

MATH 656- Spring 2019 Class Notes

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1 Euler Tasks:

Task 29: $2^{11} - 1 = 2047 = 23 * 89$

↳ NOT prime

Conjecture 1: There are infinitely many primes where $2p+1$ is also prime. (Sophie Germain Primes)

Conjecture 2: There are infinitely many primes where $2^p - 1$ is prime. (Mersenne Primes)

Conjecture 3: There are infinitely many n with $2^{2^n} + 1$ primes. (Fermat Primes)

* No one knows a proof of any of these conjectures.*

2 Task:

Create a table of exponents (mod 11).

		Exponents									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10 (mod 11)
Bases	2	2	4	8	5	10	9	7	3	6	1
	3	3	9	5	4	1	3	9	5	4	1
	4	4	5	9	3	1	4	5	9	3	1
	5	5	3	4	9	1	5	3	4	9	1
	6	6	3	7	9	10	5	8	4	2	1
	7	7	5	2	3	10	4	6	9	8	1
	8	8	9	6	4	10	3	2	5	7	1
	9	9	4	3	5	1	9	4	3	5	1
	10	10	1	10	1	10	1	10	1	10	1

Observations:

- when $k = 10 (p - 1)$, $a^k \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$.

↳ $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. → Fermat's Little Theorem

- $a = 2, 6, 7, 8$ "don't repeat". All the values are unique.

- $a^5 \equiv \begin{cases} 1 & a = 3, 4, 5, 9 \\ 10 & a = 2, 6, 7, 8, 10 \end{cases}$

- $10^k \equiv \begin{cases} 1 & k \equiv 0 \pmod{2} \\ 10 & k \equiv 1 \pmod{2} \end{cases}$

- 1, 3, 4, 5, and 9 are the only numbers that appear when the base is not 2, 6, 7, and 8.
- Once we encounter a 1, the row repeats.
- In the even columns, the numbers are "symmetric" if the columns were flipped between 5 and 6.

It is useful to know what power of something gives us 1 (mod_)

3 Chapter 7

Book Definition: a belongs to the exponent $h \pmod{m}$, if $a^h \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ and h is the least exponent this is true.

Example:

- 2 belongs to the exponent $10 \pmod{11}$
- 3 belongs to the exponent $5 \pmod{11}$

↳ We're going to call this the order of $a \pmod{m}$.

- The order of $2 \pmod{11}$ is 10.
- The order of $3 \pmod{11}$ is 5.

We write this as $ord_m(a)$

- $ord_{11}(2) = 10$, $ord_{11}(3) = 5$, $ord_{11}(10) = 2$.

Theorem 1: If the $ord_m(a) = h$ and $a^r \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$, then $h|r$.

Proof. Write $r = hk + s$, (division with remainder), where $s < h$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then, } 1 &\equiv a^r \equiv a^{hk+s} \pmod{m} \\ &\equiv a^{hk} \cdot a^s \pmod{m} \\ &\equiv (a^h)^k \cdot a^s \pmod{m} \\ &\equiv 1 \cdot a^s \pmod{m} \\ \text{So, } a^s &\equiv 1 \pmod{m} \\ s &< h. \text{ So, } s = 0 \\ \text{Therefore, } &h|r. \end{aligned}$$

□

Corollary 1: Since $a^{\varphi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$. If $\gcd(a, m) = 1$. We have that the $\text{ord}_m(a) | \varphi(m)$, if $\gcd(a, m) = 1$.

Example: $\varphi(11) = 10$, so the order of every element should divide 10. $\text{ord}_{11}(2) = 10$, $\text{ord}_{11}(3) = 5$, $\text{ord}_{11}(10) = 2 \rightarrow$ all divide 10 \checkmark

Definition: a is a primitive root ($\text{mod } m$) if $\text{ord}_m(a) = \varphi(m)$.

Example: The primitive roots mod 11 are 2, 6, 7, 8.

Example: $m = 8$

If $\gcd(a, 8) \neq 1$, then $a^k \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ isn't possible.

↳ Only possibilities are 1, 3, 5, 7.

$3^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$, $\text{ord}_8(3) = 2 = \text{ord}_8(5) = \text{ord}_8(7)$

$5^2 \equiv 25 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$

$7^2 \equiv 49 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$

Since $\varphi(8) = 4$, 8 has no primitive roots.

Theorem 2: If a is a primitive root ($\text{mod } m$), then $a^1, a^2, a^3, \dots, a^{\varphi(m)}$ are mutually in-congruent and form a reduced residue system ($\text{mod } m$).

Proof. (By contradiction)

Suppose there exists $1 \leq r < s \leq \varphi(m)$, with $a^r \equiv a^s \pmod{m}$,

then, $a^r \equiv a^r(a^{s-r}) \pmod{m}$

$1 \equiv a^{s-r} \pmod{m}$

So, $s - r > 0$ and $s - r < \varphi(m)$, but $a^{s-r} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$. This contradicts $\varphi(m)$ being the order of $a \pmod{m}$. □

Theorem 3: If the $\text{ord}_m(a) = h$ and $\gcd(h, k) = d$, then $\text{ord}_m(a^k) = \frac{h}{d}$.

Example: $\text{ord}_{11}(2) = 10 = h$

Let $k = 6$

$\gcd(10, 6) = 2$

$\text{ord}_{11}(2^6) \equiv \text{ord}_{11}(9) = \frac{10}{2} = 5 \checkmark$

$*2^6 \equiv 9 \pmod{11}$

Proof. Write $j = \text{ord}_m(a^k)$

(goal: prove that $j = \frac{h}{d} = h_1$)

Write: $h_1 = \frac{h}{d}$, $k_1 = \frac{k}{d}$

Since $j = \text{ord}_m(a^k)$

$1 \equiv (a^k)^j \equiv a^{kj} \pmod{m}$

Since $\text{ord}_m(a) = h_1$, we know $h | kj$.

Then, $h_1 | k_1 j$ (divided out the \gcd from each)

and $\gcd(h_1, k_1) = 1$. So, $h_1 | j$.

Now, compute $(a^k)^{h_1} \equiv a^{kh_1} \pmod{m}$

$\equiv a^{k_1 h_1 d} \pmod{m}$

$\equiv a^{h k_1} \pmod{m}$

$\equiv (a^h)^{k_1} \pmod{m}$

$\equiv 1 \pmod{m}$

So, $(a^k)^{h_1} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$
 So, $\text{ord}_m(a^k) | h_1$. Thus, $j | h_1$
 So, $j = h_1 \Rightarrow \text{ord}_m(a^k) = \frac{h}{d}$

□

Corollary 2: If g is a primitive root $(\text{mod } m)$, then g^r is a primitive root $(\text{mod } m)$ if and only if $\text{gcd}(r, \varphi(m)) = 1$.

Proof. The order of $g^r = \frac{\text{ord}_m(g)}{\text{gcd}(r, \text{ord}_m(g))} = \frac{\varphi(m)}{\text{gcd}(r, \varphi(m))}$

This equals $\varphi(m)$ exactly when $\text{gcd}(r, \varphi(m)) = 1$.

□

Example: If g is a primitive root $(\text{mod } 11)$, then g^r is a primitive root $(\text{mod } 11)$.

If $\text{gcd}(r, 10) = 1$, then $r = 1, 3, 7, 9$. Try this with $g = 2...$

$$2^3 \equiv 8 \checkmark$$

$$2^7 \equiv 7 \checkmark$$

$$2^9 \equiv 6 \checkmark$$

8, 7 and 6 are all primitive roots.

Corollary 3: If m has a primitive root, then it has $\varphi(\varphi(m))$ primitive roots.

Proof. If g is a primitive root, then g^r is a primitive root whenever $\text{gcd}(r, \varphi(m)) = 1$.

The number of such things is $\varphi(\varphi(m))$.

□

Example: $\varphi(\varphi(11)) = \varphi(10) = \varphi(2)\varphi(5) = 1 \cdot 4$.

So, 11 has 4 primitive roots.

When do we have at least one primitive root?

↳ Answer: m has a primitive root if and only if m is a prime or twice a prime.

Theorem 4: Every prime has a primitive root.

Proof. Let p be a prime. Then $\text{ord}_p(a) | p - 1$. Let $N(h) = \#\{a \pmod{p} | \text{ord}_p(a) = h\}$
 (count the number of residues $(\text{mod } p)$, with $\text{ord}_p(a) = h$)

Example: If $p = 11$

$$N(2) = 1 \{10\}$$

$$N(5) = 4 \{3, 4, 5, 9\}$$

$$N(10) = 4 \{2, 6, 7, 8\}$$

$$N(1) = 1 \{1\}$$

Now, $\sum_{h|p-1} N(h) = p - 1$

Goal: prove $N(p - 1) \neq 0$ (Then has a primitive root)

Claim that $N(h)$ is either 0 or $\varphi(h)$. If it's not zero, then at least one thing has order h , call it b .

$$b^h \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Now, consider $x^h \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

$$x^h - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

This polynomial has at most h distinct roots. $b^1, b^2, b^3, \dots, b^h$ all satisfy this equation because
 $(b^i)^h - 1 \equiv (b^h)^i - 1$
 $\equiv 1 - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.

So, these are all of the solutions to this equation.

How many of these have order h ?

b^i has order h iff $\gcd(i, h) = 1$.

So, there are $\varphi(h)$ many such i .

$N(h) = 0$ or $\varphi(h)$

Now, $p - 1 = \sum_{h|p-1} N(h)$

If $N(h) < \varphi(h)$, then $p - 1 = \sum_{h|p-1} N(h) < \sum_{h|p-1} \varphi(h) = p - 1$

Recall: $\sum_{d|n} \varphi(d) = n \rightarrow$ Contradiction!

So, $N(h) = \varphi(h)$ (ALWAYS!)

$N(p - 1) = \varphi(p - 1)$ and $\varphi(p - 1) \geq 1$.

So, p has at least one element of order $p - 1$.

So, p has a primitive root.

(In fact it has $\varphi(p - 1)$ many.)

□