

Primitive Roots

Lemma : (10.2)

If f is a polynomial of degree n , then

$$f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

has at most n solutions

Proof. Let $f(n)$ be a polynomial of degree n

$$f(n) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0$$

For $n = 1$, the polynomial has one solution since $(a_1, p) = 1$

$$a_1 x + a_0 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

Suppose that the lemma is true for polynomials of degree $n - 1$. Let $f(n)$ be a polynomial of degree n . Either $f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ has no solutions, or it has at least one. If $f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ has no solutions, then it has at most n solutions. In the second case, suppose that r is a solution, that is $f(r) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Then, because $x - r$ is a factor of $x^t - r^t$ for $t = 0, 1, \dots, n$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &\equiv f(x) - f(r) \\ &\equiv a_n (x^n - r^n) + a_{n-1} (x^{n-1} - r^{n-1}) + \cdots + a_1 (x - r) \\ &\equiv (x - r) g(x) \pmod{p} \end{aligned}$$

Where $g(x)$ is of degree $n - 1$. Suppose that s is also a solution of $f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Then,

$$f(s) = (s - r) g(s) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

Since p is a prime, it follows that $s \equiv r \pmod{p}$ or $g(s) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. From the induction assumption, the second congruence has at most $n - 1$ solutions, so in total there are at most n solutions. \square

Note that Lemma 10.2 is not true if the modulus is not prime. For example, the polynomial equation

$$x^2 + x \equiv 0 \pmod{6}$$

Has the solutions $x = 0, 2, 3$, and 5

Lemma : (10.3)

If $d \mid p - 1$, then $x^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ has exactly d solutions.

Proof. From Fermat's Theorem, we have that the congruence

$$x^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

has exactly $p - 1$ solutions, which are

$$1, 2, \dots, p - 1$$

However, notice that we have

$$\begin{aligned} x^{p-1} - 1 &= (x^d - 1)(x^{p-1-d} + x^{p-1-2d} + \cdots + 1) \\ &= (x^d - 1) h(x) \end{aligned}$$

From Lemma 10.2, $h(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ has at most $p-1-d$ solutions. Hence $x^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ has at least d solutions. By Lemma 10.2, $x^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ also has at most d solutions. Therefore, we see that $x^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ has exactly d solutions. \square

Theorem : (10.6)

Every prime p has $\phi(p-1)$ primitive roots.

Proof. Theorem 10.2 says that each of the integers

$$1, 2, \dots, p-1$$

has an order that is a divisor of $p-1$. For each divisor t of $p-1$, let $\psi(t)$ denote the number of integer that have order t . This can be restated as

$$\sum_{t|p-1} \psi(t) = p-1$$

From Theorem 9.4, we have that

$$\sum_{t|p-1} \psi(t) = \sum_{t|p-1} \phi(t)$$

If we can show that $\psi(t) \leq \phi(t)$ for each t , it will follow from

$$\sum_{t|p-1} \psi(t) = \sum_{t|p-1} \phi(t)$$

that $\psi(t) = \phi(t)$ for each t . In particular, the number of primitive roots of p will be

$$\psi(p-1) = \phi(p-1)$$

If $\psi(t) = 0$, then $\psi(t) < \phi(t)$ and we are done. If $\psi(t) \neq 0$, then there is an integer with order t , call it a . By Lemma 10.3, $x^t \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ has exactly t solutions. Furthermore, the integers a, a^2, \dots, a^t satisfy the congruence. By Theorem 10.4, no two powers have the same least residue. Therefore, they give all the solutions to $x^t \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. From Lemma 10.1, the numbers in a, a^2, \dots, a^t that have order t are those powers of a^k with $(k, t) = 1$. There are $\phi(t)$ such numbers k . Hence $\psi(t) = \phi(t)$ in this case. That is, there are $\phi(p-1)$ primitive roots. \square

Theorem 10.6 does not actually help us to find a primitive root. We do not have an efficient way to find primitive roots, since they behave pseudo-randomly. They can also be composite, for example, 6 is the smallest for 41.

Theorem

The only positive integers with primitive roots are 1, 2, 4, p^e , and $2p^e$, where p is an odd prime.