

More Number Theory

From last time we know that the order of a subgroup $H \subseteq G$ divides the order of the group. We also know that for any element $a \in G$, the order of the element $\text{ord}(a)$ equals the order of the subgroup generated by a which is $\{a, a^2, \dots, a^{\text{ord}(a)} = 1\}$. Therefore

Proposition 1

The order of an element $\text{ord}(a)$ divides the order of the group G and so

$$a^{|G|} = 1$$

This follows because $\text{ord}(a) = |H|$ where H is the subgroup generated by a . Therefore

$$a^{|H|} = a^{\text{ord}(a)} = 1$$

And since $|H|$ divides $|G|$, $|G| = m|H|$ for some integer m . So

$$a^{|G|} = (a^{|H|})^m = (1)^m = 1$$

The above results are general. Even though they seem to be written for multiplication, don't forget that they apply to the group operation \cdot . So for \mathbb{Z}_p they apply to both addition and multiplication.

Let's try to figure out the order of an element in the *additive* group $(\mathbb{Z}_p, +)$. The additive identity is zero, so this is the same question as asking how many times we can add the element to itself before we generate zero (mod n), i.e. how many times can we add the element to itself before generating a multiple of n for the first time:

$$\text{ord}(a) \times a = kn$$

which is the same as asking for the LCM of a and n . We already know how to express the LCM in terms of the GCD of a and n . Doing that gives the following proposition:

Proposition 2

Let $\text{ord}(a)$ be the order of a in the additive group $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$. Then

$$\text{ord}(a) = \frac{\text{lcm}(a, n)}{a} = \frac{n}{\text{gcd}(a, n)}$$

For the multiplicative group (\mathbb{Z}_n^*, \times) , remember that the number of elements in the group is given by Euler's totient function $\phi(n)$. By proposition 1, it follows that:

Euler's Theorem For any element $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$,

$$a^{\phi(n)} = 1 \pmod{n}$$

For a prime p , recall that $\phi(p) = p - 1$. Making that substitution gives us Fermat's theorem (not the famous one):

Fermat's Theorem For a prime p and any element $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$,

$$a^{(p-1)} = 1 \pmod{p}$$

Fast Powering

You might remember the efficient algorithm for powering (from CS170). To compute a^n , you can use the following pseudo-code:

```
Algorithm FastPower(a, n)
  if (n == 0) return 1
  elseif (n == 1) return a
  else
    temp = FastPower(a, floor(n/2))
    temp = temp * temp
    if (odd(n)) temp = temp * a
  return temp
end
```

It should be fairly easy to see that the recursion depth (and the running time) is proportional to $\log n$. Arithmetic \pmod{n} also takes time that is polynomial in $\log n$. So e.g. its possible to compute

$$a^{(p-1)} \pmod{p}$$

in time which is polynomial in $\log p$.

Generators

Recall that a generator of a group G is an element whose powers comprise the entire group G . If a group has a generator, then it is said to be a **cyclic** group. One easy observation we can make is that if the order of G is a prime $p > 1$, then G is a cyclic group. Why? Because the order of every element divides the order of G . Since the order of G is p , every element has order 1 or p . In the first case it must be the identity (the only element with order 1), and in the second case its

order equals the order of the group, so it is a generator. In fact every element except the identity is a generator.

In particular, for every prime p , the additive group $(\mathbb{Z}_p, +)$ is cyclic. Its order is p , and every element except 0 generates the whole group.

For multiplicative groups, we don't get very far with the above observation. For prime p , the order of (\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \times) is $p - 1$. If p is prime and greater than 2, it must be odd, and $p - 1$ must be even. That is, the order of (\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \times) for $p > 2$ is divisible by 2. So we can't apply the above theorem. But that doesn't mean that (\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \times) is not cyclic. In fact it always is:

Theorem The multiplicative group (\mathbb{Z}_n^*, \times) is cyclic if and only if n is either:

$$1, 2, 4, p^k, \text{ or } 2p^k$$

where p is an odd prime, and k is a positive integer.

This theorem is quite complicated to prove, and we won't do that here. It is anyway not all that interesting to know that a group is cyclic (has a generator). What is interesting is if there are *lots* of generators. In fact, that is the case for cyclic groups. Once you have a generator, many powers of that generator will also be generators.

Lemma If g is a generator of (\mathbb{Z}_n^*, \times) , then so is g^k so long as $\gcd(k, \phi(n)) = 1$.

Proof

Let $h = g^k$. Then h is a generator unless there is an $m < \phi(n)$ such that

$$h^m = 1 \pmod{n}$$

Suppose such an m exists (i.e. suppose h not a generator). Then

$$(g^k)^m = g^{(km)} = 1 \pmod{n}$$

which implies that km is a multiple of $\phi(n)$, because $\phi(n)$ is the smallest power of g which is 1 \pmod{n} . Since k has no shared factors with $\phi(n)$ (their gcd is 1), that means that m must be a multiple of $\phi(n)$. But that contradicts our assumption that $m < \phi(n)$. So h as defined above must be a generator.

This lemma shows that there are at least as many generators for a cyclic group (\mathbb{Z}_n^*, \times) as there are integers k which are less than and relatively prime to $\phi(n)$. Those k values are precisely the elements of $\mathbb{Z}_{\phi(n)}^*$, and there are $\phi(\phi(n))$ of them.

To recap, if the multiplicative group (\mathbb{Z}_n^*, \times) is cyclic, then at least $\phi(\phi(n))$ of its elements are generators. The multiplicative group itself has $\phi(n)$ elements, so the fraction of elements which are generators is $\phi(\phi(n))/\phi(n)$. This is a clumsy expression. If we define $N = \phi(n)$ as the order of the group, then the fraction of generators is $\phi(N)/N$. The following lemma shows that this ratio isn't too small:

Lemma For any $N > 1$,

$$\frac{\phi(N)}{N} = \Omega\left(\frac{1}{\log N}\right)$$

Proof

From our earlier discussion, we know that if N has a prime-power factorization as $p_1^{k_1} \cdots p_t^{k_t}$, then

$$\phi(N) = N \prod_{i=1}^t \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right)$$

Since each prime factor is at least 2, the number of distinct factors t of N is at most $\log_2 N$.

Next notice that the value of the product increases with p_i . That is, if we increase p_i , then $(1 - 1/p_i)$ increases. So if we have another sequence of numbers q_1, \dots, q_t where $p_i > q_i$ for all i , then

$$\prod_{i=1}^t \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right) > \prod_{i=1}^t \left(1 - \frac{1}{q_i}\right)$$

Suppose we order the distinct primes p_i 's in increasing order $p_1 < p_2 < \cdots < p_t$. Then a suitable sequence of q_i 's would be $1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots, t$. Each q_i will be less than p_i . The product

$$\prod_{i=1}^t \left(1 - \frac{1}{q_i}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{2}{3} \frac{3}{4} \cdots \frac{t-1}{t} = \frac{1}{t} \geq \frac{1}{\log_2 N}$$

So we have shown that

$$\phi(N)/N = \prod_{i=1}^t \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right) > \prod_{i=1}^t \left(1 - \frac{1}{q_i}\right) \geq \frac{1}{\log_2 N}$$

which completes the proof.

The reason that is so interesting is that for a cyclic group like (\mathbb{Z}_p, \times) , at least $1/\log p$ of the elements will be generators (actually at least $1/\log N$ which is at least $1/\log p$ because $N = \phi(p) < p$). So if we pick elements at random, we only need to make about $O(\log p)$ guesses before we have a good chance of getting a generator. We can do quite a few interesting things with generators. For example, we can prove that p is prime even if we didn't know in advance that it is, by showing that the generator has order $p - 1$. The above results show that we can do this, and hence discover large primes, in time polynomial in $\log p$.