

# 311 Mod

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## 1 Multiplicative Inverse

**Definitions** Multiplicative inverse of integer  $a$  is an integer  $x$  such that  $ax = 1$ . ( $x$  is  $a$ 's reciprocal). Multiplicative inverse of  $a$  **mod**  $x$ , where  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ , is an integer  $x$ , such that  $ax \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ .

**Intuition:** the only difference between normal multiplicative inverse and the modular one is simply the extra "mod  $m$ " after  $ax$ .

$$\begin{aligned}ax \equiv 1 \pmod{m} &\leftrightarrow ax \text{ mod } m = 1 \text{ mod } m \\ &\leftrightarrow ax \text{ mod } m = 1\end{aligned}$$

**Compute modular multiplicative inverse** By the definition of modular multiplicative inverse, we just need to solve for  $x$  in  $ax \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ . Can we come up with our own way? (Instead of memorizing the method provided in lecture.) Let's try!

First, we know  $ax \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ . By definition of modular congruence,  $ax = km + 1$  for integer  $k$ . This means that  $ax$  and  $km$  are **consecutive integers**. We know that *consecutive integers are coprime* (Proof found: [https://proofwiki.org/wiki/Consecutive\\_Integers\\_are\\_Coprime](https://proofwiki.org/wiki/Consecutive_Integers_are_Coprime)). Therefore,  $\gcd(ax, km) = 1$ .

By Bézout's Identity,  $\gcd(ax, km) = p(ax) + q(km)$  where  $p, q$  are integers. Now, suppose we have two integers  $s$  and  $t$ , such that  $s = px$ , and  $t = qk$ , then we can write  $\gcd(ax, km) = sa + tm = 1$ . Here is a theorem that will help us proceed: **If 1 is a linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$ , then  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ .** Here is a proof: <http://www.math.fsu.edu/~wooland/mad2104/integers/proofPDFs/dDaspt1.pdf>.

**Note:** This proof uses the fact that "if  $d \mid a$ , and  $d \mid b$ , then  $d$  divides the linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$ . Here is a proof of this fact:

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}d \mid a, a &= kd, \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z} \\ \Rightarrow d \mid b, b &= jd, \text{ for some } j \in \mathbb{Z} \\ \Rightarrow sa + tb &= skd + tjd = d(sk + tj) \\ \Rightarrow d \mid (sk + tj) \\ \Rightarrow d \mid (s(a/d) + t(b/d)) &\text{ Because } d \neq 0 \\ \Rightarrow s(a/d) + t(b/d) &= md \\ \Rightarrow (sa + tb)/d &= md \\ \therefore md &\text{ is an integer} \\ \Rightarrow d \mid (sa + tb). &\text{ Basically, } sa + tb = (md)d\end{aligned}$$

□

Thus, we have  $\gcd(a, m) = 1$ . Therefore,  $a$  and  $m$  are coprime.

**Corollary:** If you can compute the modular multiplicative inverse of  $a$  mod  $m$ , then it must be the case that  $a$  and  $m$  are coprime.

At this point, we can apply Extended Euclidean Algorithm to compute  $s, t$ . The process here is supposed to be familiar to you. First, you write down a series of equations that basically illustrates the fact that  $\gcd(x, y) = \gcd(y, x \text{ mod } y)$ . Next, we use backwards substitution repeatedly to write  $\gcd(x, y)$  as the sum of  $sx$  and  $ty$  for two integers  $s, t$ .

After applying Extended Euclidean Algorithm, what we obtain is  $s$  and  $t$ , which satisfies  $\gcd(a, m) = sa + tm$ . Here is a key point to observe:  $sa \bmod m = 1$ . This is because, first, apparently,  $sa + tm = 1$ , and  $1 \bmod 1 = 1$ . Thus,  $(sa + tm) \bmod m = 1 \bmod m$ . Then, because  $tm$  is a multiple of  $m$ ,  $(sa + tm) \bmod m = sa \bmod m$ .

Because  $sa \bmod m = 1$ , we have  $sa \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ . This means that  $s$  is just (one of) the  $x$  that we want to find. Why one of? Notice that for an integer  $k$ ,

$$(s + km)a \bmod m = (sa + kam) \bmod m = sa \bmod m$$

Thus, every integer  $x$  that satisfies  $x = s + km$  will also solve  $ax \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ . Just for the sake of consistency, we prefer to do an extra mod over the  $s$  that we got from Extended Euclidean Algorithm, so that  $0 \leq x < m$  when  $k = 0$ .

One other key point we want to get from the above is that, as long as you solved  $ax \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ , you can solve for  $y$  in  $uy \equiv v \pmod{m}$  for any integer  $u$  and  $v$ , using the Additivity and Multiplicity of Congruence. This idea is illustrated in the modular table. The entire point of that table is to display the property that I described here.

## 2 Multiplicity of Congruence

When we discussed about the algorithm to compute modular exponentiation, we encountered this property of modular congruence.

$$(a \bmod m)(b \bmod m) \equiv ab \pmod{m}$$

Call this property  $P$ . According to the Multiplicity of Congruence, if for  $c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $c \equiv a \pmod{m}$  and  $d \equiv b \pmod{m}$ , we have  $cd \equiv ab \pmod{m}$ . Now we want to derive  $P$  based on the Multiplicity of Congruence.

*Proof.* We have  $c \equiv a \pmod{m}$  and  $d \equiv b \pmod{m}$ . Now, let  $c = a \bmod m$ . Let  $d = b \bmod m$ . Because,  $c \bmod m = (a \bmod m) \bmod m = a \bmod m$ , and similarly,  $d \bmod m = (b \bmod m) \bmod m = b \bmod m$ ,  $c$  and  $d$  satisfy  $c \equiv a \pmod{m}$  and  $d \equiv b \pmod{m}$ . By Multiplicity of Congruence, we know  $cd \equiv ab \pmod{m}$ . That is exactly  $(a \bmod m)(b \bmod m) \equiv ab \pmod{m}$ .  $\square$

## 3 Algorithm to compute Modular Exponentiation fast

In lecture, we are presented with an algorithm to compute  $a^e \bmod m$  fast. The algorithm goes as follows: Write  $e$  in binary, with  $n$  digits  $(b_{n-1} \dots b_1 b_0)_2$ . Then, we look at which digit is 1. e.g. Suppose  $b_i = 1$ , we use repeated squaring to compute  $a^{2^i}$ . Finally, we multiply all the  $a^{2^i}$ , where  $i$  is the digit index for which  $b_i$  is not 0, that we computed from repeated squaring, and obtain  $a^e \bmod m$ .

This algorithm works because

$$(e)_{10} = b_{n-1}2^{n-1} + b_{n-2}2^{n-2} + \dots + b_12^1 + b_02^0$$

And we know that

$$a^{x+y} = a^x a^y$$

Therefore,

$$a^e \bmod m = a^{b_{n-1}2^{n-1} + b_{n-2}2^{n-2} + \dots + b_12^1 + b_02^0} \bmod m = a^{b_{n-1}2^{n-1}} \dots a^{b_02^0} \bmod m$$

The *repeated squaring* process is demonstrated in the lecture slide. Essentially,

$$a^{2^n} = (a^{2^{n-1}} \bmod m)^2 \bmod m$$

We have seen examples in section. So I will not repeat examples here. You can come up with examples yourselves and apply this idea.

## 4 Problem 1 on section worksheet

You will eventually get the solution to the section worksheet. I will clarify several steps in the solution. After applying Multiplicity of Congruences, we obtain

$$\sum_{i=0}^m (x_i \bmod 9)(10^i \bmod 9) \equiv 0 \pmod{9}$$

If we treat  $a = 10 \bmod 9$ , and  $b = 10$ , and because  $10 \bmod 9 \equiv 10 \pmod{9}$ , then based on rule [\*\*\*], we have  $(10 \bmod 9)^i \equiv 10^i \pmod{9}$ . Therefore,  $10^i \bmod 9 = (10 \bmod 9)^i \bmod 9$ . So equivalently we have,

$$\sum_{i=0}^m (x_i \bmod 9)((10 \bmod 9)^i \bmod 9) \equiv 0 \pmod{9}$$

Then, by Multiplicity of Congruence (blame the solution for skipping this step), we have,

$$\sum_{i=0}^m x_i((10 \bmod 9)^i) \equiv 0 \pmod{9}$$

Another step I want to explain from [Definition of mod] to the first [Simplifying]. In my opinion, it is unnecessary, because we know  $(1 \bmod 9)^i = 1^i = 1$ . Therefore, we can directly get the final step.