## 9. Congruence classes (continued)

**Definition.** Let R be a ring with 1. An element  $a \in R$  is called <u>invertible</u> if there exists  $b \in R$  such that ab = ba = 1.

**Theorem 9.1.** Let  $n \geq 2$  be an integer. Then an element  $[a] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  is invertible  $\iff$  a and n coprime.

*Proof.* " $\Rightarrow$ " Suppose that  $[a] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  is invertible. This means that [a][k] = [1] for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  or, equivalently [ak] = [1] for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Hence  $ak \equiv 1 \mod n$ , so 1 - ak = nl for some  $k, l \in \mathbb{Z}$  or, equivalently, ak + nl = 1. Since gcd(a, n) divides both a and n and hence also divides ak + nl, this forces gcd(a, n) = 1, so a and n are coprime.

" $\Leftarrow$ " Suppose a and n are coprime. Then by GCD Theorem there exist  $k, l \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that ak + nl = 1. From this point we can argue as in the proof of " $\Rightarrow$ " (but reversing the order of steps) to conclude that [a] is invertible in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ .

## 9.1. Zero divisors in $\mathbb{Z}_n$ .

**Definition.** Let R be a commutative ring. An element  $a \in R$  is called a <u>zero divisor</u> if a is nonzero and there exists a nonzero element  $b \in R$  such that ab = 0.

For instance, the element [2] of the ring  $R = \mathbb{Z}_6$  is a zero divisor. Indeed,  $[2] \neq [0]$  since  $6 \nmid (2-0)$  and similarly  $[3] \neq [0]$ . But  $[2] \cdot [3] = [6] = [0]$ .

We already know that fields have no zero divisors – this is precisely the assertion of Problem 2 in HW#1. Thus, the existence of zero divisors in  $\mathbb{Z}_6$  provides another proof of the fact that  $\mathbb{Z}_6$  is not a field (we have already established this in Lecture 8 after computing the multiplication table). The converse of the above statement is not true, that is, if R is a commutative ring with 1 without zero divisors, then R does not have to be a field (e.g. integers  $\mathbb{Z}$  is not a field, but does not have zero divisors). It turns out, however, that for the rings of congruence classes  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  being a field is equivalent to having no zero divisors, and both conditions hold if and only if n is prime:

**Theorem 9.2.** Let  $n \geq 2$  be an integer. The following are equivalent:

- (1) n is prime
- (2)  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is a field
- (3)  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  has no zero divisors

*Proof.* We will prove the equivalence of these three conditions "cyclically" by first showing the implication  $(1)\Rightarrow(2)$ , then  $(2)\Rightarrow(3)$  and finally  $(3)\Rightarrow(1)$ .

"(1) $\Rightarrow$ (2)" Recall that a field is a commutative ring with 1 in which every nonzero element is invertible and  $0 \neq 1$ . Assume that n is prime. Since  $n \geq 2$ , we clearly have  $[0] \neq [1]$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ . Since  $\mathbb{Z}_n \setminus \{[0]\} = \{[1], [2], \ldots, [n-1]\}$ , it remains to show that [a] is invertible in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  for every  $1 \leq a \leq n-1$ . Since n is prime, every such a is coprime to n, so by Theorem 9.1, [a] is invertible in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  for every such a.

"(2) $\Rightarrow$ (3)" This implication holds since a field cannot have zero divisors by HW#1.2 (no specific properties of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  are used here).

"(3) $\Rightarrow$ (1)" We will prove this implication by contrapositive: if n is not prime, then  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  has zero divisors.

So assume that n is not prime. Since we also assume that  $n \geq 2$ , by definition of a prime number, n must have a positive divisor k different from 1 and n, in which case we must have 1 < k < n. Thus n = kl for some  $l \in \mathbb{Z}$ , and since 1 < k < n, we also have 1 < l < n. In particular, this implies that  $n \nmid k$  and  $n \nmid l$ , so both [k] and [l] are nonzero elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ . But [k][l] = [kl] = [n] = [0], so  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  has a zero divisor, namely [k].

## 9.2. Solving equations in $\mathbb{Z}_n$ .

**Example 1.** Let n be a prime. Find all  $z \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  such that  $z^2 = [1]$ .

**Solution 1:** (working inside  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ ) Suppose that  $z^2 = [1]$ . Subtracting [1] from both sides, we get  $z^2 - [1] = [0]$ . Since  $[1] = [1]^2$ , we get

$$(z - [1])(z + [1]) = [0].$$
 (\*\*\*)

Since n is prime,  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is a field. Hence by HW #1.2, we conclude from (\*\*\*) that z - [1] = 0 or z + [1] = 0. Thus, either z = [1] or z = -[1] = [-1] = [n-1].

So far we showed that equality  $z^2 = [1]$  implies z = [1] or z = [n-1], so there are at most two solutions. To check that [1] and [n-1] are indeed solutions, we plug them into the original equation:  $[1]^2 = [1^2] = [1]$  and  $[n-1]^2 = [-1]^2 = [(-1)^2] = [1]$ , so both 1 and [n-1] are solutions.

Final answer: z = [1] or [n-1].

**Solution 2:** (reducing to question about integers) We know that z = [x] for some  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Thus our equation is  $[x]^2 = [1]$  which can be rewritten as  $[x^2] = [1]$ . The latter means that  $x^2 \equiv 1 \mod n$ , that is,  $n \mid (x^2 - 1)$ .

Thus,  $n \mid (x-1)(x+1)$ , and by Euclid's lemma (recall that n is prime), we have  $n \mid (x-1)$  or  $n \mid (x+1)$ . Hence either  $x \equiv 1 \mod n$ , in which

case [x] = [1], or  $x \equiv -1 \mod n$ , in which case [x] = [-1] = [n-1]. As in Solution 1, we check that z = [1] and z = [n-1] are solutions by plugging them into the original equation.

**Exercise 1.** Show (by an explicit example) that if n is not prime, the equation  $z^2 = [1]$  may have more than 2 solutions (this is true for some, but not all non-prime n).

- 9.3. Some concluding remarks. We finished the lecture by discussing the connection between the ring  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  introduced in Lecture 8 (referred below as "new"  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ ) and the "hypothetical ring  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ " discussed in Lecture 2 (referred below as "old"  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ ). Recall that in Lecture 2 we defined  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  to be the set of integers  $\{0,1,\ldots,n-1\}$  and asked the following question: can we define operations  $\oplus$  and  $\odot$  on  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  such that
  - (i)  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  with these operations is a commutative ring with 1
  - (ii)  $x \oplus y = x + y$  whenever  $0 \le x + y \le n 1$  and  $x \odot y = xy$  whenever  $0 \le xy \le n 1$  (where the sum and the product on the right-hand sides are the usual addition and multiplication)?

We can now answer this question in the affirmative: take the addition and multiplication tables for the new  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ , remove all the brackets and relabel the operations as  $\oplus$  and  $\odot$ . Then it is easy to see (i) and (ii) will hold.

A natural question is whether there are explicit formulas for  $\oplus$  and  $\odot$  on the "old"  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ . The answer is yes, but we need an additional notation. Given  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ , denote by  $\overline{x}$  the remainder of dividing x by n (that is,  $\overline{x}$  is the unique integer between 0 and n-1 such that  $x \equiv \overline{x} \mod n$ ). Then the operations  $\oplus$  and  $\odot$  on the "old"  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  are given by the formulas

$$x \oplus y = \overline{x+y}$$
 and  $x \odot y = \overline{xy}$   $(***)$ 

One may wonder now why we had to define  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  in a fancy way as the set of congruence classes mod n instead of presumably simpler old definition  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, \ldots, n-1\}$  with operations defined by (\*\*\*). The answer is that if operations were defined by (\*\*\*), it would have required much more work to verify the ring axioms. In addition, the fact that in the new definition we can consider [x] as an element of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  for every  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$  (not just x between 0 and n-1) turns out to be extremely convenient.