

# Lecture 01

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**Polynomial Division.** Let  $R$  be a non-trivial commutative ring

1. If  $f, g \in R[X]$  and  $g$  is monic and not zero then there are unique  $q, r \in R[X]$  such that  $f = gq + r$  with  $\deg(g) < \deg(r)$ .
2. If  $f \in R[X] \setminus \{0\}$  and  $a \in A$  then there is a unique  $g \in R[X]$  such that  $f = (X - a)g + f(a)$ . Thus, if  $a \in A$  is a zero of  $f$  then  $(X - a) \mid f$ .
3. If  $R$  is a domain and  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k \in A$  are distinct zeros of  $f \in R[X] \setminus \{0\}$ , then

$$\prod_{i=1}^k (X - a_i) \mid f$$

Thus,  $f$  cannot have more zeros than  $\deg(f)$

*Proof.* **1** Existence is clear. We prove uniqueness. Suppose that  $q, q', r, r' \in R[X]$  exists such that

$$f = gq' + r' = gq + r$$

If  $q - q' \neq 0$  then

$$\deg(g) + \deg(q - q') \geq \deg(g) > \deg(r - r')$$

and this contradicts  $g(q - q') = r - r'$ .

**2** We substitute  $g$  above with  $X - a$  then for  $r$  above we have  $\deg(r) < \deg(g)$  so  $r \in R$ . Substituting the indeterminate  $X$  with  $a$  in division with remainder above solves  $r = f(a)$ . The second statement is then clear.

**3** This can be proven by induction. First induction step comes from **2**. Suppose now that  $k > 1$  and  $g = \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} (X - a_i)$  with  $g \mid f$ . Because  $a_i$  are distinct for  $i = 1, \dots, k$  and because  $R$  is an integral domain, we have  $g(a_k) \neq 0$ . Also since  $g \mid f$  we have  $gq = f$  for some  $q \in A[X]$ . Because  $g(a_k) \neq 0$  and we are in a domain, we have

$$g(a_k)q(a_k) = f(a_k) = 0 \Rightarrow q(a_k) = 0$$

which by **2** implies that  $(X - a_k) \mid q$  i.e.  $q = (X - a_k)q'$  for some  $q' \in A[X]$ . □

**Exercise 1.** In the Theorem above

- Show that **3** does not hold if we remove the condition that  $R$  is a domain.
- Show that **2** does not hold if we remove the condition that  $R$  is commutative.

**Lemma 1.** Let  $G$  be a group and suppose  $g, h \in G$  with  $gh = hg$  and  $\text{ord}(g), \text{ord}(h)$  finite.

- 1) If  $\text{ord}(g)$  is coprime with  $\text{ord}(h)$  then  $\text{ord}(gh) = \text{ord}(g) \text{ord}(h)$ .
- 2) There exists a  $g' \in G$  such that  $\text{ord}(g') = \text{lcm}(\text{ord}(g), \text{ord}(h))$

*Proof.* Set  $m := \text{ord}(g), n := \text{ord}(h)$  let  $1$  be the identity element in  $G$ .

1) Set  $k := \text{ord}(gh)$ , then since  $(gh)^{mn} = 1$  we get  $k \mid mn$ . Consider now  $p \in \mathbb{P}$  such that  $p^\nu \mid m$  but  $p \nmid n$  (since  $m$  and  $n$  are coprime) for some  $\nu \in \mathbb{N}$ . We claim that  $p^\nu$  divides  $k$ . Let  $p^\mu \mid k$  for some  $\mu \in \mathbb{N}_0$ . Clearly  $\nu \geq \mu$ , suppose that  $\nu > \mu$ . Set  $l := \nu - \mu$ , then (because  $k \mid \frac{m}{p^l}n$  and  $g^n = 1$ )

$$(gh)^{\frac{m}{p^l}n} = 1 = g^{\frac{m}{p^l}n} \Rightarrow \text{ord}(g) \mid \frac{m}{p^l}n$$

i.e.  $m \mid \frac{m}{p^l}n$ , but this implies that  $p \mid n$  which is a contradiction (because  $m$  and  $n$  are coprime). Similar argument holds for primes dividing  $m$  but not  $n$ . Thus, the prime decomposition of  $k$  and  $mn$  are the same which implies its equality.

2) If we set  $k := \gcd(m, n)$  we see that  $k \mid mn$  since  $(gh)^{mn} = 1$ . Let  $k = \gcd(m, n)$  then  $\gcd(\frac{m}{k}, n) = 1$  and

$$\text{lcm}(m, n) = \text{lcm}\left(\frac{m}{k}, n\right) = \frac{m}{k}n$$

Moreover, we have  $\text{ord}(g^k) = \frac{m}{k}$  and so we can use 1) to conclude that

$$\text{ord}(g^k h) = \frac{m}{k}n = \text{lcm}(m, n)$$

□

**Proposition 2.** Let  $K$  be a field then any finite subgroup of  $K^*$  is cyclic.

*Proof.* Let  $G \leq K^*$  be a finite subgroup of the multiplicative group of  $K$ . Consider the number

$$n := \max\{k \in \mathbb{N} : g^k = 1 \text{ for some } g \in G\}$$

Then we have a  $g \in G$  such that  $\text{ord}(g) = n$  and clearly  $|G| \geq n$ . Let  $h \in G$  be chosen arbitrarily and set  $m := \text{ord}(h)$ , then by Lemma 12) there is a  $g' \in G$  such that  $\text{ord}(g') = \text{lcm}(m, n)$ . This implies that  $\text{ord}(h) \mid n$  for any  $h \in G$ . Therefore, any element  $h \in G$  is a root of the polynomial  $X^n - 1 \in K[X]$ . By Polynomial Division 3 we get  $|G| \leq n$  and thus the Proposition is proven (with  $g$  as the generator of the cyclic group  $G$ ). □

We now recall some definitions and facts in elementary number theory without providing the proof.

**Definition.**

- Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  then an element  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  is called a *quadratic residue mod  $n$*  if there is an  $x \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $x^2 = a \pmod{n}$  (i.e.  $a$  is a square mod  $n$ ).
- Let  $p \in \mathbb{P} \setminus \{2\}$  and  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  then define the *Legendre symbol (of  $a$  mod  $p$ )*

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)_L := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p \mid a \\ 1 & \text{if } p \nmid a \text{ and } a \text{ is a quadratic residue mod } p \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Let  $n \in \mathbb{P}$  and  $a \in 2\mathbb{N}_0 + 1$  and write the prime factorization  $n = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{e_i}$  for finitely many distinct  $p_i \in \mathbb{P}$  with  $e_i \in \mathbb{N}$ . We define the *Jacobi symbol (of  $a$  mod  $n$ )*

$$\left(\frac{a}{n}\right)_J := \prod_{i=1}^k \left(\frac{a}{p_i}\right)_L^{e_i}$$

The number 2 is not very interesting when studying quadratic residues. So we can henceforth just use the Jacobi symbol for odd numbers (including the primes).

**Gauss' Quadratic Reciprocity Laws.** Let  $p \in \mathbb{P} \setminus \{2\}$ ,  $m, n \in 2\mathbb{N} + 1$  and  $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$  then we have

- Multiplicative with First Argument:  $\left(\frac{ab}{n}\right)_J = \left(\frac{a}{n}\right)_J \left(\frac{b}{n}\right)_J$
- Euler's Criterion:  $a^{(p-1)/2} = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)_L \pmod{p}$
- First Supplement to QRL:

$$\left(\frac{-1}{n}\right)_J = (-1)^{(n-1)/2} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ -1 & \text{if } n \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

- Second Supplement to QRL:

$$\left(\frac{2}{n}\right)_J = (-1)^{(n^2-1)/8} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8} \\ -1 & \text{if } n \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{8} \end{cases}$$

- Multiplication of Reciprocals: If  $(m, n) = 1$  then

$$\left(\frac{m}{n}\right)_J \left(\frac{n}{m}\right)_J = (-1)^{\frac{m-1}{2} \frac{n-1}{2}}$$

**Exercise 2.** Write a computer program that takes  $a \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $n \in 2\mathbb{N} + 1$  and outputs the Jacobi symbol  $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right)_J$ . Hint: Use quadratic reciprocity laws and factorize  $a = 2^s t$  where  $t$  is odd.

**Definition.** Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $n > 1$ , then we say that  $x \in \mathbb{N}$  is a *primitive root mod  $n$*  iff  $(\mathbb{Z}/n)^*$  is cyclic and is generated by  $x \pmod{n}$ .

By the Proposition 2, the multiplicative group of the field  $(\mathbb{Z}/p)$  is a cyclic group. There is a naive algorithm to check if an element in  $1, \dots, p-1$  is a primitive root mod  $p \dots$

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**Algorithm 1:** Find the primitive root mod  $p$

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**Input:** An odd prime  $p$   
**Output:** A number  $a$  in  $2, \dots, p-1$  such that  $a$  is a primitive root mod  $p$

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1 Find all distinct primes  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k$  dividing  $p-1$ 
2 for  $a = 2, \dots, p-1$  do
3   if for all  $i = 1, \dots, k$ 
       $a^{(p-1)/p_i} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ 
      then
4     return  $a$ 
5   end
6 end
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This is based on the following Proposition which follows immediately by Lagrange's theorem.

**Proposition 3.** Let  $p$  be a prime, then an element  $a \in \{1, \dots, p-1\}$  is a primitive root mod  $p$  iff  $a^{(p-1)/q} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  for every prime divisor  $q$  of  $p-1$ .

One time consuming part in the above algorithm is the factorization of  $p-1$  which we will deal with in another lecture.

But for which  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  is  $(\mathbb{Z}/n)^*$  cyclic? The theorem below says that  $(\mathbb{Z}/p^k)^*$  is cyclic for any odd prime  $p$ .

**Theorem 4.** Suppose  $p \in \mathbb{P}$  then

1.  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  is a primitive root mod  $p$  iff  $n$  or  $n+p$  is a primitive root mod  $p^2$
2. If  $p \in \mathbb{P}$  is odd and  $k \geq 2$  then  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  is a primitive root mod  $p^k$  iff  $n$  is a primitive root mod  $p^2$

*Proof.* 1. One easily checks that if  $p = 2$  this holds. So we assume without loss of generality that  $p$  is an odd prime. One side of the proof is clear, so let us assume  $x = 1, \dots, p-1$  is a primitive root mod  $p$ . Let  $G := (\mathbb{Z}/p^2)^*$ , then we know that  $|G| = \phi(p^2) = p(p-1)$  so it suffices to find an element of  $G$  of order  $p(p-1)$ . Now the order of  $x$  modulo  $p^2$  should divide  $p(p-1)$ . Clearly  $x^p \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}$  (otherwise  $x^p = 1 \pmod{p}$  and so  $x$  cannot be a primitive root mod  $p$ ). If  $x^{p-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}$  then we are done. Otherwise, choose  $y = x + p$  and here again  $y^p \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}$  and we will prove that  $y^{p-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}$ . We then have

$$y^{p-1} = (x+p)^{p-1} = x^{p-1} + (p-1)px^{p-2} = x^{p-1} - px^{p-2} = 1 - px^{p-2} \pmod{p^2}$$

and this cannot be  $1 \pmod{p^2}$ . Thus  $y$  has order  $|G|$  which means that  $G$  is cyclic.

2. This can be proven by induction for  $k \geq 2$ . The induction hypothesis starts with  $k = 2$  which holds by 1. So let us assume that for any number smaller than some  $k \geq 2$  the result holds. Let  $x \in 1, \dots, p^2$  be primitive root mod  $p^2$  and for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we define the group  $G_n := (\mathbb{Z}/p^n)^*$ . We want to prove that  $G_{k+1}$  is cyclic and generated by  $x$ . It suffices to show that

$$x^{p^{k-1}(p-1)} \neq 1 \pmod{p^{k+1}}$$

We have the following facts:

- $x$  is a generator of  $G_k$ , so  $x^{p^{k-2}(p-1)} \neq 1 \pmod{p^k}$
- $x$  is a generator of  $G_{k-1}$ , so  $x^{p^{k-2}(p-1)} = 1 \pmod{p^{k-1}}$ . This also holds for  $k = 2$

Thus, we may write  $x^{p^{k-2}(p-1)} = 1 + ap^{k-1}$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $p \nmid a$ . We just have to apply binomial expansion to get

$$x^{p^{k-1}(p-1)} = (1 + ap^{k-1})^p = 1 + ap^k \pmod{p^{k+1}}$$

and see that this cannot be  $1 \pmod{p^{k+1}}$ . □

So it suffices to know a primitive root modulo  $p^2$  to know any primitive root modulo  $p^k$ . The difficulty then really boils down into finding primitive roots modulo a prime.

We remark (without proof) that  $(\mathbb{Z}/n)^*$  is cyclic iff  $n$  is one of the following :

- $n = 2$
- $n = 4$
- $n = p^k$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and odd prime  $p \in \mathbb{P}$
- $n = 2p^k$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and odd prime  $p \in \mathbb{P}$

We may as well state an unsolved problem in number theory ...

**Artin's Conjecture.** Let  $a \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $a$  is not a perfect square, then

$$\#\{p \in \mathbb{P} : a \text{ is a primitive root mod } p\} = \infty$$

i.e. there are infinitely many primes  $p$ , for which  $a$  is a primitive root mod  $p$ .

**Exercise 3.**

1. Prove that for an odd prime  $p$  and for  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  the multiplicative group  $(\mathbb{Z}/2p^k)^*$  is cyclic.
2. Write a program that finds the primitive root mod  $n$  if  $(\mathbb{Z}/n)^*$  is cyclic.
3. Write a method `ArtinCounts(a, x)` that takes a non-square  $a \geq 2$  and  $x \in \mathbb{N}$  and counts all prime numbers  $p \leq x$  for which  $a$  is a primitive root mod  $p$ . For a non-square  $a \in \mathbb{N}$ , plot `ArtinCounts(a, x)` with increasing  $x$  (try this for different non-square  $a$ ).