## Chapter 4: The Structure of $U(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$

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**Theorem 1.**  $U(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$  is a cyclic group.

*Proof.* Let  $p-1=q_1^{e_1}q_2^{e_2}\cdots q_t^{e^t}=\prod_q q^e$  be the prime decomposition of p-1. Consider the congruences

- $(1) \ x^{q^{e-1}} \equiv 1(p)$
- (2)  $x^{q^e} \equiv 1(p)$

Therefore,

- (1) Every solution to  $x^{q^{e-1}} \equiv 1$  (p) is a solution of  $x^{q^e} \equiv 1$  (p).
- (2)  $x^{q^e} \equiv 1$  (p) has more solutions than  $x^{q^{e-1}} \equiv 1$  (p). In fact,  $x^{q^{e-1}} \equiv 1$  (p) has  $q^{e-1}$  solutions and  $x^{q^e} \equiv 1$  (p) has  $q^e$  solutions by Proposition 4.1.2.

Therefore, there exists  $g_i \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  generating a subgroup of  $U(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$  of order  $q_i^{e_i}$  for all i=1,...,t. Pick  $g=g_1g_2\cdots g_t\in\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  generating a subgroup of  $U(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$  of order  $q_1^{e_1}q_2^{e_2}\cdots q_t^{e^t}=p-1$ . That is,  $\langle g \rangle = U(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$ .  $\square$ 

Exercise 4.1. Show that 2 is a primitive root module 29.

 $\begin{array}{l} \textit{Proof.} \ 2^1 \equiv 2 \, (29), \ 2^2 \equiv 4 \, (29), \ 2^3 \equiv 8 \, (29), \ 2^4 \equiv 16 \, (29), \ 2^5 \equiv 3 \, (29), \ 2^6 \equiv 6 \, (29), \ 2^7 \equiv 12 \, (29), \ 2^8 \equiv 24 \, (29), \ 2^9 \equiv 19 \, (29), \ 2^{10} \equiv 9 \, (29), \ 2^{11} \equiv 18 \, (29), \ 2^{12} \equiv 7 \, (29), \ 2^{13} \equiv 14 \, (29), \ 2^{14} \equiv 28 \, (29), \ 2^{15} \equiv 27 \, (29), \ 2^{16} \equiv 25 \, (29), \ 2^{17} \equiv 21 \, (29), \ 2^{18} \equiv 13 \, (29), \ 2^{19} \equiv 26 \, (29), \ 2^{20} \equiv 23 \, (29), \ 2^{21} \equiv 17 \, (29), \ 2^{22} \equiv 5 \, (29), \ 2^{23} \equiv 10 \, (29), \ 2^{24} \equiv 20 \, (29), \ 2^{25} \equiv 11 \, (29), \ 2^{26} \equiv 22 \, (29), \ 2^{27} \equiv 15 \, (29), \ 2^{28} \equiv 1 \, (29). \ \text{Thus} \ \textit{U}(\mathbb{Z}/29\mathbb{Z}) = \langle 2 \rangle. \ \Box$ 

**Exercise 4.11.** Prove that  $1^k + 2^k + \cdots + (p-1)^k \equiv 0 \ (p) \ if \ p-1 \nmid k \ and \ -1(p)$  if  $p-1 \mid k$ .

*Proof.* Write  $\langle g \rangle = U(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$ , and  $S = 1^k + 2^k + \dots + (p-1)^k \equiv g^k + (g^k)^2 + \dots + (g^k)^{p-1}(p)$ .

If  $p-1 \mid k, g^k \equiv 1$  (p). Thus  $S \equiv 1+1+\cdots+1=p-1 \equiv -1$  (p).

If  $p-1 \nmid k$ ,  $g^k$  is also a generator of  $U(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$  by Exercise 13. There are three proofs of this case.

- (1) S is the sum of a geometric series. So  $(1 g^k)S = g^k(1 (g^k)^{p-1}) = g^k(1 (g^{p-1})^k) \equiv 0$  (p). Since  $g^k \not\equiv 1$  (p),  $S \equiv 0$  (p).
- (2)  $\langle g^k \rangle = U(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$ . So  $S \equiv g^k + (g^k)^2 + \dots + (g^k)^{p-1} \equiv 1 + 2 + \dots + (p-1) \equiv \frac{p(p-1)}{2} \equiv 0$  (p) since p is odd and thus  $\frac{p-1}{2}$  is an integer. (If p=2 is even, then there does not exist any k such that  $p-1 \nmid k$ .)
- (3) Similar to (2), write  $S \equiv 1+2+\cdots+(p-1)$  (p). Notice that the equation  $x^{p-1}-1 \equiv (x-1)(x-2)\cdots(x-(p-1))$  (p) holds by Proposition 4.1.1. So  $S \equiv 0$  (p) by comparing the coefficient of  $x^{p-2}$  on the both sides if p>2. (Again p=2 is impossible in this case.)

**Exercise 4.12.** Use the existence of a primitive root to give another proof of Wilson's theorem  $(p-1)! \equiv -1$  (p).

*Proof.* Say p > 2. (p = 2 is trivial.) Let g be a primitive root of  $U(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$ . So  $(p-1)! \equiv g \cdot g^2 \cdots g^{p-1} \equiv g^{\frac{p(p-1)}{2}}$  (p).

The equation  $x^2 \equiv 1$  (p) has exactly 2 solutions  $x \equiv 1, -1$  (p) by Proposition 4.1.2. Notice that  $x \equiv g^{\frac{p-1}{2}}$  (p) is a solution of the equation  $x^2 \equiv 1$  (p) and  $g^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \not\equiv 1$  (p) since q is a primitive root of  $U(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$ . Therefore,

$$q^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv -1 \, (p).$$

So  $(p-1)! \equiv g^{\frac{p(p-1)}{2}} \equiv (-1)^p \equiv -1$  (p) since p is an odd prime.  $\square$ 

**Supplement 1.** There are many proofs of Wilson's theorem.

- (1) Exercise 3.9. Use a reduced residue system modulo p.
- (2) Corollary of Proposition 4.1.1.  $x^{p-1} 1 \equiv (x-1)(x-2) \cdots (x-p+1)(p)$ .
- (3) Exercise 4.12. Use the existence of a primitive root.
- (4) Inclusion-exclusion principle (Enrique Trevio, An Inclusion-Exclusion Proof of Wilson's Theorem).

Lemma.

$$n! = \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (n-k)^n.$$

*Proof of lemma*. Consider the number of permutations on  $S = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ . On the one hand, the number is n!. On the other hand, we can think of a permutation on S as a function  $f: S \to S$  that is onto. The number of functions  $g: S \to S$  is  $n^n$ . To find the onto functions, we have to remove

whichever ones are not onto. Therefore, we must remove those that miss at least 1 value. There are  $\binom{n}{1}$  ways of choosing the missed value and  $(n-1)^n$  functions missing that particular value. But when we remove all of these functions, we took out some too many times, indeed, any function that misses at least 2 values was over counted. So we have to add it back in. We get  $\binom{n}{2}(n-2)^n$  such functions. Continue this process.  $\square$ 

*Proof.* Now we use the equation  $n! = \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (n-k)^n$  by substituting n = p - 1 and then get

$$(p-1)! = \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (-1)^k \binom{p-1}{k} (p-1-k)^{p-1}.$$

Now look at the k-term in the summation.

 $\begin{array}{ll} k!(p-1-k)! \equiv (-1)^k(p-k)(p-(k-1))\cdots(p-1)\cdot(p-1-k)! \equiv (-1)^k(p-1)! \ (p). & \text{So} \ \binom{p-1}{k} \ = \ \frac{(p-1)!}{k!(p-1-k)!} \ \equiv \ (-1)^k \ (p). & \text{Also,} \ (p-1-k)^{p-1} \ \equiv \ (-1-k)^{p-1} \ \equiv \ (1+k)^{p-1} \ (p) \ \text{since} \ (-1)^{p-1} \ = \ 1 \ \text{if} \ p > 2. \ (p=2 \ \text{is} \ \text{trivial.}) \ \text{Therefore,} \end{array}$ 

$$(p-1)! \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} (-1)^k \cdot (-1)^k \cdot (1+k)^{p-1} \equiv \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} k^{p-1} (p).$$

(We adjust the index of the summation and notice that  $p^{p-1} \equiv 0$  (p)). By Fermats Little Theorem,  $k^{p-1} \equiv 1$  (p). Therefore, the right-hand sum consists of (p-1) ones and the proof is completed.  $\square$ 

The original proof in the paper is not very beautiful. We don't need to use the inclusion-exclusion expression of p! and then cancel out p on the both sides. Please use (p-1)! directly.

(5) One combinatorial proof (Cheenta, Wilson's Theorem and It's Geometric proof).

*Proof.* Consider a circumference with p points that correspond to the vertices of a regular p-gon. There are  $\frac{(p-1)!}{2}$  (non-regular or regular) polygons that we form by joining these vertices.

Now among  $\frac{(p-1)!}{2}$  of them, we have  $\frac{p-1}{2}$  unaltered when rotated by  $\frac{2\pi}{p}$  radian. That is, there are  $\frac{p-1}{2}$  regular polygons due to the rotational symmetry.

Therefore, there are  $\frac{(p-1)!}{2} - \frac{p-1}{2}$  non-regular polygons. Notices that the number of non-regular polygons is divided by p since p is a prime.

So  $\frac{(p-1)!}{2} - \frac{p-1}{2} \equiv 0$  (p). Hence,  $(p-1)! \equiv p-1 \equiv -1$  (p) if p > 2. (p=2) is trivial.)  $\square$ 

## Supplement 2. Related problems.

- (1) (Project Euler 381: (prime-k) factorial). Let  $S(p) = \sum_{1 \leq k \leq 5} (p-k)!$  (p) for a prime p. Find  $\sum_{1 \leq p \leq 10^8} S(p)$  (by using computer programs).
- (2) Let g be a primitive root modulo the odd prime p. Prove that  $g^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv -1(p)$ . Deduce that if g, h are primitive roots modulo the odd prime p then  $g \cdot h$  cannot be a primitive root.

**Exercise 4.13 (Generators of a cyclic group).** Let G be a finite cyclic group and  $g \in G$  is a generator. Show that all the other generators are of the form  $g^k$ , where (k, n) = 1, n being the order of G.

*Proof.* Suppose that  $h = g^k$  with (k, n) = 1. Then clearly  $\langle h \rangle \subseteq \langle g \rangle$  as a subset. For the reverse containment  $(\supseteq)$ , write rk + sn = 1 where  $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $h^r = g^{kr} = g^{1-sn} = g \cdot (g^n)^{-s} = g \cdot 1 = g$ . Then again  $\langle g \rangle \subseteq \langle h \rangle$  as a subset.

Now suppose that  $\langle g \rangle = \langle h \rangle$ . Then  $h = g^k$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Also,  $g = h^r$  for some  $r \in \mathbb{Z}$ . So  $g = h^r = g^{kr}$  or  $g^{kr-1} = 1$ . So n|(kr-1), or ar + ns = 1 for some  $s \in \mathbb{Z}$ , that is, (a, n) = 1.  $\square$ 

Reference: R. C. Daileda, The Structure of  $U(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$ .

**Corollary.** Let G be a finite cyclic group of order n. Then G has exactly  $\phi(n)$  generators.

Corollary.  $U(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$  has exactly  $\phi(p-1)$  generators.  $U(\mathbb{Z}/p^l\mathbb{Z})$  has exactly  $\phi(p^{l-1}(p-1))$  generators if p is odd.