

**Example 112.** Show that 561 is an absolute pseudoprime.

**Solution.** We need to show that  $a^{560} \equiv 1 \pmod{561}$  for all invertible residues modulo 561.

Since  $561 = 3 \cdot 11 \cdot 17$ ,  $a^{560} \equiv 1 \pmod{561}$  is equivalent to  $a^{560} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  for all of  $p = 3, 11, 17$ .

By Fermat's little theorem, we have  $a^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ ,  $a^{10} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$ ,  $a^{16} \equiv 1 \pmod{17}$ . Since 2, 10, 16 all divide 560, it follows that indeed  $a^{560} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  for  $p = 3, 11, 17$ .

**Comment.** Korselt's criterion (1899) states that what we just observed in fact characterizes absolute pseudoprimes. Namely, a composite number  $n$  is an absolute pseudoprime if and only if  $n$  is square-free, and for all primes  $p$  dividing  $n$ , we also have  $p - 1 | n - 1$ .

**Theorem 113. (Korselt's Criterion)** Let  $n$  be positive and composite. Then  $a^n \equiv a \pmod{n}$  holds for any integer  $a$  if and only if  $n$  is squarefree and  $(p - 1) | (n - 1)$  for any prime divisor  $p$  of  $n$ .

[if and only if  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  holds for any integer  $a$  with  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ ]

**Proof.** Here, we will only the "if" part (the "only if" part is also not hard to show but the typical proof requires a little more insight into primitive roots than we currently have). In other words, assume that  $n$  is **squarefree** and  $(p - 1) | (n - 1)$  for any prime divisor  $p$  of  $n$ . Let  $a$  be any integer. We will show that  $a^n \equiv a \pmod{n}$ .

$n$  being squarefree means that its prime factorization is of the form  $n = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdots p_d$  for distinct primes  $p_i$  (this is equivalent to saying that there is no integer  $m > 1$  such that  $m^2 | n$ ). By Fermat's little theorem  $a^{p_i-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p_i}$  and, since  $(p_i - 1) | (n - 1)$ ,  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p_i}$ . But, wait! This is only true if  $\gcd(a, p_i) = 1$ , that is,  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p_i}$ . However, in either case (that is, for all  $a$ ), we get  $a^n \equiv a \pmod{p_i}$ .

It then follows by the Chinese remainder theorem that  $a^n \equiv a \pmod{n}$ . □

## 15 Multiplicative order and primitive roots

**Example 114. (warmup)** Compute the powers of 2 modulo 11.

**Solution.**  $2^0 = 1, 2^1 = 2, 2^2 = 4, 2^3 = 8, 2^4 \equiv 5, 2^5 \equiv 2 \cdot 5 = 10, 2^6 \equiv 2 \cdot 10 \equiv 9, 2^7 \equiv 2 \cdot 9 \equiv 7, 2^8 \equiv 2 \cdot 7 \equiv 3, 2^9 \equiv 2 \cdot 3 = 6, 2^{10} \equiv 2 \cdot 6 \equiv 1$ , and now the numbers we get will repeat...

**Note.** By **Fermat's little theorem**, it was clear from the beginning that  $2^{10} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$ . Our computation shows that  $k = 10$  is the smallest exponent such that  $2^k \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$ . We therefore say that 2 has **multiplicative order** 10 modulo 11.

Also notice that the values  $2^0, 2^1, \dots, 2^9$ , together with 0, form a complete set of residues modulo 11. For that reason, we say that 2 is a **primitive root** modulo 11.

**Definition 115.** The **multiplicative order** of an invertible residue  $a$  modulo  $n$  is the smallest positive integer  $k$  such that  $a^k \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ .

**Definition 116.** If the multiplicative order of an residue  $a$  modulo  $n$  equals  $\phi(n)$  [in other words, the order is as large as possible], then  $a$  is said to be **primitive root** modulo  $n$ .

A primitive root is also referred to as a **multiplicative generator** (because the products of  $a$ , that is,  $1, a, a^2, a^3, \dots$ , produce all  $[\phi(n)]$  many invertible residues).

**Example 117.** Compute the multiplicative order of 2 modulo 7, 11, 9, 15. In each case, is 2 a primitive root?

**Solution.**

- 2 (mod 7):  $2^2 \equiv 4, 2^3 \equiv 1$ . Hence, the order of 2 modulo 7 is 3.  
Since the order is less than  $\phi(7) = 6$ , 2 is not a primitive root modulo 7.
- 2 (mod 11): Since  $\phi(11) = 10$ , the only possible orders are 2, 5, 10. Hence, checking that  $2^2 \not\equiv 1$  and  $2^5 \not\equiv 1$  is enough to conclude that the order must be 10.  
Since the order is equal to  $\phi(11) = 10$ , 2 is a primitive root modulo 11.
- 2 (mod 9): Since  $\phi(9) = 6$ , the only possible orders are 2, 3, 6. Hence, checking that  $2^2 \not\equiv 1$  and  $2^3 \not\equiv 1$  is enough to conclude that the order must be 6. (Indeed,  $2^2 \equiv 4, 2^3 \equiv 8, 2^4 \equiv 7, 2^5 \equiv 5, 2^6 \equiv 1$ .)  
Since the order is equal to  $\phi(9) = 6$ , 2 is a primitive root modulo 9.
- The order of 2 (mod 15) is 4 (a divisor of  $\phi(15) = 8$ ).  
2 is not a primitive root modulo 15. In fact, there is no primitive root modulo 15.

**Comment.** It is an open conjecture to show that 2 is a primitive root modulo infinitely many primes. (This is a special case of Artin's conjecture which predicts much more.)

**Advanced comment.** There exists a primitive root modulo  $n$  if and only if  $n$  is of one of  $1, 2, 4, p^k, 2p^k$  for some odd prime  $p$ .