# Numbers (8A)

Young Won Lim 6/21/17 Copyright (c) 2017 Young W. Lim.

Permission is granted to copy, distribute and/or modify this document under the terms of the GNU Free Documentation License, Version 1.2 or any later version published by the Free Software Foundation; with no Invariant Sections, no Front-Cover Texts, and no Back-Cover Texts. A copy of the license is included in the section entitled "GNU Free Documentation License".

Please send corrections (or suggestions) to youngwlim@hotmail.com.

This document was produced by using OpenOffice and Octave.

A 24-by-60 rectangle is covered with ten 12-by-12 square tiles, where 12 is the GCD of 24 and 60.

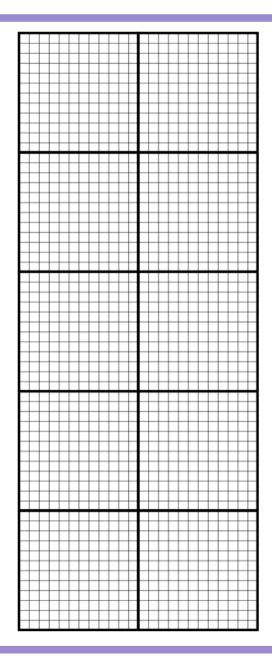
More generally, an a-by-b rectangle can be covered with square tiles of side-length d only if d is a common divisor of a and b

d : common divisor

the largest d : gcd

(greatest common divisor)

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Greatest\_common\_divisor



What is the LCM of 4 and 6?

Multiples of 4 are:

4, 8, **12**, 16, 20, **24**, 28, 32, **36**, 40, 44, **48**, 52, 56, **60**, 64, 68, **72**, 76, ...

and the multiples of 6 are:

6, **12**, 18, 24, 30, **36**, 42, 48, 54, **60**, 66, **72**, ...

Common multiples of 4 and 6 are simply the numbers that are in both lists:

**12**, 24, 36, 48, 60, 72, ....

So, from this list of the first few common multiples of the numbers 4 and 6, their least common multiple is **12**.

4

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Least\_common\_multiple

#### GCD \* LCM

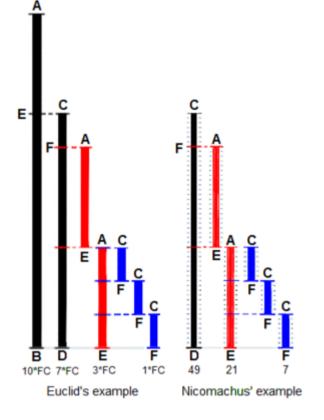
$$a = p_1^{a_1} \cdot p_2^{a_2} \cdot \dots \cdot p_n^{a_n}$$
$$b = p_1^{b_1} \cdot p_2^{b_2} \cdot \dots \cdot p_n^{b_n}$$

**Prime Factorization** 

$$gcd(a,b) = p_1^{\min(a_1,b_1)} \cdot p_2^{\min(a_2,b_2)} \cdot \dots \cdot p_n^{\min(a_n,b_n)}$$
$$lcm(a,b) = p_1^{Max(a_1,b_1)} \cdot p_2^{Max(a_2,b_2)} \cdot \dots \cdot p_n^{Max(a_n,b_n)}$$

$$gcd(a,b) \cdot lcm(a,b) = p_1^{a_1+b_1} \cdot p_2^{a_2+b_2} \cdot \cdots \cdot p_n^{a_n+b_n} = a \cdot b$$

### Finding common unit length



Euclid's method for finding the greatest common divisor (GCD) of two starting lengths BA and DC, both defined to be multiples of a common "unit" length.

The length DC being shorter, it is used to "measure" BA, but only once because remainder EA is less than DC.

EA now measures (twice) the shorter length DC, with remainder FC shorter than EA.

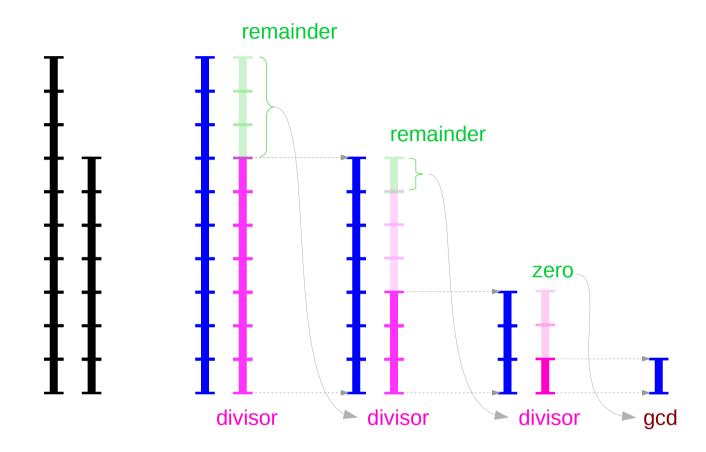
Then FC measures (three times) length EA.

Because there is no remainder, the process ends with FC being the GCD.

On the right Nicomachus' example with numbers 49 and 21 resulting in their GCD of 7 (derived from Heath 1908:300).

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Euclidean\_algorithm

### **Euclid Algorithm Steps**



### **Euclid Algorithm**

<pre>(%i3) factor(1071); (%o3) 3<sup>2</sup>717</pre>	
<pre>(%i4) factor(462); (%o4) 23711</pre>	
<pre>(%i5) gcd(1071, 462); (%o5) 21</pre>	
$1071 = 3^2 \cdot 7 \cdot 17$ 462 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 7 \cdot 11	

Step k	Equation	Quotient and remainder
0	$1071 = q_0  462 + r_0$	$q_0 = 2$ and $r_0 = 147$
1	$462 = q_1 \ 147 + r_1$	$q_1 = 3$ and $r_1 = 21$
2	$147 = q_2 \ 21 + r_2$	$q_2 = 7$ and $r_2 = 0$ ; algorithm ends

 $1071 = 3^2 \cdot 7 \cdot 17$  $1071 = 2 \cdot 462 + 147$  $462 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 7 \cdot 11$  $462 = 3 \cdot 147 + 21$  $gcd(1071, 462) = 3 \cdot 7 = 21$  $147 = 7 \cdot 21 + 0$ 

#### **Common Divisor**

 $1071 = 2 \cdot 462 + 147$ 

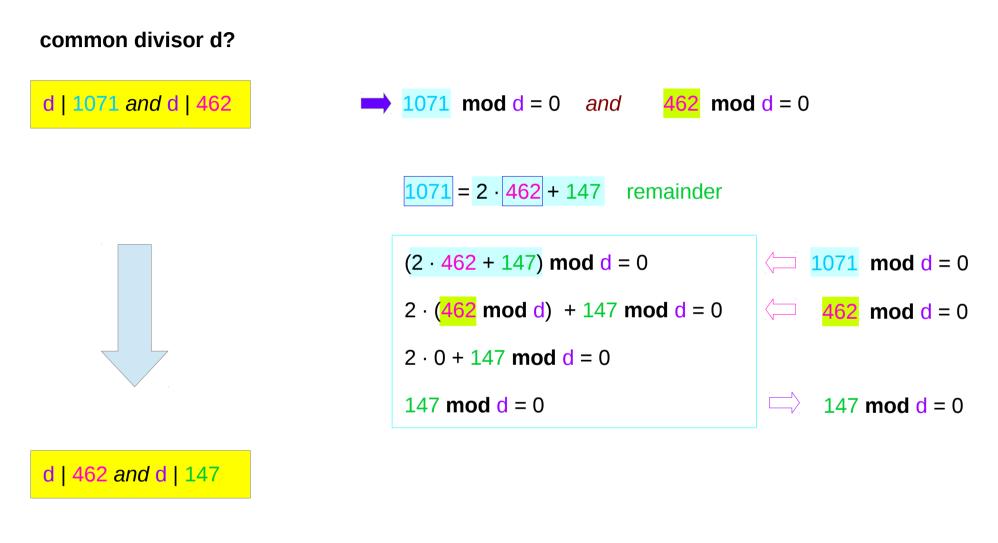
 $462 = 3 \cdot 147 + 21$ 

 $147 = 7 \cdot 21 + 0$ 

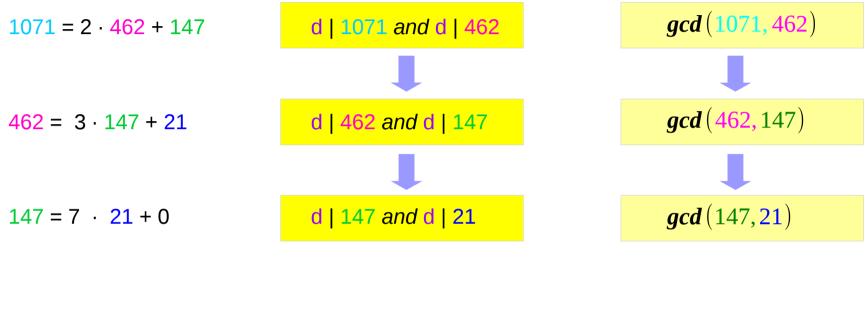
common divisor d d | 1071 and d | 462 **1071 mod** d = 0 d | 1071 d | 462

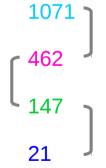
**462 mod d = 0** 

#### **Common Divisor Properties**



### **Reducing GCD Problems**



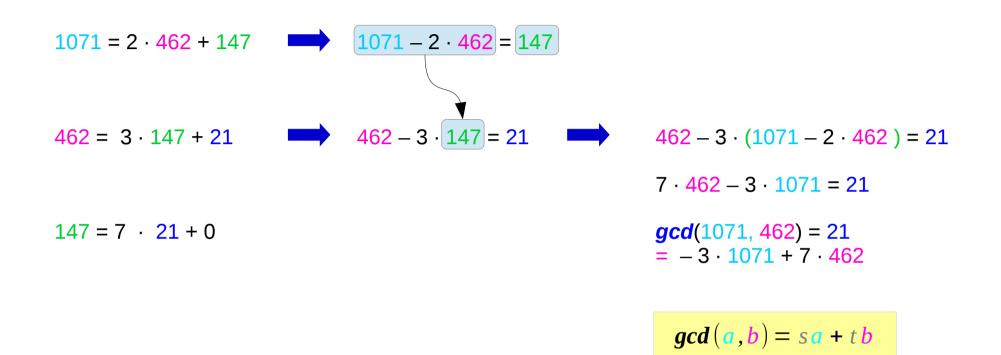


https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Euclidean\_algorithm

Numbers (8A)

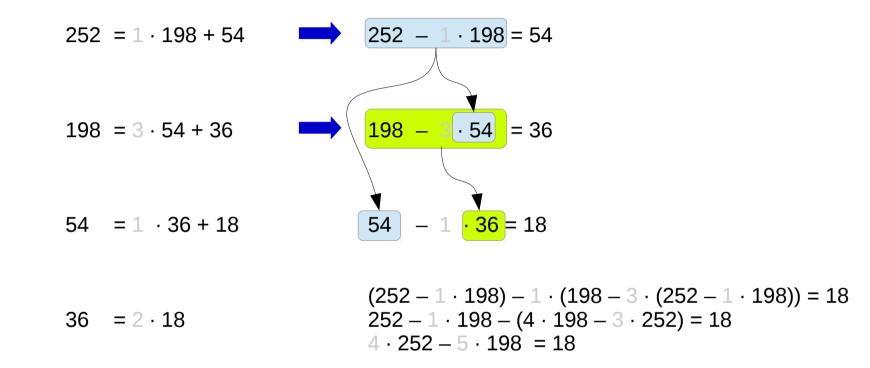
11

### Linear Combination of gcd(1071, 462)=21



https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Euclidean\_algorithm

### Linear Combination of gcd(252, 198)=18



https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Euclidean\_algorithm

gcd(a,b) = sa + tb

### Bezout's Identity – gcds as linear combinations

$$a, b \in Z^+$$

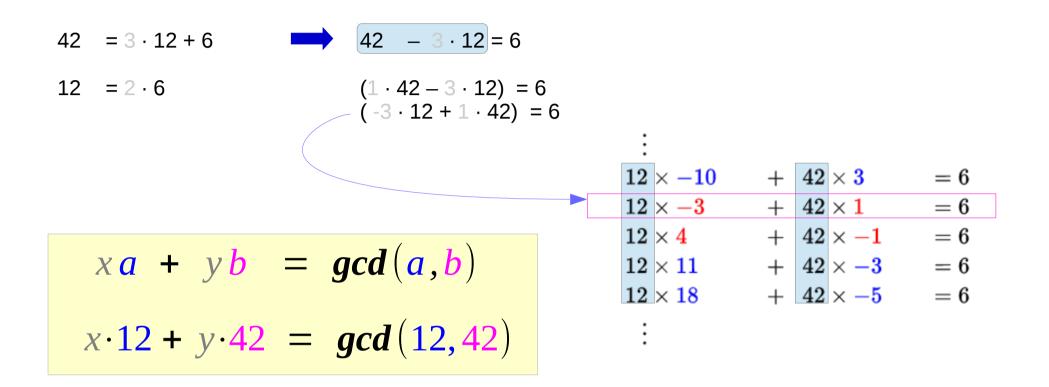
$$x^{\exists} x, y^{\exists} y \in Z$$
$$x a + y b = gcd(a, b)$$

Bezout's coefficients (not unique)

**Bezout's identities** 

Generally, a **linear combination** of a & b must be <u>unique</u> and its coefficients x & y <u>need not</u> be *integers*.

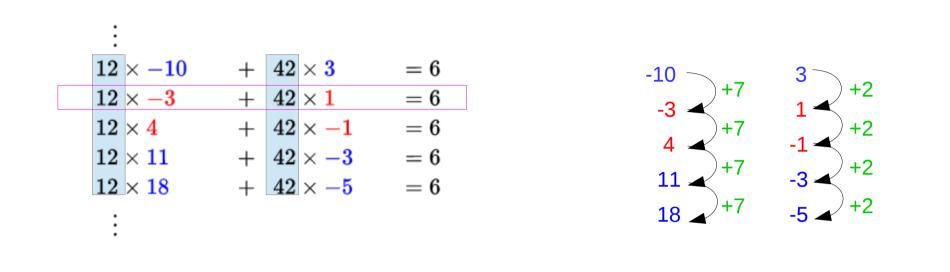
#### Pairs of Bézout Coefficients Examples



Generally, x & y are <u>not</u> <u>unique</u> unless a & b are relatively prime

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/B%C3%A9zout%27s\_identity

#### Pairs of Bézout Coefficients – not unique



42/6=7	12/6=2
- <mark>3</mark>   <  7	1  <  2
4  <  7	-1  <  2

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/B%C3%A9zout%27s\_identity

#### Pairs of Bézout Coefficients – 2 minimal pairs

$$x \mathbf{a} + y \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{gcd}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$$

÷		
12  imes -10	$+$ 42 $\times$ 3	= 6
12 imes-3	$+$ 42 $\times$ 1	= 6
12 imes 4	$+$ 42 $\times$ -1	= 6
<b>12</b> imes <b>11</b>	$+$ 42 $\times$ -3	= 6
12  imes 18	$+$ 42 $\times$ -5	= 6
:		
42/6=7	12/6=2	

Among these pai coefficients, exac			em satisfy
$ x  \leq \left rac{b}{\gcd(a,b)} ight $	and	$ y  \leq$	$\left \frac{a}{\gcd(a,b)}\right ,$

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/B%C3%A9zout%27s\_identity

 |-3| < |7|</td>
 |1| < |2|</td>

 |4| < |7|</td>
 |-1| < |2|</td>

The Extended Euclidean Algorithm always produces one of these two minimal pairs.

#### Pairs of Bézout Coefficients – all pairs

$$x \mathbf{a} + y \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{gcd}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$$

all pairs can be represented in the form
$$\left(x+k\frac{b}{\gcd(a,b)}, \ y-k\frac{a}{\gcd(a,b)}\right),$$

÷		
12  imes -10	$+$ 42 $\times$ 3	= 6
12 imes-3	$+$ 42 $\times$ 1	= 6
12  imes 4	$+$ $42 \times -1$	= 6
12 imes 11	$+$ 42 $\times$ -3	= 6
12  imes 18	$+$ 42 $\times$ -5	= 6
42/6=7	12/6= <mark>2</mark>	

-**3** + 7k 1 + 2k

The Extended Euclidean Algorithm always produces one of these two minimal pairs.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/B%C3%A9zout%27s\_identity

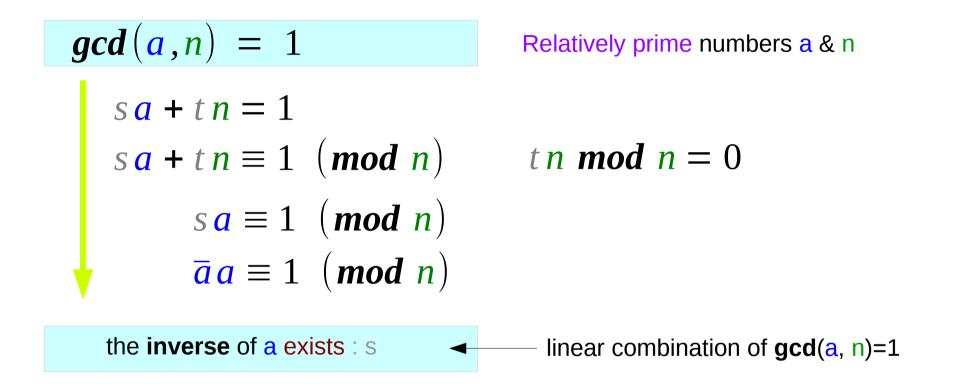
#### **Extended Euclid Algorithm**

:		index i	quotient $q_{i-1}$	Remainde
$t_{i+1}=t_{i-1}-q_it_i$				
$s_{i+1}=s_{i-1}-q_is_i$				
$r_{i+1}=r_{i-1}-q_ir_i$	$ ext{ and } 0 \leq r_{i}$	$_{+1} <  r_i$	(this de	$ ext{fines} \ q_i)$
÷	÷			
$t_0=0$	$t_1 = 1$			
$s_0=1$	$s_1=0$			
$r_0=a$	$r_1=b$			

index i	quotient $q_{i-1}$	Remainder r <sub>i</sub>	Sj	ti
0		240	1	0
1		46	0	1
2	240 ÷ 46 = 5	$240 - 5 \times 46 = 10$	$1-5\times 0=1$	$0-5\times 1=-5$
3	$46 \div 10 = 4$	$46-4\times10=6$	$0-4\times 1=-4$	$1-4\times-5=21$
4	$10 \div 6 = 1$	$10 - 1 \times 6 = 4$	$1 - 1 \times -4 = 5$	$-5 - 1 \times 21 = -26$
5	6 ÷ 4 = 1	$6-1\times 4=2$	$-4 - 1 \times 5 = -9$	$21 - 1 \times -26 = 47$
6	4 ÷ 2 = 2	$4-2\times 2=0$	$5 - 2 \times -9 = 23$	$-26 - 2 \times 47 = -120$

Given a & b, the extended Euclid algorithm produce the same coefficients. Uniquely, one is chosen among many possible Bézout's coefficients

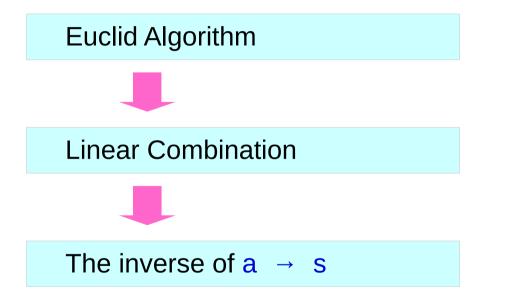
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Extended\_Euclidean\_algorithm



### Finding an modulo inverse

Finding an inverse of a modulo n

Relatively prime numbers a & n



gcd(a,n) = 1

 $sa + tn \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ 

 $s a \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ 

### Linear Combination of gcd(101, 4620)=1

4620 = 45 · 101 + 75	4620 – 45 · 101 = <b>75</b>	26·101–35·(4620–45·101) = -35·4620+1601·101
101 = 1 · 75 + 26	$101 - 1 \cdot 75 = 26$	-9.75+26·(101-1.75) = 26·101-35.75
75 = 2 · 26 + 23	$75 - 2 \cdot 26 = 23$	8·26–9·(75–2·26) = –9·75+26·26
$26 = 1 \cdot 23 + 3$	$26 - 1 \cdot 23 = 3$	-1·23+8·(26-1·23) = 8·26-9·23
23 = 7 · 3 + 2	$23 - 7 \cdot 3 = 2$	<b>3</b> − (23 − 7·3) = −1·23+8·3
$3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1$	$3 - 1 \cdot 2 = 1$	$3 - 1 \cdot 2 = 1$
$2 = 2 \cdot 1$		

From Rosen's book

4620 = 45 · 101 + 75

-35.4620 + 1601.101 = 1

 $1601 \cdot 101 = 1 \pmod{4620}$ 

1601 is an inverse of 101 modulo 4620

Numbers (8A)

1601

#### Etymology

Middle English, from Latin congruentia ("agreement"), from congruēns, present active participle of congruō ("meet together, agree").

Noun: congruence (plural congruences)

The quality of agreeing or corresponding; being suitable and appropriate.

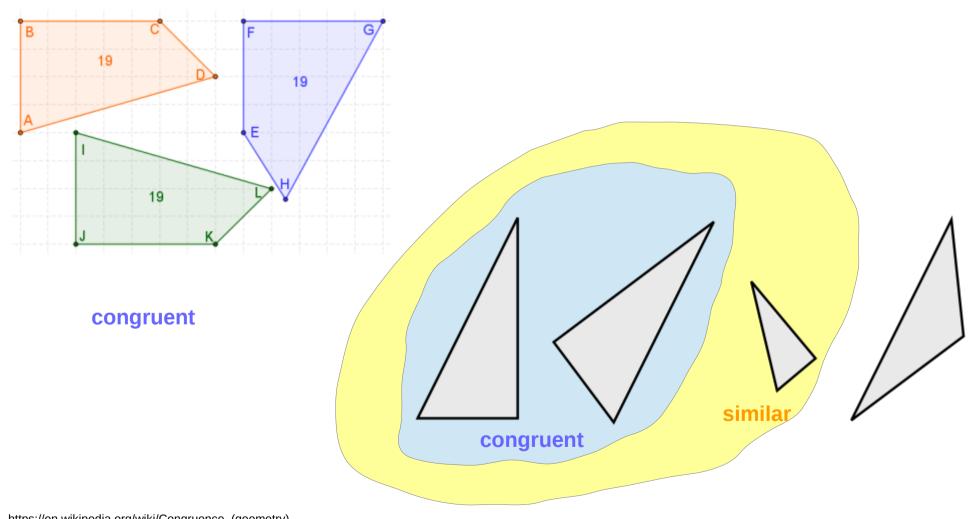
(mathematics, number theory) A relation between two numbers indicating they give the same remainder when divided by some given number.

(mathematics, geometry) The quality of being isometric — roughly, the same measure and shape.

(algebra) More generally: any equivalence relation defined on an algebraic structure which is preserved by operations defined by the structure.

https://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/congruence

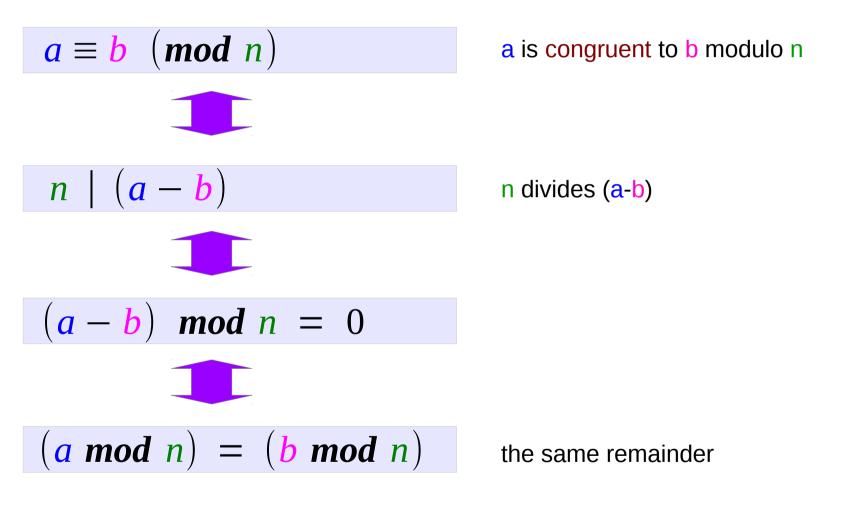
#### **Congruence in Geometry**



https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Congruence\_(geometry)



#### Congruent modulo n



A remainder is positive (0, .. n-1)

#### **Congruence Relation**

Modular arithmetic can be handled mathematically by introducing a congruence relation on the integers that is compatible with the operations on integers: addition, subtraction, and multiplication. For a positive integer *n*, two integers *a* and *b* are said to be **congruent modulo** *n*, written:

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n}$$
,

if their difference a - b is an integer multiple of n (or n divides a - b). The number n is called the *modulus* of the congruence.

For example,

 $38 \equiv 14 \pmod{12}$ 

because 38 - 14 = 24, which is a multiple of 12.

The same rule holds for negative values:

$$-8 \equiv 7 \pmod{5}$$
$$2 \equiv -3 \pmod{5}$$
$$-3 \equiv -8 \pmod{5}.$$

Equivalently,  $a \equiv b \mod n$  can also be thought of as asserting that the remainders of the division of both a and b by n are the same. For instance:

 $38 \equiv 14 \pmod{12}$ 

because both 38 and 14 have the same remainder 2 when divided by 12. It is also the case that 38 - 14 = 24 is an integer multiple of 12, which agrees with the prior definition of the congruence relation.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Modular\_arithmetic

### **Properties of a Congruence Relation**

A remark on the notation: Because it is common to consider several congruence relations for different moduli at the same time, the modulus is incorporated in the notation. In spite of the ternary notation, the congruence relation for a given modulus is binary. This would have been clearer if the notation  $a \equiv_n b$  had been used, instead of the common traditional notation.

The properties that make this relation a congruence relation (respecting addition, subtraction, and multiplication) are the following.

If

$$a_1\equiv b_1\pmod{n}$$

and

$$a_2 \equiv b_2 \pmod{n},$$

then:

•  $a_1 + a_2 \equiv b_1 + b_2 \pmod{n}$ •  $a_1 - a_2 \equiv b_1 - b_2 \pmod{n}$ .

The above two properties would still hold if the theory were expanded to include all real numbers, that is if  $a_1, a_2, b_1, b_2, n$  were not necessarily all integers. The next property, however, would fail if these variables were not all integers:

• 
$$a_1a_2\equiv b_1b_2\pmod{n}.$$

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Modular\_arithmetic

#### Remainders

The notion of modular arithmetic is related to that of the remainder in Euclidean division. The operation of finding the remainder is sometimes referred to as the modulo operation, and denoted with "mod" used as an infix operator. For example, the remainder of the division of 14 by 12 is denoted by 14 mod 12; as this remainder is 2, we have  $14 \mod 12 = 2$ .

The congruence, indicated by "≡" followed by "mod" between parentheses, means that the operator "mod", applied to both members, gives the same result. That is

$$A\equiv B\pmod{n}$$

is equivalent to

 $A \mod n = B \mod n$ .

The fundamental property of multiplication in modular arithmetic may thus be written

 $(a \mod n) (b \mod n) \equiv ab \pmod{n}$ ,

or, equivalently,

 $((a \mod n) (b \mod n)) \mod n = (ab) \mod n.$ 

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Modular\_arithmetic

$$a x \equiv b \pmod{n}$$

find x = ?

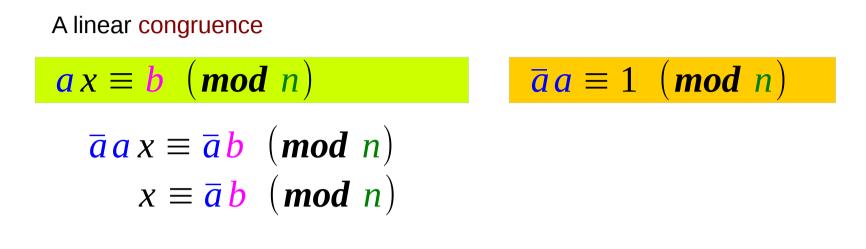
A linear congruence

$$a x = b$$
  
find  $x = ?$ 

A linear equation

#### A remainder is positive (0, .. n-1)

### Modular Multiplicative Inverse



#### A linear equation

$$a x = b$$

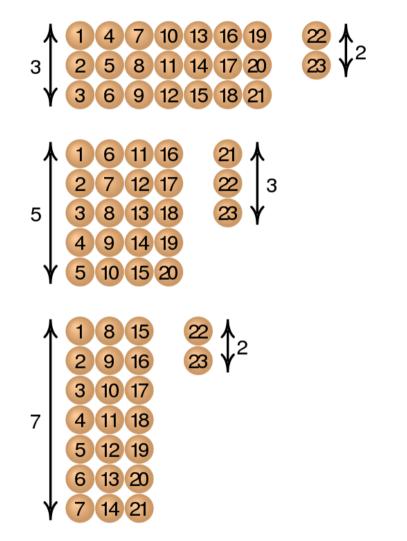
$$a^{-1}a x = a^{-1}b$$

$$x = a^{-1}b$$

$$a^{-1}a = 1$$

#### A remainder is positive (0, .. n-1)

#### **Chinese Remainder Theorem**



https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chinese\_remainder\_theorem

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$
 and  $x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$  and

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$$

Sunzi's original formulation: x  $\equiv 2 \pmod{3}$   $\equiv 3 \pmod{5}$   $\equiv 2 \pmod{7}$ with the solution x = 23 + 105k where  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ 

#### **Chinese Remainder Theorem**

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1} \text{ and } m_1, m_2, \cdots, m_n$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2} \text{ and } m_1, m_2, \cdots, m_n$$

$$pairwise relatively prime$$

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

$$x \equiv b \ (mod \ m_1 m_2 \cdots m_n)$$

has a unique solution

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chinese\_remainder\_theorem

### m<sub>i</sub>, m, and M<sub>i</sub>

$x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$	$m_1 = 3$		$M_1 = m/m_1 = 3.5.7/3 = 35$
$x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$	$m_2 = 5$	$m = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 = 105$	$M_2 = m/m_2 = 3.5.7/5 = 21$
$x \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$	$m_3 = 7$		$M_3 = m/m_3 = 3.5.7/7 = 15$

$x \equiv a_1$	$(mod m_1)$
$x \equiv a_2$	$(mod m_2)$
$x \equiv a_3$	$(mod m_3)$

	$M_1 = m/m_1 = m_2 m_3$
$m = m_1 m_2 m_3$	$M_2 = m/m_2 = m_1 m_3$
	$M_3 = m/m_3 = m_1 m_2$

$$M_1 \mod m_2 = M_1 \mod m_3 = 0$$
  
 $M_2 \mod m_1 = M_2 \mod m_3 = 0$   
 $M_3 \mod m_1 = M_3 \mod m_2 = 0$ 

$$M_i \mod m_j = M_j \mod m_i = 0$$
  
for  $i \neq j$ 

 $m_1$ ,  $m_2$ ,  $m_3$ : pairwise relatively coprime

$$gcd(M_1, m_1) = 1$$
 $M_1 \cdot y_1 = 1 \pmod{m_1}$  $y_1$ : the inverse of  $M_1$  $m_2 m_3$  $gcd(M_2, m_2) = 1$  $M_2 \cdot y_2 = 1 \pmod{m_2}$  $y_2$ : the inverse of  $M_2$  $m_1 m_3$  $gcd(M_3, m_3) = 1$  $M_3 \cdot y_3 = 1 \pmod{m_3}$  $y_3$ : the inverse of  $M_3$  $m_1 m_2$ 

# Sum of $a_i M_i y_i$

<b>a</b> <sub>1</sub>	$M_1 \cdot y_1 = 1 \pmod{m_1}$	$M_1 \cdot y_1 = 0 \pmod{m_2}$	$M_1 \cdot y_1 = 0 \pmod{m_3}$
<i>a</i> <sub>2</sub>	$M_2 \cdot \mathbf{y}_2 = 0 \pmod{m_1}$	$M_2 \cdot y_2 = 1 \pmod{m_2}$	$M_2 \cdot y_2 = 0 \pmod{m_3}$
<i>a</i> <sub>3</sub>	$M_3 \cdot \mathbf{y}_3 = 0 \pmod{m_1}$	$M_3 \cdot \boldsymbol{y}_3 = 0 \pmod{m_2}$	$M_3 \cdot y_3 = 1 \pmod{m_3}$

$$\begin{array}{c|c} a_1 M_1 \cdot y_1 = a_1 \pmod{m_1} & a_1 M_1 \cdot y_1 = 0 \pmod{m_2} & a_1 M_1 \cdot y_1 = 0 \pmod{m_3} \\ a_2 M_2 \cdot y_2 = 0 \pmod{m_1} & a_2 M_2 \cdot y_2 = a_2 \pmod{m_2} & a_2 M_2 \cdot y_2 = 0 \pmod{m_3} \\ a_3 M_3 \cdot y_3 = 0 \pmod{m_1} & a_3 M_3 \cdot y_3 = 0 \pmod{m_2} & a_3 M_3 \cdot y_3 = a_3 \pmod{m_3} \end{array}$$

$$\frac{a_1 M_1 \cdot y_1 + a_2 M_2 \cdot y_2 + a_3 M_3 \cdot y_3}{a_1 M_1 \cdot y_1 + a_2 M_2 \cdot y_2 + a_3 M_3 \cdot y_3} = a_1 M_1 \cdot y_1 = a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$
  
$$\frac{a_1 M_1 \cdot y_1 + a_2 M_2 \cdot y_2 + a_3 M_3 \cdot y_3}{a_1 M_1 \cdot y_1 + a_2 M_2 \cdot y_2 + a_3 M_3 \cdot y_3} = a_2 M_2 \cdot y_2 = a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

## $X = Sum of a_i M_i y_i$

$x \equiv a_1$	$(mod m_1)$
$x \equiv a_2$	$(mod m_2)$
$x \equiv a_3$	$(mod m_3)$

$a_1 M_1 \cdot y_1 + a_2 M_2 \cdot y_2 + a_3 M_3 \cdot y_3$	=	$\boldsymbol{a}_1 \boldsymbol{M}_1 \cdot \boldsymbol{y}_1 = \boldsymbol{a}_1$	$(mod m_1)$
$a_1 M_1 \cdot y_1 + a_2 M_2 \cdot y_2 + a_3 M_3 \cdot y_3$	=	$a_2 M_2 \cdot y_2 = a_2$	$(mod m_2)$
$a_1 M_1 \cdot y_1 + a_2 M_2 \cdot y_2 + a_3 M_3 \cdot y_3$	=	$a_3 M_3 \cdot y_3 = a_3$	$(mod m_3)$

 $x = a_1 M_1 \cdot y_1 + a_2 M_2 \cdot y_2 + a_3 M_3 \cdot y_3$ 

#### Chinese Remainder Examples (1)

$x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$			$M_1 = m/m_1 = 3.5.7/3 = 35$	
$x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$	$m_2 = 5$	$3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 = 105 = m$	$M_2 = m/m_2 = 3.5.7/5 = 21$	$m_{1}^{}m_{3}^{}$
$x \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$	$m_3 = 7$		$M_3 = m/m_3 = 3.5.7/7 = 15$	$m_1 m_2$

$M_1 = 2 \pmod{m_1}$	$M_1 = 0 \pmod{m_2}$	$M_1 = 0 \pmod{m_3}$	$m_{2}m_{3}$
$M_2 = 0 \pmod{m_1}$	$M_2 = 1 \pmod{m_2}$	$M_2 = 0 \pmod{m_3}$	$m_1 m_3$
$M_3 = 0 \pmod{m_1}$	$M_3 = 0 \pmod{m_2}$	$M_3 = 1 \pmod{m_3}$	$m_1 m_2$

$M_1 \cdot y_1 = 35 \cdot 2 = 2 \cdot 2 = 1 \pmod{3}$	$y_1$ (=2) : the inverse of $M_1$ (=35)
$M_2 \cdot y_2 = 21 \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot 1 = 1 \pmod{5}$	$y_2(=1)$ : the inverse of $M_2(=21)$
$M_3 \cdot y_3 = 15 \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot 1 = 1 \pmod{7}$	$y_3$ (=1) : the inverse of $M_3$ (=15)

$M_1 \cdot y_1 = 1 \pmod{m_1}$	$M_1 \cdot y_1 = 0 \pmod{m_2}$	$M_1 \cdot y_1 = 0 \pmod{m_3}$
$M_2 \cdot y_2 = 0 \pmod{m_1}$	$M_2 \cdot y_2 = 1 \pmod{m_2}$	$M_2 \cdot y_2 = 0 \pmod{m_3}$
$M_3 \cdot y_3 = 0 \pmod{m_1}$	$M_3 \cdot y_3 = 0 \pmod{m_2}$	$M_3 \cdot y_3 = 1 \pmod{m_3}$

#### Chinese Remainder Examples (2)

 $M_1 \cdot y_1 = 35 \cdot 2 = 2 \cdot 2 = 1 \pmod{3}$  $M_2 \cdot y_2 = 21 \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot 1 = 1 \pmod{5}$  $M_3 \cdot y_3 = 15 \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot 1 = 1 \pmod{7}$ 

$$y_1 (=2)$$
: the inverse of  $M_1 (=35)$   
 $y_2 (=1)$ : the inverse of  $M_2 (=21)$   
 $y_3 (=1)$ : the inverse of  $M_3 (=15)$ 

$$M_1 = 35$$
 $y_1 = -1 + 3 * k$  $35 = 11 \cdot 3 + 2$  $35 - 11 \cdot 3 = 2$  $3 - 1 \cdot (35 - 11 \cdot 3) = -1 \cdot 35 + 12 \cdot 3$  $3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1$  $3 - 1 \cdot 2 = 1$  $3 - 1 \cdot 2 = 1$ 

$$M_2 = 21$$
 $y_2 = 1 + 5 * k$  $21 = 4 \cdot 5 + 1$  $21 - 4 \cdot 5 = 1$  $1 \cdot 21 - 4 \cdot 5 = 1$ 

$$M_3 = 15$$
 $y_3 = 1 + 7 * k$ 
 $15 = 2 \cdot 7 + 1$ 
 $15 - 2 \cdot 7 = 1$ 
 $1 \cdot 15 - 2 \cdot 7 = 1$ 

### Chinese Remainder Examples (3)

$a_1$	$M_1 \cdot y_1 = 1 \pmod{m_1}$	$M_1 \cdot y_1 = 0 \pmod{m_2}$	$M_1 \cdot y_1 = 0 \pmod{m_3}$
<b>a</b> <sub>2</sub>	$M_2 \cdot \mathbf{y}_2 = 0 \pmod{m_1}$	$M_2 \cdot y_2 = 1 \pmod{m_2}$	$M_2 \cdot y_2 = 0 \pmod{m_3}$
<i>a</i> <sub>3</sub>	$M_3 \cdot y_3 = 0 \pmod{m_1}$	$M_3 \cdot y_3 = 0 \pmod{m_2}$	$M_3 \cdot \mathbf{y}_3 = 1 \pmod{m_3}$

$$x = a_1 M_1 \cdot y_1 + a_2 M_2 \cdot y_2 + a_3 M_3 \cdot y_3$$

$$x = a_1 M_1 \cdot y_1 = a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$
  

$$x = a_2 M_2 \cdot y_2 = a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$
  

$$x = a_3 M_3 \cdot y_3 = a_3 \pmod{m_3}$$

$$m_1 = 3$$
  
 $m_2 = 5$   
 $m_3 = 7$ 

$$M_{1} = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7/3 = 5 \cdot 7 = 35$$
$$M_{2} = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7/5 = 3 \cdot 7 = 21$$
$$M_{3} = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7/7 = 3 \cdot 5 = 15$$

$$x = 2 \cdot 35 \cdot 2 + 3 \cdot 21 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 15 \cdot 1 = 233$$
$$x = 233 = 23 \pmod{105}$$

 $m = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 = 105$ 

#### Chinese Remainder Summary

$x \equiv a_1$	$(mod m_1)$
$x \equiv a_2$	$(mod m_2)$
$x \equiv a_3$	$(mod m_3)$

	$M_1 = m/m_1 = m_2 m_3$
$m = m_1 m_2 m_3$	$M_2 = m/m_2 = m_1 m_3$
	$M_3 = m/m_3 = m_1 m_2$

$m_1$ ,	$m_{2}^{}$ ,	$m_3$	:	pairwise	relatively	coprime
---------	--------------	-------	---	----------	------------	---------

$gcd(M_1, m_1) = 1$	$\longrightarrow M_1 \cdot \mathbf{y}_1 = 1 \pmod{m_1}$	$y_1$ : the inverse of $M_1$
$gcd(M_2, m_2) = 1$	$\implies M_2 \cdot \mathbf{y}_2 = 1 \pmod{m_2}$	$y_2$ : the inverse of $M_2$
$gcd(M_3, m_3) = 1$	$ \longrightarrow M_3 \cdot \mathbf{y}_3 = 1 \pmod{m_3} $	$y_3$ : the inverse of $M_3$

 $x = a_1 M_1 \cdot y_1 + a_2 M_2 \cdot y_2 + a_3 M_3 \cdot y_3$ 

### **Chinese Remainder Theorem**

Let  $n_1, ..., n_k$  be integers greater than 1, which are often called *moduli* or *divisors*. Let us denote by N the product of the  $n_i$ .

The Chinese remainder theorem asserts that if the  $n_i$  are pairwise coprime, and if  $a_1, ..., a_k$  are integers such that  $0 \le a_i < n_i$  for every *i*, then there is one and only one integer *x*, such that  $0 \le x < N$  and the remainder of the Euclidean division of *x* by  $n_i$  is  $a_i$  for every *i*.

This may be restated as follows in term of congruences: If the  $n_i$  are pairwise coprime, and if  $a_1, ..., a_k$  are any integers, then there exists an integer x such that

$$egin{array}{cccc} x\equiv a_1 \pmod{n_1}\ dots\ &dots\ &d$$

and any two such x are congruent modulo N.[11]

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chinese\_remainder\_theorem

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Algorithm

#### References

