## Random Algebra/Number Theory Problems

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**Exercise 1.** Let G be a finite group. Show that  $a \in G$  is a generator of G if and only if  $a^{\frac{|G|}{q}} \neq 1$ , for each prime factor p of |G|.

Proof. ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Since a generates G, it is a cyclic group, hence  $G = \langle a \rangle$ . A consequence of this is that  $|G| = |\langle a \rangle| = |a|$ . Let us assume for sake of a contradiction, that  $a^{\frac{|G|}{q}} = 1$  for some prime factor q of |G|. Then we see that  $a^{\frac{|G|}{q}} = 1 \implies |a|$  divides  $\frac{|G|}{q} \implies |a| = |G| < \frac{|G|}{q}$ , which is a contradiction. ( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose instead that a is not a generator of G. Then  $|a| \neq |G|$ , which means there must be a prime divisor q of |G| for which |a| divides  $\frac{|G|}{q}$ . To be more explicit, let us look at the prime factorization of |G| and of |a|. Write  $|G| = q_1^{g_1} \dots q_r^{g_r}$  and  $|a| = q_1^{g_1} \dots q_r^{g_r}$ , with  $a_i \leq g_i$  for all i. It is entirely possible that a may hold each prime divisor of |G| in its prime factorization, but it does not necessarily have equal exponents in the factorization. Otherwise,  $a_i = g_i$  for all i, hence |a| = |G|. In this case, |a| and |G| must differ by at least one prime divisor q. Then if we divide out that prime factor from |G|, it follows that |a| divides |G| = |G|. By one of the previous theorems, this is equivalent to saying that  $a^{\frac{|G|}{q}} = 1$ , which contradicts the assumption we make in this direction of the proof.

**Definition (Universal Exponent).** A positive integer  $\lambda$  is called the minimal universal exponent if  $\lambda$  is the smallest integer such that  $a^{\lambda} \equiv 1 \mod n$  for all residues a such that (a, n) = 1.

**Lemma 1.** There exists a residue of order  $\lambda$ , where  $\lambda$  is the minimal universal exponent of p.

**Exercise 2.** Show that for any prime number  $p \geq 3$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  has a primitive root.

Proof. To show that  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  has a primitive root, it is sufficient to show that  $|a| = \phi(p) = p - 1$ , for some  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ . Let  $\lambda$  be the minimal universal exponent of p. If  $\lambda = p - 1$ , then there is a residue of order  $\lambda$  by Lemma (1), hence there is a primitive root. Otherwise,  $\lambda . In this case, there are at most <math>\lambda$  solutions to the equation  $x^{\lambda} - 1 \equiv 0 \mod p$ , by Lagrange's Polynomial Theorem. However, since  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$  for all nonzero residues  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  (due to Fermat's Little Theorem), there are  $p-1 > \lambda$  solutions to the above polynomial, a contradiction. Therefore,  $\lambda = p - 1$ , which proves there is a residue of order  $\phi(p) = p - 1$ , hence there is a primitive root.

**Exercise 3.** Show that a finite subset B of a vector space V over a field F is a basis for V if and only if every  $v \in V$  can be written uniquely as a linear combination of vectors from B. That is, where  $B = \{b_1, \ldots b_n\}$ , the scalars  $\alpha_i \in F$  for all i are unique for which

$$v = \alpha_1 b_1 + \ldots + \alpha_n b_n.$$

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Suppose that B is a basis for V. Then B is both a spanning set, and a linearly independent set. It is a spanning set for V, which means that for every  $v \in V$ , there exist scalars  $\alpha_1, \ldots \alpha_n \in F$  such that

$$v = \alpha_1 b_1 + \dots + \alpha_n b_n. \tag{1}$$

B being linearly independent means that if there exist  $\eta_1, \ldots, \eta_n \in F$  such that

$$\eta_1 b_1 + \dots + \eta_n b_n = 0,$$

then  $\eta_i = 0$  for all i.

We must now show that (1) is the only possible way to write v as a linear combination of vectors from B. Suppose for sake of a contradiction that there is another such way to write v, that being

$$v = \beta_1 b_1 + \dots + \beta_n b_n, \tag{2}$$

where  $\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n \in F$ . Using (1) and (2), we have

$$\beta_1 b_1 + \cdots + \beta_n b_n = \alpha_1 b_1 + \cdots + \alpha_n b_n$$

$$(\alpha_1 - \beta_1)b_1 + \dots + (\alpha_n - \beta_n)b_n = 0 \tag{3}$$

Let us use the assumption that B is a linearly independent set. Set  $\eta_i = (\alpha_i - \beta_i)$  for each i. Then (3) can be written as

$$\eta_1 b_1 + \dots + \eta_n b_n = 0,$$

which implies that  $\eta_i = 0$  for all *i* by linear independence of *B*. That is,  $\alpha_i - \beta_i = 0$ , hence  $\alpha_i = \beta_i$  for all *i*, which proves that these two ways of writing *v* are the same.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose that every  $v \in V$  can be written uniquely as a linear combination of vectors from B. We must show that B is both a linearly independent set, and a spanning set for V. First we show that it is a spanning set. Given any  $v \in V$ , by assumption we can write

$$v = \alpha_1 b_1 + \dots + \alpha_n b_n,$$

for some scalars  $\alpha_1, \ldots \alpha_n \in F$ . We are done since this is the definition of B being a spanning set for V. Last, to show that it is linearly independent, suppose there exist  $\alpha_i \ldots \alpha_n \in F$ , such that

$$\alpha_1 b_1 + \cdots + \alpha_n b_n = 0.$$

This is also saying that

$$\alpha_1 b_1 + \dots + \alpha_n b_n = 0 \cdot b_1 + \dots + 0 \cdot b_n,$$

which implies that  $\alpha_i = 0$  for all i. This is because we've assumed that there is only one such way to write this linear combination of vectors, hence B must be linearly independent. Therefore, B is a basis for V.

**Exercise 4.** Let p be an odd prime and let  $k \geq 1$ .

- 1. a is an odd primitive root modulo  $p^k \implies a$  is a primitive root modulo  $2p^k$ .
- 2. a is an even primitive root modulo  $p^k \implies a + p^k$  is a primitive root modulo  $2p^k$ .

- Proof. (1) Assume a is an odd primitive root modulo  $p^k$ . Then  $\phi(2p^k) = \phi(2)\phi(p^k) = \phi(p^k)$ . Suppose for sake of a contradiction that  $|a| < \phi(2p^k)$ , and let m = |a|. Then  $a^m \equiv 1 \mod 2p^k$ , hence  $a^m 1 = 2p^k\ell$  for some  $\ell$ . If we bring the equation back into  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ , we have  $a^m \equiv 1 \mod p^k$ . However, we know that a is a primitive root modulo  $p^k$ , so this contradicts the order of a being  $\phi(p^k)$ . Thus,  $|a| = \phi(2p^k)$ , which means a is also a primitive root modulo  $2p^k$ .
- (2) Assume that a is an even primitive root modulo  $p^k$ . To prove  $a + p^k$  is a primitive root modulo  $2p^k$ , assume it is not, for sake of a contradiction. Let  $m = |a + p^k| < \phi(2p^k)$ , which leaves us with the congruences

$$(a+p^k)^m \equiv 1 \mod 2p^k,$$
  

$$(a+p^k)^m - 1 = 2p^k \ell,$$
  

$$(a+p^k)^m \equiv 1 \mod p^k,$$

for some  $\ell$ . Observe by properties of congruences that

$$a + p^k \equiv a \mod p^k \implies (a + p^k)^m \equiv a^m \mod p^k$$
.

Using the same technique as in (1) together with this observation yields  $a^m \equiv 1 \mod p^k$ , where  $m < \phi(p^k)$ . We initially assumed that a is a primitive root, meaning  $|a| = \phi(p^k)$ , which is contradicted by this new deduction. Therefore,  $a + p^k$  must be a primitive root modulo  $2p^k$ .

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