



# Fermat's Little Theorem

## Lecture 7

Justin Stevens

# Outline

- 1 Primes
  - Fermat's Little Theorem Review
  - Pseudoprimes
  - Wilson's Theorem

## Statement

**Theorem.** If  $p$  is prime and  $a$  is an integer with  $p \nmid a$ , then

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

**Theorem.** If  $p$  is prime and  $a$  is an integer with  $p \nmid a$ , then

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Alternatively, for every integer  $a$ ,  $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$ .

## Challenge Problems

**Example 1.** (IMO 2005) Determine all positive integers relatively prime to all the terms of the infinite sequence  $2^n + 3^n + 6^n - 1$ ,  $n \geq 1$

**Example 2.** (NIMO) Let  $p = 2017$  be a prime. Find the remainder when

$$\left\lfloor \frac{1^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{2^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{3^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \cdots + \left\lfloor \frac{2015^p}{p} \right\rfloor$$

is divided by  $p$ . Here  $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$  denotes the greatest integer function.

# IMO Problem

**Example.** (IMO 2005) Determine all positive integers relatively prime to all the terms of the infinite sequence  $2^n + 3^n + 6^n - 1, n \geq 1$

## IMO Problem

**Example.** (IMO 2005) Determine all positive integers relatively prime to all the terms of the infinite sequence  $2^n + 3^n + 6^n - 1, n \geq 1$

*Solution.* I claim the answer is 1, therefore, every prime  $p$  divides a term in the sequence.

## IMO Problem

**Example.** (IMO 2005) Determine all positive integers relatively prime to all the terms of the infinite sequence  $2^n + 3^n + 6^n - 1, n \geq 1$

*Solution.* I claim the answer is 1, therefore, every prime  $p$  divides a term in the sequence. For  $p = 2$ ,  $n = 1$  works and for  $p = 3$ ,  $n = 2$  works. By Fermat's Little Theorem for  $n = p - 2$ ,



## IMO Problem

**Example.** (IMO 2005) Determine all positive integers relatively prime to all the terms of the infinite sequence  $2^n + 3^n + 6^n - 1, n \geq 1$

*Solution.* I claim the answer is 1, therefore, every prime  $p$  divides a term in the sequence. For  $p = 2$ ,  $n = 1$  works and for  $p = 3$ ,  $n = 2$  works. By Fermat's Little Theorem for  $n = p - 2$ ,

$$6 \left( 2^{p-2} + 3^{p-2} + 6^{p-2} - 1 \right) \equiv 3 \cdot 2^{p-1} + 2 \cdot 3^{p-1} + 6^{p-1} - 6$$

# IMO Problem

**Example.** (IMO 2005) Determine all positive integers relatively prime to all the terms of the infinite sequence  $2^n + 3^n + 6^n - 1, n \geq 1$

*Solution.* I claim the answer is 1, therefore, every prime  $p$  divides a term in the sequence. For  $p = 2$ ,  $n = 1$  works and for  $p = 3$ ,  $n = 2$  works. By Fermat's Little Theorem for  $n = p - 2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}6 \left( 2^{p-2} + 3^{p-2} + 6^{p-2} - 1 \right) &\equiv 3 \cdot 2^{p-1} + 2 \cdot 3^{p-1} + 6^{p-1} - 6 \\ &\equiv 3 + 2 + 1 - 6\end{aligned}$$

# IMO Problem

**Example.** (IMO 2005) Determine all positive integers relatively prime to all the terms of the infinite sequence  $2^n + 3^n + 6^n - 1, n \geq 1$

*Solution.* I claim the answer is 1, therefore, every prime  $p$  divides a term in the sequence. For  $p = 2$ ,  $n = 1$  works and for  $p = 3$ ,  $n = 2$  works. By Fermat's Little Theorem for  $n = p - 2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}6 \left( 2^{p-2} + 3^{p-2} + 6^{p-2} - 1 \right) &\equiv 3 \cdot 2^{p-1} + 2 \cdot 3^{p-1} + 6^{p-1} - 6 \\ &\equiv 3 + 2 + 1 - 6 \\ &\equiv 0 \pmod{p}.\end{aligned}$$

# IMO Problem

**Example.** (IMO 2005) Determine all positive integers relatively prime to all the terms of the infinite sequence  $2^n + 3^n + 6^n - 1, n \geq 1$

*Solution.* I claim the answer is 1, therefore, every prime  $p$  divides a term in the sequence. For  $p = 2$ ,  $n = 1$  works and for  $p = 3$ ,  $n = 2$  works. By Fermat's Little Theorem for  $n = p - 2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}6 \left( 2^{p-2} + 3^{p-2} + 6^{p-2} - 1 \right) &\equiv 3 \cdot 2^{p-1} + 2 \cdot 3^{p-1} + 6^{p-1} - 6 \\ &\equiv 3 + 2 + 1 - 6 \\ &\equiv 0 \pmod{p}.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, for  $p \neq 2, 3$ , when  $n = p - 2$ , we have  $p \mid 2^n + 3^n + 6^n - 1$ .

## NIMO Sum

**Example.** (NIMO) Let  $p = 2017$  be a prime. Find the remainder when

$$\left\lfloor \frac{1^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{2^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{3^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \cdots + \left\lfloor \frac{2015^p}{p} \right\rfloor$$

is divided by  $p$ . Here  $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$  denotes the greatest integer function.

*Solution.* By FLT,  $n^p \equiv n \pmod{p}$ , so  $\lfloor \frac{n^p}{p} \rfloor = \frac{n^p - n}{p}$  and the sum is

# NIMO Sum

**Example.** (NIMO) Let  $p = 2017$  be a prime. Find the remainder when

$$\left\lfloor \frac{1^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{2^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{3^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \cdots + \left\lfloor \frac{2015^p}{p} \right\rfloor$$

is divided by  $p$ . Here  $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$  denotes the greatest integer function.

*Solution.* By FLT,  $n^p \equiv n \pmod{p}$ , so  $\lfloor \frac{n^p}{p} \rfloor = \frac{n^p - n}{p}$  and the sum is

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-2} \frac{k^p - k}{p} = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{k=1}^{p-2} (k^p - k).$$

# NIMO Sum

**Example.** (NIMO) Let  $p = 2017$  be a prime. Find the remainder when

$$\left\lfloor \frac{1^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{2^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{3^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \cdots + \left\lfloor \frac{2015^p}{p} \right\rfloor$$

is divided by  $p$ . Here  $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$  denotes the greatest integer function.

*Solution.* By FLT,  $n^p \equiv n \pmod{p}$ , so  $\lfloor \frac{n^p}{p} \rfloor = \frac{n^p - n}{p}$  and the sum is

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-2} \frac{k^p - k}{p} = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{k=1}^{p-2} (k^p - k).$$

From the Binomial Theorem,  $j^p + (p-j)^p \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}$  for all  $j$ , so

# NIMO Sum

**Example.** (NIMO) Let  $p = 2017$  be a prime. Find the remainder when

$$\left\lfloor \frac{1^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{2^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{3^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \cdots + \left\lfloor \frac{2015^p}{p} \right\rfloor$$

is divided by  $p$ . Here  $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$  denotes the greatest integer function.

*Solution.* By FLT,  $n^p \equiv n \pmod{p}$ , so  $\lfloor \frac{n^p}{p} \rfloor = \frac{n^p - n}{p}$  and the sum is

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-2} \frac{k^p - k}{p} = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{k=1}^{p-2} (k^p - k).$$

From the Binomial Theorem,  $j^p + (p-j)^p \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}$  for all  $j$ , so

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-2} (k^p - k) \equiv 1^p - \sum_{k=1}^{p-2} k \equiv 1 - \frac{(p-2)(p-1)}{2} \equiv \frac{p(3-p)}{2} \pmod{p^2}.$$



# NIMO Sum

**Example.** (NIMO) Let  $p = 2017$  be a prime. Find the remainder when

$$\left\lfloor \frac{1^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{2^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{3^p}{p} \right\rfloor + \cdots + \left\lfloor \frac{2015^p}{p} \right\rfloor$$

is divided by  $p$ . Here  $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$  denotes the greatest integer function.

*Solution.* By FLT,  $n^p \equiv n \pmod{p}$ , so  $\lfloor \frac{n^p}{p} \rfloor = \frac{n^p - n}{p}$  and the sum is

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-2} \frac{k^p - k}{p} = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{k=1}^{p-2} (k^p - k).$$

From the Binomial Theorem,  $j^p + (p-j)^p \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}$  for all  $j$ , so

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-2} (k^p - k) \equiv 1^p - \sum_{k=1}^{p-2} k \equiv 1 - \frac{(p-2)(p-1)}{2} \equiv \frac{p(3-p)}{2} \pmod{p^2}.$$

Substituting  $p = 2017$ ,  $\frac{3-p}{2} \equiv \frac{-2014}{2} \equiv -1007 \equiv \boxed{1010} \pmod{p}$ .

# Pseudoprimes

Over 25 centuries ago, Chinese mathematicians believed  $n$  is prime iff  $2^n \equiv 2 \pmod{n}$ . The counterexample  $n = 341$  was discovered in 1819.

# Pseudoprimes

Over 25 centuries ago, Chinese mathematicians believed  $n$  is prime iff  $2^n \equiv 2 \pmod{n}$ . The counterexample  $n = 341$  was discovered in 1819.

**Fermat's primality test** says to pick a number  $a$  with  $1 < a < p - 1$ . If  $a^{n-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , then we can conclude that  $a$  is composite. However, if the congruence holds, then we assign a high probability to  $n$  being prime.

# Pseudoprimes

Over 25 centuries ago, Chinese mathematicians believed  $n$  is prime iff  $2^n \equiv 2 \pmod{n}$ . The counterexample  $n = 341$  was discovered in 1819.

**Fermat's primality test** says to pick a number  $a$  with  $1 < a < p - 1$ . If  $a^{n-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , then we can conclude that  $a$  is composite. However, if the congruence holds, then we assign a high probability to  $n$  being prime.

Composite  $n$  with  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  are called **pseudoprimes** to base  $a$ .

# Pseudoprimes

Over 25 centuries ago, Chinese mathematicians believed  $n$  is prime iff  $2^n \equiv 2 \pmod{n}$ . The counterexample  $n = 341$  was discovered in 1819.

**Fermat's primality test** says to pick a number  $a$  with  $1 < a < p - 1$ . If  $a^{n-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , then we can conclude that  $a$  is composite. However, if the congruence holds, then we assign a high probability to  $n$  being prime.

Composite  $n$  with  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  are called **pseudoprimes** to base  $a$ .

**Example.** Prove that if  $n$  is a base-2 pseudoprime, then  $M_n = 2^n - 1$  is a larger one.

# Mersenne Pseudoprimes

Composite  $n$  with  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  are called **pseudoprimes** to base  $a$ .

**Example.** If  $n$  is a base-2 pseudoprime, then  $M_n = 2^n - 1$  is a larger one.

# Mersenne Pseudoprimes

Composite  $n$  with  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  are called **pseudoprimes** to base  $a$ .

**Example.** If  $n$  is a base-2 pseudoprime, then  $M_n = 2^n - 1$  is a larger one.

Proof.

Since  $n$  is a base-2 pseudoprime,  $2^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , so  $2^n \equiv 2 \pmod{n}$ .

# Mersenne Pseudoprimes

Composite  $n$  with  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  are called **pseudoprimes** to base  $a$ .

**Example.** If  $n$  is a base-2 pseudoprime, then  $M_n = 2^n - 1$  is a larger one.

Proof.

Since  $n$  is a base-2 pseudoprime,  $2^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , so  $2^n \equiv 2 \pmod{n}$ .  
Therefore, there exists an integer  $k$  with  $2^n - 2 = kn$ .



# Mersenne Pseudoprimes

Composite  $n$  with  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  are called **pseudoprimes** to base  $a$ .

**Example.** If  $n$  is a base-2 pseudoprime, then  $M_n = 2^n - 1$  is a larger one.

Proof.

Since  $n$  is a base-2 pseudoprime,  $2^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , so  $2^n \equiv 2 \pmod{n}$ . Therefore, there exists an integer  $k$  with  $2^n - 2 = kn$ . Substituting, we have

# Mersenne Pseudoprimes

Composite  $n$  with  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  are called **pseudoprimes** to base  $a$ .

**Example.** If  $n$  is a base-2 pseudoprime, then  $M_n = 2^n - 1$  is a larger one.

## Proof.

Since  $n$  is a base-2 pseudoprime,  $2^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , so  $2^n \equiv 2 \pmod{n}$ . Therefore, there exists an integer  $k$  with  $2^n - 2 = kn$ . Substituting, we have

$$\begin{aligned} 2^{M_n-1} - 1 &= 2^{kn} - 1 \\ &= (2^n - 1) (2^{n(k-1)} + 2^{n(k-2)} + \dots + 2^n + 1) \\ &\equiv 0 \pmod{M_n}. \end{aligned}$$

# Mersenne Pseudoprimes

Composite  $n$  with  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  are called **pseudoprimes** to base  $a$ .

**Example.** If  $n$  is a base-2 pseudoprime, then  $M_n = 2^n - 1$  is a larger one.

## Proof.

Since  $n$  is a base-2 pseudoprime,  $2^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , so  $2^n \equiv 2 \pmod{n}$ . Therefore, there exists an integer  $k$  with  $2^n - 2 = kn$ . Substituting, we have

$$\begin{aligned} 2^{M_n-1} - 1 &= 2^{kn} - 1 \\ &= (2^n - 1) (2^{n(k-1)} + 2^{n(k-2)} + \dots + 2^n + 1) \\ &\equiv 0 \pmod{M_n}. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $n$  is composite,  $M_n$  is composite and the conclusion follows.  $\square$

# Carmichael Numbers

A **Carmichael number** is an integer  $n$  that is a pseudoprime for every coprime base  $a$ . In other words,  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  for every  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ .

**Example.** Prove that 561 is a Carmichael number.

*Proof.* Factoring shows  $561 = 3 \cdot 11 \cdot 17$ . Therefore, for every  $a$  coprime to 3, 11, and 17, using Fermat's Little Theorem,

# Carmichael Numbers

A **Carmichael number** is an integer  $n$  that is a pseudoprime for every coprime base  $a$ . In other words,  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  for every  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ .

**Example.** Prove that 561 is a Carmichael number.

*Proof.* Factoring shows  $561 = 3 \cdot 11 \cdot 17$ . Therefore, for every  $a$  coprime to 3, 11, and 17, using Fermat's Little Theorem,

$$a^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \quad a^{10} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}, \quad a^{16} \equiv 1 \pmod{17}.$$

# Carmichael Numbers

A **Carmichael number** is an integer  $n$  that is a pseudoprime for every coprime base  $a$ . In other words,  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  for every  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ .

**Example.** Prove that 561 is a Carmichael number.

*Proof.* Factoring shows  $561 = 3 \cdot 11 \cdot 17$ . Therefore, for every  $a$  coprime to 3, 11, and 17, using Fermat's Little Theorem,

$$a^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \quad a^{10} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}, \quad a^{16} \equiv 1 \pmod{17}.$$

Using these congruences, we see that

$$a^{560} \equiv (a^2)^{280} \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

# Carmichael Numbers

A **Carmichael number** is an integer  $n$  that is a pseudoprime for every coprime base  $a$ . In other words,  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  for every  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ .

**Example.** Prove that 561 is a Carmichael number.

*Proof.* Factoring shows  $561 = 3 \cdot 11 \cdot 17$ . Therefore, for every  $a$  coprime to 3, 11, and 17, using Fermat's Little Theorem,

$$a^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \quad a^{10} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}, \quad a^{16} \equiv 1 \pmod{17}.$$

Using these congruences, we see that

$$a^{560} \equiv (a^2)^{280} \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

$$a^{560} \equiv (a^{10})^{56} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$$

# Carmichael Numbers

A **Carmichael number** is an integer  $n$  that is a pseudoprime for every coprime base  $a$ . In other words,  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  for every  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ .

**Example.** Prove that 561 is a Carmichael number.

*Proof.* Factoring shows  $561 = 3 \cdot 11 \cdot 17$ . Therefore, for every  $a$  coprime to 3, 11, and 17, using Fermat's Little Theorem,

$$a^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \quad a^{10} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}, \quad a^{16} \equiv 1 \pmod{17}.$$

Using these congruences, we see that

$$a^{560} \equiv (a^2)^{280} \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

$$a^{560} \equiv (a^{10})^{56} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$$

$$a^{560} \equiv (a^{16})^{35} \equiv 1 \pmod{17}.$$



## Carmichael Numbers

A **Carmichael number** is an integer  $n$  that is a pseudoprime for every coprime base  $a$ . In other words,  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  for every  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ .

**Example.** Prove that 561 is a Carmichael number.

*Proof.* Factoring shows  $561 = 3 \cdot 11 \cdot 17$ . Therefore, for every  $a$  coprime to 3, 11, and 17, using Fermat's Little Theorem,

$$a^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \quad a^{10} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}, \quad a^{16} \equiv 1 \pmod{17}.$$

Using these congruences, we see that

$$a^{560} \equiv (a^2)^{280} \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

$$a^{560} \equiv (a^{10})^{56} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$$

$$a^{560} \equiv (a^{16})^{35} \equiv 1 \pmod{17}.$$

Therefore  $a^{560} \equiv 1 \pmod{561}$  for all  $a$  relatively prime to 561.

# Korselt's Criterion

The previous example establishes the intuition for the below theorem.

**Theorem.** (Korselt's Criterion) A number  $n$  is Carmichael if and only if  $n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_r$ , where the  $p_i$  are distinct primes and  $p_i - 1 \mid n - 1$  for every  $1 \leq i \leq r$ .

# Wilson's Theorem

**Theorem.** (Wilson)  $(p - 1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  for all odd primes  $p$ .

# Wilson's Theorem

**Theorem.** (Wilson)  $(p - 1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  for all odd primes  $p$ .

*Solution.* When  $p = 7$ ,  $6! = 720 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}$ . Alternatively,

$$6! = 1 \cdot (2 \cdot 4) (3 \cdot 5) \cdot 6 \equiv 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 6 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}.$$

# Wilson's Theorem

**Theorem.** (Wilson)  $(p - 1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  for all odd primes  $p$ .

*Solution.* When  $p = 7$ ,  $6! = 720 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}$ . Alternatively,

$$6! = 1 \cdot (2 \cdot 4)(3 \cdot 5) \cdot 6 \equiv 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 6 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}.$$

We find groups of terms that multiply to 1 mod  $p$ . Observe that

$$x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \iff (x - 1)(x + 1) \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \iff x \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{p}.$$

# Wilson's Theorem

**Theorem.** (Wilson)  $(p - 1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  for all odd primes  $p$ .

*Solution.* When  $p = 7$ ,  $6! = 720 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}$ . Alternatively,

$$6! = 1 \cdot (2 \cdot 4)(3 \cdot 5) \cdot 6 \equiv 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 6 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}.$$

We find groups of terms that multiply to  $1 \pmod{p}$ . Observe that

$$x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \iff (x - 1)(x + 1) \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \iff x \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Since  $p$  is odd, this implies we can pair the inverses off into  $(p - 3)/2$  pairs, say  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3), \dots, (x_{(p-3)/2}, y_{(p-3)/2})$ . Therefore,

# Wilson's Theorem

**Theorem.** (Wilson)  $(p - 1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  for all odd primes  $p$ .

*Solution.* When  $p = 7$ ,  $6! = 720 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}$ . Alternatively,

$$6! = 1 \cdot (2 \cdot 4)(3 \cdot 5) \cdot 6 \equiv 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 6 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}.$$

We find groups of terms that multiply to  $1 \pmod{p}$ . Observe that

$$x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \iff (x - 1)(x + 1) \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \iff x \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Since  $p$  is odd, this implies we can pair the inverses off into  $(p - 3)/2$  pairs, say  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3), \dots, (x_{(p-3)/2}, y_{(p-3)/2})$ . Therefore,

$$(p - 1)! \equiv 1 \cdot (x_1 y_1)(x_2 y_2) \cdots [x_{(p-3)/2} y_{(p-3)/2}] \cdot (p - 1) \pmod{p}$$



# Wilson's Theorem

**Theorem.** (Wilson)  $(p - 1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  for all odd primes  $p$ .

*Solution.* When  $p = 7$ ,  $6! = 720 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}$ . Alternatively,

$$6! = 1 \cdot (2 \cdot 4)(3 \cdot 5) \cdot 6 \equiv 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 6 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}.$$

We find groups of terms that multiply to  $1 \pmod{p}$ . Observe that

$$x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \iff (x - 1)(x + 1) \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \iff x \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Since  $p$  is odd, this implies we can pair the inverses off into  $(p - 3)/2$  pairs, say  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3), \dots, (x_{(p-3)/2}, y_{(p-3)/2})$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}(p - 1)! &\equiv 1 \cdot (x_1 y_1)(x_2 y_2) \cdots [x_{(p-3)/2} y_{(p-3)/2}] \cdot (p - 1) \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \cdots 1 \cdot (p - 1) \pmod{p}\end{aligned}$$





# Wilson's Theorem

**Theorem.** (Wilson)  $(p - 1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  for all odd primes  $p$ .

*Solution.* When  $p = 7$ ,  $6! = 720 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}$ . Alternatively,

$$6! = 1 \cdot (2 \cdot 4)(3 \cdot 5) \cdot 6 \equiv 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 6 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}.$$

We find groups of terms that multiply to  $1 \pmod{p}$ . Observe that

$$x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \iff (x - 1)(x + 1) \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \iff x \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Since  $p$  is odd, this implies we can pair the inverses off into  $(p - 3)/2$  pairs, say  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3), \dots, (x_{(p-3)/2}, y_{(p-3)/2})$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}(p - 1)! &\equiv 1 \cdot (x_1 y_1)(x_2 y_2) \cdots [x_{(p-3)/2} y_{(p-3)/2}] \cdot (p - 1) \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \cdots 1 \cdot (p - 1) \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv -1 \pmod{p}.\end{aligned}$$



# Quadratic Residue

**Theorem.** For an odd prime  $p$ ,  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  iff  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

*Proof.* If  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ , then raising this to the power of  $(p-1)/2$ :

# Quadratic Residue

**Theorem.** For an odd prime  $p$ ,  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  iff  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

*Proof.* If  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ , then raising this to the power of  $(p-1)/2$ :

$$\left(x^2\right)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \implies x^{p-1} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}.$$

# Quadratic Residue

**Theorem.** For an odd prime  $p$ ,  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  iff  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

*Proof.* If  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ , then raising this to the power of  $(p-1)/2$ :

$$\left(x^2\right)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \implies x^{p-1} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}.$$

By Fermat's Little Theorem the LHS is 1, therefore  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

# Quadratic Residue

**Theorem.** For an odd prime  $p$ ,  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  iff  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

*Proof.* If  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ , then raising this to the power of  $(p-1)/2$ :

$$\left(x^2\right)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \implies x^{p-1} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}.$$

By Fermat's Little Theorem the LHS is 1, therefore  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

By Wilson's Theorem,  $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ . Furthermore,

# Quadratic Residue

**Theorem.** For an odd prime  $p$ ,  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  iff  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

*Proof.* If  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ , then raising this to the power of  $(p-1)/2$ :

$$\left(x^2\right)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \implies x^{p-1} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}.$$

By Fermat's Little Theorem the LHS is 1, therefore  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

By Wilson's Theorem,  $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ . Furthermore,

$$(p-1)! = [1 \cdot (p-1)] [2 \cdot (p-2)] \cdots [(p-1)/2 \cdot (p+1)/2]$$

# Quadratic Residue

**Theorem.** For an odd prime  $p$ ,  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  iff  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

*Proof.* If  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ , then raising this to the power of  $(p-1)/2$ :

$$(x^2)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \implies x^{p-1} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}.$$

By Fermat's Little Theorem the LHS is 1, therefore  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

By Wilson's Theorem,  $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ . Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned} (p-1)! &= [1 \cdot (p-1)] [2 \cdot (p-2)] \cdots [(p-1)/2 \cdot (p+1)/2] \\ &\equiv (1 \cdot -1) (2 \cdot -2) \cdots [(p-1)/2 \cdot (-(p-1)/2)] \pmod{p} \end{aligned}$$

# Quadratic Residue

**Theorem.** For an odd prime  $p$ ,  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  iff  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

*Proof.* If  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ , then raising this to the power of  $(p-1)/2$ :

$$\left(x^2\right)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \implies x^{p-1} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}.$$

By Fermat's Little Theorem the LHS is 1, therefore  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

By Wilson's Theorem,  $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ . Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned} (p-1)! &= [1 \cdot (p-1)] [2 \cdot (p-2)] \cdots [(p-1)/2 \cdot (p+1)/2] \\ &\equiv (1 \cdot -1) (2 \cdot -2) \cdots [(p-1)/2 \cdot (-(p-1)/2)] \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \left[ \left( \frac{p-1}{2} \right)! \right]^2 \pmod{p} \end{aligned}$$



# Quadratic Residue

**Theorem.** For an odd prime  $p$ ,  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  iff  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

*Proof.* If  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ , then raising this to the power of  $(p-1)/2$ :

$$\left(x^2\right)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \implies x^{p-1} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}.$$

By Fermat's Little Theorem the LHS is 1, therefore  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

By Wilson's Theorem,  $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ . Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned}(p-1)! &= [1 \cdot (p-1)] [2 \cdot (p-2)] \cdots [(p-1)/2 \cdot (p+1)/2] \\ &\equiv (1 \cdot -1) (2 \cdot -2) \cdots [(p-1)/2 \cdot (-(p-1)/2)] \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \left[ \left( \frac{p-1}{2} \right)! \right]^2 \pmod{p}\end{aligned}$$

If  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , then  $x = \left( \frac{p-1}{2} \right)!$  solves  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ .