## MATH 433 <br> Applied Algebra

Lecture 6:
Congruences (continued). Modular arithmetic.

## Congruences

Let $n$ be a positive integer. The integers $a$ and $b$ are called congruent modulo $n$ if they have the same remainder when divided by $n$. An equivalent condition is that $n$ divides the difference $a-b$.

Notation. $a \equiv b \bmod n$ or $a \equiv b(\bmod n)$.
Proposition If $a \equiv b \bmod n$ then for any $c \in \mathbb{Z}$,
(i) $a+c n \equiv b \bmod n$;
(ii) $a+c \equiv b+c \bmod n$;
(iii) $a c \equiv b c \bmod n$.

## More properties of congruences

Proposition If $a \equiv a^{\prime} \bmod n$ and $b \equiv b^{\prime} \bmod n$, then (i) $a+b \equiv a^{\prime}+b^{\prime} \bmod n$;
(ii) $a-b \equiv a^{\prime}-b^{\prime} \bmod n$;
(iii) $a b \equiv a^{\prime} b^{\prime} \bmod n$.

Proof: Since $a \equiv a^{\prime} \bmod n$ and $b \equiv b^{\prime} \bmod n$, the number $n$ divides $a-a^{\prime}$ and $b-b^{\prime}$, i.e., $a-a^{\prime}=k n$ and $b-b^{\prime}=\ell n$, where $k, \ell \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n$ also divides

$$
\begin{gathered}
(a+b)-\left(a^{\prime}+b^{\prime}\right)=\left(a-a^{\prime}\right)+\left(b-b^{\prime}\right)=k n+\ell n=(k+\ell) n, \\
(a-b)-\left(a^{\prime}-b^{\prime}\right)=\left(a-a^{\prime}\right)-\left(b-b^{\prime}\right)=k n-\ell n=(k-\ell) n, \\
a b-a^{\prime} b^{\prime}=a b-a b^{\prime}+a b^{\prime}-a^{\prime} b^{\prime}=a\left(b-b^{\prime}\right)+\left(a-a^{\prime}\right) b^{\prime} \\
=a(\ell n)+(k n) b^{\prime}=\left(a \ell+k b^{\prime}\right) n .
\end{gathered}
$$

## Primes in arithmetic progressions

Theorem There are infinitely many prime numbers of the form $4 n+3, n \in \mathbb{Z}$.
Idea of the proof: Let $p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{k}$ be primes different from 3 and satisfying $p_{i} \equiv 3 \bmod 4$. Consider the number $N=4 p_{1} p_{2} \ldots p_{k}+3$. By construction, $N$ is not divisible by $p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{k}$ and 3 . On the other hand, $N$ must have a prime divisor $p \equiv 3 \bmod 4$.

Theorem (Dirichlet 1837) Suppose $a$ and $d$ are positive integers such that $\operatorname{gcd}(a, d)=1$. Then the arithmetic progression $a, a+d, a+2 d, \ldots$ contains infinitely many prime numbers.

## Divisibility of decimal integers

Let $\overline{d_{k} d_{k-1} \ldots d_{3} d_{2} d_{1}}$ be the decimal notation of a positive integer $n\left(0 \leq d_{i} \leq 9\right)$. Then

$$
n=d_{1}+10 d_{2}+10^{2} d_{3}+\cdots+10^{k-2} d_{k-1}+10^{k-1} d_{k} .
$$

Proposition 1 The integer $n$ is divisible by 2,5 or 10 if and only if the last digit $d_{1}$ is divisible by the same number.

Proposition 2 The integer $n$ is divisible by 4, 20, 25, 50 or 100 if and only if $\overline{d_{2} d_{1}}$ is divisible by the same number.

Proposition 3 The integer $n$ is divisible by 3 or 9 if and only if the sum of its digits $d_{k}+\cdots+d_{2}+d_{1}$ is divisible by the same number.
Proposition 4 The integer $n$ is divisible by 11 if and only if the alternating sum of its digits
$(-1)^{k-1} d_{k}+\cdots+d_{3}-d_{2}+d_{1}$ is divisible by 11 .
Hint: $10^{m} \equiv 1 \bmod 9,10^{m} \equiv 1 \bmod 3,10^{m} \equiv(-1)^{m} \bmod 11$.

Problem. Determine the last digit of $7^{2019}$.
The last digit is the remainder under division by 10 .
We have $7^{1} \equiv 7 \bmod 10$ and $7^{2}=49 \equiv 9 \bmod 10$.
Then

$$
7^{3}=7^{2} \cdot 7 \equiv 9 \cdot 7=63 \equiv 3(\bmod 10)
$$

Further,

$$
7^{4}=7^{3} \cdot 7 \equiv 3 \cdot 7=21 \equiv 1(\bmod 10)
$$

Now it follows that $7^{n+4} \equiv 7^{n} \bmod 10$ for all $n \geq 1$.
Therefore the last digits of the numbers
$7^{1}, 7^{2}, 7^{3}, \ldots, 7^{n}, \ldots$ form a periodic sequence with period 4. Since $2019 \equiv 3 \bmod 4$, the last digit of $7^{2019}$ is the same as the last digit of $7^{3}$, which is 3.

Problem. When the number $14^{7} \cdot 25^{30} \cdot 40^{12}$ is written out, how many consecutive zeroes are there at the right-hand end?

The number of consecutive zeroes at the right-hand end is the exponent of the largest power of 10 that divides our number.

As follows from the Unique Factorisation Theorem, a positive integer $A$ divides another positive integer $B$ if and only if the prime factorisation of $A$ is part of the prime factorisation of $B$.
The prime factorisation of the given number is

$$
14^{7} \cdot 25^{30} \cdot 40^{12}=(2 \cdot 7)^{7} \cdot\left(5^{2}\right)^{30} \cdot\left(2^{3} \cdot 5\right)^{12}=2^{43} \cdot 5^{72} \cdot 7^{7} .
$$

For any integer $n \geq 1$ the prime factorisation of $10^{n}$ is $2^{n} \cdot 5^{n}$. Hence $10^{n}$ divides the given number if $n \leq 43$ and $n \leq 72$. The largest number with this property is 43 . Thus there are 43 zeroes at the right-hand end.

## Congruence classes

Given an integer $a$, the congruence class of a modulo $n$ is the set of all integers congruent to a modulo $n$.
Notation. [a] ${ }_{n}$ or simply [a]. Also denoted $a+n \mathbb{Z}$ as $[a]_{n}=\{a+n k: k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.
Examples. $\quad[0]_{2}$ is the set of even integers, $[1]_{2}$ is the set of odd integers, $[2]_{4}$ is the set of even integers not divisible by 4 .

If $n$ divides a positive integer $m$, then every congruence class modulo $n$ is the union of $m / n$ congruence classes modulo $m$.
For example, $[2]_{4}=[2]_{8} \cup[6]_{8}$.
The congruence class $[0]_{n}$ is called the zero congruence class. It consists of the integers divisible by $n$.

The set of all congruence classes modulo $n$ is denoted $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$. It consists of $n$ elements $[0]_{n},[1]_{n},[2]_{n}, \ldots,[n-1]_{n}$.

## Modular arithmetic

Modular arithmetic is an arithmetic on the set $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ for some $n \geq 1$. The arithmetic operations on $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ are defined as follows. For any integers $a$ and $b$, we let

$$
\begin{gathered}
{[a]_{n}+[b]_{n}=[a+b]_{n},} \\
{[a]_{n}-[b]_{n}=[a-b]_{n},} \\
{[a]_{n} \times[b]_{n}=[a b]_{n} .}
\end{gathered}
$$

Theorem The arithmetic operations on $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ are well defined, namely, they do not depend on the choice of representatives $a, b$ for the congruence classes.
Proof: Let $a^{\prime}$ be another representative of $[a]_{n}$ and $b^{\prime}$ be another representative of $[b]_{n}$. Then $a^{\prime} \equiv a \bmod n$ and $b^{\prime} \equiv b \bmod n$. According to a previously proved proposition, this implies $a^{\prime}+b^{\prime} \equiv a+b \bmod n, a^{\prime}-b^{\prime} \equiv a-b \bmod n$ and $a^{\prime} b^{\prime} \equiv a b \bmod n$. In other words, $\left[a^{\prime}+b^{\prime}\right]_{n}=[a+b]_{n}$, $\left[a^{\prime}-b^{\prime}\right]_{n}=[a-b]_{n}$ and $\left[a^{\prime} b^{\prime}\right]_{n}=[a b]_{n}$.

## Invertible congruence classes

We say that a congruence class [a] ${ }_{n}$ is invertible (or the integer $a$ is invertible modulo $n$ ) if there exists a congruence class $[b]_{n}$ such that $[a]_{n}[b]_{n}=[1]_{n}$. If this is the case, then $[b]_{n}$ is called the inverse of $[a]_{n}$ and denoted $[a]_{n}^{-1}$.
The set of all invertible congruence classes in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is denoted $G_{n}$ or $\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$.

A nonzero congruence class $[a]_{n}$ is called a zero-divisor if $[a]_{n}[b]_{n}=[0]_{n}$ for some $[b]_{n} \neq[0]_{n}$.

Examples. - In $\mathbb{Z}_{6}$, the congruence classes $[1]_{6}$ and $[5]_{6}$ are invertible since $[1]_{n}^{2}=[5]_{6}^{2}=[1]_{6}$. The classes $[2]_{6},[3]_{6}$, and $[4]_{6}$ are zero-divisors since $[2]_{6}[3]_{6}=[4]_{6}[3]_{6}=[0]_{6}$.

- In $\mathbb{Z}_{7}$, all nonzero congruence classes are invertible since $[1]_{7}^{2}=[2]_{7}[4]_{7}=[3]_{7}[5]_{7}=[6]_{7}^{2}=[1]_{7}$.

