Recall: u is a unit mod n when u^{-1} mod n exist, or equivalently when (u,n)=1 $uu^{-1}=1 \pmod{n}$

- 1, -1 are units
- u is a unit $\Rightarrow u^{-1}$ is also a unit
- · u, v are units => uv is a unit

Definition: $\phi(n) = \text{number of units in } \mathbb{Z}_n$ (Euler's function)

 $= \left| \left\{ u: 1 \leqslant u \leqslant n-1 \text{ and } (u,n)=1 \right\} \right|.$

$$\phi(8) = 4$$

$$\phi(9) = 6$$

$$\phi(10) = 4$$

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

Back to Fermat's analog in \mathbb{Z}_n .

Claim: Suppose (a,n)=1, then we have $\left\{u: |\leq u \leq n-1 \text{ and } (u,n)=1\right\}$ III $\{au: 1 \leq u \leq n-1 \text{ and } (u,n)=1\}$ in \mathbb{Z}_n . e.g. n=8 and a=3 $\{1,3,5,7\} \equiv \{3,9,15,21\}$ (mod 8) n=10 and a=7 $\{1,3,7,9\} \equiv \{7,21,49,63\} \pmod{10}$ Proof: {u: $l \le u \le n-1$ and (u,n)=l} has $\emptyset(n)$ elements, all units. (a,n)=1 and $(u,n)=1 \Rightarrow (au,n)=1 \Rightarrow au$ is unit. Also au = au (mod n) (=> u=u (mod n) So, {au: $l \le u \le n-1$ and (u,n)=1} has $\emptyset(n)$ distinct elements, all units.

Similar to Fermat's Theorem, we now have Euler's Theorem: Suppose (a,n) = 1, then we have $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. • n=p gives Fermat. How to compute \$\phi(n)? An example: n = 12 $(u, 12) = 1 \iff (u, 4) = 1 \text{ and } (u, 3) = 1$ 1 (mod 4) 1 (mod 3) 3 (mod 4) 2 (mod 3) I CRT 1 (mod 12) 5 (mod 12) 7 (mod 12) 11 (mod 12)

$$\phi(12) = \phi(4) \cdot \phi(3)$$
$$= 4$$

Theorem: For (m,n)=1, we have

$$\phi(mn) = \phi(m) \cdot \phi(n)$$

Proof: $(u, mn) = 1 \iff (u, m) = 1$ and (u, n) = 1There are $\phi(m)$ values in \mathbb{Z}_m and $\phi(n)$ values in \mathbb{Z}_n . By CRT, there are $\phi(m)$ $\phi(n)$ units in \mathbb{Z}_{mn} .

• $\phi(1) = 1$ by convention.

Corollary:
$$\phi(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k) = \phi(p_1, \dots, \phi(p_k)) \cdot \dots \cdot \phi(p_k)$$

Now, it is remained to compute & (pk).

$$(u, p^k) = 1 \iff (u, p) = 1$$
, i.e. $p \nmid u$.

$$\{u: | \leq u \leq p^{k}-1 \text{ and } (u, p^{k})=1\}$$

$$= \{u: | \leq u \leq p^{k-1} \text{ and } p \neq u\}$$

$$= \{ u: 1 \le u \le p^{k-1} \} - \{ p, 2p, 3p, ..., (p^{k-1}) \cdot p \}$$

Theorem: p prime, k > 1. Then,

$$\emptyset(\rho^{k}) = \rho^{k} - \rho^{k-1} = \rho^{k-1}(\rho^{-1}) = \rho^{k} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{\rho}\right)$$

Theorem:
$$n = p_1 \quad p_2 \quad \cdots \quad p_k$$
. Then
$$\phi(n) = \prod_{i=1}^{k} (p_i^{\alpha_i} - p_i^{\alpha_{i-1}})$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{k} p_i^{\alpha_{i-1}} (p_i^{-1})$$

• Compute
$$\phi(42)$$
, $\phi(48)$, $\phi(60)$

$$\phi(42) = \phi(2 \cdot 3 \cdot 7)$$

$$= 42 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{6}{7}$$

$$= 12$$

$$\phi(48) = \phi(2^{4} \cdot 3)$$

$$= 48 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3}$$

$$= 16$$

$$\phi(66) = \phi(2^{2} \cdot 3^{1} \cdot 5^{1})$$

$$= 2^{2-1}(2-1) \cdot 3^{1-1}(3-1) \cdot 5^{1-1}(5-1)$$

$$= 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 4$$

$$= 16$$

• Last two digits of $3^{2001} = ?$

$$\phi(100) = 100 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{4}{5} = 40$$

$$\Rightarrow 3 = (3^{40})^{50} \cdot 3 = 1^{50} \cdot 3 = 3 \pmod{100}$$

- Prove $a^{12} \equiv 1 \pmod{42}$ for (a, 42) = 1. $\phi(42) = 12 \Rightarrow a^{12} \equiv 1 \pmod{42}$
- · Similarly,

$$a^{16} \equiv 1 \pmod{48}$$
 for $(a, 48) = 1$
 $a^{16} \equiv 1 \pmod{60}$ for $(a, 60) = 1$.

Next goal: to understand the structure of the units of \mathbb{Z}_n better.

Start with n=p prime and the following observation:

• units of
$$\mathbb{Z}_3$$
: $\{1,2\} \equiv \{2,2^2\} \pmod{3}$

• units of
$$\mathbb{Z}_5$$
: $\{1, 2, 3, 4\} = \{2, 2^2, 2^3, 2^4\} \pmod{5}$

• units of
$$\mathbb{Z}_7$$
: $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} \neq \{2, 2^2, 2^3, 2^4, 2^5, 2^6\}$
2 again

However
$$\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} = \{3, 3^2, 3^3, 3^4, 3^5, 3^6\}$$

in \mathbb{Z}_{7} .

We make the following claim:

Theorem: p prime. There exists an integer g such that $\{1,2,...,p-1\} \equiv \{g,g^2,g^3,...,g^{p-1}\}$ in \mathbb{Z}_p .

• g satisfying this condition will be called a primitive root.

We'll prove the theorem later. For now assume it is true if necessary.

Theorem: A unit u is a primitive root if and only if the smallest positive integer k satisfying $u^k \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ is k = p - 1.

root

Proof: \Rightarrow : Suppose u is a primitive, then u, u^2, \ldots, u^{p-2} must be different than u^{p-1} which is I (mod p) by Fermat. So, $u^k \not\equiv I \pmod{p}$ for $1 \le k \le p-2$ and $u^{p-1} \equiv I \pmod{p}$ by Fermat.

 \Leftarrow : Suppose the smallest pos. int. k with $u^k \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ is k = p-1.

 $u, u^2, u^3, ..., u^{p-1}$ are all distinct mod p since $u^i \equiv u^j \pmod{p} \iff u^{i-j} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ shouldn't be q = 1

Therefore, $\{u, u^2, ..., u^{p-1}\} \equiv \{1, 2, ..., p-1\} \pmod{p}$.

Definition: Let u be a unit in \mathbb{Z}_n . We call the smallest positive integer k satisfying $u^k \ge 1 \pmod{n}$

the order of u modulo n, denoted by ord n (u).

· A primitive root & is a unit of order p-1.

Theorem: g is a primitive root modulo p and k>0 is an integer. Then,

 $g^{k} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \iff p-1 \mid k$

Proof: Write k=(p-1)·n+r with 0<r<p-1

 $g \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \iff g^{(p-1) \cdot n}, g \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

because g = 1 (mod p) \Leftrightarrow g = 1 (mod p)

and r positive (=) r=0

 $\Rightarrow r \geqslant p-1. \iff k = (p-1) \cdot n$

<=> p-1 | k.

Next, we compute the orders of the units modulo p. More specifically ord $p(g^a)$ for $1 \le a \le p-1$.