Modular Arithmetic

CS70 Summer 2016 - Lecture 7A

Grace Dinh 01 August 2016

UC Berkeley

Midterm 2 scores out.

Homework 7 is out.

Midterm 2 scores out.

Homework 7 is out. Longer, but due next Wednesday before class, not next Monday.

There will be no homework 8.

Some basic number theory:

- Modular arithmetic
- GCD, Euclidean algorithm, and multiplicative inverses
- Exponentiation in modular arithmetic



Mathematics is the queen of the sciences and number theory is the queen of mathematics. -Gauss

If it is 1:00 now.

If it is 1:00 now. What time is it in 2 hours?

If it is 1:00 now. What time is it in 2 hours? 3:00!

If it is 1:00 now. What time is it in 2 hours? 3:00! What time is it in 5 hours? If it is 1:00 now. What time is it in 2 hours? 3:00! What time is it in 5 hours? 6:00! If it is 1:00 now. What time is it in 2 hours? 3:00! What time is it in 5 hours? 6:00! What time is it in 15 hours? If it is 1:00 now. What time is it in 2 hours? 3:00! What time is it in 5 hours? 6:00! What time is it in 15 hours? 16:00! If it is 1:00 now. What time is it in 2 hours? 3:00! What time is it in 5 hours? 6:00! What time is it in 15 hours? 16:00! Actually 4:00. 16 is the "same as 4" with respect to a 12 hour clock system.

 $101 = 12 \times 8 + 5.$

5 is the same as 101 for a 12 hour clock system.

 $101 = 12 \times 8 + 5.$

5 is the same as 101 for a 12 hour clock system.

Clock time equivalent up to addition of any integer multiple of 12.

 $101 = 12 \times 8 + 5.$

5 is the same as 101 for a 12 hour clock system.

Clock time equivalent up to addition of any integer multiple of 12. Custom is only to use the representative in {12, 1, ..., 11} If it is 1:00 now.

What time is it in 2 hours? 3:00!

What time is it in 5 hours? 6:00!

What time is it in 15 hours? 16:00!

Actually 4:00.

16 is the "same as 4" with respect to a 12 hour clock system.

Clock time equivalent up to to addition/subtraction of 12.

What time is it in 100 hours? 101:00! or 5:00.

 $101 = 12 \times 8 + 5.$

5 is the same as 101 for a 12 hour clock system.

Clock time equivalent up to addition of any integer multiple of 12. Custom is only to use the representative in {12, 1, ..., 11} (Almost remainder, except for 12 and 0 are equivalent.) x is congruent to y modulo m, denoted " $x \equiv y \pmod{m}$ "...

- if and only if (x y) is divisible by *m* (denoted m|(x y)).
- if and only if x and y have the same remainder w.r.t. m.
- x = y + km for some integer k.

(these definitions are equivalent).

x is congruent to y modulo m, denoted " $x \equiv y \pmod{m}$ "...

- if and only if (x y) is divisible by m (denoted m|(x y)).
- if and only if x and y have the same remainder w.r.t. m.
- x = y + km for some integer k.

(these definitions are equivalent).

Congruence partitions the integers into equivalence classes ("congruence classes"). For instance, here are equivalence classes mod 7: $\{\ldots, -7, 0, 7, 14, \ldots\}$

x is congruent to y modulo m, denoted " $x \equiv y \pmod{m}$ "...

- if and only if (x y) is divisible by m (denoted m|(x y)).
- if and only if x and y have the same remainder w.r.t. m.
- x = y + km for some integer k.

(these definitions are equivalent).

Congruence partitions the integers into equivalence classes ("congruence classes"). For instance, here are equivalence classes mod 7: $\{\ldots, -7, 0, 7, 14, \ldots\}$ $\{\ldots, -6, 1, 8, 15, \ldots\}$

Theorem: If $a \equiv c \pmod{m}$ and $b \equiv d \pmod{m}$, then $a + b \equiv c + d \pmod{m}$ and $a \cdot b = c \cdot d \pmod{m}$.

Theorem: If $a \equiv c \pmod{m}$ and $b \equiv d \pmod{m}$, then $a + b \equiv c + d \pmod{m}$ and $a \cdot b = c \cdot d \pmod{m}$.

Proof: Addition: (a + b) - (c + d) = (a - c) + (b - d). Since $a \equiv c \pmod{m}$ the first term is divisible by *m*, likewise for the second term. Therefore the entire expression is divisible by *m*, so $a + b \equiv c + d \pmod{m}$.

Theorem: If $a \equiv c \pmod{m}$ and $b \equiv d \pmod{m}$, then $a + b \equiv c + d \pmod{m}$ and $a \cdot b = c \cdot d \pmod{m}$.

Proof: Addition: (a + b) - (c + d) = (a - c) + (b - d). Since $a \equiv c \pmod{m}$ the first term is divisible by *m*, likewise for the second term. Therefore the entire expression is divisible by *m*, so $a + b \equiv c + d \pmod{m}$.

Multiplication: Let $a = k_1m + c$ and $b = k_2m + d$. Then

$$ab = (k_1m + c)(k_2m + d) = (k_1k_2m + k_1d + k_2c)m + cd$$

so $ab \equiv cd \pmod{m}$.

What is division? Multiplication by a multiplicative inverse. x/y = x(1/y).

What is division? Multiplication by a multiplicative inverse. x/y = x(1/y).

Formally, a multiplicative inverse of x is a number y such that xy = 1, the multiplicative identity.

What is division? Multiplication by a multiplicative inverse. x/y = x(1/y).

Formally, a multiplicative inverse of x is a number y such that xy = 1, the multiplicative identity.

Is there a concept of multiplicative inverse in modular arithemtic?

What is division? Multiplication by a multiplicative inverse. x/y = x(1/y).

Formally, a multiplicative inverse of x is a number y such that xy = 1, the multiplicative identity.

Is there a concept of multiplicative inverse in modular arithemtic? When is there a solution to the equation xy = 1 + km?

Proof: It suffices to show: all elements of $S = \{0x, 1x, ..., (m-1)x\}$ are distinct mod *m*.

Proof: It suffices to show: all elements of $S = \{0x, 1x, ..., (m-1)x\}$ are distinct mod *m*. Why? Pigeonhole principle. All distinct means that one of them has to correspond to 1 mod *m*.

Proof: It suffices to show: all elements of $S = \{0x, 1x, ..., (m - 1)x\}$ are distinct mod *m*. Why? Pigeonhole principle. All distinct means that one of them has to correspond to 1 mod *m*.

Suppose for contradiction that they are not distinct. Then there exist a, b in $\{0, ..., m - 1\}$ such that ax, bx are in the same congruence class mod m, i.e. (a - b)x = km for some integer k.

Theorem: If greatest common divisor of x and m, gcd(x, m), is 1, then x has a multiplicative inverse modulo m.

Proof: It suffices to show: all elements of $S = \{0x, 1x, ..., (m-1)x\}$ are distinct mod *m*. Why? Pigeonhole principle. All distinct means that one of them has to correspond to 1 mod *m*.

Suppose for contradiction that they are not distinct. Then there exist a, b in $\{0, ..., m - 1\}$ such that ax, bx are in the same congruence class mod m, i.e. (a - b)x = km for some integer k.

Since gcd(x, m) = 1, we must have that m|(a - b), which implies that $a - b \ge m$. But $a, b \in \{0, 1, ..., m - 1\}$, so this is impossible. Contradiction.

Naive approach: try every single number in $[1, \min(x, m)]$ and see if it divides x and m both. Keep the biggest number that does.

Naive approach: try every single number in $[1, \min(x, m)]$ and see if it divides x and m both. Keep the biggest number that does.

Obviously works, but how long does that take?

Naive approach: try every single number in $[1, \min(x, m)]$ and see if it divides x and m both. Keep the biggest number that does.

Obviously works, but how long does that take?

I need min(x, m) divisions. For 64-bit integers, that means up to $2^{6}4 = 18446744073709551616$ divisions - assuming one division per nanosecond (1 GHz), that's about 585 years to compute a single gcd :(

Lemma: Suppose d|x and d|y. Then d|(x + ay) for all integers a.

Lemma: Suppose d|x and d|y. Then d|(x + ay) for all integers a.

Proof: Write $x = k_1 d$ and $y = k_2 d$ for some integers k_1 , k_2 (we know this is possible because d|x and d|y). Then $x + ay = (k_1 + ak_2)d$.

Lemma: Suppose d|x and d|y. Then d|(x + ay) for all integers a.

Proof: Write $x = k_1 d$ and $y = k_2 d$ for some integers k_1 , k_2 (we know this is possible because d|x and d|y). Then $x + ay = (k_1 + ak_2)d$.

Theorem: gcd(x, y) = gcd(x, y + ax) for all integers *a*.

Lemma: Suppose d|x and d|y. Then d|(x + ay) for all integers a.

Proof: Write $x = k_1 d$ and $y = k_2 d$ for some integers k_1 , k_2 (we know this is possible because d|x and d|y). Then $x + ay = (k_1 + ak_2)d$.

Theorem: gcd(x, y) = gcd(x, y + ax) for all integers *a*.

Proof: Suppose *k* divides both *x* and *y*. Then by the lemma, it divides y + ax as well.

Lemma: Suppose d|x and d|y. Then d|(x + ay) for all integers a.

Proof: Write $x = k_1 d$ and $y = k_2 d$ for some integers k_1 , k_2 (we know this is possible because d|x and d|y). Then $x + ay = (k_1 + ak_2)d$.

Theorem: gcd(x, y) = gcd(x, y + ax) for all integers *a*.

Proof: Suppose *k* divides both *x* and *y*. Then by the lemma, it divides y + ax as well.

Now suppose k divides both x and y + ax. Then again by lemma, it must divide y + ax - ax = y.

Lemma: Suppose d|x and d|y. Then d|(x + ay) for all integers a.

Proof: Write $x = k_1 d$ and $y = k_2 d$ for some integers k_1 , k_2 (we know this is possible because d|x and d|y). Then $x + ay = (k_1 + ak_2)d$.

Theorem: gcd(x, y) = gcd(x, y + ax) for all integers *a*.

Proof: Suppose *k* divides both *x* and *y*. Then by the lemma, it divides y + ax as well.

Now suppose k divides both x and y + ax. Then again by lemma, it must divide y + ax - ax = y.

Therefore, the set of common divisors of *x*, *y* is the same as the set of divisors of *x*, y + ax which means that the gcd must be the same as well.

1. If y is zero, just return x.

- 1. If y is zero, just return x.
- 2. Otherwise, let $x' = x y \lfloor \frac{x}{y} \rfloor$, and apply the algorithm recursively to find the gcd(y, x'); this is also gcd(x, y).

 $(\lfloor k \rfloor$ is the smallest integer less than or equal to x)

- 1. If y is zero, just return x.
- 2. Otherwise, let $x' = x y \lfloor \frac{x}{y} \rfloor$, and apply the algorithm recursively to find the gcd(y, x'); this is also gcd(x, y).

 $\lfloor k \rfloor$ is the smallest integer less than or equal to x)

By the theorem on the previous slide this is guaranteed to give the right result.

- 1. If y is zero, just return x.
- 2. Otherwise, let $x' = x y \lfloor \frac{x}{y} \rfloor$, and apply the algorithm recursively to find the gcd(y, x'); this is also gcd(x, y).

 $\lfloor k \rfloor$ is the smallest integer less than or equal to x)

By the theorem on the previous slide this is guaranteed to give the right result.

How long does it take to run? $O(\log y)$ iterations. Proof: not today.

A lot faster than brute force!

Theorem: For any integers *x*, *y*, there exist integers *a*, *b* such that ax + by = gcd(x, y).

Theorem: For any integers *x*, *y*, there exist integers *a*, *b* such that ax + by = gcd(x, y).

How do we find the multiplicative inverse mod *m*? If gcd(x, m) = 1, then we can find *a*, *b* such that ax + bm = 1.

Theorem: For any integers *x*, *y*, there exist integers *a*, *b* such that ax + by = gcd(x, y).

How do we find the multiplicative inverse mod m? If gcd(x, m) = 1, then we can find a, b such that ax + bm = 1. Equivalently: $ax = 1 - bm \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$.

Theorem: For any integers *x*, *y*, there exist integers *a*, *b* such that ax + by = gcd(x, y).

How do we find the multiplicative inverse mod *m*? If gcd(x, m) = 1, then we can find *a*, *b* such that ax + bm = 1. Equivalently: $ax = 1 - bm \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$. So $a = x^{-1} \pmod{m}$.

Theorem: For any integers *x*, *y*, there exist integers *a*, *b* such that ax + by = gcd(x, y).

How do we find the multiplicative inverse mod m? If gcd(x, m) = 1, then we can find a, b such that ax + bm = 1. Equivalently: $ax = 1 - bm \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$. So $a = x^{-1} \pmod{m}$.

How do we find a, b?

```
Example: For x = 12 and y = 35, gcd(12, 35) = 1.
(3)12 + (-1)35 = 1.
a = 3 and b = -1.
```

The multiplicative inverse of 12 (mod 35) is 3.

Example: For x = 12 and y = 35, gcd(12, 35) = 1. (3)12 + (-1)35 = 1. a = 3 and b = -1.

The multiplicative inverse of 12 (mod 35) is 3.

How do we get there using Euclid?

gcd(35, 12) = gcd(12, 11) = gcd(11, 1) = gcd(1, 0) = 1

Example: For x = 12 and y = 35, gcd(12, 35) = 1. (3)12 + (-1)35 = 1. a = 3 and b = -1.

The multiplicative inverse of 12 (mod 35) is 3.

How do we get there using Euclid?

gcd(35, 12) = gcd(12, 11) = gcd(11, 1) = gcd(1, 0) = 1

How did we get 11 from 35 and 12? $35 - \lfloor \frac{35}{12} \rfloor$ 12 = 35 - (2)12 = 11.

Example: For x = 12 and y = 35, gcd(12, 35) = 1. (3)12 + (-1)35 = 1. a = 3 and b = -1.

The multiplicative inverse of 12 (mod 35) is 3.

How do we get there using Euclid?

gcd(35, 12) = gcd(12, 11) = gcd(11, 1) = gcd(1, 0) = 1

How did we get 11 from 35 and 12? $35 - \lfloor \frac{35}{12} \rfloor$ 12 = 35 - (2)12 = 11. How did gcd get 1 from 12 and 11? $12 - \lfloor \frac{12}{11} \rfloor$ 11 = 12 - (1)11 = 1.

Example: For x = 12 and y = 35, gcd(12, 35) = 1. (3)12 + (-1)35 = 1. a = 3 and b = -1.

The multiplicative inverse of 12 (mod 35) is 3.

How do we get there using Euclid?

gcd(35, 12) = gcd(12, 11) = gcd(11, 1) = gcd(1, 0) = 1

How did we get 11 from 35 and 12? $35 - \lfloor \frac{35}{12} \rfloor$ 12 = 35 - (2)12 = 11. How did gcd get 1 from 12 and 11? $12 - \lfloor \frac{12}{11} \rfloor$ 11 = 12 - (1)11 = 1.

What if we work backwards?

$$1 = 12 - 1(11) = 12 - 1(35 - 2(12)) = 3(12) - 1(35) .$$

Just keep back-substituting.

How do we turn this into an algorithm?

How do we turn this into an algorithm?

Just run normal GCD but keep track of the coefficients.

How do we turn this into an algorithm?

Just run normal GCD but keep track of the coefficients.

Extended GCD algorithm.

Inputs: $x \ge y \ge 0$ with x > 0. Outputs: integers (d, a, b) where d = gcd(x, y) = ax + by.

How do we turn this into an algorithm?

Just run normal GCD but keep track of the coefficients.

Extended GCD algorithm.

Inputs: $x \ge y \ge 0$ with x > 0. Outputs: integers (d, a, b) where d = gcd(x, y) = ax + by.

1. If y = 0, return (x, 1, 0): x = 1x + 0y.

How do we turn this into an algorithm?

Just run normal GCD but keep track of the coefficients.

Extended GCD algorithm.

Inputs: $x \ge y \ge 0$ with x > 0. Outputs: integers (d, a, b) where d = gcd(x, y) = ax + by.

- 1. If y = 0, return (x, 1, 0): x = 1x + 0y.
- 2. Otherwise, let (d, a, b) be the return value of the extended GCD algorithm on $(y, x y \lfloor x/y \rfloor)$.

How do we turn this into an algorithm?

Just run normal GCD but keep track of the coefficients.

Extended GCD algorithm.

Inputs: $x \ge y \ge 0$ with x > 0. Outputs: integers (d, a, b) where d = gcd(x, y) = ax + by.

- 1. If y = 0, return (x, 1, 0): x = 1x + 0y.
- 2. Otherwise, let (d, a, b) be the return value of the extended GCD algorithm on $(y, x y \lfloor x/y \rfloor)$.
- 3. Return $(d, b, a b \lfloor x/y \rfloor)$.

How do we turn this into an algorithm?

Just run normal GCD but keep track of the coefficients.

Extended GCD algorithm.

Inputs: $x \ge y \ge 0$ with x > 0. Outputs: integers (d, a, b) where d = gcd(x, y) = ax + by.

- 1. If y = 0, return (x, 1, 0): x = 1x + 0y.
- 2. Otherwise, let (d, a, b) be the return value of the extended GCD algorithm on $(y, x y \lfloor x/y \rfloor)$.
- 3. Return $(d, b, a b \lfloor x/y \rfloor)$.

Since this is just GCD (except we track some more numbers), d = gcd(x, y).

Need to show that d = ax + by.

EGCD: Proof of Correctness

Proof: by

EGCD: Proof of Correctness

Proof: by induction on y.

EGCD: Proof of Correctness

Proof: by induction on y.

For the base case, y = 0. We return (x, 1, 0) and x = 1x + 0y, as desired.

Proof: by induction on y.

For the base case, y = 0. We return (x, 1, 0) and x = 1x + 0y, as desired.

Now suppose for induction that extended GCD returns the correct coefficients for all y in [0, k]. It suffices to show the claim for y = k + 1.

Proof: by induction on y.

For the base case, y = 0. We return (x, 1, 0) and x = 1x + 0y, as desired.

Now suppose for induction that extended GCD returns the correct coefficients for all y in [0, k]. It suffices to show the claim for y = k + 1.

Return value: $(d, b, a - b \lfloor x/y \rfloor)$ where (d, a, b) is return value of the extended GCD algorithm on $(y, x - y \lfloor x/y \rfloor)$. By inductive hypothesis, (d, a, b) is the correct return value for the recursive call, i.e. $ay + b(x - y \lfloor x/y \rfloor) = d$.

Proof: by induction on y.

For the base case, y = 0. We return (x, 1, 0) and x = 1x + 0y, as desired.

Now suppose for induction that extended GCD returns the correct coefficients for all y in [0, k]. It suffices to show the claim for y = k + 1.

Return value: $(d, b, a - b \lfloor x/y \rfloor)$ where (d, a, b) is return value of the extended GCD algorithm on $(y, x - y \lfloor x/y \rfloor)$. By inductive hypothesis, (d, a, b) is the correct return value for the recursive call, i.e. $ay + b(x - y \lfloor x/y \rfloor) = d$.

Therefore:

$$d = ay + b(x - y \lfloor x/y \rfloor) = ay + bx - by \lfloor x/y \rfloor = bx + (a - \lfloor x/y \rfloor b)y ,$$

as desired.

We have addition, subtraction, multiplication, and "division" now.

We have addition, subtraction, multiplication, and "division" now. What about exponentiation? After the break.

Break!

Can we just simplify exponentiation under congruence the same way we did with addition and multiplication?

Can we just simplify exponentiation under congruence the same way we did with addition and multiplication?

$$2^6 \equiv 64 \equiv 4 \not\equiv 2^1 \pmod{5}$$
.

Guess not.

Example: compute $51^{43} \pmod{77}$.

Example: compute 51⁴³ (mod 77).

 $51^1 \equiv 51 \pmod{77}$

Example: compute $51^{43} \pmod{77}$.

 $51^1 \equiv 51 \pmod{77}$ $51^2 = (51) * (51) = 2601 \equiv 60 \pmod{77}$

Example: compute 5143 (mod 77).

 $51^{1} \equiv 51 \pmod{77}$ $51^{2} = (51) * (51) = 2601 \equiv 60 \pmod{77}$ $51^{4} = (51^{2}) * (51^{2}) = 60 * 60 = 3600 \equiv 58 \pmod{77}$

Example: compute 5143 (mod 77).

 $51^{1} \equiv 51 \pmod{77}$ $51^{2} = (51) * (51) = 2601 \equiv 60 \pmod{77}$ $51^{4} = (51^{2}) * (51^{2}) = 60 * 60 = 3600 \equiv 58 \pmod{77}$ $51^{8} = (51^{4}) * (51^{4}) = 58 * 58 = 3364 \equiv 53 \pmod{77}$

Example: compute 5143 (mod 77).

 $51^{1} \equiv 51 \pmod{77}$ $51^{2} = (51) * (51) = 2601 \equiv 60 \pmod{77}$ $51^{4} = (51^{2}) * (51^{2}) = 60 * 60 = 3600 \equiv 58 \pmod{77}$ $51^{8} = (51^{4}) * (51^{4}) = 58 * 58 = 3364 \equiv 53 \pmod{77}$ $51^{16} = (51^{8}) * (51^{8}) = 53 * 53 = 2809 \equiv 37 \pmod{77}$

Example: compute $51^{43} \pmod{77}$.

$$51^{1} \equiv 51 \pmod{77}$$

$$51^{2} = (51) * (51) = 2601 \equiv 60 \pmod{77}$$

$$51^{4} = (51^{2}) * (51^{2}) = 60 * 60 = 3600 \equiv 58 \pmod{77}$$

$$51^{8} = (51^{4}) * (51^{4}) = 58 * 58 = 3364 \equiv 53 \pmod{77}$$

$$51^{16} = (51^{8}) * (51^{8}) = 53 * 53 = 2809 \equiv 37 \pmod{77}$$

$$51^{32} = (51^{16}) * (51^{16}) = 37 * 37 = 1369 \equiv 60 \pmod{77}$$

Example: compute 51⁴³ (mod 77).

$$51^{1} \equiv 51 \pmod{77}$$

$$51^{2} = (51) * (51) = 2601 \equiv 60 \pmod{77}$$

$$51^{4} = (51^{2}) * (51^{2}) = 60 * 60 = 3600 \equiv 58 \pmod{77}$$

$$51^{8} = (51^{4}) * (51^{4}) = 58 * 58 = 3364 \equiv 53 \pmod{77}$$

$$51^{16} = (51^{8}) * (51^{8}) = 53 * 53 = 2809 \equiv 37 \pmod{77}$$

$$51^{32} = (51^{16}) * (51^{16}) = 37 * 37 = 1369 \equiv 60 \pmod{77}$$

$$51^{32} \cdot 51^8 \cdot 51^2 \cdot 51^1 = (60) * (53) * (60) * (51) \equiv 2 \pmod{77}$$
.

1. x^y : Compute x^1 ,

1. x^{y} : Compute x^{1}, x^{2} ,

1. x^{y} : Compute x^{1}, x^{2}, x^{4} ,

1. x^{y} : Compute $x^{1}, x^{2}, x^{4}, \ldots,$

1. x^{y} : Compute $x^{1}, x^{2}, x^{4}, \ldots, x^{2^{\lfloor \log y \rfloor}}$.

- 1. x^{y} : Compute $x^{1}, x^{2}, x^{4}, \ldots, x^{2^{\lfloor \log y \rfloor}}$.
- 2. Multiply together x^i where the (log(i))th bit of y (in binary) is 1.

- 1. x^{y} : Compute $x^{1}, x^{2}, x^{4}, \ldots, x^{2^{\lfloor \log y \rfloor}}$.
- Multiply together xⁱ where the (log(i))th bit of y (in binary) is 1. Example:

- 1. x^{y} : Compute $x^{1}, x^{2}, x^{4}, \ldots, x^{2^{\lfloor \log y \rfloor}}$.
- Multiply together xⁱ where the (log(i))th bit of y (in binary) is 1. Example: 43 = 101011 in binary.

- 1. x^{y} : Compute $x^{1}, x^{2}, x^{4}, \ldots, x^{2^{\lfloor \log y \rfloor}}$.
- Multiply together xⁱ where the (log(i))th bit of y (in binary) is 1. Example: 43 = 101011 in binary.

$$x^{43} = x^{32} * x^8 * x^2 * x^1$$

How many multiplications required? *O*(log *y*). Much faster than multiplying *y* times!

Repeated squaring is less useful when you're dealing with symbolic expressions... what else do we have in our toolbox?

Remember that we can divide up the integers into congruence classes mod *n* for any *n*.

Any set of *n* integers, one from each congruence class, is known a **complete residue system** mod *n*.

One complete residue system mod n: {0, 1, 2, ..., n - 1}.

Remember that we can divide up the integers into congruence classes mod *n* for any *n*.

Any set of *n* integers, one from each congruence class, is known a **complete residue system** mod *n*.

One complete residue system mod n: {0, 1, 2, ..., n - 1}.

A subset of a complete residue system only consisting of numbers relatively prime to *n* is called a **reduced residue system**.

One reduced residue system mod n: list of all nonnegative numbers smaller than n that are relatively prime to it (i.e. numbers whose gcd with n is 1).

For $n \ge 1$, the *totient function* $\phi(n)$ denotes the number of elements in any reduced residue system mod n. Equivalently: the number of nonnegative numbers smaller than n that are relatively prime to n.

Theorem: Suppose gcd(a, n) = 1. Then $a^{\phi(n)} = 1$.

Theorem: Suppose gcd(a, n) = 1. Then $a^{\phi(n)} = 1$.

Lemma 1: Suppose gcd(a, n) = 1, and $\{a_1, ..., a_n\}$ is a complete residue system mod n. Then for all b, $\{aa_1 + b, ..., aa_n + b\}$ forms a complete residue system mod n.

Theorem: Suppose gcd(a, n) = 1. Then $a^{\phi(n)} = 1$.

Lemma 1: Suppose gcd(a, n) = 1, and $\{a_1, ..., a_n\}$ is a complete residue system mod n. Then for all b, $\{aa_1 + b, ..., aa_n + b\}$ forms a complete residue system mod n.

Proof of Lemma 1: Since gcd(a, n) = 1, we know that there must exist some *c* such that $ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

Now suppose $\{a_1, ..., a_n\}$ is a complete residue system mod n. Then for any integer d, there is a unique k such that $c(d - b) \equiv a_k \pmod{n}$.

Theorem: Suppose gcd(a, n) = 1. Then $a^{\phi(n)} = 1$.

Lemma 1: Suppose gcd(a, n) = 1, and $\{a_1, ..., a_n\}$ is a complete residue system mod n. Then for all b, $\{aa_1 + b, ..., aa_n + b\}$ forms a complete residue system mod n.

Proof of Lemma 1: Since gcd(a, n) = 1, we know that there must exist some *c* such that $ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

Now suppose $\{a_1, ..., a_n\}$ is a complete residue system mod n. Then for any integer d, there is a unique k such that $c(d - b) \equiv a_k \pmod{n}$.

Therefore: $(d - b) \equiv ac(d - b) \equiv aa_k \pmod{n}$ so $d \equiv aa_k + b \pmod{n}$. So each integer is congruent with at least one element in set.

Theorem: Suppose gcd(a, n) = 1. Then $a^{\phi(n)} = 1$.

Lemma 1: Suppose gcd(a, n) = 1, and $\{a_1, ..., a_n\}$ is a complete residue system mod n. Then for all b, $\{aa_1 + b, ..., aa_n + b\}$ forms a complete residue system mod n.

Proof of Lemma 1: Since gcd(a, n) = 1, we know that there must exist some *c* such that $ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

Now suppose $\{a_1, ..., a_n\}$ is a complete residue system mod n. Then for any integer d, there is a unique k such that $c(d - b) \equiv a_k \pmod{n}$.

Therefore: $(d - b) \equiv ac(d - b) \equiv aa_k \pmod{n}$ so $d \equiv aa_k + b \pmod{n}$. So each integer is congruent with at least one element in set.

Now suppose $d \equiv aa_j + b \pmod{n}$ and $d \equiv aa_k + b \pmod{n}$. Then $c(d-b) = aca_j = a_j = aca_k = a_k \pmod{n}$. So each integer is congruent with **exactly** one element in set. So set is a CRS.

Lemma 2: Suppose gcd(a, n) = 1, and $\{a_1, ..., a_{\phi(n)}\}$ is a reduced residue system mod n. Then $\{aa_1, ..., aa_{\phi(n)}\}$ is also a reduced resude system mod n.

Proof of Lemma 2: Each of $\{aa_1, ..., aa_{\phi(n)}\}$ must be a distinct element in a complete residue system mod *n* by Lemma 1. Since a reduced residue system has $\phi(n)$ elements, it suffices to show that each of $\{aa_1, ..., aa_{\phi(n)}\}$ is relatively prime to *n*. But this follows immediately from the fact that both *a* and a_k are relatively prime to *n* for all *k*.

Theorem: Suppose gcd(a, n) = 1. Then $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. **Proof:**

Theorem: Suppose gcd(a, n) = 1. Then $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

Proof: Let $\{a_1, ..., a_{\phi(n)}\}$ be a reduced residue system mod *n*. Then $\{aa_1, ..., aa_{\phi(n)}\}$ must also be a reduced residue system.

Theorem: Suppose gcd(a, n) = 1. Then $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

Proof: Let $\{a_1, ..., a_{\phi(n)}\}$ be a reduced residue system mod *n*. Then $\{aa_1, ..., aa_{\phi(n)}\}$ must also be a reduced residue system.

Multiply all the elements of the sets together. They have to be the same.

Theorem: Suppose gcd(a, n) = 1. Then $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

Proof: Let $\{a_1, ..., a_{\phi(n)}\}$ be a reduced residue system mod *n*. Then $\{aa_1, ..., aa_{\phi(n)}\}$ must also be a reduced residue system.

Multiply all the elements of the sets together. They have to be the same.

 $(aa_1)(aa_2)(aa_3)...(aa_{\phi(n)}) \equiv a_1a_2...a_{\phi(n)} \pmod{n}$.

Theorem: Suppose gcd(a, n) = 1. Then $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

Proof: Let $\{a_1, ..., a_{\phi(n)}\}$ be a reduced residue system mod *n*. Then $\{aa_1, ..., aa_{\phi(n)}\}$ must also be a reduced residue system.

Multiply all the elements of the sets together. They have to be the same.

$$(aa_1)(aa_2)(aa_3)...(aa_{\phi(n)}) \equiv a_1a_2...a_{\phi(n)} \pmod{n}$$
.

Since each a_k is relatively prime to n: we can cancel it on both sides (by existence of multiplicative inverse).

Theorem: Suppose gcd(a, n) = 1. Then $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

Proof: Let $\{a_1, ..., a_{\phi(n)}\}$ be a reduced residue system mod *n*. Then $\{aa_1, ..., aa_{\phi(n)}\}$ must also be a reduced residue system.

Multiply all the elements of the sets together. They have to be the same.

$$(aa_1)(aa_2)(aa_3)...(aa_{\phi(n)}) \equiv a_1a_2...a_{\phi(n)} \pmod{n}$$
.

Since each a_k is relatively prime to n: we can cancel it on both sides (by existence of multiplicative inverse).

So:

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$
.

Fermat's little theorem follows immediately from Euler's theorem. **Theorem:** Suppose *p* is prime. Then $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$. Furthermore, if $p \not a$, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Theorem: Suppose *p* is prime. Then $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$. Furthermore, if $p \not| a$, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Proof: Suppose p|a. Then obviously $a^p \equiv 0 \equiv a \pmod{p}$.

Theorem: Suppose *p* is prime. Then $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$. Furthermore, if $p \not| a$, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Proof: Suppose p|a. Then obviously $a^p \equiv 0 \equiv a \pmod{p}$.

On the other hand, suppose $p \not|a$. How many nonnegative numbers smaller than p are relatively prime to it?

Theorem: Suppose *p* is prime. Then $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$. Furthermore, if $p \not| a$, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Proof: Suppose p|a. Then obviously $a^p \equiv 0 \equiv a \pmod{p}$.

On the other hand, suppose $p \not|a$. How many nonnegative numbers smaller than p are relatively prime to it? p - 1 (all except 0).

Theorem: Suppose *p* is prime. Then $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$. Furthermore, if $p \not| a$, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Proof: Suppose p|a. Then obviously $a^p \equiv 0 \equiv a \pmod{p}$.

On the other hand, suppose $p \not|a$. How many nonnegative numbers smaller than p are relatively prime to it? p - 1 (all except 0). So by Euler's theorem: $a^{p-1} = a^{\phi(p)} = 1$.

Gig(ish): A Combinatorial Look at Fermat's Little Theorem

Questions?