

Modular Arithmagic

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Modular arithmetic

Let's think about the world of numbers mod n , for some positive integer n . For integers a, b , we say “ a and b are equivalent mod n ” if

$$n \text{ divides } a - b$$

It's also the same as saying a and b leave the same remainder when divided by n . This is what we mean by

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

For example, $10 \equiv -3 \equiv 49 \equiv 13000010 \pmod{13}$.

Modular arithmetic

There are n different 'equivalence classes' mod n : for example, equivalence class of $0 \bmod 3$ is

$$[0] = \{0, 3, -3, 6, -6, 9, -9, \dots\}$$

The equivalence class of -1 is

$$[-1] = \{-1, -4, -7, 2, 5, 8, \dots\}$$

The equivalence class of 2 is

$$[2] = \{2, 5, 8, -1, -4, -7, \dots\}$$

Note that $[-1] = [2]$, since -1 and 2 differ by a multiple of 3 .

We often drop the brackets and just write $0, 1, \dots, n-1$ for the equivalence classes.

Modular operations

We can do addition and multiplication with numbers mod n , and equivalence still works. For example, multiplying by 2 on both sides (leaving the mod unchanged):

$$10 \equiv -3 \pmod{13}, \implies 20 \equiv -6 \pmod{13}.$$

Powers work too:

$$10 \equiv -3 \pmod{13} \implies 10^2 = 100 = 7 * 13 + 9 \equiv 9 = (-3)^2 \pmod{13}.$$

Modular operations

Dividing and taking roots doesn't always do what you expect. For example, dividing by 2 would give

$$6 \equiv 2 \pmod{4} \implies 3 \equiv 1 \pmod{4},$$

which is false! With powers, weird things can happen:

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

So there are four 'square roots of 1' mod 8: 1, 3, 5, and 7.

Multiplication

Mod 8 multiplication table

\times	0	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1
0								
1								
2								
3								
4								
-3								
-2								
-1								

Slight of hand

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A: Use modular arithmetic! A clever observation:

$$17^2 \equiv (-5)^2 = 25 \equiv 1 \pmod{12}.$$

Thus,

$$17^{2021} = 17^{2020} \cdot 17 \equiv (17^2)^{1010} \cdot 17 \equiv 1^{1010} \cdot 17 \equiv 17 \equiv 5 \pmod{12}.$$

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One way: note $3^3 = 27 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}$. So

$$3^{99} \equiv (-1)^{33} = -1 \pmod{7}.$$

Thus $3^{100} \equiv -1 \cdot 3 \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$.

Divisibility testing

An easy way to find any number mod 3 is to add the digits: the sum is the same mod 3 as the original number.

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Why does this work? Note $1 \equiv 10 \pmod{3}$, so

$$1 \equiv 10 \equiv 100 \equiv 1000 \equiv \dots \pmod{3}$$

So for any number $x = 1000a + 100b + 10c + d$,

$$\begin{aligned} 1000a + 100b + 10c + d &\equiv 1a + 1b + 1c + 1d \pmod{3} \\ &= a + b + c + d \pmod{3}. \end{aligned}$$

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Another number that has nice properties with respect to powers of 10 is 11: $10 \equiv -1 \pmod{11}$, so

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So, to find $x = 1000a + 100b + 10c + d \pmod{11}$, do the *alternating* digit sum:

$$x \equiv d - c + b - a \pmod{11}.$$

For example, $1852 \equiv 2 - 5 + 8 - 1 = 4 \pmod{11}$.

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We have $3^{-1} \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, since $3 \cdot 3 = 9 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. So

$$2/3 \equiv 2 \cdot 3 \equiv 6 \equiv 2.$$

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Example with $a = 43$ and $b = 17$:

$$43 = 2 \cdot 17 + 9$$

$$17 = 1 \cdot 9 + 8$$

$$9 = 1 \cdot 8 + 1$$

$$8 = 8 \cdot 1$$

The final number (when there was no remainder) was 1, so $\gcd(43, 17) = 1$.

The Euclidean algorithm gets us half way there. The other half is:

Theorem (Bezout)

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$$ax + by = \gcd(a, b).$$

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So $a \equiv x^{-1} \pmod{b}$!

How to find the x and y ? Reverse the Euclidean algorithm steps.

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So $1 = -3 \cdot 17 + 2 \cdot 43$, i.e. $x = -3$ and $y = 2$, and

$$17^{-1} \equiv -3 \equiv 40 \pmod{43}$$

(Also, $43^{-1} \equiv 2 \pmod{17}$.)

Discussion questions

Some questions we might think about in the future:

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- In the real numbers, there is no number x such that $x^2 = -1$. So, we made one up: $i^2 = -1$. Also, there is no integer x such that $x^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$. What if we made one up, say $\alpha^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$? What properties would α have?

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- We found an algorithm to compute the inverse of a number mod n if the inverse exists. Can you come up with an algorithm to compute the square root of a number mod n if it exists?