## M 328K: Lecture 5

### Katherine Ho

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### 1 Modular Congruences

Recall: We often use arguments like "n is of the form 4k, 4k + 1, 4k + 2, or 4k + 3..."

**Definition 1.1** (Precise). Let  $a, b, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and n > 0. We say that a is congruent to b mod n if n | (a - b). We write

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

**Definition 1.2** (Informal).  $a \equiv b \mod n$  if a and b give the same remainder after division by n. Examples:

- $7 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$
- $-31 \equiv 11 \pmod{7}$
- $10^{2024} + 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{1}0$
- $a \equiv b \pmod{2}$  iff a and b are both even or both odd
- a can be written in the form

$$a = nk + r$$

iff 
$$a \equiv r \pmod{n}$$

**Proposition 1.1.** Every integer is congruent modulo n to exactly one of 0, 1, 2, ..., n-1

*Proof.* Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . By the division algorithm, we can write

$$a = nq + r, \ 0 \le r < n$$

Then a - r = nq, so n|a - r, ie.

$$a \equiv r \pmod{n}$$

Uniqueness follows from uniqueness of division algorithm remainder.

**Theorem 1.1.** Let  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}, n > 0$ . Then

- 1.  $a \equiv a \pmod{n}$
- 2. if  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  then  $b \equiv a \pmod{n}$
- 3. if  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  and  $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$ , then  $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$

*Proof* (3). By definition, n|a-b and n|b-c. Recall that if n|r,n|s, then n|(rx+sy) for any  $x,y\in\mathbb{Z}$ . In particular,

$$n|((a-b)+(b-c)) \Leftrightarrow n|(a-c)$$

So 
$$a \equiv c \pmod{n}$$
.

**Theorem 1.2.** Let  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$  and assume  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ .

- 1. if  $c \equiv d \pmod{n}$ , then  $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{n}$ .
- 2. if  $c \equiv d \pmod{n}$ , then  $ac \equiv bd \pmod{n}$ .
- 3.  $a^k \equiv b^k \pmod{n} \ \forall k \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Proof (1). Suppose 
$$a \equiv b \pmod{n}$$
 and  $c \equiv d \pmod{n}$ . By definition,  $n|a-b$  and  $n|c-d$ . But,  $(a+c)-(b+d)=(a-b)+(c-d)$  which is divisible by n, so  $a+c \equiv b+d \pmod{n}$ .

Proof (3) by Induction. Base case: k=1. Tautology Inductive step: Assume for some k>1 that  $a^k\equiv b^k\pmod n$  (WTS:  $a^{k+1}\equiv b^{k+1}$ ) Note by (2) we have

$$a^{k} \equiv b^{k} \pmod{n}$$

$$a^{k} \cdot a \equiv b^{k} \cdot b \pmod{n}$$

$$a^{k+1} \equiv b^{k+1} \pmod{n}$$
[2]

**WARNING**: In general, if  $ac \equiv bc \pmod{n}$ , it is not true that  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ . Ex:  $2 \cdot 3 \equiv 2 \cdot 0 \pmod{6}$ 

**Example 1.2.1.** Show  $41|(2^{20}-1) \Leftrightarrow Show\ 2^{20} \equiv 1 \pmod{41}$ . First,

$$2^{5} \equiv 32 \pmod{41}$$

$$(2^{5})^{2} \equiv (-9)^{2}$$

$$2^{10} \equiv 81 \pmod{41}$$

$$2^{10} \equiv -1 \pmod{41}$$

$$2^{20} \equiv (-1) \equiv 1 \pmod{41}$$

**Proposition 1.2.** A decimal integer is divisible by 3 iff the sum of its digits is divisible by 3.

*Proof.* Let n be an integer whose decimal representation is

$$(a_n a_{n-1} \dots a_1 a_0)_{10}$$

Then

$$a = a_0 + a_1 \cdot 10 + a_2 \cdot 100 + \dots + a_n \cdot 10^n$$

Then

$$a = a_0 + a_1 \cdot 10 + \dots + a_n \cdot 10^n \pmod{n}$$

Since  $10 \mod 3 \equiv 1$ , we have

$$a \equiv a_0 + a_1 + \dots + a_n \pmod{3}$$

# 2 Congruences with Unknowns

Example 2.0.1. Solve

$$x + 12 \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$$
$$x \equiv -7 \pmod{8}$$

We also have

•  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$  is also a solution

- $x \equiv 9$
- $x \equiv 17$

But we consider these to be the "same" since they are congruent.

### Example 2.0.2. Solve

$$4x \equiv 3 \pmod{19}$$
$$20x \equiv 15 \pmod{19}$$
$$x \equiv 15 \pmod{19}$$
$$Since \ 20 \equiv 1 \pmod{19}$$

#### Example 2.0.3. Solve

$$6x \equiv 15 \pmod{514}$$

 $This \ has \ no \ solutions.$ 

Why?! 6x - 15 is always odd.

In particular,  $514 \nmid (6x - 15)$ .

In general, we want to understand when  $ax \equiv b$  has solutions and how to find them.

**Example 2.0.4.**  $18x \equiv 8 \pmod{22}$  has incongruent solutions  $x \equiv 20 \pmod{22}$  and  $x \equiv a \pmod{22}$