

## Monday, March 18: Proof of Primitive Root Theorem

**Learning Objectives.** By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Find the number of roots of unity modulo  $m$
- Prove primitive roots exist modulo a prime.

**Reading** None

### Roots of unity (35 minutes)

Finish proof of [Proposition 5.8](#)

**In-class Problem 1** Let  $p$  be prime,  $m$  a positive integer, and  $d = (m, p-1)$ . Prove that  $a^m \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  if and only if  $a^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Solution:** Let  $p$  be prime,  $m$  a positive integer, and  $d = (m, p-1)$ . Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . If  $p \mid a$ , then  $a^i \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  for all positive integers  $i$ . Thus, we are only considering  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $p \nmid a$ . Otherwise,  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  by [Fermat's Little Theorem](#).

By [Proposition 5.1](#),  $a^m \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  if and only if  $\text{ord}_p a \mid m$ . Similarly,  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  if and only if  $\text{ord}_p a \mid p-1$ . Thus,  $\text{ord}_p a$  is a common divisor of  $m$  and  $p-1$ . Combining and gives  $\text{ord}_p a$  is a common divisor of  $m$  and  $p-1$  if and only if  $\text{ord}_p a \mid d$ . One final application of [Proposition 5.1](#) gives  $\text{ord}_p a \mid d$  if and only if  $a^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**In-class Problem 2** Let  $p$  be prime and  $m$  a positive integer. Prove that

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

has exactly  $(m, p-1)$  incongruent solutions modulo  $p$ .

**Proof** Let  $p$  be prime,  $m$  a positive integer, and  $d = (m, p-1)$ . By [In-class Problem 1](#),  $x^m \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  if and only if  $x^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . By [Proposition 5.8](#) there are exactly  $d$  solutions to  $x^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . Thus, there are exactly  $d$  solutions to  $x^m \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . ■

### Primitive roots modulo a prime (15 minutes)

We will now prove the existence of primitive roots modulo a prime combining the two methods from the reading: we will show that when  $d \mid p-1$ , there are  $\phi(d)$  incongruent integers of order  $d$  modulo  $p$ , like Strayer. However, we will prove this using the method from [Lemma 10.3.4](#) instead of results from Chapter 3.

**Theorem** (Theorem 5.9). *Let  $p$  be a prime and let  $d \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $d > 0$  and  $d \mid p - 1$ . Then there are exactly  $\phi(d)$  incongruent integers of order  $d$  modulo  $p$ .*

**Proof** Let  $p$  be a prime and let  $d \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $d > 0$  and  $d \mid p - 1$ . First we will prove the theorem for  $d = q^s$  modulo  $p$  where  $q$  is prime and  $s$  is a nonnegative integer.

By Proposition 5.8, there are exactly  $q^s$  incongruent solutions to

$$x^{q^s} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \quad (1)$$

and exactly  $q^{s-1}$  incongruent solutions to

$$x^{q^{s-1}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}. \quad (2)$$

Since  $(x^{q^{s-1}})^q = x^{q^s}$ , all solutions to (2) are solutions to (1). Thus, there are exactly  $q^s - q^{s-1} = q^{s-1}(q - 1)$  integers  $a$  where  $a^{q^s} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  and  $a^{q^{s-1}} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . Thus, by Proposition 5.1,  $\text{ord}_p a \mid q^s$  and  $\text{ord}_p a \nmid q^{s-1}$ . Since  $q$  is prime,  $\text{ord}_p a = q^s$ . By Theorem 3.3,  $\phi(q^s) = q^s - q^{s-1} = q^{s-1}(q - 1)$ , so we have shown there are  $\phi(q^s)$  incongruent integers with order  $q^s$  modulo  $p$ .

Now we will prove the general case. Let

$$d = q_1^{s_1} q_2^{s_2} \cdots q_k^{s_k}$$

for distinct primes  $q_1, q_2, \dots, q_k$  and positive integers  $s_1, s_2, \dots, s_k$ . Let  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k$  be elements of order  $q_1^{s_1}, q_2^{s_2}, \dots, q_k^{s_k}$  respectively. Consider  $a = a_1 a_2 \cdots a_k$  and  $a^2, a^3, \dots, a^d$ . By Homework 6, Problem 6,  $a$  has order  $q_1^{s_1} q_2^{s_2} \cdots q_k^{s_k} = d$ . By Proposition 5.8, there are exactly  $d$  solutions to  $x^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Annotation.** This is where we ended class on Monday.

Thus,  $a, a^2, \dots, a^d$  are all incongruent solutions to  $x^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  by Proposition 5.1. By Proposition 5.4,  $\text{ord}_p a^i = \frac{d}{(d, i)} = d$  if and only if  $(d, i) = 1$ . Since there are  $\phi(d)$  such integers  $i$ , there are in fact  $\phi(d)$  incongruent integers with order  $d$  modulo  $p$ . ■

**Corollary** (Corollary 5.10). *Let  $p$  be prime. There are exactly  $\phi(p - 1)$  primitive roots modulo  $p$ .*

## Wednesday, March 20: Introduction to quadratic residues

**Learning Objectives.** By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Define a quadratic residue modulo  $m$
- Prove that the quadratic congruence  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  has zero or one solution modulo a prime when  $p \nmid a$
- Use the solution to a quadratic congruence modulo a prime to find the other solution.

**Reading:** Strayer Section 4.1

**Turn in:** Exercise 3 Find all incongruent solutions of the quadratic congruence  $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ . Is it not true that quadratic congruences have either no solutions or exactly two incongruent solutions? Explain.

**Solution:** As we have seen on many previous questions,  $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$  for all odd numbers. So there are 4 incongruent solutions modulo 8, which is not a contradiction because 8 is not an odd prime number.

## Finish proof of the existence of primitive roots modulo a prime (10 minutes)

### Quadratic residues (40 minutes)

**Definition 1** (quadratic residue). Let  $a, m \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $m > 0$  and  $(a, m) = 1$ . The  $a$  is said to be a quadratic residue modulo  $m$  if the quadratic congruence  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{m}$  is solvable in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Otherwise,  $a$  is said to be a quadratic nonresidue modulo  $m$ .

**Remark 1.** When finding squares modulo  $m$ , we only need to check up to  $\frac{m}{2}$ , since  $(-a)^2 = a^2$  and  $m - a \equiv -a \pmod{m}$

**In-class Problem 3** Find all incongruent quadratic residues and nonresidues modulo 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9.

**Solution:** I also included solutions modulo 10, 11, 12

Modulus	least nonnegative reduced residues	quadratic residues	quadratic non-residues
2	1	1	N/A
3	1, 2	1	2
4	1, 3	1	3
5	1, 2, 3, 4	1, 4	2, 3
6	1, 5	1	5
7	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	1, 2, 4	3, 5, 6
8	1, 3, 5, 7	1	3, 5, 7
9	1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8	1, 4, 7	2, 4, 8
10	1, 3, 7, 9	1, 9	3, 7
11	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	1, 3, 4, 5, 9	2, 6, 7, 8, 10
12	1, 5, 7, 11	1	5, 7, 11

**Lemma** (Generalized Porism 4.2). Let  $a, m \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $m > 0$  and  $(a, m) = 1$ . If the quadratic congruence  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{m}$  is solvable, say with  $x = x_0$ , then  $m - x_0$  is also a solution. If  $m > 2$ , then  $x_0 \not\equiv m - x_0 \pmod{m}$ , and solutions occur in pairs.

**Proof** Let  $a, m \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $m > 0$  and  $(a, m) = 1$ . If the quadratic congruence  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{m}$  is solvable, say with  $x = x_0$ . Then

$$(m - x_0)^2 \equiv (-x_0)^2 \equiv x_0^2 \equiv a \pmod{m}.$$

If  $x_0 \equiv m - x_0 \pmod{m}$ , then  $2x_0 \equiv m \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$  and  $m \mid 2x_0$  by definition. Since  $(a, m) = 1$ , it must be that  $(x_0, m) = 1$  since  $(x_0, m) \mid (a, m)$ . Thus,  $m \mid 2$ , so  $m = 2$ . Therefore, when  $m > 2$ , then  $x_0 \not\equiv m - x_0 \pmod{m}$ , and solutions occur in pairs. ■

**Remark 2.** Since  $x_0 \equiv m - x_0 \pmod{m}$  implies  $x_0 \equiv \frac{m}{2}$ , we can say that if  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{m}$  is solvable and  $\frac{m}{2}$  is not a solution, then solutions occur in pairs.

**Proposition** (Proposition 4.1). Let  $p$  be an odd prime number and let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $p \mid a$ . Then the quadratic congruence  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  has either no solutions or exactly two incongruent solutions modulo  $p$ .

**Proof** Let  $p$  be an odd prime number and let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $p \mid a$ . Consider the quadratic congruence  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ . If no solutions exist, we are done.

If solutions to the quadratic congruence exist, then **Generalized Porism 4.2** says that there are at least two solutions, since  $p > 2$ . **Theorem 5.7 (Lagrange)** says that there are at most two solutions to  $x^2 - a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  and therefore  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ . Thus, there are exactly two incongruent solutions modulo  $p$ . ■

**Proposition** (Proposition 4.3). Let  $p$  be an odd prime number. Then there are exactly  $\frac{p-1}{2}$  incongruent quadratic residues modulo  $p$  and exactly  $\frac{p-1}{2}$  incongruent quadratic nonresidues modulo  $p$ .

**Proof** Consider the  $p-1$  quadratic congruences

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 &\equiv 1 \pmod{p} \\ x^2 &\equiv 2 \pmod{p} \\ &\vdots \\ x^2 &\equiv p-1 \pmod{p}. \end{aligned}$$

Since each congruence has either zero or two incongruent solutions modulo  $p$  by **Proposition 4.1**, and no integer is a solution to more than one of the congruences, exactly half are solvable. Therefore, there are exactly  $\frac{p-1}{2}$  incongruent quadratic residues modulo  $p$  and exactly  $\frac{p-1}{2}$  incongruent quadratic nonresidues modulo  $p$ . ■

## Friday, March 22: Legendre symbol

**Learning Objectives.** By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Define the Legendre symbol
- Prove basic facts about the Legendre symbol
- Use the definition and basic facts to find the Legendre symbol for specific examples.

**Reading:** Strayer Section 4.2 through Example 4

**Turn in:** Exercise 12 Use Euler's Criterion to evaluate the following Legendre symbols

(a)  $\left(\frac{11}{23}\right)$

**Solution:**  $\left(\frac{11}{23}\right) \equiv 11^{(23-1)/2} \equiv 11^{11} \pmod{23}$  By Euler's Criterion. Then

$$11^{11} \equiv (11^2)^5(11) \equiv 6^5(11) \equiv (6^2)(6^3)(11) \equiv (13)(9)(11) \equiv (-90)(11) \equiv -1 \pmod{23}$$

(b)  $\left(\frac{-6}{11}\right)$

**Solution:**  $\left(\frac{-6}{11}\right) \equiv (-6)^{(11-1)/2} \equiv (-6)^5 \pmod{11}$  By Euler's Criterion. Then

$$(-6)^5 \equiv ((6)^2)^2(-6) \equiv 3^2(-6) \equiv -54 \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$$