1. Find the following:

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- (a) Find the values of  $\overline{6} + \overline{13}$ ,  $\overline{6} \overline{13}$ , and  $\overline{6} \cdot \overline{13}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}/11\mathbb{Z}$ . Write your answers as  $\overline{a}$  where  $0 \le a \le 10$ .
	- We have  $\overline{6} + \overline{13} = \overline{19} = |\overline{8}|, \overline{6} \overline{13} = |\overline{7}|, \text{ and } \overline{6} \cdot \overline{13} = |\overline{78}|, |\overline{1}|.$
- (b) Give the addition and multiplication tables modulo 7. (For ease of writing, you may omit the bars in the residue class notation.)





- (c) Find all of the invertible residue classes modulo 7 and their multiplicative inverses.
	- Every nonzero residue class is invertible: explicitly,  $\overline{1}^{-1} = \overline{1}$ ,  $\overline{2}^{-1} = \overline{4}$ ,  $\overline{3}^{-1} = \overline{5}$ ,  $\overline{4}^{-1} = \overline{2}$ ,  $\overline{5}^{-1} = \overline{3}$ , and  $\overline{6}^{-1} = \overline{6}$ .
- (d) Give the multiplication table modulo 8. (Again, you may omit the bars.)



- (e) Find all of the invertible residue classes modulo 8 and their multiplicative inverses.
	- Modulo 8, only the odd residue classes are invertible, and in fact each one is its own inverse:  $\overline{1}^{-1} = \overline{1}$ ,  $\overline{3}^{-1} = \overline{3}, \overline{5}^{-1} = \overline{5}, \overline{7}^{-1} = \overline{7}$ . The other residue classes  $\overline{0}, \overline{2}, \overline{4}, \overline{6}$  are not invertible.
- (f) Give the multiplication table modulo 9. (Again, you may omit the bars.)



- (g) Find all of the invertible residue classes modulo 9 and their multiplicative inverses.
	- Modulo 9, the invertible residue classes are  $\overline{1}, \overline{2}, \overline{4}, \overline{5}, \overline{7}, \overline{8}$ :  $\overline{1}^{-1} = \overline{1}, \overline{2}^{-1} = \overline{5}, \overline{4}^{-1} = \overline{7}, \overline{5}^{-1} = \overline{2},$  $\overline{7}^{-1} = \overline{4}, \overline{8}^{-1} = \overline{8}$ . The other residue classes  $\overline{0}, \overline{3}, \overline{6}$  are not invertible.
- 2. Find the multiplicative inverse of each residue class  $\bar{a}$  modulo m, or explain why it does not exist.
	- (a) The residue class  $\overline{7}$  modulo 10.
		- Via the Euclidean algorithm we can compute  $3 \cdot 7 2 \cdot 10 = 1$  so 7 and 10 are relatively prime. So the inverse exists.
		- Reducing the Euclidean algorithm calculation modulo 10 yields  $3 \cdot 7 \equiv 1 \pmod{10}$ , so  $\overline{3} \cdot \overline{7} = \overline{1}$ modulo 10. Hence  $\overline{7}^{-1} = \boxed{3}$  mod 10.
	- (b) The residue class  $\overline{14}$  modulo 49.
		- We can see that 14 and 49 are not relatively prime since their gcd is 7, so  $\overline{14}$  does not have a multiplicative inverse modulo 49.
	- (c) The residue class  $\overline{16}$  modulo 49.
		- Via the Euclidean algorithm we can compute  $1 \cdot 49 3 \cdot 16 = 1$  so 16 and 49 are relatively prime. So the inverse exists.
		- Reducing the Euclidean algorithm calculation modulo 49 yields  $\overline{-3} \cdot \overline{16} = \overline{1}$  so the multiplicative inverse of  $\overline{16}$  is  $\overline{\smash{)}\,3} = \overline{46} \, \text{mod } 49.$
	- (d) The residue class  $\overline{5}$  modulo 2024.
		- Via the Euclidean algorithm we can compute  $405 \cdot 5 2024 = 1$  so 5 and 2024 are relatively prime. So the inverse exists.
		- Reducing the Euclidean algorithm calculation modulo 49 yields  $\overline{405} \cdot \overline{5} = \overline{1}$  so the multiplicative inverse of  $\frac{1}{5}$  is  $\sqrt{405}$  mod 2024.
- 3. Suppose  $a, b, c, d, m$  are integers and  $m > 0$ . Prove the following properties of modular arithmetic:
	- (a) If  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ , then  $ac \equiv bc \pmod{mc}$  for any  $c > 0$ .
		- Suppose  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ . Then by definition,  $m(b-a)$ . So by properties of divisibility, we see that mc divides  $(b - a)c = bc - ac$ .
		- So by definition, this means  $ac \equiv bc \pmod{mc}$  as claimed. (Note that  $c > 0$  is needed only because the modulus  $mc$  is required to be positive.)
	- (b) If  $d|m$  and  $d>0$ , then  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  implies  $a \equiv b \pmod{d}$ .
		- Suppose  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ . Then by definition,  $m|(b-a)$ . But now because  $d|m$ , by properties of divisibility we see that  $d|(b-a)$ .
		- So by definition, this means  $a \equiv b \pmod{d}$  as claimed.
	- (c) If  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  then  $a^n \equiv b^n \pmod{m}$  for every positive integer n.
		- Induction on n. The base case  $n = 1$  is simply  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ , which is given.
		- For the inductive step suppose  $a^n \equiv b^n \pmod{m}$ . Multiplying this congruence by  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ yields  $a^{n+1} \equiv b^{n+1} \pmod{m}$ , which establishes the inductive step.
	- (d) Prove that the operation + is commutative modulo m: namely, that  $\bar{a} + \bar{b} = \bar{b} + \bar{a}$  for any  $\bar{a}$  and  $\bar{b}$ .
		- By definition of residue class addition we have  $\overline{a} + \overline{b} = \overline{a+b}$ , and also  $\overline{b} + \overline{a} = \overline{b+a}$ .
		- But by the commutative property [12] in  $\mathbb{Z}$ , we know that  $a + b = b + a$ , so the associated residue classes  $\overline{a+b}$  and  $\overline{b+a}$  are also equal. Hence  $\overline{a}+\overline{b}=\overline{a+b}=\overline{b+a}=\overline{b}+\overline{a}$  as claimed.
	- (e) Prove that the operation  $\cdot$  is associative modulo m: namely, that  $\bar{a} \cdot (\bar{b} \cdot \bar{c}) = (\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b}) \cdot \bar{c}$  for any  $\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{b}$ , and  $\bar{c}$ .
		- By definition of residue class multiplication we have  $\overline{a} \cdot (\overline{b} \cdot \overline{c}) = \overline{a} \cdot \overline{b \cdot c} = \overline{a \cdot (b \cdot c)}$  and also  $(\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b}) \cdot \overline{c} =$  $\overline{a \cdot b} \cdot \overline{c} = \overline{(a \cdot b) \cdot c}.$
		- But by the associative property [I5] in Z, we know that  $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$ , so the associated residue classes  $\overline{a\cdot (b\cdot c)}$  and  $\overline{(a\cdot b)\cdot c}$  are also equal. Hence  $\overline{a}\cdot (\overline{b}\cdot \overline{c}) = \overline{a}\cdot \overline{b\cdot c} = \overline{a\cdot (b\cdot c)} = \overline{(a\cdot b)\cdot c}$  $\overline{a \cdot b} \cdot \overline{c} = (\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b}) \cdot \overline{c}$  as claimed.
	- (f) Prove that the residue class  $\overline{1}$  is a multiplicative identity modulo m, namely, that  $\overline{1} \cdot \overline{a} = \overline{a}$  for any  $\overline{a}$ .
		- By definition of residue class multiplication and the identity property [17] we see  $\overline{1} \cdot \overline{a} = \overline{1 \cdot a} = \overline{a}$ , as claimed, since  $1 \cdot a = a$  as integers.

4. The goal of this problem is to discuss modular exponentiation, which is frequently used in cryptography. If n is a positive integer, we define  $\overline{a}^n$  (mod m) to be the n-term product  $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{a} \cdot \cdots \cdot \overline{a}$  (mod m). By problem 3c,  $\overline{n}$  terms

one has  $\overline{a}^n = \overline{a^n}$  (i.e., the *n*th power of the residue class  $\overline{a}$  is the residue class of the *n*th power  $a^n$ ).

- (a) Find the residue classes  $\bar{2}^2$ ,  $\bar{2}^3$ ,  $\bar{2}^4$ ,  $\bar{2}^5$ ,  $\bar{2}^6$ ,  $\bar{3}^2$ ,  $\bar{3}^3$ ,  $\bar{3}^4$ ,  $\bar{3}^5$ , and  $\bar{3}^6$  (mod 10). (Write your answers as residue classes  $\bar{r}$  where  $0 \leq r \leq 9$ .)
	- We simply calculate  $\overline{2}^2 = |\overline{4}|, \overline{2}^3 = |\overline{8}|, \overline{2}^4 = \overline{16} = |\overline{6}|, \overline{2}^5 = \overline{32} = |\overline{2}|, \overline{2}^6 = \overline{64} = |\overline{4}|.$
	- Likewise,  $\overline{3}^2 = \overline{\boxed{9}}$ ,  $\overline{3}^3 = \overline{27} = \overline{\boxed{7}}$ ,  $\overline{3}^4 = \overline{81} = \overline{\boxed{1}}$ ,  $\overline{3}^5 = \overline{243} = \overline{\boxed{3}}$ ,  $\overline{3}^6 = \overline{729} = \overline{\boxed{9}}$ .
- (b) It is natural to think that if  $n_1 \equiv n_2 \pmod{m}$ , then  $a^{n_1} \equiv a^{n_2} \pmod{m}$ ; i.e., that exponents "can also be reduced mod m". Show that this is incorrect by verifying that  $2^2$  is not congruent to  $2^7$  modulo 5.
	- We calculate  $2^2 \equiv 4$  modulo 5, while  $2^7 = 128 \equiv 3$  modulo 5. They are not congruent.
- (c) Show in fact that if  $a \neq 0$  modulo 5, then  $a^4 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$ . Deduce that  $a^{n_1} \equiv a^{n_2} \pmod{5}$  whenever  $n_1 \equiv n_2 \pmod{4}$ , so that the exponents actually behave "modulo 4". [Hint: For the first part, test the 4 possible residue classes for a. For the second part, explain why  $a^{4k} \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$  for any k.
	- Since there are only 4 nonzero residue classes modulo 5, we simply check them all.
	- We have  $1^4 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$ ,  $2^4 = 16 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$ ,  $3^4 = 81 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$ , and  $4^4 = 256 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$ . So the result holds in all cases.
	- For the second part, we just showed that  $a^4 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$  for any nonzero a. Taking the kth power then yields  $a^{4k} \equiv 1^k \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$ .
	- Now, if  $n_1 \equiv n_2 \pmod{4}$ , then  $n_2 n_1 = 4k$  for some integer k which (by interchanging  $n_1, n_2$  if needed) we may assume is nonnegative. We then have  $a^{n_2} = a^{n_1+4k} = a^{n_1} \cdot (a^4)^k \equiv a^{n_1} \cdot 1^k = a^{n_1}$ (mod 5), as claimed.

Now suppose we want to find the remainder when we divide  $2^{516}$  by 61. Here is an efficient approach: compute the values  $2^1 \equiv 2$ ,  $2^2 \equiv 4$ ,  $2^4 \equiv 16$ ,  $2^8 \equiv 16^2 \equiv 12$ ,  $2^{16} \equiv 12^2 \equiv 22$ ,  $2^{32} \equiv 22^2 \equiv -4$ ,  $2^{64} \equiv 16$ ,  $2^{128} \equiv 12, 2^{256} \equiv 22, 2^{512} \equiv 57$  modulo 61 by squaring each previous term and reducing. Then simply evaluate  $2^{516} = 2^{512} \cdot 2^4 \equiv 57 \cdot 16 \equiv 58 \pmod{61}$ , so the remainder is 58.

- (e) Use the method described above to find the remainder when  $3^{261}$  is divided by 43.
	- We compute  $3^1 \equiv 3$ ,  $3^2 \equiv 9$ ,  $3^4 \equiv 81 \equiv -5$ ,  $3^8 \equiv 25$ ,  $3^{16} \equiv 625 \equiv 23$ ,  $3^{32} \equiv 529 \equiv 13$ ,  $3^{64} \equiv 169 \equiv$  $-3, 3^{128} \equiv (-3)^2 \equiv 9, 3^{256} \equiv -5.$
	- Then  $3^{261} = 3^{256} \cdot 3^4 \cdot 3^1 \equiv (-5) \cdot (-5) \cdot 3 \equiv 75 \equiv 32$ . Therefore, the remainder when  $3^{261}$  is divided by 43 is  $|32|$ .
	- Remark: Efficient calculations with modular exponentiation are a fundamental part of the RSA cryptosystem, which is still in wide use today.
- 5. Let p be a prime. The goal of this problem is to prove that  $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$  for every integer a, which is a result known as Fermat's Little Theorem.
	- (a) Show that the binomial coefficient  $\binom{p}{k} = \frac{p!}{k! \cdot (p-k)!}$  is divisible by p for each integer k with  $0 < k < p$ .
		- If  $0 < k < p$  then  $\binom{p}{k} = \frac{p!}{k! \cdot (p-k)!}$  has a factor of p in the numerator (from the p!) but neither k! nor  $(p - k)!$  has a factor of p because p is prime and the only terms in k! and  $(p - k)!$  are integers less than p.
		- Hence the numerator is divisible by  $p$  but the denominator is not, so the quotient divisible by  $p$ .
	- (b) Prove that  $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$  for every positive integer a.
		- Fix p and use induction on a. The base case  $a = 1$  is trivial since clearly  $1^p \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .
		- For the inductive step, suppose  $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$ .
		- Then  $(a+1)^p = a^p + {p \choose 1} a^{p-1} + {p \choose 2} a^{p-2} + \cdots + {p \choose p-1} a + {p \choose p} 1$  by the binomial theorem.
		- By part (a), each of the middle terms is divisible by p, and so we have  $(a + 1)^p \equiv a^p + 1 \equiv a + 1$  $(mod p)$  by the inductive hypothesis. This establishes the inductive step so by induction the result holds for all positive integers a.
	- (c) Show in fact that  $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$  for all integers a. [Hint: The value of  $a^p a$  mod p only depends on what residue class a lies in mod  $p$ .
		- For a fixed p, the value of  $a^p a$  mod p only depends on the value of a mod p, since if  $a \equiv b$  (mod p) then  $a^p - a \equiv b^p - b \pmod{p}$ .
		- So since (b) establishes that  $a^p a$  is 0 modulo p for  $a = 0, 1, 2, \ldots, p 1$  (which represent all p possible residue classes for a), in fact  $a^p - a$  is 0 modulo p for all integers a.
- 6. The goal of this problem is to establish a simple way to show large integers are composite without finding an explicit factorization.
	- (a) Show that if there exists an integer a such that  $a^m \neq a \pmod{m}$ , then m is composite. [Hint: The result of problem 5 states that if p is prime, then  $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$  for all integers a.
		- Fermat's little theorem, in problem 5, states "If p is prime, then  $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$  for all integers a".
		- Taking the contrapositive yields "If there exists an integer a with  $a^p \neq a \pmod{p}$ , then p is not prime".
		- Changing the variable from  $p$  to  $m$  yields the desired result immediately.
	- (b) Given that  $2^{23381} \equiv 9352 \pmod{23381}$ , what can be concluded about whether 23381 is prime or composite?
		- With  $a = 2$  and  $m = 23381$ , since  $a^m \not\equiv a \pmod{m}$ , part (a) implies that 23381 is composite.
	- (c) Given that  $2^{23377} \equiv 2 \pmod{23377}$ , what can be concluded about whether 23377 is prime or composite?
		- The result of part (a) is not an if-and-only-if statement. Since  $2^{23377} \equiv 2 \pmod{23377}$ , the hypothesis of part (a) does not apply, and therefore we cannot make any conclusion about whether 23377 is prime or composite. (In fact,  $23377 = 97 \cdot 241$  is composite!)
		- Remark: The powers in parts (b) and (c) can be calculated quickly using the method discussed in problem  $4(e)$ .