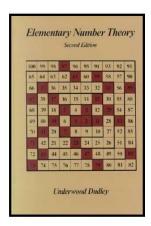
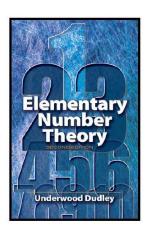
# Elementary Number Theory

**Section 10. Primitive Roots**—Proofs of Theorems





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Theorem 10.2

**Theorem 10.2.** If (a, m) = 1 and a has order  $t \pmod{m}$ , then  $t \mid \varphi(m)$ .

**Proof.** Since (a, m) = 1 by hypothesis, then Euler's Theorem (Theorem 9.1) implies that  $a^{\varphi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ . By Theorem 10.1, we then have that  $\varphi(m)$  is a multiple of t. That is,  $t \mid \varphi(m)$  as claimed. 

#### Theorem 10.1

**Theorem 10.1.** Suppose that (a, m) = 1 and a has order t modulo m. Then  $a^n \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$  if and only if n is a multiple of t.

**Proof.** Suppose n = tq for some integer q. Then  $a^n \equiv a^{tq} \equiv (a^t)^q \equiv 1^q \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ , since  $a^t \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$  by hypothesis.

Conversely, suppose that  $a^n \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ . Since t is the smallest positive integer such that  $a^t \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ , then we must have n > t. By the Division Algorithm (Theorem 1.2), n = tq + r where q > 1 and 0 < r < t. Thus

$$1 \equiv a^n \equiv a^{tq+r} \equiv (a^t)^q a^r \equiv 1^q a^r \equiv a^r \pmod{m}.$$

But t is the smallest positive integer such that  $a^t \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ , and  $q^r \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$  where  $0 \le r \le t$ , so we must have r = 0. Thus, n = tqand n is a multiple of t, as claimed. 

## Theorem 10.3

**Theorem 10.3.** If p and q are odd primes and  $q \mid a^p - 1$ , then either  $q \mid a - 1$  or q = 2kp + 1 for some integer k.

**Proof.** Since  $a \mid a^p - 1$  by hypothesis, then  $a^p \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$ . So by Theorem 10.1, the order of a modulo q is a divisor of p. Since p is prime, the a has order either 1 or p. If the order of a is 1, then  $a^1 \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$ . so that  $q \mid a - 1$ . If in stead the order of a is p, then by Theorem 10.2,  $p \mid \varphi(q)$ . Since  $\varphi(q) = q - 1$  by Note 9.A, then  $p \mid q - 1$ . So q - 1 = rpfor some integer r. Since p and q are both odd by hypothesis, then r must be even. Hence, q = rp + 1 = 2kp + 1 for some integer k, as claimed.  $\square$ 

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#### Theorem 10.4

**Theorem 10.4.** If the order of a modulo m is t, then  $a^r \equiv a^s \pmod{m}$  if and only if  $r \equiv s \pmod{t}$ .

**Proof.** First, suppose  $a^r \equiv q^s \pmod{m}$ ; without loss of generality, suppose  $r \ge s$ . Then  $a^{r-s} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ , so that by Theorem 10.1 we have r - s is a multiple of t. That is,  $r \equiv s \pmod{t}$ , as claimed.

Conversely, suppose  $r \equiv s \pmod{t}$ . Then r = s + kt for some integer k. Since the order of a mod m is t by hypothesis, then  $a^t \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ , and

$$a^r \equiv a^{s+kt} \equiv a^s(a^t)^k \equiv a^s(1)^k \equiv a^s \pmod{m},$$

as claimed.

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## Lemma 10.1

**Lemma 10.1.** Suppose that a has order t modulo m. Then  $a^k$  has order t modulo m if and only if (k, t) = 1.

**Proof.** Notice that (a, m) = 1 from the definition of "order." First, suppose (k, t) = 1. Denote the order of  $a^k$  modulo m as s. Since a has order t modulo m by hypothesis, then  $1 \equiv (1)^k \equiv (a^t)^k \equiv (a^k)^t \pmod{m}$ . By Theorem 10.1, we then have that  $s \mid t$ . Since s is the order of  $a^k$  then  $(a^k)^s \equiv a^k s \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ , so by Theorem 10.1 (again),  $t \mid ks$ . Since (k, t) = 1, then  $t \mid s$  by Corollary 1.1. But since we also have  $s \mid t$ , then it must be that s = t so that the order of  $a^k$  modulo m is t, as claimed.

Conversely, suppose that a and  $a^k$  both have order mod m of t and that (k,t)=r. Then  $1\equiv a^t\equiv (a^t)^{k/r}\equiv (a^k)^{t/r}\pmod m$ . By Theorem 10.1, t/r is a multiple of t, so that we must have r = (k, t) = 1, as claimed.  $\square$ 

#### Theorem 10.5

**Theorem 10.5.** If g is a primitive root of m, then the least residues modulo m of  $g, g^2, g^3, \ldots, g^{\varphi(m)}$  are a permutation of the  $\varphi(m)$  positive integers less than m and relatively prime to it.

**Proof.** Since g is a primitive root of m, then (g, m) = 1 by the definition of "primitive root." o each power of g is relatively prime to m (this follows by The Unique Factorization Theorem/Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic, Theorem 2.2; if g and m share no prime factors, then neither does  $g^n$  and m where n > 0). Furthermore, no two powers of g,  $g, g^2, \dots, g^{\varphi(m)}$ , have the same least residue, because if  $g^j \equiv g^k \pmod{m}$ then by Theorem 10.4 we have  $j \equiv k \pmod{\varphi(m)}$  (or that j = k since  $1 \le j, k \le \varphi(m) \le m-1$ ). That is, if  $j \not\equiv k \pmod{\varphi(m)}$ , where  $1 \le j, k \le \varphi(m)$ , then  $g^k \not\equiv g^k \pmod{m}$ . Hence, the powers of g are distinct. as claimed. 

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## Corollary 10.B

**Corollary 10.B.** Suppose that g is a primitive root of prime p. Then the least residue of  $g^k$  is a primitive root of p if and only if (k, p-1) = 1.

**Proof.** Since g is a primitive root of p, then the order or g is  $\varphi(p)$ , and  $\varphi(p) = p - 1$  by Note 9.A. That is, g is of order p - 1. Set t = p - 1. By Lemma 10.1,  $g^k$  has order  $t = p - 1 = \varphi(p)$  modulo p (and so  $g^k$  is also a primitive root of p) if and only if (k, t) = (k, p - 1) = 1. That is,  $g^k$  is a primitive root of p if and only if (k, p - 1) = 1, as claimed.

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#### Lemma 10.2

**Lemma 10.2.** If f is a polynomial of degree n, then  $f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  has at most n solutions.

**Proof.** Let  $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x a_0$  have degree n where  $a_n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . We prove the claim by induction. For the base case, consider the equation for n = 1:  $a_1 x + a_0 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Since  $a_n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , then because p is prime we have  $(a_1, p) = 1$ , by Theorem 5.1 there is at most one solution.

For the induction hypothesis, suppose that the lemma is true for polynomials of degree n-1. Now consider f as an n degree polynomial. If  $f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  has not solution, then the claim holds. So we can suppose that  $f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  has a solution x = r. That is,  $f(r) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , and r is a least residue modulo p. Next, x-r is a factor of  $x^t-r^t$  for  $t=0,1,\ldots,n$  because  $x^t-r^t=(x-r)(x^{t-1}+x^{t-2}r+x^{t-3}r^2+\cdots xr^{t-2}+r^{t-1})$ , as can be shown by simplifying the right-hand side.

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Lomma 10.1

## Lemma 10.3

**Lemma 10.3.** If  $d \mid p-1$ , then  $x^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  has exactly d solutions.

**Proof.** By Fermat's (Little) Theorem (Theorem 6.1), the congruence  $x^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  has exactly p-1 solutions, namely  $1, 2, \ldots, p-1$ . Moreover.

$$x^{p-1} - 1 = (x^d - 1)(x^{p-1-d} + x^{p-1-2d} + \dots + x^d + 1) = (x^d - 1)h(x).$$

By Lemma 10.2,  $h(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  has at most p-1-d solutions. Hence  $x^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  has at least (p-1)-(p-1-d)=d solutions. By Lemma 10.2 again, but applied to  $x^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ , we see that this equation has at most d solutions, and hence has exactly d solutions, as claimed.

# Lemma 10.2 (continued)

**Lemma 10.2.** If f is a polynomial of degree n, then  $f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  has at most n solutions.

**Proof (continued).** So we have

$$f(x) \equiv f(x) - 0 \equiv f(x) - f(r)$$

$$\equiv a_n(x^n - r^n) + a_{n-1}(x^{n-1} - r^{n-1}) + \dots + a_2(x^2 - r^2) + a_1(x - r)$$

$$\equiv (x - r)g(x) \pmod{p}, \qquad (*)$$

where g is a polynomial of degree n-1. Suppose that s is also a solution to  $f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod p$ . The from (\*)  $f(s) \equiv (s-r)g(s) \equiv 0 \pmod p$ . Since p is prime, then by Euclid's Lemma (Lemma 2.5) either  $s \equiv r \pmod p$  or  $g(s) \equiv 0 \pmod p$ . Now g is degree n-1, so by the induction hypothesis,  $g(s) \equiv 0 \pmod p$  has at most n-1 solutions. Also  $s \equiv r \pmod p$  has exactly one solution, so we have for degree n polynomial n0 that the equation n1 of n2 of n3 of n3 of n4 solutions, as needed. So by induction the result holds for all degrees  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , as claimed.

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Theorem 10.6

#### Theorem 10.6

**Theorem 10.6.** Every prime p has  $\varphi(p-1)$  primitive roots.

**Proof.** By Theorem 10.2, we know that each of the integers  $1,2,\ldots,p-1$  has an order that is a divisor of p-1. For each divisor t of p-1, let  $\psi(t)$  denote the number of these integers that have order t. Notice that this gives  $\psi(p-1)$  as the number of these integers of order p-1, and hence the number of primitive roots of p. Then we have  $\sum_{t\,|\,p-1}\psi(t)=p-1$ . By Theorem 9.4, we have  $\sum_{t\,|\,p-1}\psi(t)=p-1=\sum_{t\,|\,p-1}\varphi(t)$ . If we can show that  $\psi(t)\leq\varphi(t)$  for each t, then the equality of the sums will imply equality of  $\psi(t)$  and  $\varphi(t)$  for each t; in particular, we will have  $\psi(p-1)=\varphi(p-1)$  so that the number of primitive roots will be  $\varphi(p-1)$  as claimed.

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## Theorem 10.6 (continued)

**Theorem 10.6.** Every prime p has  $\varphi(p-1)$  primitive roots.

**Proof (continued).** Fix some t. If  $\psi(t) = 0$  then  $\psi(t) \leq \varphi(t)$  and out claim is demonstrated. If  $\psi(t) \neq t$ , then there is some integer in  $\{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$  with order t; denote it as a. The congruence  $x^t \equiv 1$ (mod p) has exactly t solutions by Lemma 10.3. Also, for  $x \in \{a, a^2, a^3, \dots, a^t\}$  we have  $x^t \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . By Theorem 10.4, no two of  $a, a^2, a^3, \ldots, a^t$  have the same least residue (mod p), so (the least residues of) these give all solutions of  $x^t \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  (and hence the list includes all elements of order t, and maybe some other elements). By Lemma 10.1, the numbers in  $\{a, a^2, a^3, \dots, a^t\}$  that are order  $t \mod p$  (of which there are, by definition,  $\psi(t)$  such numbers) are those powers  $a^k$ with (k, t) = 1. By the definition of Euler's function, the number of such k is  $\varphi(t)$ . Therefore,  $\psi(t) = \varphi(t)$  for all  $t \mid p-1$ , and the claim now follows as explained above.

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## Theorem 10.B (continued)

**Theorem 10.B.** If p is an odd prime then  $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ .

Proof (continued). ...

$$(p-1)! \equiv g^{p(p-1)/2} \equiv (g^p)^{p-1} \pmod{p}.$$

But  $g^{(p-1)/2}$  satisfies  $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  (since  $(g^{(p-1)/2})^2 \equiv g^{p-1} \equiv g^{\varphi(p)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  by Euler's Theorem, Theorem 9.1), so  $g^{(p-1)/2} \equiv 1$  or  $-1 \pmod{p}$  (notice that these valid values for x in  $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  and by Lemma 10.2 there are at most 2 such values of x). But we cannot have  $g^{(p-1)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ , since this would mean that the order of g is at most (p-1)/2, and we hypothesized that g is a primitive root and so is order  $\varphi(p) = p - 1$ . Therefore,  $g^{(p-1)/2} \equiv -1$ (mod p), and hence  $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ , as claimed. 

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# Theorem 10.B

**Theorem 10.B.** If p is an odd prime then  $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof.** By Theorem 10.6, there is some primitive root g of prime p. By Theorem 10.5, the least residues mod p of  $g, g^2, g^3, \dots, g^{p-1}$  (notice  $\varphi(p) = p - 1$ ) are a permutation of  $1, 2, \dots, p - 1$ . Multiplying, we have

$$1 \cdot 2 \cdot \cdots \cdot (p-1) \equiv g \cdot g^2 \cdot g^3 \cdot \cdots \cdot g^{p-1}$$

or, since 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{p-1} = p(p-1)/2$$
,

$$(p-1)! \equiv g^{p(p-1)/2} \equiv (g^p)^{p-1} \pmod{p}.$$