

Primitive Roots mod p

Fermat's Little Theorem tells us that $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ if p is prime $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Let us look at some examples

$p = 5$	$p = 7$		$p = 13$		$p = 23$		
$a = 2$	$a = 2$	$a = 3$	$a = 2$	$a = 3$	$a = 2$	$a = 3$	$a = 5$
$2^0 \equiv 1$	$2^0 \equiv 1$	$3^0 \equiv 1$	$2^0 \equiv 1$	$3^0 \equiv 1$	$2^0 \equiv 1$	$3^0 \equiv 1$	$5^0 \equiv 1$
$2^1 \equiv 2$	$2^1 \equiv 2$	$3^1 \equiv 3$	$2^1 \equiv 2$	$3^1 \equiv 3$	$2^1 \equiv 2$	$3^1 \equiv 3$	$5^1 \equiv 5$
$2^2 \equiv 4$	$2^2 \equiv 4$	$3^2 \equiv 2$	$2^2 \equiv 4$	$3^2 \equiv 9$	$2^2 \equiv 4$	$3^2 \equiv 9$	$5^2 \equiv 2$
$2^3 \equiv 3$	$2^3 \equiv 1$	$3^3 \equiv 6$	$2^3 \equiv 8$	$3^3 \equiv 1$	$2^3 \equiv 8$	$3^3 \equiv 4$	$5^3 \equiv 10$
$2^4 \equiv 1$	$2^4 \equiv 2$	$3^4 \equiv 4$	$2^4 \equiv 3$	$3^4 \equiv 3$	$2^4 \equiv 16$	$3^4 \equiv 12$	$5^4 \equiv 4$
	$2^5 \equiv 4$	$3^5 \equiv 5$	$2^5 \equiv 6$	$3^5 \equiv 9$	$2^5 \equiv 9$	$3^5 \equiv 13$	$5^5 \equiv 20$
	$2^6 \equiv 1$	$3^6 \equiv 1$	$2^6 \equiv 12$	$3^6 \equiv 1$	$2^6 \equiv 18$	$3^6 \equiv 16$	$5^6 \equiv 8$
			$2^7 \equiv 11$	$3^7 \equiv 3$	$2^7 \equiv 13$	$3^7 \equiv 2$	$5^7 \equiv 17$
			$2^8 \equiv 9$	$3^8 \equiv 9$	$2^8 \equiv 3$	$3^8 \equiv 6$	$5^8 \equiv 16$
			$2^9 \equiv 5$	$3^9 \equiv 1$	$2^9 \equiv 6$	$3^9 \equiv 18$	$5^9 \equiv 11$
			$2^{10} \equiv 10$	$3^{10} \equiv 3$	$2^{10} \equiv 12$	$3^{10} \equiv 8$	$5^{10} \equiv 9$
			$2^{11} \equiv 7$	$3^{11} \equiv 9$	$2^{11} \equiv 1$	$3^{11} \equiv 1$	$5^{11} \equiv 22$
			$2^{12} \equiv 1$	$3^{12} \equiv 1$	$2^{12} \equiv 2$	$3^{12} \equiv 3$	$5^{12} \equiv 18$
					$2^{13} \equiv 4$	$3^{13} \equiv 9$	$5^{13} \equiv 21$
					$2^{14} \equiv 8$	$3^{14} \equiv 4$	$5^{14} \equiv 13$
					$2^{15} \equiv 16$	$3^{15} \equiv 12$	$5^{15} \equiv 19$
					$2^{16} \equiv 9$	$3^{16} \equiv 13$	$5^{16} \equiv 3$
					$2^{17} \equiv 18$	$3^{17} \equiv 16$	$5^{17} \equiv 15$
					$2^{18} \equiv 13$	$3^{18} \equiv 2$	$5^{18} \equiv 6$
					$2^{19} \equiv 3$	$3^{19} \equiv 6$	$5^{19} \equiv 7$
					$2^{20} \equiv 6$	$3^{20} \equiv 18$	$5^{20} \equiv 12$
					$2^{21} \equiv 12$	$3^{21} \equiv 8$	$5^{21} \equiv 14$
					$2^{22} \equiv 1$	$3^{22} \equiv 1$	$5^{22} \equiv 1$

Some observations on the table.

- 1) In all cases, $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. We already knew this had to occur, by Fermat's Theorem.
- 2) For each prime p in the table, we can find some integer b (not divisible by p) such that $b^i \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ for $0 < i < p-1$. In other words, $p-1$ is the *smallest* positive integer j such that $b^j \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

We call b a primitive root mod p .

2 is a primitive root mod 5, and also mod 13.

3 is a primitive root mod 7.

5 is a primitive root mod 23.

It can be proven that there exists a primitive root mod p for every prime p . (However, the proof isn't easy; we shall omit it here.)

- 3) For each primitive root b in the table, $b^0, b^1, b^2, \dots, b^{p-2}$ are all distinct in Z_p , and they constituted all the nonzero elements of Z_p .

Again, this is always true, and easy to prove. We know that b has an inverse since $b \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. If

$$b^i \equiv b^k \pmod{p} \text{ for } 0 \leq i < k \leq p-2,$$

then

$$b^i (b^{-1})^i \equiv b^k (b^{-1})^i \Rightarrow b^i b^{-i} \equiv b^k b^{-i} \Rightarrow 1 \equiv b^{k-i} \pmod{p}$$

and $0 < k-i \leq k \leq p-2$, which contradicts b being primitive.

- 4) For each prime in the table, we can find nonzero integers a that are not primitive roots mod p . In each case, if k is the smallest positive integer with $a^k \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, then k divides $p-1$.

Once more, this always holds, and is easy to show. If it k does not divide $p-1$, write $p-1 = qk + r$, with $1 \leq r < k$. ($r \neq 0$ since k does not divide $p-1$.) Then

$$a^{p-1} \equiv a^{qk+r} \Rightarrow a^{p-1} \equiv (a^k)^q a^r \Rightarrow 1 \equiv 1^q a^r \Rightarrow a^r \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

which contradicts k being the *smallest* positive integer with $a^k \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

The smallest positive integer k with $a^k \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ is called the *order of a mod p* . I will write the order of a as $o(a)$. (Recall it depends on p).

We have shown that $o(a)$ divides $p-1$ for all $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Note a is a primitive root if and only if $o(a) = p-1$.

- 5) In the table, whenever b is a primitive element mod p , then every integer x with $x \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ is a power of b , i.e., $x \equiv b^k$ for some integer k .

Again, this is true in general, and follows immediately from (3).

However, given x , we have no practical way to find k , assuming p is large.

Computing k involves finding a discrete logarithm, and finding discrete logarithms with a large prime base is (as far as anyone knows) too difficult to be practical. (Much of public key cryptography would collapse if an efficient algorithm for discrete logs were discovered.)

- 6) If b is a primitive root mod p , then $o(b^k) = (p-1) / \gcd(p-1, k)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } d &= \gcd(p-1, k), \\ p-1 &= ud \\ k &= vd. \end{aligned}$$

If $(b^k)^m \equiv 1$, then $b^{km} \equiv 1$, so $(p-1) \mid km$ and $(p-1)/d \mid (k/d)m$.

Since $(p-1)/d$ and k/d are relatively prime, we conclude $(p-1)/d \mid m$. In other words, $(p-1)/\gcd(p-1, k)$ divides m . In particular, $(p-1)/\gcd(p-1, k)$ divides $o(b^k)$.

$$(b^k)^{(p-1)/d} \equiv (b^{vd})^{(p-1)/d} \equiv b^{(p-1)v} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}, \text{ so } o(b^k) \text{ divides } (p-1)/d = (p-1)/\gcd(p-1, k).$$

$$\text{So } o(b^k) = (p-1)/\gcd(p-1, k).$$

- 7) If b is any primitive root mod p , then the set of all primitive roots mod p is exactly $\{b^k \mid \gcd(p-1, k) = 1\}$. The number of primitive roots mod p is $\phi(p-1)$.

For example, consider the case $p = 13$ in the table.

$$\phi(p-1) = \phi(12) = \phi(2^2 \cdot 3) = 12(1-1/2)(1-1/3) = 4.$$

If b is a primitive root mod 13, then the complete set of primitive roots is $\{b^1, b^5, b^7, b^{11}\}$. We see from the table that 2 is a primitive root mod 13. The complete set of primitive roots mod 13 is $\{2^1, 2^5, 2^7, 2^{11}\} = \{2, 6, 11, 7\}$.