# Math 1365 (Intensive Mathematical Reasoning)

## Lecture #17 of 35 $\sim$ October 19, 2023

Modular Arithmetic + Modular Inverses

- Modular Cancellation
- Modular Inverses

This material represents §2.5.2 from the course notes.

## Recall, I

Recall that we proved some properties of residue classes yesterday:

#### Definition

If a is an integer, the <u>residue class of a modulo m</u> is the set  $\overline{a} = \{b \in \mathbb{Z} : a \equiv b \pmod{m}\}$  of integers congruent to a modulo m.

#### Proposition (Properties of Residue Classes)

Let m > 0 be a modulus. Then

- 1. If a and b are integers with respective residue classes  $\overline{a}$ ,  $\overline{b}$  modulo m, then  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  if and only if  $\overline{a} = \overline{b}$ .
- 2. Two residue classes modulo m are either disjoint or identical.
- 3. There are exactly *m* distinct residue classes modulo *m*, given by  $\overline{0}$ ,  $\overline{1}$ , ...,  $\overline{m-1}$ .

# Recall, II

We also constructed addition and multiplication operations on residue classes, and showed they were well defined and obey most of the familiar laws of arithmetic:

#### Definition

Let *m* be a modulus and  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$  be the collection of residue classes modulo *m*. Then we have well-defined addition and multiplication operations on  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$ , defined as  $\overline{a} + \overline{b} = \overline{a+b}$  and  $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} = \overline{ab}$ respectively.

These operations possess various properties of arithmetic: specifically, + and  $\cdot$  are associative and commutative, the element  $\overline{0}$  is an additive identity and  $\overline{1}$  is a multiplicative identity, every residue class  $\overline{a}$  has an additive inverse  $\overline{-a}$ , and + distributes over  $\cdot$ . As we just saw, the arithmetic in  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$  shares many properties with the arithmetic in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . However, there are some very important differences.

 For example, if a, b, c are integers with ab = ac and a ≠ 0, then we can "cancel" a from both sides to conclude that b = c. As we just saw, the arithmetic in  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$  shares many properties with the arithmetic in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . However, there are some very important differences.

- For example, if a, b, c are integers with ab = ac and a ≠ 0, then we can "cancel" a from both sides to conclude that b = c.
- However, this does not always work in  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}!$
- For example,  $\overline{2} \cdot \overline{1} = \overline{2} \cdot \overline{4}$  modulo 6, but  $\overline{1} \neq \overline{4}$  modulo 6: we cannot cancel the factor  $\overline{2}$ .
- Likewise,  $\overline{6} \cdot \overline{3} = \overline{6} \cdot \overline{6}$  modulo 9, but  $\overline{3} \neq \overline{6}$  modulo 9.

## Cancellation Mod m, II

Why does cancellation work in  $\mathbb{Z}$  but not in  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$ ?

First let's examine why cancellation *does* work for integers (i.e., why *ab* = *ac* and *a* ≠ 0 imply *b* = *c*).

## Cancellation Mod m, II

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- First let's examine why cancellation *does* work for integers (i.e., why *ab* = *ac* and *a* ≠ 0 imply *b* = *c*).
- If ab = ac, then we can rearrange and factor using the distributive law to see that a(b c) = 0.
- Then we use the property that if two integers have product 0, at least one of them must be zero: thus either a = 0 or b c = 0. But since a ≠ 0 that means b c = 0, so b = c.

Now, which of these steps are still valid in  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$ ?

## Cancellation Mod m, II

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- If ab = ac, then we can rearrange and factor using the distributive law to see that a(b c) = 0.
- Then we use the property that if two integers have product 0, at least one of them must be zero: thus either a = 0 or b c = 0. But since a ≠ 0 that means b c = 0, so b = c.

Now, which of these steps are still valid in  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$ ?

- If  $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} = \overline{a} \cdot \overline{c}$  then we can still rearrange and factor to see that  $\overline{a}(\overline{b} \overline{c}) = \overline{0}$ .
- And the last step is also valid: if we knew  $\overline{a} = \overline{0}$  or  $\overline{b} \overline{c} = \overline{0}$ then since  $\overline{a} \neq \overline{0}$  that would say  $\overline{b} - \overline{c} = \overline{0}$  and so  $\overline{b} = \overline{c}$ .
- But now, is it true that if two residue classes have product 0, then one or the other must be zero?

Is it true that if two residue classes have product  $\overline{0}$ , then one or the other must be zero? Let's look at multiplication modulo 4:



Can you identify any nonzero residue classes whose product is  $\overline{0}$ ?

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Can you identify any nonzero residue classes whose product is  $\overline{0}$ ? Yes: we can do  $\overline{2} \cdot \overline{2} = \overline{0}$ . How about modulo 6? Can you find two nonzero residue classes with product  $\overline{0}?$ 

•	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	Ō	1	2	3	4	5
2	0	2	4	0	2	4
3	0	3	Ō	3	Ō	3
4	0	4	2	0	4	2
5	0	5	4	3	2	1

How about modulo 6? Can you find two nonzero residue classes with product  $\overline{0}?$ 



Sure: we have  $\overline{2} \cdot \overline{3} = \overline{3} \cdot \overline{2} = \overline{0}$ , and also  $\overline{3} \cdot \overline{4} = \overline{4} \cdot \overline{3} = \overline{0}$ .

## Cancellation Mod m, V

How about modulo 5?

•	0	$\overline{1}$	2	3	4
0	0	0	0	0	0
1	Ō	1	2	3	4
2	0	2	4	1	3
3	Ō	3	1	4	2
4	0	4	3	2	1

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0	0	0	0	0	$\overline{0}$
1	Ō	1	2	3	4
2	0	2	4	1	3
3	Ō	3	1	4	2
4	0	4	3	2	1

Here there aren't any nonzero residue classes whose product is  $\overline{0}$ : the only way to get a product of  $\overline{0}$  modulo 5 is to have at least one term be equal to  $\overline{0}$ .

So it seems like for some moduli m, there exist nonzero residue classes whose product is  $\overline{0} \mod m$ , while for other m there are no such residue classes.

- Perhaps it might be the case that *some* residue classes  $\overline{a}$  can be cancelled modulo m: in other words, have the property that  $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} = \overline{a} \cdot \overline{c}$  implies  $\overline{b} = \overline{c}$ .
- For instance,  $\overline{a} = \overline{1}$  has this property (though it's rather trivial).
- Our question above then boils down to asking this: which residue classes are "cancellable"?

Let's instead think about real numbers for a moment. If we had an equation of the form ab = ac and  $a \neq 0$ , we could simply divide both sides by a to get b = c.

 What this actually means is to multiply both sides of ab = ac by the multiplicative inverse a<sup>-1</sup> of a: the number with a<sup>-1</sup> · a = 1.

Does the same thing work with residue classes?

Let's instead think about real numbers for a moment. If we had an equation of the form ab = ac and  $a \neq 0$ , we could simply divide both sides by a to get b = c.

• What this actually means is to multiply both sides of ab = ac by the multiplicative inverse  $a^{-1}$  of a: the number with  $a^{-1} \cdot a = 1$ .

Does the same thing work with residue classes? First we need to define what it means to have a multiplicative inverse:

#### Definition

Let *m* be a modulus and  $\overline{a}$  be a residue class modulo *m*. If the residue class  $\overline{x}$  has the property that  $\overline{x} \cdot \overline{a} = \overline{1}$ , we say that  $\overline{x}$  is a <u>multiplicative inverse</u> of  $\overline{a}$ , and we say  $\overline{a}$  itself is <u>invertible</u>.

Here are some examples of invertible residue classes:

• With modulus m = 10, observe that  $\overline{3} \cdot \overline{7} = \overline{21} = \overline{1}$ , so  $\overline{3}$  and  $\overline{7}$  are multiplicative inverses modulo 10.

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- With modulus m = 9, observe that  $\overline{2} \cdot \overline{5} = \overline{10} = \overline{1}$ , so  $\overline{2}$  and  $\overline{5}$  are multiplicative inverses modulo 9.

Here are some examples of invertible residue classes:

- With modulus m = 10, observe that  $\overline{3} \cdot \overline{7} = \overline{21} = \overline{1}$ , so  $\overline{3}$  and  $\overline{7}$  are multiplicative inverses modulo 10.
- With modulus m = 9, observe that  $\overline{2} \cdot \overline{5} = \overline{10} = \overline{1}$ , so  $\overline{2}$  and  $\overline{5}$  are multiplicative inverses modulo 9.
- With modulus m = 31, observe that 7 ⋅ 9 = 63 = 1 (since 63 1 = 62 = 2 ⋅ 31), so 7 and 9 are multiplicative inverses modulo 31.

We claim that if  $\overline{a}$  is invertible, then  $\overline{a}$  has cancellation:

#### Proposition (Cancellation With Inverses)

Let *m* be a modulus and  $\overline{a}$  be a residue class modulo *m* that has a multiplicative inverse  $\overline{x}$  modulo *m*. Then  $\overline{a}$  has multiplicative cancellation: if  $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} = \overline{a} \cdot \overline{c}$ , then  $\overline{b} = \overline{c}$ .

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Proof:

- Suppose  $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} = \overline{a} \cdot \overline{c}$ .
- Multiply both sides by  $\overline{x}$  to obtain  $\overline{x} \cdot \overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} = \overline{x} \cdot \overline{a} \cdot \overline{c}$ .
- But since x̄ · ā = 1̄, we can simplify each side of the equation to get 1̄ · b̄ = 1̄ · c̄, hence b̄ = c̄.

We can identify the invertible residue classes modulo m using the multiplication table.

- Specifically, to decide whether ā is invertible, simply check the row for ā to see if it has an entry 1 in it. If it does, then the corresponding column label is the inverse x̄, since x̄ ⋅ ā = 1.
- Otherwise, if there is no  $\overline{1}$ , then  $\overline{a}$  is not invertible modulo *m*.

Which residue classes are invertible modulo 6, and what are their inverses?

•	$\overline{0}$	$\overline{1}$	2	3	4	5
0	Ū	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5
2	0	2	4	0	2	4
3	$\overline{0}$	3	$\overline{0}$	3	$\overline{0}$	3
4	0	4	2	0	4	2
5	0	5	4	3	2	1

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1	0	1	2	3	4	5
2	0	2	4	0	2	4
3	0	3	$\overline{0}$	3	$\overline{0}$	3
4	0	4	2	$\overline{0}$	4	2
5	$\overline{0}$	5	4	3	2	$\overline{1}$

We can see that only  $\overline{1}$  and  $\overline{5}$  are invertible, and each one is its own inverse:  $\overline{1} \cdot \overline{1} = \overline{1}$  and  $\overline{5} \cdot \overline{5} = \overline{1}$ .

Which residue classes are invertible modulo 5, and what are their inverses?



Which residue classes are invertible modulo 5, and what are their inverses?



We can see that all of  $\overline{1}$ ,  $\overline{2}$ ,  $\overline{3}$ , and  $\overline{4}$  are invertible: specifically,  $\overline{1} \cdot \overline{1} = \overline{1}$ ,  $\overline{2} \cdot \overline{3} = \overline{1}$ , and  $\overline{4} \cdot \overline{4} = \overline{1}$ . So  $\overline{1}$  and  $\overline{4}$  are their own inverses, while  $\overline{2}$  and  $\overline{3}$  are each other's inverses. Here's a table of some more invertible and non-invertible residue classes for small moduli *m*:

Modulus	Invertible residue classes, and their inverses
<i>m</i> = 2	$\overline{1}^{-1} = \overline{1}$
<i>m</i> = 3	$\overline{1}^{-1} = \overline{1}, \ \overline{2}^{-1} = \overline{2}$
<i>m</i> = 4	$\overline{1}^{-1} = \overline{1}, \ \overline{3}^{-1} = \overline{2}$
<i>m</i> = 5	$\overline{1}^{-1} = \overline{1}, \ \overline{2}^{-1} = \overline{3}, \ \overline{3}^{-1} = \overline{2}, \ \overline{4}^{-1} = \overline{4}$
<i>m</i> = 6	$\overline{1}^{-1} = \overline{1}, \ \overline{5}^{-1} = \overline{5}$
<i>m</i> = 9	$\overline{1}^{-1} = \overline{1}, \ \overline{2}^{-1} = \overline{5}, \ \overline{4}^{-1} = \overline{7}, \ \overline{5}^{-1} = \overline{2}, \ \overline{7}^{-1} = \overline{4}, \ \overline{8}^{-1} = \overline{8}$
m = 10	$\overline{1}^{-1} = \overline{1}, \ \overline{3}^{-1} = \overline{7}, \ \overline{7}^{-1} = \overline{3}, \ \overline{9}^{-1} = \overline{9}$

Notice any patterns?

Here's a table of the invertible and non-invertible residue classes for small moduli m:

Modulus	Invertible	Non-Invertible
<i>m</i> = 2	Ī	$\overline{0}$
<i>m</i> = 3	$\overline{1}, \overline{2}$	$\overline{0}$
<i>m</i> = 4	$\overline{1}, \overline{3}$	$\overline{0}, \overline{2}$
<i>m</i> = 5	$\overline{1}, \overline{2}, \overline{3}, \overline{4}$	$\overline{0}$
<i>m</i> = 6	1, 5	$\overline{0}, \overline{2}, \overline{3}, \overline{4}$
<i>m</i> = 9	<u>1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8</u>	$\overline{0}, \overline{3}, \overline{6}$
m = 10	1, 3, 5, 7	$\overline{0}, \overline{2}, \overline{4}, \overline{5}, \overline{6}, \overline{8}$

Can you identify a rule for when a residue class is invertible?

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<i>m</i> = 4	$\overline{1}, \overline{3}$	$\overline{0}, \overline{2}$
<i>m</i> = 5	$\overline{1}, \overline{2}, \overline{3}, \overline{4}$	Ū
<i>m</i> = 6	1, 5	$\overline{0}, \overline{2}, \overline{3}, \overline{4}$
<i>m</i> = 9	<u>1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8</u>	$\overline{0}, \overline{3}, \overline{6}$
m = 10	<u>1, 3, 5, 7</u>	$\overline{0}, \overline{2}, \overline{4}, \overline{5}, \overline{6}, \overline{8}$

Can you identify a rule for when a residue class is invertible? It seems like the invertible residue classes are the ones relatively prime to the modulus, while the non-invertible residue classes have a gcd with the modulus that's bigger than 1. In fact, this is true:

### Proposition (Invertible Elements Modulo m)

If m is a modulus, then the residue class  $\overline{a}$  has a multiplicative inverse in  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$ , meaning that there exists some residue class  $\overline{x}$  with  $\overline{x} \cdot \overline{a} = \overline{1}$ , if and only if a and m are relatively prime.

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To prove this result, we will need the characterization of when two integers are relatively prime that was proven a few weeks ago during our discussion of gcds:

• The integers *a* and *m* are relatively prime if and only if there exist integers *x* and *y* with xa + yb = 1.

Note also that the statement is an if-and-only-if, so we have two directions to show.

1. If *a* and *m* are relatively prime, then  $\overline{a}$  is invertible modulo *m*. Proof: 1. If a and m are relatively prime, then  $\overline{a}$  is invertible modulo m. Proof:

- First suppose that *a* and *m* are relatively prime.
- Then by our facts about gcds, there exist integers x and y such that xa + ym = 1.
- But since 1 xa = ym we see that m|(1 xa) and therefore  $xa \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ .
- But this in turn means that x̄ · ā = x̄a = 1̄. Therefore, ā has a multiplicative inverse (namely, x̄).

2. If  $\overline{a}$  is invertible modulo *m*, then *a* and *m* are relatively prime. <u>Proof</u>: 2. If  $\overline{a}$  is invertible modulo *m*, then *a* and *m* are relatively prime. <u>Proof</u>:

- Suppose that a is invertible modulo m: then there exists x such that x · a = 1.
- Equivalently, that says  $\overline{xa} = \overline{1}$ , which is the same as saying  $xa \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ .
- By definition of congruence, this says there exists an integer y such that 1 xa = ym, or equivalently, xa + ym = 1.
- But by our property of gcds again, this implies *a* and *m* are relatively prime, as claimed.

Notice in fact that this second part of the proof is pretty much exactly the same as the first part, just in reverse order. (If you like, you can work out how to rephrase the whole proof as a chain of equivalences.)

So, the result we just proved shows that  $\overline{a}$  has a multiplicative inverse modulo m if and only if a is relatively prime to m.

• But in fact, the proof actually tells us a bit more: it even tells us how to *find* the multiplicative inverse.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>How convenient that someone made you learn how to work those coefficients out already!

So, the result we just proved shows that  $\overline{a}$  has a multiplicative inverse modulo m if and only if a is relatively prime to m.

- But in fact, the proof actually tells us a bit more: it even tells us how to *find* the multiplicative inverse.
- Specifically, we just have to calculate the integers x and y such that xa + ym = 1, and then the multiplicative inverse of  $\overline{a}$  is simply  $\overline{x}$ .
- And of course, you surely remember how to find those coefficients x and y: just use the Euclidean algorithm!<sup>1</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>How convenient that someone made you learn how to work those coefficients out already!

<u>Example</u>: Find the multiplicative inverse of  $\overline{5}$  modulo 11.

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• We do the Euclidean algorithm on 5 and 11:

$$\begin{array}{rrrrr} 11 & = & 2 \cdot 5 + 1 \\ 5 & = & 5 \cdot 1 \end{array}$$

- Since the last nonzero remainder is 1, the gcd is 1. (That's good, otherwise  $\overline{5}$  wouldn't be invertible mod 11!)
- Now we solve for the remainders:

$$1 = 11 - 2 \cdot 5$$

- So because  $11 2 \cdot 5 = 1$ , this means  $(-2) \cdot 5 \equiv 1 \pmod{1}$ , and so  $\overline{-2} \cdot \overline{5} = \overline{1}$ .
- So the multiplicative inverse of  $\overline{5}$  modulo 1 is  $\left|\overline{-2} = \overline{9}\right|$ .

## Cancellation and Inverses, XIV

<u>Example</u>: Find the multiplicative inverse of  $\overline{19}$  modulo 44.

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<u>Example</u>: Find the multiplicative inverse of  $\overline{19}$  modulo 44.

• We do the Euclidean algorithm on 19 and 44:

 $\begin{array}{rrrr} 44 & = & 2 \cdot 19 + 6 \\ 19 & = & 3 \cdot 6 + 1 \\ 6 & = & 6 \cdot 1 \end{array}$ 

• Since the last nonzero remainder is 1, the gcd is 1. Now we solve for the remainders:

$$6 = 44 - 2 \cdot 19$$
  

$$1 = 19 - 3 \cdot 6 = 19 - 3 \cdot (44 - 2 \cdot 19) = 7 \cdot 19 - 3 \cdot 44$$

- So because  $7 \cdot 19 3 \cdot 44 = 1$ , this means  $7 \cdot 19 \equiv 1 \pmod{44}$ , and so  $\overline{7} \cdot \overline{19} = \overline{1}$ .
- So the multiplicative inverse of  $\overline{19}$  modulo 44 is  $\overline{7}$ .

Now, back to our other question, which was about cancellation.

- Specifically, we saw that we can do cancellation of a residue class modulo *m* precisely when that residue class is invertible.
- Obviously,  $\overline{0}$  is never invertible (since anything times  $\overline{0}$  is  $\overline{0}$ ).
- But when will all the other residue classes be invertible?

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- Specifically, we saw that we can do cancellation of a residue class modulo *m* precisely when that residue class is invertible.
- Obviously,  $\overline{0}$  is never invertible (since anything times  $\overline{0}$  is  $\overline{0}$ ).
- But when will all the other residue classes be invertible?
- We saw that happen with m = 2, m = 3, and m = 5, for instance, but not for m = 4 or m = 6.)
- In other words, when are all of 1, 2, 3, ..., m − 1 relatively prime to m?

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- Specifically, we saw that we can do cancellation of a residue class modulo *m* precisely when that residue class is invertible.
- Obviously,  $\overline{0}$  is never invertible (since anything times  $\overline{0}$  is  $\overline{0}$ ).
- But when will all the other residue classes be invertible?
- We saw that happen with m = 2, m = 3, and m = 5, for instance, but not for m = 4 or m = 6.)
- In other words, when are all of 1, 2, 3, ..., m − 1 relatively prime to m?
- As suggested by the examples, that happens precisely when *m* is prime!

## Corollary

Every nonzero residue class in  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  has a multiplicative inverse if and only if p is a prime number.

Proof:

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Every nonzero residue class in  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  has a multiplicative inverse if and only if p is a prime number.

Proof:

- If p is prime, then p is relatively prime to each of 1, 2, ..., p 1, so all of the nonzero residue classes modulo p are invertible by our previous result.
- Inversely, if n is composite, say n = ab with 1 < a, b < n, then gcd(a, n) = a > 1, and so ā is not invertible modulo n.

This corollary states that when p is prime,  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  has the structure of the algebraic object called a <u>field</u>.

- To summarize: a field is a set F together with two binary operations of addition (+) and multiplication (·) both of which are associative and commutative and where · distributes over +, that also possesses an additive identity 0 and a multiplicative identity 1 ≠ 0, and where every element has an additive inverse and every nonzero element has a multiplicative inverse.
- Some familiar examples of fields include  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$ , and  $\mathbb{C}$ .
- We will discuss fields a little bit more at the end of the semester.

# Wrap-Up

This marks the end of our discussion of modular arithmetic, but I would like to mention a few places it shows up.

- Modular arithmetic is foundational in mathematics, particularly for algebra, number theory, and topology.
- In CS, modular arithmetic is deeply enmeshed in many algorithms, particularly in cryptography. Most current cryptosystems (e.g., RSA, AES, and elliptic-curve cryptography) use modular arithmetic in a central way. You'll see a few pieces of some of that on Homework 6.
- Modular arithmetic also arises naturally in chemistry (in the study of molecular symmetries), music theory (in the study of tuning systems), economics and game theory (in the study of fair division problems), and the visual arts (in the study of various artistic designs).



We discussed cancellation modulo m and what it means for a residue class to have a multiplicative inverse.

We characterized the invertible residue classes and showed how to use the Euclidean algorithm to calculate modular inverses.

Next lecture: Relations, equivalence relations (start §3).