

# Chapter 4

## Modular arithmetic

### 4.1 The modular ring

**Definition 4.1.** Suppose  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then we say that  $x, y$  are equivalent modulo  $n$ , and we write

$$x \equiv y \pmod{n}$$

if

$$n \mid x - y.$$

It is evident that equivalence modulo  $n$  is an equivalence relation, dividing  $\mathbb{Z}$  into equivalence or *residue* classes.

**Definition 4.2.** We denote the set of residue classes mod  $n$  by  $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$ .

Evidently there are just  $n$  classes modulo  $n$  if  $n \geq 1$ ;

$$\#(\mathbb{Z}/(n)) = n.$$

We denote the class containing  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  by  $\bar{a}$ , or just by  $a$  if this causes no ambiguity.

**Proposition 4.1.** If

$$x \equiv x', y \equiv y'$$

then

$$x + y \equiv x' + y', xy \equiv x'y'.$$

Thus we can add and multiply the residue classes mod  $d$ .

**Corollary 4.1.** If  $n > 0$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$  is a finite commutative ring (with 1).

*Example:* Suppose  $n = 6$ . Then addition in  $\mathbb{Z}/(6)$  is given by

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| + | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 0 |
| 2 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 0 | 1 |
| 3 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 4 | 4 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 5 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

while multiplication is given by

|          |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| $\times$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 0        | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1        | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2        | 0 | 2 | 4 | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| 3        | 0 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 3 |
| 4        | 0 | 4 | 2 | 0 | 4 | 2 |
| 5        | 0 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

## 4.2 The prime fields

**Theorem 4.1.** *The ring  $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$  is a field if and only if  $n$  is prime.*

*Proof.* Recall that an *integral domain* is a commutative ring  $A$  with 1 having no zero divisors, ie

$$xy = 0 \implies x = 0 \text{ or } y = 0.$$

In particular, a field is an integral domain in which every non-zero element has a multiplicative inverse.

The result follows from the following two lemmas.

**Lemma 4.1.**  *$\mathbb{Z}/(n)$  is an integral domain if and only if  $n$  is prime.*

*Proof.* Suppose  $n$  is not prime, say

$$n = rs,$$

where  $1 < r, s < n$ . Then

$$\bar{r} \bar{s} = \bar{n} = 0.$$

So  $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$  is not an integral domain.

Conversely, suppose  $n$  is prime; and suppose

$$\bar{r} \bar{s} = \bar{rs} = 0.$$

Then

$$n \mid rs \implies n \mid r \text{ or } n \mid s \implies \bar{r} = 0 \text{ or } \bar{s} = 0.$$

□

**Lemma 4.2.** *A finite integral domain  $A$  is a field.*

*Proof.* Suppose  $a \in A$ ,  $a \neq 0$ . Consider the map

$$x \mapsto ax : A \rightarrow A.$$

This map is injective; for

$$ax = ay \implies a(x - y) = 0 \implies x - y = 0 \implies x = y.$$

But an injective map

$$f : X \rightarrow X$$

from a *finite* set  $X$  to itself is necessarily surjective.

In particular there is an element  $x \in A$  such that

$$ax = 1,$$

ie  $a$  has an inverse. Thus  $A$  is a field.

□

□

### 4.3 The additive group

If we ‘forget’ multiplication in a ring  $A$  we obtain an additive group, which we normally denote by the same symbol  $A$ . (In the language of category theory we have a ‘forgetful functor’ from the category of rings to the category of abelian groups.)

**Proposition 4.2.** *The additive group  $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$  is a cyclic group of order  $n$ .*

This is obvious; the group is generated by the element  $1 \bmod n$ .

**Proposition 4.3.** *The element  $a \bmod n$  is a generator of  $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$  if and only if*

$$\gcd(a, n) = 1.$$

*Proof.* Let

$$d = \gcd(a, n).$$

If  $d > 1$  then  $1$  is not a multiple of  $a \bmod n$ , since

$$1 \equiv ra \bmod n \implies 1 = ra + sn \implies d \mid 1.$$

Conversely, if  $d = 1$  then we can find  $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$ra + sn = 1;$$

so

$$ra \equiv 1 \bmod n,$$

Thus  $1$  is a multiple of  $a \bmod n$ , and so therefore is every element of  $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$ .  $\square$

Note that there is only one cyclic group of order  $n$ , up to isomorphism. So any statement about the additive groups  $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$  is a statement about finite cyclic groups, and vice versa. In particular, the result above is equivalent to the statement that if  $G$  is a cyclic group of order  $n$  generated by  $g$  then  $g^r$  is also a generator of  $G$  if and only if  $\gcd(r, n) = 1$ .

Recall that a cyclic group  $G$  of order  $n$  has just one subgroup of each order  $m \mid n$  allowed by Lagrange’s Theorem, and this subgroup is cyclic. In the language of modular arithmetic this becomes:

**Proposition 4.4.** *The additive group  $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$  has just one subgroup of each order  $m \mid n$ . If  $n = mr$  this is the subgroup*

$$\langle r \rangle = \{0, r, 2r, \dots, (m-1)r\}.$$

### 4.4 The multiplicative group

If  $A$  is a ring (with  $1$ , but not necessarily commutative) then the *invertible elements* form a group; for if  $a, b$  are invertible, say

$$ar = ra = 1, \quad bs = sb = 1,$$

then

$$(ab)(rs) = (rs)(ab) = 1,$$

and so  $ab$  is invertible.

We denote this group by  $A^\times$ .

**Proposition 4.5.** *The element  $a \in \mathbb{Z}/(n)$  is invertible if and only if*

$$\gcd(a, n) = 1.$$

*Proof.* If  $a$  is invertible mod  $n$ , say

$$ab \equiv 1 \pmod{n},$$

then

$$ab = 1 + tn,$$

and it follows that

$$\gcd(a, n) = 1.$$

Conversely, if this is so then

$$ax + ny = 1,$$

and it follows that  $x$  is the inverse of  $a$  mod  $n$ . □

We see that the invertible elements in  $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$  are precisely those elements that generate the additive group  $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$ .

**Definition 4.3.** *We denote the group of invertible elements in  $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$  by  $(\mathbb{Z}/n)^\times$ . We call this group the multiplicative group mod  $n$ .*

Thus  $(\mathbb{Z}/n)^\times$  consists of the residue classes mod  $n$  coprime to  $n$ , i.e. all of whose elements are coprime to  $n$ .

**Definition 4.4.** *If  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we denote by  $\phi(n)$  the number of integers  $r$  such that*

$$0 \leq r < n \text{ and } \gcd(r, n) = 1.$$

This function is called *Euler's totient function*. As we shall see, it plays a very important role in elementary number theory.

*Example:*

$$\phi(0) = 0,$$

$$\phi(1) = 1,$$

$$\phi(2) = 1,$$

$$\phi(3) = 2,$$

$$\phi(4) = 2,$$

$$\phi(5) = 4,$$

$$\phi(6) = 2.$$

It is evident that if  $p$  is prime then

$$\phi(p) = p - 1,$$

since every number in  $[0, p)$  except 0 is coprime to  $p$ .

**Proposition 4.6.** *The order of the multiplicative group  $(\mathbb{Z}/n)^\times$  is  $\phi(n)$*

This follows from the fact that each class can be represented by a remainder  $r \in [0, n)$ .

*Example:* Suppose  $n = 10$ . Then the multiplication table for the group  $(\mathbb{Z}/10)^\times$  is

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
|   | 1 | 3 | 7 | 9 |
| 1 | 1 | 3 | 7 | 9 |
| 3 | 3 | 9 | 1 | 7 |
| 7 | 7 | 1 | 9 | 3 |
| 9 | 9 | 7 | 3 | 1 |

We see that this is a cyclic group of order 4, generated by 3:

$$(\mathbb{Z}/10)^\times = C_4.$$

Suppose  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ . To find the inverse  $x$  of  $a$  mod  $n$  we have in effect to solve the equation

$$ax + ny = 1.$$

As we have seen, the standard way to solve this is to use the Euclidean Algorithm, in effect to determine  $\gcd(a, n)$ .

*Example:* Let us determine the inverse of 17 mod 23. Applying the Euclidean Algorithm,

$$\begin{aligned} 23 &= 17 + 6, \\ 17 &= 3 \cdot 6 - 1. \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= 3 \cdot 6 - 17 \\ &= 3(23 - 17) - 17 \\ &= 3 \cdot 23 - 4 \cdot 17. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$17^{-1} = -4 = 19 \pmod{23}.$$

Note that having found the inverse of  $a$  we can easily solve the congruence

$$ax = b \pmod{n}$$

In effect

$$x = a^{-1}b.$$

For example, the solution of

$$17x = 9 \pmod{23}$$

is

$$x = 17^{-1}9 = -4 \cdot 9 = -36 \equiv -13 \equiv 10 \pmod{23}.$$

## 4.5 Homomorphisms

Suppose  $m \mid n$ . Then each remainder mod  $n$  defines a remainder mod  $m$ .

For example, if  $m = 3$ ,  $n = 6$  then

$$\begin{aligned}0 \bmod 6 &\mapsto 0 \bmod 3, \\1 \bmod 6 &\mapsto 1 \bmod 3, \\2 \bmod 6 &\mapsto 2 \bmod 3, \\3 \bmod 6 &\mapsto 0 \bmod 3, \\4 \bmod 6 &\mapsto 1 \bmod 3, \\5 \bmod 6 &\mapsto 2 \bmod 3.\end{aligned}$$

**Proposition 4.7.** *If  $m \mid n$  the map*

$$r \bmod n \mapsto r \bmod m$$

*is a ring-homomorphism*

$$\mathbb{Z}/(n) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/(m).$$

## 4.6 Finite fields

We have seen that  $\mathbb{Z}/(p)$  is a field if  $p$  is prime.

Finite fields are important because linear algebra extends to vector spaces over any field; and vector spaces over finite fields are central to coding theory and cryptography, as well as other branches of pure mathematics.

**Definition 4.5.** *The characteristic of a ring  $A$  is the least positive integer  $n$  such that*

$$\overbrace{1 + 1 + \cdots + 1}^{n \text{ 1's}} = 0.$$

*If there is no such  $n$  then  $A$  is said to be of characteristic 0.*

Thus the characteristic of  $A$ , if finite, is the order of 1 in the additive group  $A$ .

Evidently  $\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{C}$  are all of characteristic 0.

**Proposition 4.8.** *The ring  $\mathbb{Z}/(n)$  is of characteristic  $n$ .*

**Proposition 4.9.** *The characteristic of a finite field is a prime.*

*Proof.* Let us write

$$n \cdot 1 \text{ for } \overbrace{1 + 1 + \cdots + 1}^{n \text{ 1's}}.$$

Suppose the order  $n$  is composite, say  $n = rs$ . By the distributive law,

$$n \cdot 1 = (r \cdot 1)(s \cdot 1).$$

There are no divisors of zero in a field; hence

$$r \cdot 1 = 0 \text{ or } s \cdot 1 = 0,$$

contradicting the minimality of  $n$ . □

The proof shows in fact that the characteristic of any field is either a prime or 0.

**Proposition 4.10.** *Suppose  $F$  is a finite field of characteristic  $p$ . Then  $F$  contains a subfield isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}/(p)$ .*

*Proof.* Consider the additive subgroup generated by 1:

$$\langle 1 \rangle = \{0, 1, 2 \cdot 1, \dots, (p-1) \cdot 1\}.$$

It is readily verified that this set is closed under addition and multiplication; and the map

$$r \bmod p \mapsto r \cdot 1 : \mathbb{Z}/(p) \rightarrow \langle 1 \rangle$$

is an isomorphism. □

This field is called the *prime subfield* of  $F$ .

**Corollary 4.2.** *There is just one field containing  $p$  elements, up to isomorphism, namely  $\mathbb{Z}/(p)$ .*

**Theorem 4.2.** *A finite field  $F$  of characteristic  $p$  contains  $p^n$  elements for some  $n \geq 1$*

*Proof.* We can consider  $F$  as a vector space over its prime subfield  $P$ . Suppose this vector space is of dimension  $n$ . Let  $e_1, \dots, e_n$  be a basis for the space. Then each element of  $F$  is uniquely expressible in the form

$$a_1 e_1 + \dots + a_n e_n,$$

where  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in P$ . There are just  $p$  choices for each  $a_i$ . Hence the total number of choices, ie the number of elements in  $F$ , is  $p^n$ . □

**Theorem 4.3.** *There is just one field  $F$  containing  $q = p^n$  elements for each  $n \geq 1$ , up to isomorphism.*

Thus there are fields containing 2,3,4 and 5 elements, but not field containing 6 elements.

We are not going to prove this theorem until later.

**Definition 4.6.** *We denote the field containing  $q = p^n$  elements by  $\mathbb{F}_q$ .*

The finite fields are often called *Galois fields*, after Evariste Galois who discovered them.