

This proof can best be illustrated by carrying it out with some specific numbers. Let  $n = 9$ , for instance. The positive integers less than and relatively prime to 9 are

$$1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8.$$

These play the role of the integers  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{\phi(n)}$  in the proof of Theorem 7-5. If  $a = -4$ , then the integers  $aa_i$  are

$$-4, -8, -16, -20, -28, -32,$$

where, modulo 9,

$$-4 \equiv 5, -8 \equiv 1, -16 \equiv 2, -20 \equiv 7, -28 \equiv 8, -32 \equiv 4.$$

When the above congruences are all multiplied together, we obtain

$$(-4)(-8)(-16)(-20)(-28)(-32) \equiv 5 \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 7 \cdot 8 \cdot 4 \pmod{9},$$

which becomes

$$(1 \cdot 2 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 8)(-4)^6 \equiv (1 \cdot 2 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 8) \pmod{9}.$$

Being relatively prime to 9, the six integers 1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8 may be successively cancelled to give

$$(-4)^6 \equiv 1 \pmod{9}.$$

The validity of this last congruence is confirmed by the calculation

$$(-4)^6 \equiv 4^6 \equiv (64)^2 \equiv 1^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{9}.$$

Note that Theorem 7-5 does indeed generalize the one due to Fermat, which we proved earlier. For if  $p$  is a prime, then  $\phi(p) = p - 1$ ; hence, whenever  $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ , we get

$$a^{p-1} \equiv a^{\phi(p)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

and so:

**COROLLARY (Fermat).** *If  $p$  is a prime and  $p \nmid a$ , then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .*

### Example 7-2

Euler's Theorem is helpful in reducing large powers modulo  $n$ . To cite a typical example, let us find the last two digits in the decimal representation of  $3^{256}$ ; this is equivalent to obtaining the smallest

nonnegative integer to which  $3^{256}$  is congruent modulo 100. Since  $\gcd(3, 100) = 1$  and

$$\phi(100) = \phi(2^2 \cdot 5^2) = 100(1 - \frac{1}{2})(1 - \frac{1}{5}) = 40,$$

Euler's Theorem yields

$$3^{40} \equiv 1 \pmod{100}.$$

By the Division Algorithm,  $256 = 6 \cdot 40 + 16$ ; whence

$$3^{256} \equiv 3^{6 \cdot 40 + 16} \equiv (3^{40})^6 3^{16} \equiv 3^{16} \pmod{100}$$

and our problem reduces to one of evaluating  $3^{16}$ , modulo 100. The calculations are as follows, with reasons omitted:

$$3^{16} \equiv (81)^4 \equiv (-19)^4 \equiv (361)^2 \equiv 61^2 \equiv 21 \pmod{100}.$$

There is another path to Euler's Theorem, one which requires the use of Fermat's Theorem.

*Second Proof of Euler's Theorem:* To start, we argue by induction that if  $p \nmid a$  ( $p$  a prime), then

$$(1) \quad a^{\phi(p^k)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^k}, \quad k > 0.$$

When  $k = 1$ , this assertion reduces to the statement of Fermat's Theorem. Assuming the truth of (1) for a fixed value of  $k$ , we wish to show that it is true with  $k$  replaced by  $k + 1$ .

Since (1) is assumed to hold, we may write

$$a^{\phi(p^k)} = 1 + qp^k$$

for some integer  $q$ . Notice too that

$$\phi(p^{k+1}) = p^{k+1} - p^k = p(p^k - p^{k-1}) = p\phi(p^k).$$

Using these facts, along with the Binomial Theorem, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} a^{\phi(p^{k+1})} &= a^{p\phi(p^k)} \\ &= (1 + qp^k)^p \\ &= 1 + \binom{p}{1}(qp^k) + \binom{p}{2}(qp^k)^2 + \cdots + \binom{p}{p-1}(qp^k)^{p-1} + (qp^k)^p \\ &\equiv 1 + \binom{p}{1}(qp^k) \pmod{p^{k+1}}. \end{aligned}$$

But  $p \mid \binom{p}{i}$  and so  $p^{k+1} \mid \binom{p}{i}(qp^k)$ . Thus, the last-written congruence becomes

$$a^{\phi(p^{k+1})} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^{k+1}},$$

completing the induction step.

Now let  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$  and  $n$  have the prime factorization  $n = p_1^{k_1} p_2^{k_2} \cdots p_r^{k_r}$ . In view of what has already been proved, each of the congruences

$$(2) \quad a^{\phi(p_i^{k_i})} \equiv 1 \pmod{p_i^{k_i}}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, r$$

holds. Noting that  $\phi(n)$  is divisible by  $\phi(p_i^{k_i})$ , we may raise both sides of (2) to the power  $\phi(n)/\phi(p_i^{k_i})$  and arrive at

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p_i^{k_i}}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, r.$$

Inasmuch as the moduli are relatively prime, this leads us to the relation

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p_1^{k_1} p_2^{k_2} \cdots p_r^{k_r}}$$

or  $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ .

The usefulness of Euler's Theorem in number theory would be hard to exaggerate. It leads, for instance, to a different proof of the Chinese Remainder Theorem. In other words, we seek to establish that if  $\gcd(n_i, n_j) = 1$  for  $i \neq j$ , then the system of linear congruences

$$x \equiv a_i \pmod{n_i}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, r$$

admits a simultaneous solution. Let  $n = n_1 n_2 \cdots n_r$  and put  $N_i = n/n_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$ . Then the integer

$$x = a_1 N_1^{\phi(n_1)} + a_2 N_2^{\phi(n_2)} + \cdots + a_r N_r^{\phi(n_r)}$$

fulfills our requirements. To see this, first note that  $N_j \equiv 0 \pmod{n_i}$  whenever  $i \neq j$ ; whence,

$$x \equiv a_i N_i^{\phi(n_i)} \pmod{n_i}.$$

But, since  $\gcd(N_i, n_i) = 1$ , we have

$$N_i^{\phi(n_i)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n_i}$$

and so  $x \equiv a_i \pmod{n_i}$  for each  $i$ .

As a second application of Euler's Theorem, let us show that if  $n$  is an odd integer which is not a multiple of 5, then  $n$  divides an integer

all of whose digits are equal to 1. (For example:  $7 \mid 111111$ .) Since  $\gcd(n, 10) = 1$  and  $\gcd(9, 10) = 1$ , we have  $\gcd(9n, 10) = 1$ . Quoting Theorem 7-5 again,

$$10^{\phi(9n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{9n}.$$

This says that  $10^{\phi(9n)} - 1 = 9nk$  for some integer  $k$  or, what amounts to the same thing,

$$kn = \frac{10^{\phi(9n)} - 1}{9}.$$

The right-hand side of the above expression is an integer whose digits are all equal to 1, each digit of the numerator being clearly equal to 9.

### PROBLEMS 7.3

1. Use Euler's Theorem to establish the following:
  - (a) For any integer  $a$ ,  $a^{37} \equiv a \pmod{1729}$ . [Hint:  $1729 = 7 \cdot 13 \cdot 19$ .]
  - (b) For any integer  $a$ ,  $a^{13} \equiv a \pmod{2730}$ . [Hint:  $2730 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 13$ .]
  - (c) For any odd integer  $a$ ,  $a^{33} \equiv a \pmod{4080}$ . [Hint:  $4080 = 15 \cdot 16 \cdot 17$ .]
2. Show that if  $\gcd(a, n) = \gcd(a - 1, n) = 1$ , then
 
$$1 + a + a^2 + \cdots + a^{\phi(n)-1} \equiv 0 \pmod{n}.$$

[Hint: Recall that  $a^{\phi(n)} - 1 = (a - 1)(a^{\phi(n)-1} + \cdots + a^2 + a + 1)$ .]
3. If  $m$  and  $n$  are relatively prime positive integers, prove that
 
$$m^{\phi(n)} + n^{\phi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{mn}.$$
4. Fill in any missing details in the following proof of Euler's Theorem: Let  $p$  be a prime divisor of  $n$  and  $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ . By Fermat's Theorem,  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ , so that  $a^{p-1} = 1 + tp$  for some  $t$ . Then  $a^{p(p-1)} = (1 + tp)^p = 1 + \binom{p}{1}(tp) + \cdots + (tp)^p \equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}$  and, by induction,  $a^{p^{k-1}(p-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^k}$  where  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ . Raise both sides of this congruence to the  $\phi(n)/p^{k-1}(p-1)$  power to get  $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^k}$ . Thus  $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ .
5. Find the units digit of  $3^{100}$  by means of Euler's Theorem.
6. (a) If  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ , show that the linear congruence  $ax \equiv b \pmod{n}$  has the solution  $x \equiv ba^{\phi(n)-1} \pmod{n}$ .
  - (b) Use part (a) to solve the congruences  $3x \equiv 5 \pmod{26}$ ,  $13x \equiv 2 \pmod{40}$  and  $10x \equiv 21 \pmod{49}$ .
7. Prove that every prime other than 2 or 5 divides infinitely many of the integers, 1, 11, 111, 1111, ... .