

# Day 13

Friday June 8, 2012

## 1 Motivating Example: Modular Arithmetic

We are going to define a very useful equivalence relation that you have probably seen before. First we need some background however:

**Lemma 1.** Fix  $n > 0$ , and  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ . If  $a + b$  is divisible by  $n$  and  $a$  is divisible by  $n$  then  $b$  is divisible by  $n$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that  $a + b$  and  $a$  are divisible by  $n$ . Then we get  $k$  and  $l$  in the integers such that  $a + b = kn$  and  $a = ln$ . Substituting, we get  $ln + b = kn$ , i.e. we have  $b = n(k - l)$ , which of course means  $b$  is divisible by  $n$ .  $\square$

**Definition 1.** We say  $\exists!x.\varphi(x)$  to stand for “there exists a unique  $x$  such that  $\varphi(x)$ ”; that is there is an  $x$ , and it is the only one with that property. To express this using the notation we already know:

$$(\exists!x.\varphi(x)) \iff (\exists x.(\varphi(x) \wedge (\forall y.\varphi(y) \rightarrow x = y)))$$

That is, there is an  $x$  that satisfies the property, and if there were any other  $y$  that satisfies it, then it is the same as  $x$ .

**Theorem 1** (Division Algorithm).

$$\forall d \in \mathbb{Z}^+ . \forall n \in \mathbb{Z} . \exists!q, r \in \mathbb{Z} . ((n = dq + r) \wedge (0 \leq r < d))$$

*Proof.* Fix  $d \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Our strategy will be to show that there is a  $q$  and an  $r$  and then show they must be unique.

We will prove the statement for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ; it is not hard to extend this to all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , and you can think about why it is true.

We do many base cases in one step: for any  $n < d$ , we can be done instantly as we can take  $q = 0$  and  $r = n$ . This obviously satisfies the properties.

So, for our induction hypothesis, let  $n$  be an arbitrary natural such that  $n \geq d$ . Assume that we can get integers  $q_m$  and  $r_m$  for all  $m < n$  such that  $m = dq_m + r_m$  and  $0 \leq r_m < d$ .

Now, we seek to show it's true for  $n$ . Well, consider  $n - d$ . As  $n \geq d$ , we know this is a natural number smaller than  $n$ . Thus we get  $q_{n-d}$  and  $r_{n-d}$  by our induction hypothesis. So  $0 \leq r_{n-d} < d$  and  $n - d = dq_{n-d} + r_{n-d}$ . Adding  $d$  to both sides, we get  $n = d(q_{n-d} + 1) + r_{n-d}$ . So  $q = q_{n-d} + 1$  and  $r = r_{n-d}$  work.

Thus by induction it is true for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Now we show uniqueness. Suppose we had two sets of  $q$ 's and  $r$ 's that satisfied this property. Then we would have

$$q_1d + r_1 = n = q_2 + r_2$$

for some  $q_1, q_2, r_1, r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$  where  $0 \leq r_1 < d$  and  $0 \leq r_2 < d$ .

Then  $(q_1 - q_2)d + (r_1 - r_2) = 0$ . First we argue that  $r_1 - r_2$  must be 0.  $d$  divides the right hand side (anything divides 0), and it divides the  $(q_1 - q_2)d$ . Thus by the lemma, it divides  $r_1 - r_2$ . Some work with the inequalities show that  $-d < r_1 - r_2 < d$ .

But of course there is only one number between  $-d$  and  $d$  that is divisible by  $d$ : namely 0. So  $r_1 - r_2 = 0$ , so  $r_1 = r_2$ .

Thus we have  $(q_1 - q_2)d = 0$ . As  $d \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , we have  $d \neq 0$ , and so  $q_1 - q_2 = 0$ , so  $q_1 = q_2$ .  $\square$

So we know given a divisor  $d$ , and a number  $n$  there is a unique quotient and remainder!

**Definition 2.** Fix  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Define an relation  $\sim_n$  on  $\mathbb{Z}$  by

$$a \sim_n b \iff a \text{ and } b \text{ have the same remainder when you divide by } n$$

This is clearly an equivalence relation.

**Theorem 2.** *The relation  $\sim_n$  has exactly  $n$  many equivalence classes.*

*Proof.* To show it has exactly  $n$  many we will show

- It has  $n$  many (lower bound)
- It has at most  $n$  many (upper bound)

To show it has  $n$  many, note that  $0, 1, \dots, n-1$  all have distinct remainders when divided by  $n$ .

To show it has at most  $n$  many, note that we are restricting the remainder  $r$  to be between  $0$  (inclusive) and  $n$  (exclusive). So there are only  $n$  possible remainders, so there must  $n$ .  $\square$

*Remark 1.* So, the equivalence classes look like all the numbers which have the same remainder when you divide by  $n$ . Here is the equivalence classes for  $n = 3$ .

$$\begin{aligned} [0]_3 &= \{ \dots, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots \} \\ [1]_3 &= \{ \dots, -5, -2, 1, 4, 7, \dots \} \\ [2]_3 &= \{ \dots, -4, -1, 2, 5, 8, \dots \} \end{aligned}$$

**Definition 3.** Instead of saying  $[i]_n = [j]_n$  we usually write

$$i \equiv j \pmod{n}$$

**Lemma 2.** *If  $a \sim_n b$  if and only if there is  $q$  such that  $a = b + nq$ .*

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Let the remainder of  $a$  and  $b$  be  $r$ . Then  $a = q_a n + r$  and  $b = q_b n + r$ . So  $r = b - q_b n$ . So  $a = (q_a - q_b)n + b$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose  $a = b + nq$  for some  $q$ . Then write  $a = q_a n + r_a$  and  $b = q_b n + r_b$  from division algorithm. Then

$$q_a n + r_a = q_b n + r_b + nq$$

rearranging terms we get

$$n(q_a - q_b - q) = r_b - r_a$$

As in proof of division algorithm,  $-n < r_b - r_a < n$ , and it is divisible by  $n$  as left hand side is. So the difference must be  $0$ , so  $r_b = r_a$ .  $\square$

**Definition 4.** We define an operation on equivalence classes:

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

**Theorem 3.** *The above notation makes sense; that is for any  $x \in [a]_n$  and any  $y \in [b]_n$  we have that  $x + y \in [a + b]_n$*

*Proof.* Take  $x \in [a]_n$  and any  $y \in [b]_n$ . By the above lemma  $x = qn + a$  and  $y = pn + b$ . then  $x + y = n(p+q) + a + b$ . This shows that  $x + y \sim_n a + b$  by the reverse direction of the lemma, so  $x + y \in [a + b]_n$ .  $\square$

**Definition 5.** We define an operation on equivalence classes:

$$[a]_n \cdot [b]_n = [a \cdot b]_n$$

**Theorem 4.** *The above notation makes sense; that is for any  $x \in [a]_n$  and any  $y \in [b]_n$  we have that  $x \cdot y \in [a \cdot b]_n$ .*

*Proof.* Exercise.  $\square$

So we can add, multiply.

**Question 1.** Can we subtract?

*Answer 1.* Yes, because we can add by  $[-1]_n$  times the number, which is subtracting.

**Question.** In general, can we divide?

First let's make sense of what division is.

**Definition 6.** When you divide, you are really multiply by its inverse. The **inverse** of a number  $a$  is a number  $b$  such that  $a \cdot b = 1$ .

So, it is better to rephrase the question:

**Question 2.** In general, working mod  $n$ , does every number have an inverse?

*Answer 2.* Work mod 4, and imagine 2 had an inverse  $x$ . Then we'd have

$$2x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$

Can you see why this cannot happen?

The rest of class will be spent answering the question: when can we find inverses. Let's do a little exploration first. Finding an inverse for  $a \pmod{n}$  would amount to solving the equation:

$$ax \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

We have already shown above, this amount to solving the following arithmetic equation:

$$ax = 1 + bn$$

Or rewriting:

$$ax + bn = 1$$

This is called a **linear Diophantine equation**. So, our entire question of when inverses exist can be changed to: when can we solve linear Diophantine equations.

**Definition 7.** If  $n$  and  $m$  are integers then the  $\gcd(n, m)$  is the largest number that divides both  $n$  and  $m$ .

**Example 1.**  $\gcd(10, 5) = 5$ , since 5 is the largest number that divides them both.

$\gcd(15, 9) = 3$  since 3 is the largest number that divides them both.

$\gcd(7, 10) = 1$  since 1 is the largest number that divides them both. In this case when the gcd is 1, we say they are **coprime** or **relatively prime**

**Theorem 5.**

$$ax + by = c \text{ has a solution} \iff \gcd(a, b) \mid c$$

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Suppose that  $ax + by = c$  has a solution. Let  $d = \gcd(a, b)$ . Then  $a = q_a d + r_a$  and  $b = q_b d + r_b$ . So clearly  $d \mid c$  as  $d$  divides the lefthand side.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) This direction is a bit longer, and would take up too much class time. For more information, see a basic number theory textbook; it is called Bézout's Lemma  $\square$

**Theorem 6.** Every  $[a]_n \neq [0]_n$  has an inverse if and only if  $n$  is prime

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ). Suppose that every  $a$  has an inverse, and for contradiction suppose  $n$  was not prime. As  $n$  is not prime,  $n = q \cdot p$  where  $q, p \neq 1$ . By assumption,  $p$  has an inverse: notate it  $p^{-1}$ . Then  $p \cdot p^{-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ . Multiplying both sides by  $q$  we get  $q \cdot p \cdot p^{-1} \equiv q \pmod{n}$ . As  $n = q \cdot p$ , the left hand side is 0. So  $q \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ , but this means  $n \mid q$ , which of course is a contradiction as  $n = q \cdot p$

( $\Leftarrow$ ). From everything we said, finding an inverse amount to solving a Diophantine equation.  $\gcd(n, a) = 1$  is  $n$  is prime and  $n$  doesn't divide  $a$  (can you see why?), thus we can solve the necessary Diophantine Equation.  $\square$