

DISCRETE STRUCTURES

COURSE INSTRUCTOR: MUHAMMAD SAIF UL ISLAM

Course Outline

- **► Logic and Proofs** (Chapter 1)
- ➤ Sets and Functions (Chapter 2)
- **≻ Relations** (Chapter 9)
- **Number Theory** (Chapter 4)
- ► Combinatorics and Recurrence
- **≻**Graphs
- > Trees
- ➤ Discrete Probability

Lecture Outline

- ➤ Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic
- ➤ Applications of Congruencies
- Cryptography
- ➤ Primes and Greatest Common Divisors
- ➤ Solving Congruencies
- Chinese Remainder Theorem

Primes and Greatest Common Divisors

Primes

Definition: A positive integer p greater than 1 is called *prime* if the only positive factors of p are 1 and p. A positive integer that is greater than 1 and is not prime is called *composite*.

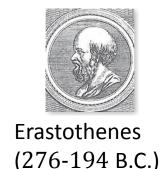
Example: The integer 7 is prime because its only positive factors are 1 and 7, but 9 is composite because it is divisible by 3.

The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

Theorem 1: Every positive integer greater than 1 can be written uniquely as a prime or as the product of two or more primes where the prime factors are written in order of nondecreasing size.

Examples:

- $100 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 5 = 2^2 \cdot 5^2$
- 641 = 641.1
- $999 = 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 37 = 3^3 \cdot 37$



The Sieve of Erastosthenes

The Sieve of Erastosthenes (air-uh-TAWS-thuh-neez) can be used to find all primes not exceeding a specified positive integer. For example, begin with the list of integers between 1 and 100.

- a. Delete all the integers, other than 2, divisible by 2.
- b. Delete all the integers, other than 3, divisible by 3.
- c. Next, delete all the integers, other than 5, divisible by 5.
- d. Next, delete all the integers, other than 7, divisible by 7.
- e. Since all the remaining integers are not divisible by any of the previous integers, other than 1, the primes are:

{2,3,7,11,19,23,29,31,37,41,43,47,53,59,61,67,71,73,79,83,89,97}

 $continued \rightarrow$

The Sieve of Erastosthenes

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<u>12</u>	13	<u>14</u>	15	<u>16</u>	17	<u>18</u>	19	<u>20</u>	11 <u>12</u> 13 <u>14</u> <u>15</u> <u>16</u> 17 <u>18</u> 19 <u>20</u>				
<u>22</u>	23	<u>24</u>	25	<u>26</u>	27	<u>28</u>	29	<u>30</u>	<u>21</u> <u>22</u> 23 <u>24</u> 25 <u>26</u> <u>27</u> <u>28</u> 29 <u>30</u>				
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Integers divisible by 5 other than 5									Integers divisible by 7 other than 7 receive				
receive an underline.								an underline; integers in color are prime.					
2	3	4	5	<u>6</u>	7	8	9	<u>10</u>	$1 2 3 \underline{4} 5 \underline{\underline{6}} 7 \underline{8} \underline{9} \underline{\underline{10}}$				
<u>12</u>	13	<u>14</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>16</u>	17	<u>18</u>	19	<u>20</u>	11 <u>12</u> 13 <u>14</u> <u>15</u> <u>16</u> 17 <u>18</u> 19 <u>20</u>				
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Theorem 2: If an integer n is a composite integer, then it has a prime divisor less than or equal to \sqrt{n} .

To see this, note that if n = ab, then $a \le \sqrt{n}$ or $b \le \sqrt{n}$.

Trial division, a very inefficient method of determining if a number n is prime, is to try every integer $i \le \sqrt{n}$ and see if n is divisible by i.





Marin Mersenne (1588-1648)

Definition: Prime numbers of the form $2^p - 1$, where p is prime, are called *Mersenne primes*.

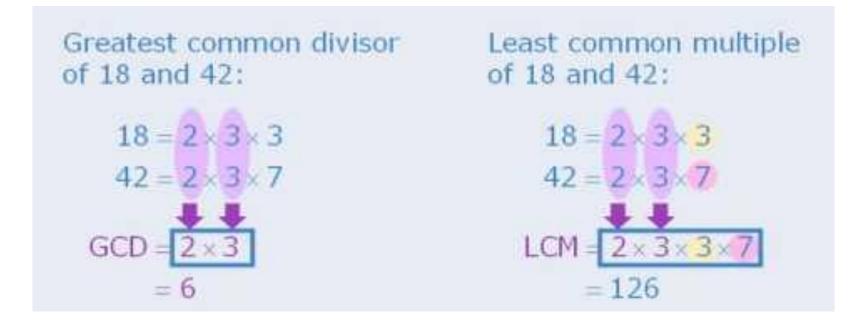
- $2^2 1 = 3$, $2^3 1 = 7$, $2^5 1 = 37$, and $2^7 1 = 127$ are Mersenne primes.
- $2^{11} 1 = 2047$ is not a Mersenne prime since 2047 = 23.89.
- There is an efficient test for determining if $2^p 1$ is prime.
- The largest known prime numbers are Mersenne primes.
- As of mid 2011, 47 Mersenne primes were known, the largest is $2^{43,112,609} 1$, which has nearly 13 million decimal digits.
- Largest known prime is 2^{82,589,933} 1 (December 7, 2018)
- The *Great Internet Mersenne Prime Search (GIMPS*) is a distributed computing project to search for new Mersenne Primes.

http://www.mersenne.org/

GCD and LCM

GCD: Greatest Common Divisor

LCM: Least Common Multiple



Greatest Common Divisor

Definition: Let a and b be integers, not both zero. The largest integer d such that $d \mid a$ and also $d \mid b$ is called the greatest common divisor of a and b. The greatest common divisor of a and b is denoted by gcd(a,b).

One can find greatest common divisors of small numbers by inspection.

Example: What is the greatest common divisor of 24 and 36?

Solution: gcd(24,36) = 12

Example: What is the greatest common divisor of 17 and 22?

Solution: gcd(17,22) = 1

Greatest Common Divisor

Definition: The integers a and b are *relatively prime* if their greatest common divisor is 1.

Example: 17 and 22

Definition: The integers a_1 , a_2 , ..., a_n are pairwise relatively prime if $gcd(a_i, a_j) = 1$ whenever $1 \le i < j \le n$.

Example: Determine whether the integers 10, 17 and 21 are pairwise relatively prime.

Solution: Because gcd(10,17) = 1, gcd(10,21) = 1, and gcd(17,21) = 1, 10, 17, and 21 are pairwise relatively prime.

Example: Determine whether the integers 10, 19, and 24 are pairwise relatively prime.

Solution: Because gcd(10,24) = 2, 10, 19, and 24 are not pairwise relatively prime.

Finding the Greatest Common Divisor Using Prime Factorizations

Suppose the prime factorizations of *a* and *b* are:

$$a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \dots p_n^{a_n}$$
, $b = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \dots p_n^{b_n}$,

where each exponent is a nonnegative integer, and where all primes occurring in either prime factorization are included in both. Then:

$$\gcd(a,b) = p_1^{\min(a_1,b_1)} p_2^{\min(a_2,b_2)} \dots p_n^{\min(a_n,b_n)}.$$

This formula is valid since the integer on the right (of the equals sign) divides both a and b. No larger integer can divide both a and b.

Example:
$$120 = 2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$$
 $500 = 2^2 \cdot 5^3$ $gcd(120,500) = 2^{min(3,2)} \cdot 3^{min(1,0)} \cdot 5^{min(1,3)} = 2^2 \cdot 3^0 \cdot 5^1 = 20$

Finding the gcd of two positive integers using their prime factorizations is not efficient because there is no efficient algorithm for finding the prime factorization of a positive integer.

Least Common Multiple

Definition: The least common multiple of the positive integers a and b is the smallest positive integer that is divisible by both a and b. It is denoted by lcm(a,b).

The least common multiple can also be computed from the prime factorizations.

$$lcm(a,b) = p_1^{\max(a_1,b_1)} p_2^{\max(a_2,b_2)} \cdots p_n^{\max(a_n,b_n)}$$

This number is divided by both a and b and no smaller number is divided by a and b.

Example:
$$lcm(2^33^57^2, 2^43^3) = 2^{max(3,4)} 3^{max(5,3)} 7^{max(2,0)} = 2^4 3^5 7^2$$

The greatest common divisor and the least common multiple of two integers are related by:

Theorem 5: Let a and b be positive integers. Then

$$a.b = \gcd(a,b) \cdot \operatorname{lcm}(a,b)$$

(proof is Exercise 31)





Euclid (325 B.C.E. – 265 B.C.E.)

The Euclidian algorithm is an efficient method for computing the greatest common divisor of two integers. It is based on the idea that gcd(a,b) is equal to gcd(a,c) when a > b and c is the remainder when a is divided by b.

Example: Find gcd(287, 91):

```
\begin{array}{lll} \circ & 287 = 91 \cdot 3 + 14 & \text{Divide } 287 \text{ by } 91 \\ \circ & 91 = 14 \cdot 6 + 7 & \text{Divide } 91 \text{ by } 14 \\ \circ & 14 = 7 \cdot 2 + 0 & \text{Stopping condition} \end{array}
```

$$gcd(287, 91) = gcd(91, 14) = gcd(14, 7) = 7$$

continued \rightarrow

Euclidean Algorithm

The Euclidean algorithm expressed in pseudocode is:

```
procedure gcd(a, b: positive integers)
x := a
y := b
while y ≠ 0
r := x mod y
x := y
y := r
return x {gcd(a,b) is x}
```

In Section 5.3, we'll see that the time complexity of the algorithm is $O(\log b)$, where a > b.

gcds as Linear Combinations





Bézout's Theorem: If a and b are positive integers, then there exist integers s and t such that gcd(a,b) = sa + tb.

(proof in exercises of Section 5.2)

Definition: If a and b are positive integers, then integers s and t such that gcd(a,b) = sa + tb are called B ezout coefficients of a and b. The equation gcd(a,b) = sa + tb is called B ezout's identity.

By Bézout's Theorem, the gcd of integers a and b can be expressed in the form sa + tb where s and t are integers. This is a *linear combination* with integer coefficients of a and b.

 $\circ \gcd(6,14) = (-2) \cdot 6 + 1 \cdot 14$

Finding gcds as Linear Combinations

Example: Express gcd(252,198) = 18 as a linear combination of 252 and 198.

Solution: First use the Euclidean algorithm to show gcd(252,198) = 18

```
i. 252 = 1.198 + 54

ii. 198 = 3.54 + 36

iii. 54 = 1.36 + 18

iv. 36 = 2.18
```

Now working backwards, from iii and i above

```
 \cdot 18 = 54 - 1.36 
 \cdot 36 = 198 - 3.54
```

• Substituting the 2nd equation into the 1st yields:

```
 18 = 54 - 1 \cdot (198 - 3.54) = 4.54 - 1.198
```

• Substituting 54 = 252 - 1.198 (from i)) yields:

```
 \cdot 18 = 4 \cdot (252 - 1 \cdot 198) - 1 \cdot 198 = 4 \cdot 252 - 5 \cdot 198
```

```
Q. gcd(287,91) = 7, find s and t?

i- 287 = 3. 91 + 14 14 = 1.287 - 3 \cdot 91

ii- 91 = 6 \cdot 14 + 7 7 = 1.91 - 6 \cdot 14

iii- 14 = 2 \cdot 7 + 0

(Replacing 14)

7 = 1.91 - 6(1.287 - 3.91)

7 = -6.287 + 19.91

s = -6, t = 19
```

This method illustrated above is a two pass method. It first uses the Euclidian algorithm to find the gcd and then works backwards to express the gcd as a linear combination of the original two integers. A one pass method, called the *extended Euclidean algorithm*, is developed in the exercises.

Dividing Congruencies by an Integer

Dividing both sides of a valid congruence by an integer does not always produce a valid congruence (see Section 4.1).

But dividing by an integer relatively prime to the modulus does produce a valid congruence:

Theorem 7: Let m be a positive integer and let a, b, and c be integers.

If $a.c \equiv b.c \pmod{m}$ and gcd(c,m) = 1, then $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

Example: $33 \equiv 3 \pmod{10}$, upon division by 3 gives $11 \equiv 1 \pmod{10}$

 $11.3 \equiv 1.3 \pmod{10}$

Exercise: check $14 \equiv 4 \pmod{10}$?

Solving Congruencies

Linear Congruencies

Definition: A congruence of the form

 $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$,

where m is a positive integer, a and b are integers, and x is a variable, is called a *linear congruence*.

The solutions to a linear congruence $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ are all integers x that satisfy the congruence.

Definition: An integer \bar{a} such that $\bar{a}a \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ is said to be an *inverse* of a modulo m.

Example: 5 is an inverse of 3 modulo 7 since $5 \cdot 3 = 15 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$

One method of solving linear congruencies makes use of an inverse \bar{a} , if it exists. Although we can not divide both sides of the congruence by a, we can multiply by \bar{a} to solve for x.

Inverse of a modulo m

The following theorem guarantees that an inverse of a modulo m exists whenever a and m are relatively prime. Two integers a and b are relatively prime when gcd(a,b) = 1.

Theorem 1: If a and m are relatively prime integers and m > 1, then an inverse of a modulo m exists. Furthermore, this inverse is unique modulo m. (This means that there is a unique positive integer \bar{a} less than m that is an inverse of a modulo m and every other inverse of a modulo m is congruent to \bar{a} modulo m.)

Proof: Since gcd(a,m) = 1, by Theorem 6 of Section 4.3, there are integers s and t such that sa + tm = 1.

- Since, -tm = as 1
- Hence $m \mid (as 1)$
- Consequently, as $\equiv 1 \pmod{m}$

Finding Inverses

The Euclidean algorithm and Bézout coefficients gives us a systematic approaches to finding inverses.

Example: Find an inverse of 3 modulo 7. (acc to euclid algo -> a>b so in gcd they are reversed)

Solution: Because gcd(3,7) = 1, by Theorem 1, an inverse of 3 modulo 7 exists.

- Using the Euclidian algorithm: 7 = 2.3 + 1.
- From this equation, we get -2.3 + 1.7 = 1, and see that -2 and 1 are Bézout coefficients of 3 and 7.
- Hence, -2 is an inverse of 3 modulo 7 according to sa + tm = 1 where s is \bar{a}
- Also every integer congruent to -2 modulo 7 is an inverse of 3 modulo 7, i.e., 5, -9, 12, etc. $5 \equiv -2 \pmod{7}$ Since, $\bar{a}a \equiv 1 \pmod{m} => 5.3 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$ $=> -9.3 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$ $=> -9.3 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$ $=> 12.3 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$

Finding Inverses

Example: Find an inverse of 101 modulo 42620.

Solution: First use the Euclidian algorithm to show that gcd(101,4620) = 1. Working Backwards:

$$42620 = 45 \cdot 101 + 75$$

$$101 = 1 \cdot 75 + 26$$

$$75 = 2 \cdot 26 + 23$$

$$26 = 1 \cdot 23 + 3$$

$$23 = 7 \cdot 3 + 2$$

$$3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1$$
Since the last nonzero
$$1 = 3 - 1 \cdot 2$$

$$1 = 3 - 1 \cdot (23 - 7 \cdot 3) = -1 \cdot 23 + 8 \cdot 3$$

$$1 = -1 \cdot 23 + 8 \cdot (26 - 1 \cdot 23) = 8 \cdot 26 - 9 \cdot 23$$

$$1 = 8 \cdot 26 - 9 \cdot (75 - 2 \cdot 26) = 26 \cdot 26 - 9 \cdot 75$$

$$1 = 26 \cdot (101 - 1 \cdot 75) - 9 \cdot 75$$

$$1 = 26 \cdot 101 - 35 \cdot 75$$

$$1 = 26 \cdot 101 - 35 \cdot (42620 - 45 \cdot 101)$$

$$= -35 \cdot 42620 + 1601 \cdot 101$$

Bézout coefficients : -35 and 1601

1601 is an inverse of 101 modulo 42620

remainder is 1,

gcd(101,4260) = 1

Using Inverses to Solve Congruences

We can solve the congruence $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ by multiplying both sides by \bar{a} .

Example: What are the solutions of the congruence $3x \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$.

Solution: We found that -2 is an inverse of 3 modulo 7 (two slides back). We multiply both sides of the congruence by -2 giving

$$-2 \cdot 3x \equiv -2 \cdot 4 \pmod{7}$$
.

Because $-6 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$ and $-8 \equiv 6 \pmod{7}$, it follows that if x is a solution, then $x \equiv -8 \equiv 6 \pmod{7}$

We need to determine if every x with $x \equiv 6 \pmod{7}$ is a solution. Assume that $x \equiv 6 \pmod{7}$. By Theorem 5 of Section 4.1, it follows that $3x \equiv 3 \cdot 6 = 18 \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$ which shows that all such x satisfy the congruence.

The solutions are the integers x such that $x \equiv 6 \pmod{7}$, namely, $6,13,20 \dots$ and $-1,-8,-15,\dots$

Theorem 2: (The Chinese Remainder Theorem) Let $m_1, m_2, ..., m_n$ be pairwise relatively prime positive integers greater than one and $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$ arbitrary integers. Then the system

```
x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}

x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}

.

.

.

x \equiv a_n \pmod{m_n}

has a unique solution modulo m = m_1 m_2 \cdots m_n.
```

(That is, there is a solution x with $0 \le x < m$ and all other solutions are congruent modulo m to this solution.)

Proof: We'll show that a solution exists by describing a way to construct the solution. Showing that the solution is unique modulo m is Exercise 30.

continued \rightarrow

To construct a solution first let $M_k = m/m_k$ for k = 1, 2, ..., n and $m = m_1 m_2 \cdots m_n$.

```
Since \gcd(m_k, M_k) = 1, by Theorem 1, there is an integer y_k, an inverse of M_k modulo m_k, such that M_k y_k \equiv 1 \pmod{m_k}.

Form the sum x = a_1 M_1 y_1 + a_2 M_2 y_2 + \cdots + a_n M_n y_n.

Note that because M_j \equiv 0 \pmod{m_k} whenever j \neq k, all terms except the kth term in this sum are congruent to 0 modulo m_k. Because M_k y_k \equiv 1 \pmod{m_k}, we see that x \equiv a_k M_k y_k \equiv a_k \pmod{m_k}, for k = 1, 2, ..., n. Hence, k = 1, 2, ..., n.

Hence, k = 1, 2, ..., n.

k \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1} and k \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2} .
```

 $x \equiv a_n \pmod{m_n}$

Example:

```
x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}

x \equiv 4 \pmod{5}

x \equiv 5 \pmod{7}
```

sol:

$$M = m1m2m3 = 3.5.7 = 105$$

$$x = a1M1y1 + a2M2y2 + a3M3y3 \pmod{M}$$
 -----1

```
M1y1 \equiv 1 (mod m1)
35.y1 \equiv 1 (mod 3)
2.y1 \equiv 1 (mod 3)
y1 = 2
```

$$M2y2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m2}$$

 $21.y2 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$
 $1.y2 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$
 $y2 = 1$

Similarly,
$$y3 = 1$$

Example: There are certain things whose number is unknown. When divided by 3, the remainder is 2; when divided by 5, the remainder is 3; and when divided by 7, the remainder is 2. What will be the number of things?

```
x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}, \ x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}, \ x \equiv 2 \pmod{7}.
• Let m = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 = 105, \ M_1 = m/3 = 35, \ M_3 = m/5 = 21,
• We see that
• 2 is an inverse of M_1 = 35 \pmod{3} since 35 \cdot 2 \equiv 2 \cdot 2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}
• 1 is an inverse of M_2 = 21 \pmod{5} since 21 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}
• 1 is an inverse of M_3 = 15 \pmod{7}
• Hence.
```

 $= 2 \cdot 35 \cdot 2 + 3 \cdot 21 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 15 \cdot 1 = 233 \equiv 23 \pmod{105}$

• We have shown that 23 is the smallest positive integer that is a simultaneous solution. Check it!

 $x = a_1 M_1 y_1 + a_2 M_2 y_2 + a_3 M_3 y_3$

Exercise:

Jessica breeds rabbits. She's not sure exactly how many she has today, but as she was moving them about this morning, she noticed some things. When she fed them, in groups of 5, she had 4 left over. When she bathed them, in groups of 8, she had a group of 6 left over. She took them outside to romp in groups of 9, but then the last group consisted of only 8. She's positive that there are fewer than 250 rabbits - but how many does she have?

Back Substitution

We can also solve systems of linear congruences with pairwise relatively prime moduli by rewriting a congruences as an equality using Theorem 4 in Section 4.1, substituting the value for the variable into another congruence, and continuing the process until we have worked through all the congruences. This method is known as back substitution.

Example: Use the method of back substitution to find all integers x such that $x \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$, $x \equiv 2 \pmod{6}$, and $x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$.

Solution: By Theorem 4 (a = b + km) in Section 4.1, the first congruence can be rewritten as x = 5t + 1, where t is an integer.

- Substituting into the second congruence yields $5t + 1 \equiv 2 \pmod{6}$. $-> 5t \equiv 1 \pmod{6} 25t \equiv 5 \pmod{6} 5t \equiv 5 \pmod{6}$
- Solving this tells us that $t \equiv 5 \pmod{6}$.
- Using Theorem 4 again gives t = 6u + 5 where u is an integer.
- Substituting this back into x = 5t + 1, gives x = 5(6u + 5) + 1 = 30u + 26.
- Inserting this into the third equation gives $30u + 26 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$.
- Solving this congruence tells us that $u \equiv 6 \pmod{7}$.
- By Theorem 4, u = 7v + 6, where v is an integer.
- Substituting this expression for u into x = 30u + 26, tells us that x = 30(7v + 6) + 26 = 210u + 206.

Translating this back into a congruence we find the solution $x \equiv 206 \pmod{210}$.

By Theorem 4 (a = b + km)

$$x \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$$
 -----1a $x = 5t + 1$ -----1b $x \equiv 2 \pmod{6}$ -----2a $x = 6t + 2$ -----2b $x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$ -----3a $x = 7t + 3$ -----3b

-> Substitute 1b into 2a

$$\therefore 5t + 1 \equiv 2 \pmod{6}$$

$$\therefore 5t \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$$

$$\therefore t \equiv 5 \pmod{6}$$

* By theorem 4

$$\therefore t = 6u + 5$$
 for some integer u

-> Substitute back to 1b

$$\therefore x = 5(6u + 5) + 1$$

$$\therefore x = 30u + 26$$
 ----- 4a

-> Substitute 4a into 3a

$$\therefore 30u + 26 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$$

$$\therefore 30u \equiv -23 \pmod{7}$$

$$\therefore 30u \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$$

$$\therefore (-3 \cdot 30u) \equiv (-3 \cdot 5) \pmod{7}$$

$$\therefore u \equiv -15 \pmod{7}$$

$$\therefore u \equiv -1 \pmod{7}$$

$$\therefore u \equiv 6 \pmod{7}$$

* By theorem 4

$$\therefore u = 7v + 6$$
 for some integer v

-> Substitute back to 4a

$$\therefore x = 30(7v + 6) + 26$$

$$\therefore x = 210v + 180 + 26$$

$$\therefore x = 210v + 206$$

Translating the last equation back into a congruence, we find the solution to the simultaneous congruences,

$$x\equiv 206\pmod{210}.$$

Fermat's Little Theorem

Pierre de Fermat (1601-1665)



Theorem 3: (Fermat's Little Theorem) If p is prime and a is an integer not divisible by p, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

Furthermore, for every integer a we have $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$ (proof outlined in Exercise 19)

Fermat's little theorem is useful in computing the remainders modulo p of large powers of integers.

Example: Find $7^{222} \mod 11$.

By Fermat's little theorem, we know that $7^{10} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$, and so $(7^{10})^k \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$, for every positive integer k. Therefore,

$$7^{222} = 7^{22 \cdot 10 + 2} = (7^{10})^{22} 7^2 \equiv (1)^{22} \cdot 49 \equiv 5 \pmod{11}$$
.

Hence, $7^{222} \mod 11 = 5$.

Exercise

Find inverse of 13 modulo 2436.

$$5 = 2.2 + 1$$

Complete by substitution...