MODULAR ARITHMETIC

The Modulus

• If a is an integer and n is a positive integer, we define a mod n to be the remainder when a is divided by n. The integer n is called the modulus. Thus, for any integer a , we can rewrite Equation a=qn+r as follows:

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a = qn + r \qquad 0 \le r < n; q = \lfloor a/n \rfloora = \lfloor a/n \rfloor \times n + (a \mod n)
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- Example: $11 \mod 7 = 4;$ $-11 \mod 7 = 3$
- Two integers a and b are said to be congruent modulo n, if (a mod n)=(b mod n).
- This is written as $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ $73 \equiv 4 \pmod{23}$; $21 \equiv -9 \pmod{10}$
- Note that if $a \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$, then n/a

Properties of Congruence

1. $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ if $n \mid (a - b)$.

- 2. $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ implies $b \equiv a \pmod{n}$.
- 3. $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$ imply $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$.

Modular Arithmetic Operations

• Modular arithmetic exhibits the following properties:

1. $[(a \mod n) + (b \mod n)] \mod n = (a + b) \mod n$

- 2. $[(a \mod n) (b \mod n)] \mod n = (a b) \mod n$
- 3. $[(a \mod n) \times (b \mod n)] \mod n = (a \times b) \mod n$
- Example:

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11 \mod 8 = 3; 15 \mod 8 = 7
[(11 \mod 8) + (15 \mod 8)] \mod 8 = 10 \mod 8 = 2
(11 + 15) \mod 8 = 26 \mod 8 = 2
[(11 \mod 8) - (15 \mod 8)] \mod 8 = -4 \mod 8 = 4
(11 - 15) \mod 8 = -4 \mod 8 = 4
[(11 \mod 8) \times (15 \mod 8)] \mod 8 = 21 \mod 8 = 5
(11 \times 15) \mod 8 = 165 \mod 8 = 5
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Congruent numbers

• Integers that leave the same remainder when divided by the modulus m are somehow similar, however, not identical. Such numbers are called "congruent".

- For instance, 1 and 13 and 25 and 37 are congruent mod 12 since they all leave the same remainder when divided by 12.
- We write this as $1 \equiv 13 \equiv 25 \equiv 37 \mod 12$. However, they are not congruent mod 13. Why not? Yield a different remainder when divided by 13.
- Find 5 numbers that are congruent to

1) 7 mod 5	2,12,17,-3,-10
2) 7 mod 25	32,57,82,-18,-43
3) 17 mod 25.	42,67,92,-8,-33

Euclid's algorithm

- The Euclidean algorithm, or Euclid's algorithm, is an efficient method for computing the greatest common divisor (GCD) of two integers (numbers), the largest number that divides them both without a remainder.
- The Euclidean algorithm can be based on the following theorem: For any nonnegative integer a and any positive integer b,

 $gcd(a,b) = gcd(b, a \mod b)$

• Example $gcd(55, 22) = gcd(22, 55 \mod 22) = gcd(22, 11) = 11$

The Algorithm

- The Euclidean Algorithm for finding GCD(A,B) is as follows:
- If A = 0 then GCD(A,B)=B, since the GCD(0,B)=B, and we can stop.
- If B = 0 then GCD(A,B)=A, since the GCD(A,0)=A, and we can stop.
- Write A in quotient remainder form $(A = B \cdot Q + R)$
- Find GCD(B,R) using the Euclidean Algorithm since GCD(A,B) = GCD(B,R)

gcd(18, 12) = gcd(12, 6) = gcd(6, 0) = 6gcd(11, 10) = gcd(10, 1) = gcd(1, 0) = 1

Example:

- Find the GCD of 270 and 192
 - A=270, B=192
 - A ≠0
 - B ≠0

- Use long division to find that 270/192 = 1 with a remainder of 78. We can write this as: 270 = 192 * 1 + 78
- Find GCD(192,78), since GCD(270,192)=GCD(192,78)
 - A=192, B=78
 - A ≠0
 - B ≠0
 - Use long division to find that 192/78 = 2 with a remainder of 36. We can write this as: 192 = 78 * 2 + 36
- Find GCD(78,36), since GCD(192,78)=GCD(78,36)
 - A=78, B=36
 - A ≠0
 - B ≠0
 - Use long division to find that 78/36 = 2 with a remainder of 6. We can write this as: 78 = 36 * 2 + 6
- Find GCD(36,6), since GCD(78,36)=GCD(36,6)
 - A=36, B=6
 - A ≠0
 - B ≠0
 - Use long division to find that 36/6 = 6 with a remainder of 0. We can write this as: 36 = 6 * 6 + 0
- Find GCD(6,0), since GCD(36,6)=GCD(6,0)
 - A=6, B=0
 - A ≠0
 - B =0, GCD(6,0)=6
- So we have shown:
- GCD(270,192) = GCD(192,78) = GCD(78,36) = GCD(36,6) = GCD(6,0) = 6
- GCD(270,192) = 6

Properties

- GCD(A,0) = A
- GCD(0,B) = B

• If $A = B \cdot Q + R$ and $B \neq 0$ then GCD(A,B) = GCD(B,R) where Q is an integer, R is an integer between 0 and B-1

Congruence

- If n is a positive integer, we say the integers a and b are congruent modulo n, and write a ≡ b (mod n), if they have the same remainder on division by n.
- Example:

 $\{...,-6,1,8,15,...\}$ are all congruent modulo 7 because their remainders on division by 7 equal 1. $\{...,-4,4,12,20,...\}$ are all congruent modulo 8 since their remainders on division by 8 equal 4.

Properties

- 1. $a \equiv a$ for any a;
- 2. a≡b implies b≡a;
- 3. $a \equiv b$ and $b \equiv c$ implies $a \equiv c$;
- 4. a≡0 iff n|a;
- 5. $a\equiv b$ and $c\equiv d$ implies $a+c\equiv b+d$;
- 6. $a\equiv b$ and $c\equiv d$ implies $a-c\equiv b-d$;

7. $a \equiv b$ and $c \equiv d$ implies $ac \equiv bd$;

Congruent Matrices

Two square matrices A and B are called congruent if there exists a nonsingular matrix P such that

$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{P}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{P},$

where P^{T} is the transpose.

Groups, rings, and fields

- Groups, rings, and fields are the fundamental elements of a branch of mathematics known as abstract algebra, or modern algebra.
- In abstract algebra, we are concerned with sets on whose elements we can operate algebraically; that is, we can combine two elements of the set, perhaps in several ways, to obtain a third element of the set.
- These operations are subject to specific rules, which define the nature of the set.
- By convention, the notation for the two principal classes of operations on set elements is usually the same as the notation for addition and multiplication on ordinary numbers

