1 Special Congruences

1.1 Wilson's Theorem & Fermat's Little Theorem

1. Wilson's Theorem: If p is prime then

$$(p-1)! \equiv -1 \mod p$$

Proof. The case where p=2 is trivial to show, so let's look at primes $p\geq 3$. Consider the set of numbers $\{1,2,3,4,5,\cdots,p-1\}$. Suppose a is one of even number of integers

these, then $\exists b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $ab \equiv 1 \mod p$ (a multiplicative inverse). Because the equation $ax \equiv 1 \mod p$ has one solution because $\gcd(a,p)=1 \mid 1$. Note that $\gcd(a,p)=1$ because a is one of $\{1,2,3,\cdots,p-1\}$. Could we have, for some $a \in \{1,2,3,\cdots,p-1\}$ that $a^2 \equiv 1 \mod p$? Suppose $a^2 \equiv 1 \mod p$, then $p \mid a^2-1$ so $p \mid (a+1)(a-1)$, either $p \mid (a+1)$ or $p \mid (a-1)$. If $p \mid (a+1)$ then $a \equiv -1 \mod p$ or $a \equiv p-1 \mod p$. If $p \mid (a-1)$ then $a \equiv 1 \mod p$.

Ex. Suppose p = 11, the set is $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$. Then the respective pairs would be $2 \cdot 6$, $3 \cdot 4$, $5 \cdot 9$, and $7 \cdot 8$. Notice that 1 and 10 do not have a pair that results in congruence mod 11.

In general in $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1\}$ the integers all pair up such that their products are congruent 1 mod p, except for 1 and p-1. Thus,

$$(p-1)! = (1)(2)(3)\cdots(p-1) \equiv p-1 \equiv -1 \mod p$$

Ex. Find the least non-negative residue of 20! mod 23.

Note: We see 20! and think $20! \equiv -1 \mod 21$, but 21 is not prime so there is no guarantee and it does not apply anyways because we have $\mod 23$. However, $22! \equiv -1 \mod 23$

$$22! \equiv -1 \mod 23$$

 $(22)(21)(20!) \equiv -1 \mod 23$
 $(-1)(-2)(20!) \equiv -1 \mod 23$
 $(2)(20!) \equiv -1 \mod 23$
 $(2)(20!) \equiv 22 \mod 23$
 $20! \equiv 11 \mod 23$

In this case, 11 is the least non-negative residue.

2. **Fermat's Little Theorem:** Suppose p is prime and $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p \nmid a$. Then,

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$$

Ex. p = 97 and a = 10, so $10^{96} \equiv 1 \mod 97$.

Proof. Consider the set of integers $S = \{a, 2a, 3a, \dots, (p-1)a\}$ (there are p-1 integers in this set).

- First observe that none are congruent 0 mod p because if $p \mid ka$ for some $1 \leq k \leq (p-1)$. Then $p \mid k$ or $p \mid a$ but $p \nmid a$ so $p \mid k$ but $1 \leq k \leq p-1$.
- Second, no two are congruent one another $\mod p$ because if $k_1a \equiv k_2a \mod p$ for some $1 \leq k_1 \leq p-1$ and $1 \leq k_2 \leq p-1$. Then $p \mid (k_1a k_2a) = p \mid a(k_1 k_2)$, since $p \nmid a$ then $p \mid (k_1 k_2)$. But this is impossible because $1 (p-1) \leq k_1 k_2 \leq (p-1) 1$.

Thus the set S, is we take all $\mod p$, is equivalent to the set $T = \{1, 2, 3, \cdots, p-1\}$ in some order. Since, $\mod p$, all the numbers in S is congruent to all the numbers in T, we have

$$(a)(2a)(3a)\cdots((p-1)a) \equiv (1)(2)(3)\cdots(p-1) \mod p$$

$$a^{p-1}(p-1)! \equiv (p-1)! \mod p$$

$$a^{p-1}(-1) \equiv (-1) \mod p$$

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$$

Notice that we can canel all of the $1,2,3,\cdots,p-1$ without affecting the modulus because they are coprime to p.

Ex. Find the least non-negative residue of $5^{123} \mod 13$. Well $13 \nmid 5$ so $5^{12} \equiv 1 \mod 13$. Then 123 = 12(10) + 3 so

$$5^{123} = 5^{12(10)+3} = 5^{12^{10}} 5^3 \equiv (1)^{10} 5^3 \mod 13$$

 $\equiv 5^3 \mod 13$
 $\equiv 5 \cdot 25 \mod 13$
 $\equiv 5(-1) \mod 13$
 $\equiv -5 \mod 13$
 $\equiv 8 \mod 13$

So 8 is the least non-negative residue.

Corollary: From $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$ we get $a^p \equiv a \mod p$. Note that $a^p \equiv a \mod p$ even when $p \mid a$ because if $p \mid a$ then $a \equiv 0 \mod p$ and $a^p \equiv a \mod p$ is saying $0 \equiv 0 \mod p$.

- 3. Closing Notes: This is relevant to cryptography for one of two reasons.
 - Encryption (which involved big exponents) is both practical and theoretically possible based on Fermat's Little Theorem and Euler's Theorem.
 - Pseudoprime is a non-prime which "behaves like a prime". e.g. in FLiT maybe p is not prime but still when $p \nmid a$ we get $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$.