equiv 19 \pmod{25}.$$

Using $21 \equiv -4 \pmod{25}$:

$$(9^{19})21 \equiv (3^2)^{19}9(-4) \equiv (3^{38})(-4) \equiv (3^{20})(3^{18})(-4) \pmod{25}$$

Since $3^{20} = 3^{18}(3^2) \equiv 1 \pmod{25}$ by Euler's Generalization of Fermat's Little Theorem, 3^{18} is the multiplicative inverse of $3^2 = 9$ modulo 25. Since $9(-11) \equiv -99 \equiv 1 \pmod{25}$, we have $3^{18} \equiv -11 \pmod{25}$. Thus,

$$(9^{19})21 \equiv (-11)(-4) \equiv 44 \equiv 19 \pmod{25}.$$

In-class Problem 1 Let p, q be distinct primes. Prove that $p^{q-1} + q^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{pq}$.

Proof Let p, q be distinct primes. Then $\boxed{q^{p-1} \equiv 1} \pmod{p}$ and $\boxed{p^{q-1} \equiv 1} \pmod{q}$ by Fermat's Little Theorem, and $\boxed{p^{q-1} \equiv 1} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and $\boxed{q^{p-1} \equiv 1} \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$ by **definition**.

Thus, $p^{q-1} + q^{p-1} \equiv \boxed{1} \pmod{p}$ and $p^{q-1} + q^{p-1} \equiv \boxed{1} \pmod{q}$ by **modular addition**.

(Finish proof using definition of congruence modulo p and q) ■

The Euler ϕ -function (20 min)

We will also find a formula for $\phi(n)$ in general. The following exercise will outline the general proof:

In-class Problem 2 Let us prove that $\phi(20) = \phi(4)\phi(5)$. First, note that $\phi(4) = \boxed{2}$ and $\phi(5) = \boxed{4}$, so $\phi(20) = \boxed{8}$.

- (a) A number a is relatively prime to 20 if and only if a is relatively prime to $\boxed{4}$ and $\boxed{5}$
- (b) We can partition the positive integers less than 20 into

$$0 \equiv \boxed{4} \equiv \boxed{8} \equiv \boxed{12} \equiv \boxed{16} \pmod{4}$$

$$1 \equiv \boxed{5} \equiv \boxed{9} \equiv \boxed{13} \equiv \boxed{17} \pmod{4}$$

$$2 \equiv \boxed{6} \equiv \boxed{10} \equiv \boxed{14} \equiv \boxed{18} \pmod{4}$$

$$3 \equiv \boxed{7} \equiv \boxed{11} \equiv \boxed{15} \equiv \boxed{19} \pmod{4}$$

For any b in the range $0, 1, 2, 3$, define s_b to be the number of integers a in the range $0, 1, 2, \dots, 19$ such that $a \equiv b \pmod{4}$ and $\gcd(a, 20) = 1$. Thus, $s_0 = \boxed{0}$, $s_1 = \boxed{4}$, $s_2 = \boxed{0}$, and $s_3 = \boxed{4}$.

We can see that when $(b, 4) = 1$, $s_b = \phi(\boxed{5})$ and when $(b, 4) > 1$, $s_b = \boxed{0}$.

- (c) $\phi(20) = s_0 + s_1 + s_2 + s_3$. Why?

Solution: All of the positive integers less than or equal to 20 is in exactly one of the congruence classes above. The s_i count how many integers in each congruence class are relatively prime to 20. If we add them up, we have counted all positive integers less than or equal to 20.

- (d) We have seen that $\phi(20) = s_0 + s_1 + s_2 + s_3$, that when $(b, 4) = 1$, $s_b = \phi(5)$, and that when $(b, 4) > 1$, $s_b = 0$. Thus, we can say that $\phi(20) = 0 + \phi(\boxed{5}) + 0 + \phi(\boxed{5})$. To finish the “proof” we show that there are $\phi(\boxed{4})$ integers b where $(b, 4) = 1$.

Solution: There are $\boxed{4}$ congruence classes modulo 4. Of these, $\boxed{2} = \phi(\boxed{4})$ have elements that are relatively prime to 20. Thus, $\phi(20) = \phi(4)\phi(5)$.

Friday, March 1: The ϕ -function and a preview of primitive roots

Learning Objectives. By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Prove that $\phi(m)\phi(n) = \phi(mn)$ when $(m, n) = 1$.

Reading None

Turn In Paper 2

Quiz (10 min)**The Euler ϕ -function (20 min)**

We will use [In-class Problem 2](#) as an outline to prove

Theorem (Theorem 3.2). *Let m and n be positive integers where $(m, n) = 1$. Then $\phi(mn) = \phi(m)\phi(n)$.*

maybe works?

Proof First, we note that an integer a is relatively prime to mn if and only if it is relatively prime to m and n , since m and n (together) have the same prime divisors as mn .

We can partition the positive integers less than mn into

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \equiv m & \equiv 2m & \equiv \cdots \equiv (n-1)m & \pmod{m} \\ 1 & \equiv m+1 & \equiv 2m+1 & \equiv \cdots \equiv (n-1)m+1 & \pmod{m} \\ 2 & \equiv m+2 & \equiv 2m+2 & \equiv \cdots \equiv (n-1)m+2 & \pmod{m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \\ m-1 & \equiv 2m-1 & \equiv 3m-1 & \equiv \cdots \equiv nm-1 & \pmod{m} \end{array}$$

For any b in the range $0, 1, 2, \dots, m-1$, define s_b to be the number of integers a in the range $0, 1, 2, \dots, mn-1$ such that $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $\gcd(a, mn) = 1$. For each equivalence class b , $\gcd(b, m) \mid km + b$ by linear combination. Thus, $s_b = 0$ if $(b, m) > 1$. If $\gcd(b, m) = 1$, the arithmetic progression, $\{b, m+b, 2m+b, \dots, (n-1)m+b\}$ contains n elements. By [In-class Problem 3](#), the arithmetic progression is a [complete residue system](#) modulo n , so $\phi(n)$ elements are relatively prime to n and thus mn .

Thus, can see that when $(b, m) = 1$, $s_b = \phi(n)$ and when $(b, m) > 1$, $s_b = 0$.

Since all of the positive integers less than or equal to mn is in exactly one of the congruence classes above and the s_i count how many integers in each congruence class are relatively prime to mn , $\phi(mn) = s_0 + s_1 + \cdots + s_{m-1}$.

Since $\phi(m)$ of the $s_i = \phi(n)$ and the rest are 0, $\phi(mn) = s_0 + s_1 + \cdots + s_{m-1} = \phi(m)\phi(n)$. ■

In-class Problem 3 Complete the proof of [Theorem 3.2](#) by proving that, if m, n , and i are positive integers with $(m, n) = (m, i) = 1$, then the integers $i, m+i, 2m+i, \dots, (n-1)m+i$ form a complete system of residues modulo n .