

Recall Definition 2.3: the residue class of  $a$  modulo  $n$  is  $[a]_n = a + n\mathbb{Z} = \{a, a \pm n, a \pm 2n, \dots\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$

Note:  $a \equiv b \pmod{n} \Leftrightarrow [a]_n = [b]_n \Leftrightarrow n \mid (a - b)$

Example:  $19 \equiv 14 \equiv 9 \equiv 4 \equiv -1 \pmod{5}$

$$\text{so } [19]_5 = \dots = [4]_5 = [-1]_5 = \{\dots, -1, 4, 9, 14, 19, \dots\} = 4 + 5\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$$

Note: Since  $[a]_n = [b]_n$  where  $0 \leq r < n$  the remainder after division by  $n$ , any residue class mod  $n$  coincides with exactly one of the following:

$$[0]_n, [1]_n, \dots, [n-1]_n \quad ([0]_n = [n]_n)$$

(just  $n$  distinct residue classes!)

Definition 2.4: The ring of integers modulo  $n$  is  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} = \{[0]_n, [1]_n, \dots, [n-1]_n\}$  (finite set of  $n$  elements) together with addition and multiplication defined as

$$[a]_n + [b]_n = [a+b]_n \quad \text{and} \quad [a]_n \times [b]_n = [ab]_n.$$

Note: To find  $[a]_n + [b]_n$ , we find  $a+b$ , take its remainder  $r$ , then  $[a]_n + [b]_n = [a+b]_n = [r]_n$ .  
the same for  $[a]_n \times [b]_n = \dots$

Example:  $\mathbb{Z}_5 = \{[0]_5, [1]_5, [2]_5, [3]_5, [4]_5\}$ ;

$$[1]_5 + [2]_5 = [1+2]_5 = [3]_5$$

$$[3]_5 + [4]_5 = [3+4]_5 = [7]_5 = [2]_5$$

$$[4]_5 \times [4]_5 = [4 \times 4]_5 = [16]_5 = [1]_5$$

Remark: To simplify notation, we will write  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$  (i.e. write  $a$  instead of  $[a]_n$ )

with addition and multiplication mod  $n$ , e.g. in  $\mathbb{Z}_5$ :

$$2+3=0 \quad (\text{as } 2+3 \equiv 0 \pmod{5} \text{ so } [2+3]_5 = [0]_5)$$

$$2 \times 3 = 1 \quad (\text{as } 2 \times 3 = 6 \equiv 1 \pmod{5})$$

Thus,  $a+b=c$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  means  $a+b \equiv c \pmod{n}$  or equiv.

$$[a]_n + [b]_n = [c]_n$$

Example 2.6:  $n=2$ . Then  $\mathbb{Z}_2 = \{[0]_2, [1]_2\}$  (or simply  $\mathbb{Z}_2 = \{0, 1\}$ )

Here  $[0]_2 = 0 + 2\mathbb{Z} = \{\text{all even integers}\}$

$[1]_2 = 1 + 2\mathbb{Z} = \{\text{all odd integers}\};$

$0+0=0, 0+1=1, 1+0=1, 1+1=0$ , so

+	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0

$\leftarrow 1+1$

x	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1

Cayley Tables

Example:  $n=4$ .  $\mathbb{Z}_4 = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$

Cayley Table for  $x$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_4$ :

x	0	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3
2	0	2	0	2
3	0	3	2	1

$\leftarrow 2 \cdot 3 \pmod{4}$

$\leftarrow 3 \cdot 3 \pmod{4}$

Definition 2.8:  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  is invertible if  $\exists b \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  s.t.  $ab=1$  ( $[a]_n \cdot [b]_n = [1]_n$ ). In that case  $b$  is the inverse of  $a$ , written as  $b=a^{-1}$ .

Remark 2.9: (1)  $1 \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  is invertible as  $1 \cdot 1 = 1$

(2) we can find invertible elements by looking for 1 in the Cayley table, e.g. for  $\mathbb{Z}_4$ ,

$$1^{-1} = 1, 3^{-1} = 3$$

Lemma 2.13: Let  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ . Suppose  $a$  is invertible. Then the equation  $ax+b=c$  has a unique solution in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ .

Proof:  $ax+b=c \Rightarrow ax=c-b \Rightarrow a^{-1}(ax) = a^{-1}(c-b)$

$\Rightarrow x = a^{-1}(c-b)$  a unique solution.

(equivalent  $[a]_n[x]_n + [b]_n = [c]_n$ )

Example 2.14:  $3x+2=1$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_5$ ;  $x=?$  Note  $3^{-1}=2$  as  $3 \cdot 2 = 1 \pmod{5}$

$$\text{so } 3x+2=1 \Rightarrow 3x=1-2=-1=4 \Rightarrow x=3^{-1} \cdot 4 = 2 \cdot 4 = 8 = 3 \pmod{5}.$$

Thus  $x=3$