


Orders and Euler's Theorem

Friday, March 27

Last time: We conjectured that if p is prime, then for any $a < p$ we have $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. This led to a discussion of the **order** of elements. Here is a summary of what we have so far:

- For any finite group G and any element $g \in G$, we say the **order** of g is the least k such that $g^k = e$ (the identity). 
- We also noted that if $\text{ord}(g) = k$ then g, g^2, g^3, \dots, g^k are distinct elements. Why is this?

$$\begin{aligned} g^m &= g^n & m < n < k \\ g^m g^{-m} &= g^n g^{-m} \\ e &= g^{n-m} & 0 < n-m < k \\ &\text{contradiction} \end{aligned}$$

$$g^3 \cdot g^2 = g^{3+2}$$

- Since there are k distinct powers of g , we have that the cyclic subgroup generated by g , that is, $\langle g \rangle$ contains exactly k elements.
- Thus the order of the element g is equal to the order of the cyclic subgroup generated by g .
- But Lagrange's theorem tells us that the order of a subgroup must divide the order of the group.
- Thus the order of any element $g \in G$ must divide the order of G .

Now let's continue where we left off.

- Suppose $\text{ord}(g) = k$. What is g^{nk} for any n ?

$$g^{nk} = (g^k)^n = e^n = e$$

$$U(7) = \mathbb{Z}_7^*$$

$$\text{ord}(2) = 3$$

Therefore: $g^{|G|} = e$

$$|U(7)| = 6$$

$$2^6 = 1$$

- Now consider the group $U(p)$ where p is prime. This is the group of *units* mod p , which means $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1\}$ (which is a consequence of Bezout's lemma).

$$g \in U(p)$$

$$h \cdot g \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

$$hg = k \cdot p + 1$$

$$\underbrace{h \cdot g - k \cdot p}_{\text{gcd}(g, p)} = 1$$

$$p-1 = |U(p)|$$

- Thus in $U(p)$ we have $g^{p-1} = 1$ for all $g \in U(p)$.
- Therefore $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. This result is called Fermat's Little Theorem.

Now what about the non-prime case? Given \underline{n} , is there a number \underline{m} such that $a^m \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ for all a ?

if a and n have a common factor, then there will be no m . $n=6$
 $2^m \equiv 1 \pmod{6}?$

But... if a is relatively prime to n ...

- Working in groups again, we can consider $U(n)$. The elements of this group are precisely the *units* of Z_n , which means those elements relatively prime to n .

$$U(6) = \{1, 5\}$$

$$U(8) = \{1, 3, 5, 7\} \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$$

$$U(9) = \{1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8\}$$

$$g^{|U(n)|} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

for any $g \in U(n)$

- We will let $\varphi(n)$ denote the *number* of numbers less than n that are relatively prime to n . This is called the **Euler φ -function**.

$$\varphi(7) = 6$$

$$\varphi(9) = 6$$

$$\varphi(8) = 4$$

$$\varphi(n) = |U(n)|$$

- What do we get if we repeat the same argument as we did for Fermat's Little Theorem?

$$a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

for a relatively prime to n .

This is known as Euler's Theorem.

For Euler's theorem to be useful, we need to understand how the φ function behaves.

- We know that $\varphi(p) = p - 1$ for any prime p . We also will define $\varphi(1) = 1$ (because it will be useful to do so).
- The definition of $\varphi(n)$ is: the number of positive integers less than n that are relatively prime to n . Find $\varphi(n)$ by brute force for some non-prime values of n .
- In particular, find $\varphi(6)$, $\varphi(10)$, $\varphi(14)$, $\varphi(15)$, and $\varphi(21)$. Note that each of these is the product of two primes.

- $\varphi(4) = 2$, $\varphi(6) = 2$, $\varphi(8) =$

$$\varphi(10) = ? \quad 4$$

↓ 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10
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$$\varphi(10) = 4$$

$$\varphi(15) = 8 = 2 \cdot 4$$

$$\varphi(14) = 6$$

$$\varphi(21) = 12 = 2 \cdot 6$$

$$\varphi(22) = 10$$

$$\varphi(26) = 12$$

$$26 = 2 \cdot 13$$

$$\varphi(p \cdot q) = (p-1)(q-1) \quad \leftarrow$$

$$p \neq q \text{ primes.}$$