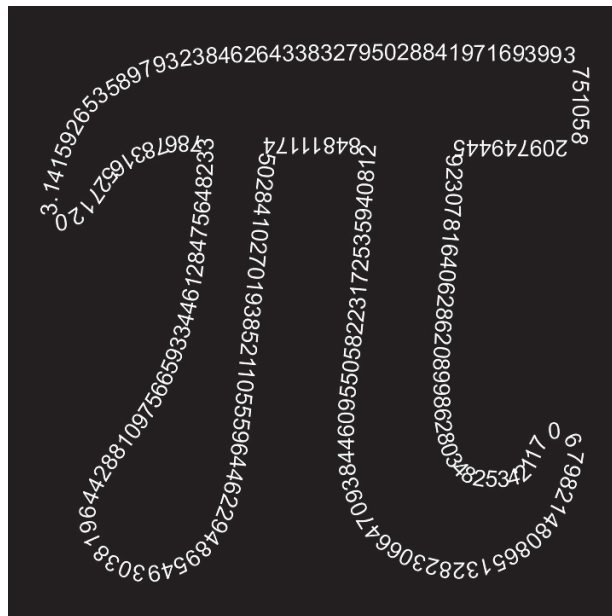


MATHS BASIC COURSE FOR UNDERGRADUATES



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5th SUBJECT: CONGRUENCES

Congruences. Divisibility criteria. Linear congruences. Euler's ρ function. Chinese remainder theorem.

1 Congruences

The language of congruences can be used to solve problems of divisibility. This language was studied by Gauss in 1801, in *Disquisitiones Arithmeticae*.

Definition. Let n be a positive integer number. The integer numbers a and b are said to be congruent modulo n , and we will address it as $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$, if when they are divided by n , we obtain the same remainder. The number n is said to be the modulo of the congruence.

Examples. The following are some special cases:

- (i) When any integer number is divided by $n = 1$, the remainder is 0, this is, all the numbers are congruent each one to each other modulo 1.
- (ii) If $n = 2$, the only possible remainders are 0 and 1. The ones with remainder 0 are the even numbers, while the ones with remainder 1 are the odd ones.
- (iii) If $n = 5$, then $9 \equiv 19 \pmod{5}$, $-13 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ or $5 \equiv -5 \pmod{5}$. In general, all integer numbers can be divided in 5 classes $\pmod{5}$.

Proposition. $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ if and only if $a - b$ is a multiple of n .

Proof. If $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$, we can write:

$$a = q_1n + r \quad \text{and} \quad b = q_2n + r, \quad \text{where } 0 \leq r < n.$$

By subtracting the previous expressions, we have $a - b = (q_1 - q_2)n$, and we have finished. On the contrary, lets suppose now that $a - b$ is a multiple of n . Lets also suppose that

$$a = q_1n + r_1 \quad \text{and} \quad b = q_2n + r_2 \quad \text{where } 0 \leq r_1, r_2 < n.$$

Again, subtracting the previous two expressions, we get $a - b = (q_1 - q_2)n + (r_1 - r_2)$, and isolating $r_1 - r_2$, we obtain that $r_1 - r_2 = (a - b) - (q_1 - q_2)n$ is a multiple of n . Consequently, $r_1 - r_2 = 0$ or $r_1 = r_2$ (what we wanted).

Proposition. Let $n > 1$ be a positive integer number and a, b, c, d, k be integer numbers. The following properties are fulfilled:

(i) Reflexivity: $a \equiv a \pmod{n}$.

(ii) Symmetry: if $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$, then $b \equiv a \pmod{n}$.

(iii) Transitivity: if $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$, then $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$.

(iv) If $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{n}$, then

$$a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{n} \quad \text{and} \quad ac \equiv bd \pmod{n}.$$

(v) If $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$, then

$$a \pm k \equiv b \pm k \pmod{n} \quad \text{and} \quad ak \equiv bk \pmod{n}.$$

(vi) If $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$, then $a^m \equiv b^m \pmod{n}$, for any positive integer m .

(vii) If $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $p(x)$ is a polynomial in the variable x with integer coefficients, then $p(a) \equiv p(b) \pmod{n}$.

Proof. properties i), ii) and iii) are immediate, and therefore “being congruent modulo n ” is an equivalence relation in the group \mathbb{Z} .

iv) If $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{n}$, then $a - b = q_1n$ and $c - d = q_2n$. Merging the previous two expressions, we obtain $(a + c) - (b + d) = (q_1 + q_2)n$, and this is a multiple of n , or equivalently, $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{n}$. Analogously, since $a = b + q_1n$ and $c = d + q_2n$, by multiplying both equations we obtain,

$$ac = (b + q_1n)(d + q_2n) = bd + (bq_2 + dq_1 + q_1q_2n)n,$$

hence, $ac - db$ is a multiple of n .

v) is a consequence of iv), since $k \equiv k \pmod{n}$.

vi) can also obtain as a consequence of iv), multiplying the congruence $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ by itself m times. And vii) is a consequence of iv), v) and vi).

Proposition. If $ak \equiv bk \pmod{n}$, then $a \equiv b \pmod{\frac{n}{d}}$, where $d = \gcd(k, n)$.

Proof. Since $d = \gcd(k, n)$, we can write $k = dk'$ and $n = dn'$, where $\gcd(k', n') = 1$. From the hypothesis, we have that $ka - kb = qn$, for some integer number q . This is, $dk'a - dk'b = qdn'$, and now dividing by d , we have $k'a - k'b = qn'$. Therefore, $n' \mid k'(a - b)$, this is, $a \equiv b \pmod{n'}$.

Corollary. If $ak \equiv bk \pmod{n}$ and k and n are coprime numbers, then $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$.

Corollary. If $ak \equiv bk \pmod{p}$, being p a prime number and if $p \nmid k$, then $a \equiv b \pmod{p}$.

Examples. Some applications of the previous results are the following:

- (i) $6 \equiv 4 \pmod{2}$ can be changed to $3 \equiv 2 \pmod{\frac{2}{d}}$, where $d = \gcd(2, 2)$; this is, $3 \equiv 2 \pmod{1}$.
- (ii) $44 \equiv 8 \pmod{9}$ can be changed to $11 \equiv 2 \pmod{\frac{9}{d}}$, where $d = \gcd(4, 9)$, this is, $11 \equiv 2 \pmod{9}$.

Example. An integer number expressed in decimal form is divisible by 9 if and only if the sum of its digits is divisible by 9. Let us write n in decimal form,

$$n = a_0 + a_1 \cdot 10 + a_2 \cdot 10^2 + \cdots + a_k \cdot 10^k,$$

where a_i are in $0 \leq a_i \leq 9$. Since $10 \equiv 1 \pmod{9}$, applying one of the previous properties (vi), $10^i \equiv 1 \pmod{9}$ and $a_i \cdot 10^i \equiv a_i \pmod{9}$. Thus, $n \equiv a_0 + a_1 + \cdots + a_k \pmod{9}$.

2 Divisibility criteria

Theorem. (Fermat's Little Theorem.) If p is a prime number and $p \nmid a$, then

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Proof. Let us take the first different $p - 1$ multiples of a : $a, 2a, \dots, (p - 1)a$. In pairs, these numbers are not congruent modulo p . In fact, if $sa \equiv ta \pmod{p}$, being $s \neq t$, then cancelling a , we would achieve $s \equiv t \pmod{p}$, and this is impossible since s and t are smaller than p . Thus, since in pairs, they are not congruent modulo p , when we divide them by p we obtain $p - 1$ different remainders. None of those remainders is 0. On the contrary, if $sa \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, then cancelling a , we would obtain $s \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ which is impossible since $1 \leq s \leq p - 1$. Consequently, with the previous $p - 1$ numbers, we obtain the remainders $1, 2, \dots, p - 1$. Therefore, the numbers $a, 2a, \dots, (p - 1)a$, in certain order, are congruent modulo p with $1, 2, \dots, p - 1$. Now multiplying all these congruences, we obtain:

$$a \cdot 2a \cdot 3a \dots (p - 1)a \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \dots (p - 1) \pmod{p},$$

this is,

$$1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \dots (p - 1)a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \dots (p - 1) \pmod{p},$$

and after cancelations, we have $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Proposition. If p and q are two different prime numbers and a is an integer fulfilling that $p \nmid a$ and $q \nmid a$, then $a^{(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{pq}$.

Proof. Because of Fermat's Little Theorem, we know that $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. By applying a previous property (vi), we have $a^{(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Similarly, we have $a^{q-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$, and consequently, $a^{(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$. Now, since $p \mid a^{(p-1)(q-1)} - 1$ and $q \mid a^{(p-1)(q-1)} - 1$, and p and q are different prime numbers, we have $pq \mid a^{(p-1)(q-1)} - 1$, or equivalently, $a^{(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{pq}$.

3 Linear congruences

Definition. If m is a positive integer number and $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, we denote the equation $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$, with the variable $x \in \mathbb{Z}$, as a linear congruence.

Example. Solve the linear congruence $4x \equiv 2 \pmod{28}$. If $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ is a solution for the linear congruence, then $4x = 2 + 28q$, for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$, and is noticeable that this is impossible, since the left side of the equality is divisible by 4, while the right side is not.

Example. Solve the linear congruence $13x \equiv 2 \pmod{31}$. If $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ is a solution for the linear congruence, then $13x = 2 + 31q$, for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$. Notice that $\gcd(13, 31) = 1$, and then, because Bezout's identity, there exist two integer numbers s, t for which $1 = 13s + 31t$. Thus, $13s \equiv 1 \pmod{31}$, and multiplying the congruence by 2, we obtain $13(2s) \equiv 2 \pmod{31}$. This is, $x = 2s$ ($s \in \mathbb{Z}$) is a solution for the initial congruence.

The previous examples give us the key to find the solutions for linear congruences and to prove their existence.

Proposition. The linear congruence $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$, being $x \in \mathbb{Z}$, has a solution if and only if $d = \gcd(a, m)$ divides b . Besides, in this case, there exist exactly d non congruent solutions modulo m .

Proof. First of all, let us suppose that $x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ is a solution of the linear congruence. Then, $ax_0 = b + qm$, for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$. Since $d \mid a$ and $d \mid m$, we conclude that $d \mid b$. On the contrary, let us suppose that $d \nmid b$ and write $b = kd$, for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. By Bezout's identity, there exist two integer numbers s, t for which $d = sa + tm$. Multiplying the previous equality by k , we have $b = kd = ksa + ktm$, and then $aks = b - ktm \equiv b \pmod{m}$. This is, ks is a solution for the given congruence. On the other hand, if x_0 and x_1 are two different solutions for the congruence $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$, then $ax_1 \equiv ax_0 \pmod{m}$, and cancelling a , we obtain $x_1 \equiv x_0 \pmod{\frac{m}{d}}$. Thus, the d different solutions for the congruence which are non congruent modulo m are:

$$\left\{ x_0, x_0 + \frac{m}{d}, x_0 + 2\frac{m}{d}, \dots, x_0 + (d-1)\frac{m}{d} \right\}.$$

Example. Prove Wilson's Theorem. If p is a prime number, then $(p-1)! + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. By Fermat's Little Theorem, the congruence $x^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, or equivalently the congruence $x^{p-1} - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, has $p-1$ different solutions; specifically:

1, 2, \dots, p - 1. Thus,

$$x^{p-1} - 1 \equiv (x - 1)(x - 2) \dots (x - (p - 1)) \pmod{p}.$$

Since any value of x fulfills this congruence, by taking $x = 0$ we have the following:

$$-1 \equiv (-1)(-2) \dots (-(p - 1)) \pmod{p} \equiv (-1)^{p-1} 1 \cdot 2 \dots (p - 1) \pmod{p},$$

this is, $(-1)^{p-1} \cdot (p - 1)! + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. If $p = 2$, we have $-1 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, and if p is an odd number, we have $(p - 1)! + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.

4 Euler's ρ function

Definition. If $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we call $\rho(n)$ to the number of positive integers that are smaller or equal to n and at the same time, are coprimes to n . By definition, $\rho(1) = 1$, and it is called Euler's ρ function.

Proposition. If p is a prime number, then $\rho(p) = p - 1$.

Proposition. If p is a prime number and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\rho(p^n) = p^n - p^{n-1}$.

Proof. The positive integer numbers smaller or equal to p^n and that at the same time are not coprimes to p^n are:

$$p, 2p, 3p, \dots, p(p - 1), p^2, (p + 1)p, (p + 2)p, \dots, 2p^2, 3p^2, \dots, \\ (p - 1)p^2, p^3, \dots, p^{n-2}, 2p^{n-2}, 3p^{n-2}, \dots, p^{n-1}p,$$

and counting them, there are p^{n-1} positive integer numbers. Thus, $\rho(p^n) = p^n - p^{n-1} = p^{n-1}(p - 1) = p^n(p - \frac{1}{p})$.

Corollary. If p is a prime number and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\sum_{i=0}^n \rho(p^i) = p^n$.

Proof. By using the previous proposition,

$$\sum_{i=0}^n \rho(p^i) = \rho(p^0) + \sum_{i=1}^n (p^i - p^{i-1}) = 1 + (p - 1) \sum_{i=1}^n p^{i-1} = \\ \rho(1) + (p - 1) \frac{p^n - 1}{p - 1} = 1 + p^n - 1 = p^n.$$

Theorem. If $n = p_1^{k_1} p_2^{k_2} \dots p_r^{k_r}$ ($n \in \mathbb{N}$) is the canonical factorization of n , then

$$\rho(n) = \prod_{i=1}^r \rho(p_i^{k_i}) = \prod_{i=1}^r (p_i^{k_i} - p_i^{k_i-1}) = n \prod_{i=1}^r (1 - \frac{1}{p_i}).$$

Proof. The theorem can be proven inductively. The amount of numbers non divisible by p_1 and that at the same time are smaller or equal to n is given by $n - \frac{n}{p_1}$. Let us suppose that the amount of numbers smaller or equal to n and at the same time, non divisible by the primes p_1, p_2, \dots, p_s (being $s < r$) is given by the following formula:

$$n\left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right)\left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_s}\right).$$

Now, the positive integer numbers smaller or equal to n that at the same time are multiples of p_{s+1} are: $p_{s+1}, 2p_{s+1}, \dots, \frac{n}{p_{s+1}}p_{s+1}$. From those, the numbers that are not multiples of p_1, p_2, \dots, p_s are related to the coefficients of p_{s+1} (this is, $1, 2, 3, \dots, \frac{n}{p_{s+1}}$) that are not divisible by p_1, p_2, \dots, p_s . By the induction hypothesis, the amount of these positive integer numbers is given by the expression:

$$\frac{n}{p_{s+1}}\left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right)\left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_s}\right).$$

Thus, the amount of positive integer numbers smaller or equal to n that at the same time are non divisible by p_1, p_2, \dots, p_{s+1} is given by the following formula:

$$\begin{aligned} n\left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right)\left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_s}\right) - \frac{n}{p_{s+1}}\left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right)\left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_s}\right) = \\ n\left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right)\left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_{s+1}}\right). \end{aligned}$$

Remark. Another way to see that $\rho(n) = \prod_{i=1}^r \rho(p_i^{k_i})$ in the previous conditions would be: find the numbers that have an inverse for the product in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$, or in other words, find the group $\mathbb{U}(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$, and then, notice that there exists an application that is at the same time bijective and an homomorphism between $\mathbb{U}(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$ and the cartesian product $\mathbb{U}(\mathbb{Z}/p_1^{k_1}\mathbb{Z}) \times \mathbb{U}(\mathbb{Z}/p_2^{k_2}\mathbb{Z}) \times \dots \times \mathbb{U}(\mathbb{Z}/p_r^{k_r}\mathbb{Z})$. Consequently, the amount of invertible elements for the product in both groups is related, and therefore their amount can also be counted in two ways.

Proposition. If $n > 1$, the sum of the positive integer numbers smaller or equal to n that are coprimes to n is given by $\frac{1}{2}n\rho(n)$.

Proof. Let $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_{\rho(n)}$ be all the positive integers smaller or equal to n that at the same time are coprimes to n . The sum of all these numbers is given by:

$$S = m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_{\rho(n)}.$$

For any index $i \in \{1, \dots, \rho(n)\}$, since $n - m_i$ and n are coprimes, then all the positive integer numbers smaller or equal to n that are at the same time coprimes to n can be addressed as:

$$(n - m_1), (n - m_2), \dots, (n - m_{\rho(n)}).$$

Thus,

$$S = (n - m_1) + (n - m_2) + \cdots + (n - m_{\rho(n)}).$$

Joining the two expressions for S , we obtain:

$$2S = n + \overbrace{\cdots}^{\rho(n)} + n = n\rho(n).$$

Proposition. Euler's ρ function is multiplicative. In other words, if m and n are coprimes, then $\rho(mn) = \rho(m)\rho(n)$.

Proof. Let $m = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r}$ and $n = q_1^{\beta_1} q_2^{\beta_2} \cdots q_s^{\beta_s}$ be the canonical factorization of these integer numbers, where $p_i \neq q_j$ for all the indexes. Then:

$$mn = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r} q_1^{\beta_1} q_2^{\beta_2} \cdots q_s^{\beta_s},$$

and by a previous theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} \rho(mn) &= mn \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_r}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{q_1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{q_2}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{q_s}\right) = \\ &= \left(m \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_r}\right)\right) \left(n \left(1 - \frac{1}{q_1}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{q_s}\right)\right) = \rho(m)\rho(n). \end{aligned}$$

Remark. Notice that $\rho(3) = 2$ and $\rho(6) = 6\left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right)\left(1 - \frac{1}{3}\right) = 2$, but $\rho(3 \cdot 6) = \rho(18) = 18\left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right)\left(1 - \frac{1}{3}\right) = 6 \neq \rho(3)\rho(6)$.

5 Chinese remainder theorem

Proposition. The following system of linear congruences

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

is solvable if and only if $\gcd(m_1, m_2) \mid (a_2 - a_1)$. If x_1 is a solution of the system, then any other solution of the system has the form $x \equiv x_1 \pmod{\text{lcm}(m_1, m_2)}$.

Proof. If $x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$, then $x = a_1 + km_1$ where k is an integer number. Substituting in the second linear congruence, $a_1 + km_1 \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$, and thus $m_1 k \equiv (a_2 - a_1) \pmod{m_2}$. By a previous proposition, we know that this congruence is solvable if and only if $\gcd(m_1, m_2) \mid (a_2 - a_1)$. Suppose that there exists x_0 that is a solution of the new second linear congruence. Now denote $x_1 = a_1 + x_0 m_1$. Any other solution of the new second congruence has the form $x_0 + \frac{m_2}{d}t$, where $d = \gcd(m_1, m_2)$ and $t \in \{1, 2, \dots, d - 1\}$. Then, another solution of the first system has the form:

$$x = a_1 + \left(x_0 + \frac{m_2}{d}t\right)m_1 = a_1 + x_0 m_1 + \frac{m_1 m_2}{d}t.$$

Since $x_1 = a_1 + x_0 m_1$ and $\gcd(m_1, m_2) \cdot \text{lcm}(m_1, m_2) = m_1 m_2$ or $\frac{m_1 m_2}{\gcd(m_1, m_2)} = \text{lcm}(m_1, m_2)$, then we have that $x \equiv x_1 \pmod{\text{lcm}(m_1, m_2)}$.

Theorem. (Chinese remainder theorem.) If $\gcd(m_i, m_j) = 1$ for any value $i \neq j$, then the system of congruences

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

.....

$$x \equiv a_n \pmod{m_n}$$

has a unique solution modulo $m = m_1 \dots m_n$.

Proof. Denote as $M_i = \frac{m}{m_i}$ for any value of $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. Then, $\gcd(M_i, m_i) = 1$. By a previous proposition, the solutions of the following linear congruences are unique:

$$M_1 x_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_1}, M_2 x_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_2}, \dots, M_n x_n \equiv 1 \pmod{m_n}.$$

Multiplying each of them by the corresponding factor, we obtain:

$$M_1 x_1 a_1 \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}, M_2 x_2 a_2 \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}, \dots, M_n x_n a_n \equiv a_n \pmod{m_n}.$$

Now each congruence of the initial statement is fulfilled if

$$x_0 = M_1 x_1 a_1 + M_2 x_2 a_2 + \dots + M_n x_n a_n,$$

because M_j includes the factor m_i , if $i \neq j$. Hence, the initial system of linear congruences has at least one solution. If x' is another solution of the system, we have that $x' \equiv a_i \pmod{m_i}$, for certain value of i . In addition, $x' \equiv x_0 \pmod{m_i}$, and since $\gcd(m_i, m_j) = 1$ for the cases where $i \neq j$, applying repetitively the previous proposition, we obtain the following : $x' \equiv x_0 \pmod{m}$.