## Elementary Number Theory

Section 6. Fermat's and Wilson's Theorems—Proofs of Theorems


## Table of contents

(1) Lemma 6.1
(2) Theorem 6.1. Fermat's Theorem
(3) Lemma 6.2
(4) Lemma 6.3
(5) Theorem 6.2. Wilson's Theorem

## Lemma 6.1

Lemma 6.1. If the greatest common divisor $(a, m)=1$, then the least residues of
(1) $a, 2 a, 3 a, \ldots,(m-1) a(\bmod m)$ are (in some order) (2) $1,2,3, \ldots, m-1$. In other words, if $(a, m)=1$, then each integer is congruent $(\bmod m)$ to exactly one of $a, 2 a, 3 a, \ldots,(m-1) a$.

Proof. Since $m$ does not divide any of $1,2,3, \ldots,(m-1)$ and $(a, m)=1$ then $m$ does not divide any of $a, 2 a, 3 a, \ldots,(m-1) a$ by the contrapositive of Corollary 1.1. That is, none of $a, 2 a, 3 a, \ldots(m-1) a$ is $0(\bmod m)$. So each of the numbers in (1) is congruent to a number in (2). ASSUME two different numbers of (1) are congruent modulo $m$, say ra $\equiv$ rs $(\bmod m)$ for $r, s \in\{1,2, \ldots, m-1\}$ and $r \neq s$.

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## Lemma 6.1 (continued)

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In other words, if $(a, m)=1$, then each integer is congruent $(\bmod m)$ to exactly one of $a, 2 a, 3, \ldots,(m-1) a$.

Proof (continued). Since $(a, n)=1$ then by Theorem 4.4 we have $r \equiv s$ $(\bmod m)$. But $r$ and $s$ are both least residues modulo $m$ and so are equal by Note 5.A. But $r=s$ is a CONTRADICTION and so the assumption that two different numbers of (1) are congruent modulo $m$ is false. Hence no two of the numbers of (1) are congruent modulo $m$ and so each has a different least residue modulo $m$. Since there are $m-1$ numbers in (1) and $m-1$ least residues in (2), then the least residences of the numbers in (1) must be precisely the numbers in (2), as claimed.

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## Theorem 6.1. Fermat's Theorem

Theorem 6.1. Fermat's Theorem. If $p$ is prime and the greatest common divisor $(a, p)=1$, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$.

Proof. Given any prime $p$, Lemma 6.1 says that is $(a, p)=1$, then the least residues of $a, 2 a, 3 a, \ldots,(m-1)$ a modulo $p$ are some permutation of $1,2,3, \ldots, p-1$. So the products are congruent

$$
a \cdot 2 a \cdot 3 a \cdots(p-1) a \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots 3 \cdots(p-1)(\bmod p),
$$

or $a^{-1}(p-1)!\equiv(p-1)!(\bmod p)$. Now $p$ and $(p-1)$ ! are relatively prime (this is where the primeness of $p$ is used), so by Theorem 4.4 we have $a^{p-1} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$, as claimed.

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## Lemma 6.2

Lemma 6.2. The congruence $x^{2} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$, where $p$ is an odd prime, has two solutions: 1 and $p-1$.

Proof. Let $r$ be a solution of $x^{2} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$. Then we have $r^{2}-1=(r+1)(r-1) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. That is, $p \mid(r+1)(r-1)$. Since $p$ is prime, by Euclid's Lemma (Lemma 2.5), either $p \mid r+1$ or $p \mid r-1$. That is, either $r+1 \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ or $r-1 \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. Hence either $r \equiv p-1$ $(\bmod p)$ or $r \equiv 1(\bmod p)$, respectively. Since $r$ is a least residue then either $r=1$ or $r=p-1$ (both of which are clearly solutions), as claimed.

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## Lemma 6.3

Lemma 6.3. Let $p$ be an odd prime and let $a^{\prime}$ by the solution of $a x \equiv 1$ $(\bmod p)$ where $a \in\{1,2, \ldots, p-1\}$. Then $a^{\prime} \equiv b^{\prime}(\bmod p)$ if and only if $a \equiv b(\bmod p)$. Furthermore, $a \equiv a^{\prime}(\bmod p)$ if and only if $a=1$ or $a=p-1$.

Proof. Suppose that $a^{\prime} \equiv b^{\prime}(\bmod p)$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
b & \equiv a a^{\prime} b(\bmod p) \text { since } a a^{\prime} \equiv 1(\bmod p) \\
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Proof (continued). Next, suppose that $a \equiv b(\bmod p)$. Then

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as claimed.
Now for the furthermore part, if either $a=1$ or $a=p-1$, then either $1 \cdot 1 \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ or $(p-1)(p-1) \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ as needed. Finally, if $a \equiv a^{\prime}(\bmod p)$, then $1 \equiv a a^{\prime} a^{2}(\bmod p)$, and from Lemma 6.2 this holds if and only if $a=1$ or $a=p-1$, as claimed.

## Lemma 6.3 (continued)

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## Theorem 6.2 Wilson's Theorem

Theorem 6.2. Wilson's Theorem. Positive integer $p$ is prime if and only if $(p-1)!\equiv-1(\bmod p)$.

Proof. By Note 6.A, the numbers $2,3, \ldots, p-2$ can be separated into $(p-3) / 2$ pairs such that each pair consists of an integer $a$ and its associated multiplicative inverse $a^{\prime}$. The product of the two integers in each pair is congruent to $1(\bmod p)$, so the product satisfies $2 \cdot 3 \cdots(p-3) \cdot(p-2) \equiv 1(\bmod p)$. Hence
$(p-1)!\equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdots(p-3) \cdot(p-2) \cdot(p-1) \equiv 1 \cdot 1 \cdot(p-1) \equiv-1(\bmod p)$,
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as claimed.

## Theorem 6.2 Wilson's Theorem (continued)

Theorem 6.2. Wilson's Theorem. Positive integer $p$ is prime if and only if $(p-1)!\equiv-1(\bmod p)$.

Proof (continued). For the converse, suppose $(n-1)!\equiv-1(\bmod n)$. ASSUME $n$ is not prime and that $n=a b$ for integers $a$ and $b$ with $b \neq n$. Since $(n-1)!\equiv-1(\bmod n)$, then $n \mid(n-1)!+1$, and since $a \mid n$ then $a \mid(n-1)!+1$. Since $a \neq n$ then $0<a \leq n-1$ and so $a$ must be one of the factors of $(n-1)$ !. But then $a \mid(n-1)$ !. But the only way we can have $a \mid(n-1)!+1$ and $a \mid(n-1)!$, is for $a=1$ (by Lemma 1.2) which implies $b=n$, a CONTRADICTION. This contradiction shows that the assumption that $n$ is not prime is false, and hence $n$ is prime as claimed.

