

Congruences: What is the remainder?

What is the last digit of 10^{1000} in decimal?

Yes, it is 0, but why?

Because $10^{1000} \equiv 0 \pmod{10}$

The congruence notation $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ states that $m \mid a-b$. It is useful because we can specify equivalence classes of integers

$$x \equiv 1 \pmod{m} \Leftrightarrow x \in \{\dots, -2m+1, -m+1, 1, m+1, 2m+1, \dots\}$$

Further $a \equiv b \pmod{m} \Leftrightarrow a \bmod m = b \bmod m$.

Congruences observe certain algebraic laws which make them nice to work with.

What is the last decimal digit of 9^{1000} ?

We can do the multiplication or we can use properties of modular arithmetic.

What is $9^{1000} \pmod{10}$?

We observe that $9 \equiv -1 \pmod{10}$.

Thus this is equivalent to $(-1)^{1000} \pmod{10}$

if $a \equiv b, c \equiv d \Rightarrow ac \equiv bd \pmod{n}$

This is true because

$$ac - bd = (a-b)c + b(c-d)$$

So since $m \mid (a-b) + m \mid (c-d), m \mid (ac - bd)$

As a corollary, by applying this repeatedly,

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n} \Rightarrow a^N \equiv b^N \pmod{n}$$

So:

$$9^{1000} \equiv (-1)^{1000} \equiv 1 \pmod{10}$$

The last digit must be 1.

$$9^{1001} \equiv -1^{1001} \equiv -1 \pmod{10},$$

so the last digit must be $10 + (-1) = 9$

Thus we have shown that 9^N must have a last digit of 1 or 9.

What is $2^{741} \pmod{5}$?

Observe $2^2 = 4 \equiv -1 \pmod{5}$.

$$\text{Thus } 2^{741} = 2 \cdot 4^{370} \equiv 2 \cdot (-1)^{370} \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$$

Powers of 0, 1, -1 are easiest to work with, so if we can get close to the modulus with some power, our computation is easy.

What is the last digit of 2^{753} in decimal?

$$2^3 \pmod{10} = -2 \quad | \quad (-2)^3 \pmod{10} = 2$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} 2^{753} &\equiv (-2)^{251} \equiv 4 \cdot 2^{83} \equiv 2^{85} \equiv 2 \cdot (-2)^{28} \\ &\equiv 2 \cdot -2 \cdot 2^9 \equiv -4 \cdot 512 \equiv 6 \cdot 2 \pmod{10} \\ &= \underline{2} \end{aligned}$$

It is impressive to be able to work with such large numbers so easily. This should convince you that modular arithmetic can be useful in computation.

What is $2^{573} + 3^{752} \pmod{7}$?

We know how to find each of these separately - can we just add and subtract congruences?

Yes, $a \equiv b$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m} \Rightarrow$
 $a+c \equiv b+d \pmod{m}$
 $a-c \equiv b-d \pmod{m}$

Proof:

$m \mid a-b + m \mid c-d$, so $m \mid a-b+c-d$
 $m \mid (a+c) - (b+d) \Rightarrow (a+c) \equiv (b+d) \pmod{m}$.

$$2^{573} \equiv (1)^{191} \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

$$3^{752} \equiv 3^2 (-1)^{250} \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$$

$$2^{573} + 3^{752} \equiv 1+2 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$$

We have addition, subtraction + multiplication of congruences. What about division?

$$3 \cdot 2 \equiv 5 \cdot 2 \pmod{4}$$

$$3 \not\equiv 5 \pmod{4}$$

} So we just can't cancel across congruences

We can cancel congruences when $d \perp m$.

$$ad \equiv bd \Leftrightarrow a \equiv b \pmod{m}$$

a, b, d, m are integers

$$d \perp m$$

relatively prime

So $2^{\frac{4}{5}} \equiv 2 \pmod{5} \Rightarrow$
 $3 \cdot 2^{\frac{4}{5}} \equiv 2 \cdot 3^x \pmod{5}$

Proof:

$$\text{IF } d \perp m, \text{ GCD}(d, m) = 1$$

$$\text{Thus } \exists d', m' \text{ such that } d'd + m'm = 1.$$

$$ad \equiv bd \Rightarrow add' \equiv bdd', \text{ since } d \equiv d'.$$

$$\text{Note } d'd \equiv 1 \pmod{m}, \text{ since } m'm = 1 - d'd.$$

$$\text{Thus } a(d'd) \equiv a \pmod{m} \text{ and } b(d'd) \equiv b \pmod{m}$$

$$\text{so: } add' \equiv a \equiv bdd' \equiv b \pmod{m} \quad \square$$

Clearly $ad \equiv bd \pmod{md} \Rightarrow a \equiv b \pmod{m}$

$$\frac{ad - bd}{md} \Rightarrow \frac{a - b}{m}$$

So $2^{573} \equiv -(3^{152}) \pmod{7}$ implies

$$5^x 2^{573} \equiv -(3^{152}) 5^x \pmod{7} \text{ and vice versa.}$$

Since when $d \perp M$ we can divide by d without changing the modulus and when $d \nmid M$, we can divide by the d by changing the modulus to M/d ,

$$ad \equiv bd \pmod{M} \iff a \equiv b \pmod{\frac{M}{\text{GCD}(M,d)}}$$

because $d/\text{GCD}(M,d) \perp M$.

Probabilistic Primality Testing

To test if an integer n is composite or prime, we can divide by all possible factors up to the \sqrt{n} , but this is very slow for large n .

A better way is to find some property which holds true for all primes and then test it several times using n in the role of the prime. If it fails, n must be composite, if not, n is probably prime.

Fermat's Theorem: $N^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ if $N \perp p$.

if $N < p$, and p is a prime, $N \perp p$.

So is $p = 753$ prime?

The only values of $N \leq 752$ such that

$N^{752} \equiv 1 \pmod{753}$ are $N = 1, 250, 503$

and 752 . Thus the number of false witnesses we encounter are very small!

Proof that $N^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, $N \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, for all prime p .

This is simple with the fact that

$N \pmod{p}$, $2N \pmod{p}$... $N(p-1) \pmod{p}$

are a permutation of $1, 2, \dots, p-1$, when $N \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ since:

$$(N)(2N) \dots (p-1)N \equiv (p-1)! \pmod{p}$$

$$(p-1)! N^{p-1} \equiv (p-1)! \pmod{p}$$

Since p is prime, $\text{GCD}((p-1)!, p) = 1$

$$N^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

But why do we get a permutation?

Ex: $p=7$, $n=1$ → obvious $0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$

$p=7$, $n=2$

0	mod 7	=	0
2	mod 7	=	2
4	mod 7	=	4
6	mod 7	=	6
8	mod 7	=	1
10	mod 7	=	3
12	mod 7	=	5

$p=7$, $n=3$

0 3 6 2 5 1 4

Suppose that $kN \pmod{p}$ did not describe a permutation for $0 \leq k \leq p-1$.

Since there are p values, this means that

$$a_N \equiv b_N \pmod{p}, \text{ for } 0 \leq a < b \leq p-1$$

By the division rule,

$$a \equiv b \pmod{p/\text{gcd}(p, N)}$$

Since $N \perp p$, $\text{gcd}(p, N) = 1$, so

$$a \equiv b \pmod{p}$$

which is a contradiction since $a \neq b$ and both are between 0 + $p-1$. $\square!$

Thus if $C \perp M$, $CX \pmod{M}$ gives distinct values for all $0 \leq X \leq M-1$

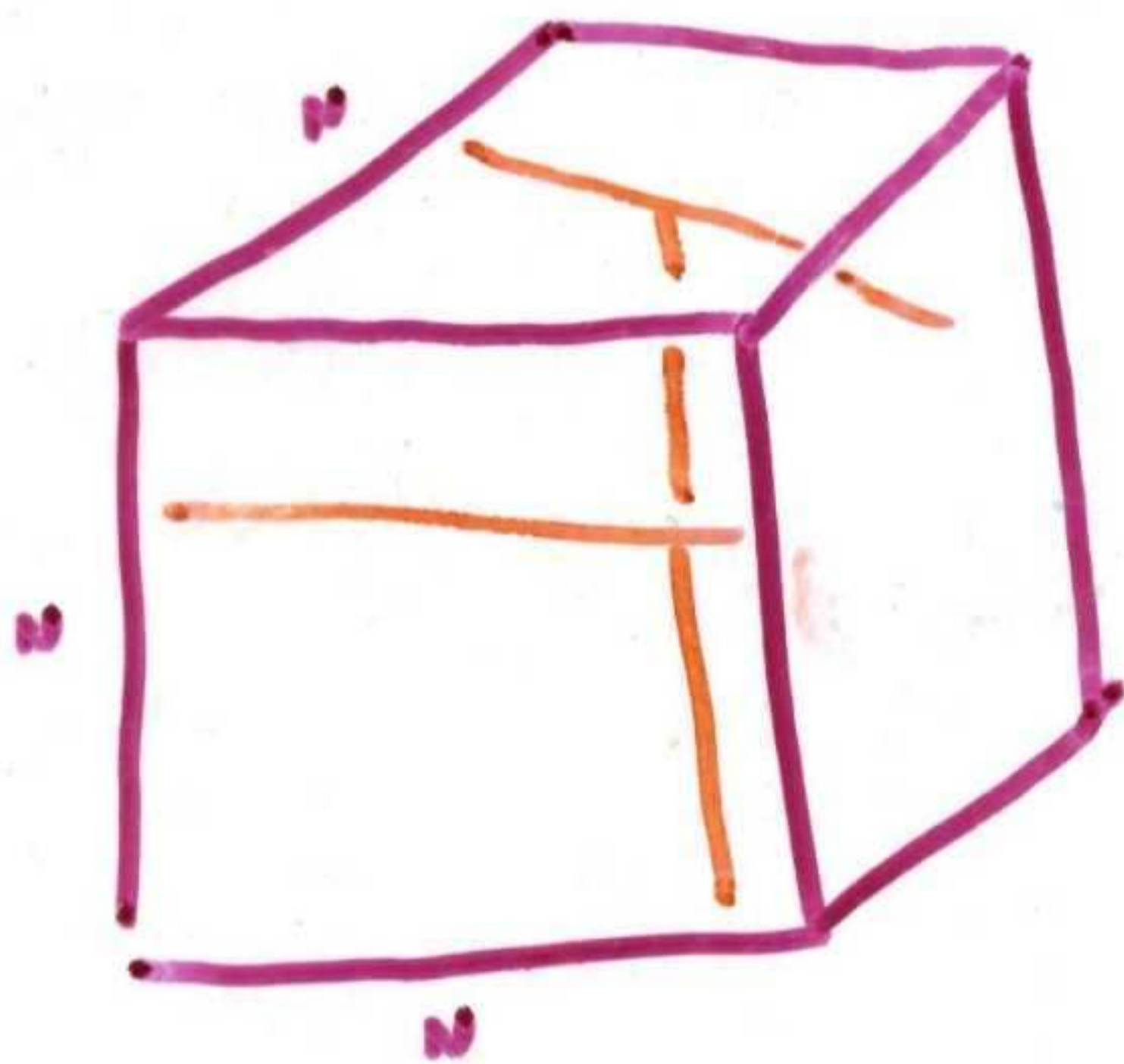
Ari Kaufman's Congruence

As final evidence that modular arithmetic is useful, the congruence

$$k = (5x + 3y + z) \pmod{517}$$

arises in an architecture for computer graphics.
Where does it come from?

Suppose you have an $N \times N \times N$ array of elements, which you would like to store in N memories, so they can be accessed in parallel.



The most common access patterns will be all elements in a row, column, or axis

$$(x, y, k), \quad 1 \leq k \leq N$$

They use the congruence $k = (5x + 3y + z) \pmod{517}$ to partition elements (x, y, z) , $1 \leq x, y, z, \leq 512$ into 517 memories.

Since $1 \perp 517$, $3 \perp 517$, $5 \perp 517$, and for any access where two of x, y, z are constant, the equation reduces to

$$cx + d \pmod{m}$$

where $c \perp m$ and d is a constant which acts as an offset.

Thus for any orthogonal query, the N elements are in distinct memories, allowing parallel access!

In fact, a stronger condition holds. All major + minor diagonal accesses are also contention free!

What happens on a major diagonal query?

$$(x+k, y+k, k), \quad 1 \leq k \leq N$$

These elements will be in memories

$$h = (5(x+k) + 3(y+k) + k) \pmod{517}$$

$$= (\underbrace{5x + 3y}_{\text{constant}} + \underbrace{9k}_{9 \perp 517}) \pmod{517}$$

$$\text{constant} \quad 9 \perp 517$$

The coefficients 5, 3, 1 were selected

so any sum or difference combination

is relatively prime to 517 and unique

$$5 \neq 3$$

$$5 \neq 1$$

$$5 + 3 \neq 1$$

$$5 \neq 3 + 1$$

$$3 \neq 1$$