# FERMAT'S LAST THEOREM FOR REGULAR PRIMES

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# 1. Introduction

We prove Fermat's Last Theorem for regular primes and give some of the necessary background. It uses [Sam70, Mar18, Was82].

### 2. Discriminants of number fields

We recall basic facts about the discriminant.

**Lemma 2.1.** Let K be a number field,  $\alpha \in K$  and let  $\sigma_i$  be the embeddings of K into  $\mathbb{C}$ . Then

$$N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = \prod_{i} \sigma_i(\alpha)$$

*Proof.* The proof is standard.

**Lemma 2.2.** Let K be a number field,  $\alpha \in K$  and let  $\sigma_i$  be the embeddings of K into  $\mathbb{C}$ . Then

$$\operatorname{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = \sum_{i} \sigma_{i}(\alpha).$$

*Proof.* The proof is standard.

**Definition 2.3.** Let A, K be commutative rings with K and A-algebra. let  $B = \{b_1, \ldots, b_n\}$  be a set of elements in K. The discriminant of B is defined as

$$\Delta(B) = \det \begin{pmatrix} \operatorname{Tr}_{K/A}(b_1b_1) & \cdots & \operatorname{Tr}_{K/A}(b_1b_n) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \operatorname{Tr}_{K/A}(b_nb_1) & \cdots & \operatorname{Tr}_{K/A}(b_nb_n) \end{pmatrix}.$$

**Lemma 2.4.** Let L/K be an extension of fields and let  $B = \{b_1, \ldots, b_n\}$  be a K-basis of L. Then  $\Delta(B) \neq 0$ .

*Proof.* The proof is standard.

**Lemma 2.5.** Let K be a number field and B, B' bases for  $K/\mathbb{Q}$ . If P denotes the change of basis matrix, then

$$\Delta(B) = \det(P)^2 \Delta(B').$$

*Proof.* The proof is standard.

**Lemma 2.6.** Let K be a number field with basis  $B = \{b_1, \ldots, b_n\}$  and let  $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n$  be the embeddings of K into  $\mathbb{C}$ . Now let M be the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1(b_1) & \cdots & \sigma_1(b_n) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \sigma_n(b_1) & \cdots & \sigma_n(b_n) \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then

$$\Delta(B) = \det(M)^2.$$

*Proof.* By Lemma 2.2 we know that  $\operatorname{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(b_ib_j) = \sum_k \sigma_k(b_i)\sigma_k(b_j)$  which is the same as the (i,j) entry of  $M^tM$ . Therefore

$$\det(T_B) = \det(M^t M) = \det(M)^2.$$

**Lemma 2.7.** Let K be a number field and  $B = \{1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{n-1}\}$  for some  $\alpha \in K$ . Then

$$\Delta(B) = \prod_{i < j} (\sigma_i(\alpha) - \sigma_j(\alpha))^2$$

where  $\sigma_i$  are the embeddings of K into  $\mathbb{C}$ . Here  $\Delta(B)$  denotes the discriminant.

*Proof.* First we recall a classical linear algebra result relating to the Vandermonde matrix, which states that

$$\det\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \cdots & x_1^{n-1} \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n & x_n^2 & \cdots & x_n^{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \prod_{i < j} (x_i - x_j).$$

Combining this with Lemma 2.6 gives the result.

**Lemma 2.8.** Let f be a monic irreducible polynomial over a number field K and let  $\alpha$  be one of its roots in  $\mathbb{C}$ . Then

$$f'(\alpha) = \prod_{\beta \neq \alpha} (\alpha - \beta),$$

where the product is over the roots of f different from  $\alpha$ .

*Proof.* We first write  $f(x) = (x - \alpha)g(x)$  which we can do (over  $\mathbb{C}$ ) as  $\alpha$  is a root of f, where now  $g(x) = \prod_{\beta \neq \alpha} (x - \beta)$ . Differentiating we get

$$f'(x) = g(x) + (x - \alpha)g'(x).$$

If we now evaluate at  $\alpha$  we get the result.

**Lemma 2.9.** Let  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$  be a number field with  $n = [K : \mathbb{Q}]$  and let  $B = \{1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{n-1}\}$ . Then

$$\Delta(B) = (-1)^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(m'_{\alpha}(\alpha))$$

where  $m'_{\alpha}$  is the derivative of  $m_{\alpha}(x)$  (which we recall denotes the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$ ).

*Proof.* By Lemma 2.7 we have  $\Delta(B) = \prod_{i < j} (\alpha_i - \alpha_j)^2$  where  $\alpha_k := \sigma_k(\alpha)$ . Next, we note that the number of terms in this product is  $1 + 2 + \cdots + (n-1) = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ . So if we write each term as  $(\alpha_i - \alpha_j)^2 = -(\alpha_i - \alpha_j)(\alpha_j - \alpha_i)$  we get

$$\Delta(B) = (-1)^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \prod_{i \neq j} (\alpha_i - \alpha_j).$$

Now, by lemmas 2.8 and 2.1 we see that

$$N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(m'_{\alpha}(\alpha)) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} m'_{\alpha}(\alpha_i) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \prod_{i \neq j} (\alpha_i - \alpha_j),$$

which gives the result.

**Lemma 2.10.** If K is a number field and  $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$  then  $N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)$  is in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

*Proof.* The proof is standard.

**Lemma 2.11.** If K is a number field and  $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$  then  $\operatorname{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)$  is in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

*Proof.* The proof is standard.

**Lemma 2.12.** Let K be a number field and  $B = \{b_1, \ldots, b_n\}$  be elements in  $\mathcal{O}_K$ , then  $\Delta(B) \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

*Proof.* Immediate by 2.11.

**Lemma 2.13.** Let  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$  be a number field, where  $\alpha$  is an algebraic integer. Let  $B = \{1, \alpha, \dots, \alpha^{[K:\mathbb{Q}]-1}\}$  be the basis given by  $\alpha$  and let  $x \in \mathcal{O}_K$ . Then  $\Delta(B)x \in \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ .

*Proof.* See the Lean proof.

**Lemma 2.14.** Let  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$  be a number field, where  $\alpha$  is an algebraic integer with minimal polynomial that is Eisenstein at p. Let  $x \in \mathcal{O}_K$  such that  $p^n x \in \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$  for some n. Then  $x \in \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ .

*Proof.* See the Lean proof.

### 3. Cyclotomic fields

**Lemma 3.1.** For n any integer,  $\Phi_n$  (the n-th cyclotomic polynomial) is a polynomial of degree  $\varphi(n)$  (where  $\varphi$  is Euler's Totient function).

*Proof.* The proof is classical.  $\Box$ 

**Lemma 3.2.** For n any integer,  $\Phi_n$  (the n-th cyclotomic polynomial) is an irreducible polynomial.

*Proof.* The proof is classical.

**Lemma 3.3.** Let  $\zeta_p$  be a p-th root of unity for p an odd prime, let  $\lambda_p = 1 - \zeta_p$  and  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p)$ . Then

$$\Delta(\{1,\zeta_p,\ldots,\zeta_p^{p-2}\}) = \Delta(\{1,\lambda_p,\ldots,\lambda_p^{p-2}\}) = (-1)^{\frac{(p-1)}{2}}p^{p-2}.$$

*Proof.* First note  $[K:\mathbb{Q}]=p-1$ .

Since  $\zeta_p = 1 - \lambda_p$  we at once get  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p] = \mathbb{Z}[\lambda_p]$  (just do double inclusion). Next, let  $\alpha_i = \sigma_i(\zeta_p)$  denote the conjugates of  $\zeta_p$ , which is the same as the image of  $\zeta_p$  under one of the embeddings  $\sigma_i : \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p) \to \mathbb{C}$ . Now by Proposition 2.7 we have

$$\Delta(\{1, \zeta_p, \dots, \zeta_p^{p-2}\}) = \prod_{i < j} (\alpha_i - \alpha_j)^2 = \prod_{i < j} ((1 - \alpha_i) - (1 - \alpha_j))^2$$
$$= \Delta(\{1, \lambda_p, \dots, \lambda_p^{p-2}\})$$

Now, by Proposition 2.9, we have

$$\Delta(\{1,\zeta_p,\cdots,\zeta_p^{p-2}\}) = (-1)^{\frac{(p-1)(p-2)}{2}} N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\Phi_p'(\zeta_p))$$

Since p is odd  $(-1)^{\frac{(p-1)(p-2)}{2}} = (-1)^{\frac{(p-1)}{2}}$ . Next, we see that

$$\Phi_p'(x) = \frac{px^{p-1}(x-1) - (x^p - 1)}{(x-1)^2}$$

therefore

$$\Phi_p'(\zeta_p) = -\frac{p\zeta_p^{p-1}}{\lambda_p}.$$

Lastly, note that  $N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\zeta_p) = 1$ , since this is the constant term in its minimal polynomial. Similarly, we see  $N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\lambda_p) = p$ . Putting this all together, we get

$$N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\Phi_p'(\zeta_p)) = \frac{N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(p)N_{K\mathbb{Q}}(\zeta_p)^{p-1}}{N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(-\lambda_p)} = (-1)^{p-1}p^{p-2} = p^{p-2}$$

**Theorem 3.4.** Let  $\zeta_p$  be a p-th root of unity for p an odd prime, let  $\lambda_p = 1 - \zeta_p$  and  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p)$ . Then  $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p] = \mathbb{Z}[\lambda_p]$ .

*Proof.* We need to prove is that  $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ . The inclusion  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p] \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$  is obvious. Let now  $x \in \mathcal{O}_K$ . By Lemma 2.13 and Proposition 3.3, there is  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $p^k x \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ . We conclude by Lemma 2.14.

**Lemma 3.5.** Let  $\alpha$  be an algebraic integer all of whose conjugates have absolute value one. Then  $\alpha$  is a root of unity.

Proof. Lemma 1.6 of [Was82].  $\Box$ 

**Lemma 3.6.** Let p be a prime,  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p)$   $\alpha \in K$  such that there exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\alpha^n = 1$ , then  $\alpha = \pm \zeta_p^k$  for some k.

*Proof.* If n is different to p then K contains a 2pn-th root of unity. Therefore  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_{2pn}) \subset K$ , but this cannot happen as  $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = p-1$  and  $[\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_{2pn}) : \mathbb{Q}] = \varphi(2np)$ .

**Lemma 3.7.** Any unit u in  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$  can be written in the form  $\beta \zeta_p^k$  with k an integer and  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ .

*Proof.* See the Lean proof.

**Lemma 3.8.** Let p be an odd prime,  $\zeta_p$  a primitive p-th root of unity and let  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p)$ . Then for any  $i, j \in 0, \ldots, p-1$  with  $i \neq j$ , there exists a unit  $u \in \mathcal{O}_K^{\times}$  such that  $\zeta_p^i - \zeta_p^j = u * (\zeta_p - 1)$ .

*Proof.* This is Ex 34 in chapter 2 of [Mar18].

**Lemma 3.9.** Let R be a Dedekind domain, p a prime and  $\mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b}, \mathfrak{c}$  ideals such that

$$\mathfrak{ah} = \mathfrak{c}^p$$

and suppose  $\mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b}$  are coprime. Then there exist ideals  $\mathfrak{e}, \mathfrak{d}$  such that

$$\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{e}^p \qquad \mathfrak{b} = \mathfrak{d}^p \qquad \mathfrak{ed} = \mathfrak{c}$$

*Proof.* It follows from the unique decomposition of ideals in a Dedekind domain.  $\hfill\Box$ 

## 4. Fermat's Last Theorem for regular primes

**Lemma 4.1.** Let  $p \geq 5$  be an prime number,  $\zeta_p$  a p-th root of unity and  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  coprime.

For  $i \neq j$  with  $i, j \in 0, ..., p-1$  we can write

$$(\zeta_p^i - \zeta_p^j) = u(1 - \zeta_p)$$

with u a unit in  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ . From this it follows that the ideals

$$(x+y), (x+\zeta_p y), (x+\zeta_p^2 y), \dots, (x+\zeta_p^{p-1} y)$$

are pairwise coprime.

*Proof.* Lemma 3.8 gives that u is a unit. So all that needs to be proved is that the ideals are coprime. Assume not, then for some  $i \neq j$  we have some prime ideal  $\mathfrak p$  dividing by  $(x+y\zeta_p^i)$  and  $(x+y\zeta_p^j)$ . It must then also divide their sum and their difference, so we must have  $\mathfrak p|(1-\zeta_p)$  or  $\mathfrak p|y$ . Similarly,  $\mathfrak p$  divides  $\zeta_p^j(x+y\zeta_p^i)-\zeta_p^i(x+y\zeta_p^j)$  so  $\mathfrak p$  divides x or  $(1-\zeta_p)$ . We can't have  $\mathfrak p$  dividing x,y since they are coprime, therefore  $\mathfrak p|(1-\zeta_p)$ . We know that

since  $(1-\zeta_p)$  has norm p it must be a prime ideal, so  $\mathfrak{p}=(1-\zeta_p)$ . Now, note that  $x+y\equiv x+y\zeta_p^i\equiv 0\mod \mathfrak{p}$ . But since  $x,y\in\mathbb{Z}$  this means we would have  $x+y\equiv 0\pmod p$ , which implies  $z^p\equiv 0\pmod p$  which contradicts our assumptions.

**Lemma 4.2.** Let p be an prime number,  $\zeta_p$  a p-th root of unity and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ . Then  $\alpha^p$  is congruent to an integer modulo p.

*Proof.* Just use  $(x+y)^p \equiv x^p + y^p \pmod{p}$  and that  $\zeta_p$  is a p-th root of unity.  $\square$ 

**Lemma 4.3.** Let p be an prime number,  $\zeta_p$  a p-th root of unity and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$  with  $\alpha = \sum_i a_i \zeta_p^i$ . Let us suppose that there is i such that  $a_i = 0$ . If n is an integer that divides  $\alpha$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ , then n divides each  $a_i$ .

Proof. Looking at  $\alpha = a_0 + a_1\zeta_p + \cdots + a_{p-1}\zeta_p^{p-1}$ , if one of the  $a_i$ 's is zero and  $\alpha/n \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ , then  $\alpha/n = \sum_i a_i/n\zeta_p^i$ . Now, as  $\alpha/n \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ , pick the basis of  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$  which does not contain  $\zeta_p$  (which is possible as any subset of  $\{1, \zeta_p, \ldots, \zeta_p^{p-1}\}$  with p-1 elements forms a basis of  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ .). Then  $\alpha = \sum_i b_i \zeta_p^i$  where  $b_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Therefore comparing coefficients, we get the result.

**Lemma 4.4.** Let  $p \geq 3$  be an prime number,  $\zeta_p$  a p-th root of unity and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ . Let x and y be integers such that  $x + y\zeta_p^i = u\alpha^p$  with  $u \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]^\times$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ . Then there is an integer k such that

$$x + y\zeta_p^i - \zeta_p^{2k}x - \zeta_p^{2k-i}y \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

*Proof.* Using lemma 3.7 we have  $(x + y\zeta_p^i) = \beta \zeta_p^k \alpha^p$  which is congruent modulo p to  $\beta \zeta_p^k a \pmod{p}$  for some integer a by 4.2. Now, if we consider the complex conjugate we have  $\overline{(x + y\zeta_p^i)} \equiv \beta \zeta_p^{-k} a \pmod{p}$ . Looking at  $(x + y\zeta_p^i) - \zeta_p^{2k} \overline{(x + y\zeta_p^i)}$  then gives the result.

**Lemma 4.5.** Let  $p \geq 3$  be an prime number,  $\zeta_p$  a p-th root of unity and  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p)$ . Assume that we have  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$  with gcd(xyz, p) = 1 and such that

$$x^p + y^p = z^p.$$

This is the so called "case I". To prove Fermat's last theorem, we may assume that:

- $p \ge 5$ ;
- $\bullet$  x, y, z are pairwise coprime;
- $x \not\equiv y \mod p$ .

*Proof.* The first part is easy.

Reducing modulo p, using Fermat's little theorem, you get that if  $x \equiv y \equiv -z \pmod{p}$  then  $3z \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . But since p > 3 this means p|z but this contradicts  $\gcd(xyz, p) = 1$ . Now, if  $x \equiv y \pmod{p}$  then  $x \not\equiv -z \pmod{p}$  we can relabel y, z so that wlog  $x \not\equiv y$  (this uses that p is odd).

**Definition 4.6.** A prime number p is called regular if it does not divide the class number of  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p)$ .

**Theorem 4.7.** Let p be an odd regular prime. Then

$$x^p + y^p = z^p$$

has no solutions with  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$  and gcd(xyz, p) = 1.

*Proof.* For p=3 use the standard elementary arguments, so assume  $p\geq 5$ . First thing is to note that if  $x^p+y^p=z^p$  then

$$z^p = (x+y)(x+\zeta_p y)\cdots(x+y\zeta_n^{p-1})$$

as ideals. Then since by 4.1 we know the ideals are coprime, then by lemma 3.9 we have that each  $(x+y\zeta_p^i)=\mathfrak{a}^p$ , for  $\mathfrak{a}$  some ideal. Note that,  $[\mathfrak{a}^p]=1$  in the class group. Now, since p does not divide the size of the class group we have that  $[\mathfrak{a}]=1$  in the class group, so its principal. So we have  $x+y\zeta_p^i=u_i\alpha_i^p$  with  $u_i$  a unit. So by 4.4 we have some k such that  $x+y\zeta_p-\zeta_p^{2k}x-\zeta_p^{2k-1}y\equiv 0\pmod{p}$ . If  $1,\zeta_p,\zeta_p^{2k},\zeta_p^{2k-1}$  are distinct, then 4.3 says that (since  $p\geq 5$ ) p divides x,y, contrary to our assumption. So they cannot be distinct, but checking each case leads to a contradiction, therefore there cannot be any such solutions.

**Theorem 4.8.** Let p be a regular prime and let  $u \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]^{\times}$ . If  $u \equiv a \mod p$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then there exists  $v \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]^{\times}$  such that  $u = v^p$ .

In these next few lemmas we are following [BS66].

**Lemma 4.9.** Let p be a regular odd prime,  $x, y, z, \epsilon \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ ,  $\epsilon$  a unit, and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ . Assume x, y, z are coprime to  $(1-\zeta_p)$  and that  $x^p+y^p+\epsilon(1-\zeta_p)^{pn}z^p=0$ . Then each of  $(x+\zeta_p^iy)$  is divisible by  $(1-\zeta_p)$  and there is a unique  $i_0$  such that  $(x+\zeta_p^{i_0})$  is divisible by  $(1-\zeta_p)^2$ .

*Proof.* By our assumptions we have the following equality of ideals in  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ :

$$\prod_{k=0}^{p-1} (x + \zeta_p^k y) = \mathfrak{p}^{pm} \mathfrak{a}^p,$$

where  $\mathfrak{a} = (z)$ ,  $\mathfrak{p} = (1 - \zeta_p)$  (which is prime) and m = n(p-1). Now as  $mp \geq p$  we must have that at least one of the terms on the lhs is divisible by  $\mathfrak{p}$ .

Note that since

$$x+\zeta_p^iy=x+\zeta_p^ky-\zeta_p^k(1-\zeta_p^{i-k})y$$

it follows every  $x + \zeta_p^k$  is divisible by  $\mathfrak{p}$  for  $0 \le k \le p-1$ . This proves the first claim.

For the second claim, we begin by observing that if  $x + \zeta_p^k y \equiv x + \zeta_p^i y$  mod  $\mathfrak{p}^2$  (for  $0 \le k < i \le p-1$ ) then  $\zeta_p^k y (1-\zeta_p^{i-k}) \equiv 0 \mod \mathfrak{p}^2$  which cannot happen as y is coprime to  $\mathfrak{p}$ . Therefore since, for  $0 \le k \le p-1$ ,  $x + \zeta_p^k y$  are all distinct modulo  $\mathfrak{p}^2$  we must have that  $\frac{x+\zeta_p^k}{1-\zeta_p}$  are non-congruent modulo  $\mathfrak{p}$ .

The second claim now follows by noting that (since  $N(\mathfrak{p})=p$ ), the numbers  $\frac{x+\zeta_p^k}{1-\zeta_p}$  form a complete set of residues modulo  $\mathfrak{p}$ , so one must be divisible by 

**Lemma 4.10.** Let p be a regular odd prime,  $x, y, z, \epsilon \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ ,  $\epsilon$  a unit, and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ . Assume x, y, z are coprime to  $(1 - \zeta_p)$ ,  $x^p + y^p + \epsilon(1 - \zeta_p)^{pn}z^p = 0$ and x + y is divisible by  $\mathfrak{p}^2$  and  $x + \zeta_p^k y$  is only divisible by  $\mathfrak{p} = (1 - \zeta_p)$  (for  $0 < k \le p - 1$ ). Let  $\mathfrak{m} = \gcd((x), (y))$ . Then:

(1) We can write

$$(x+y) = \mathfrak{p}^{p(m-1)+1}\mathfrak{mc}_0$$

and

$$(x+\zeta_p^ky)=\mathfrak{pmc}_k$$

(for  $0 < k \le p-1$ ) where m = n(p-1) and with  $\mathfrak{c}_i$  pairwise coprime. (2) Each  $\mathfrak{c}_k = \mathfrak{a}_k^p$  and  $\mathfrak{a}_k \mathfrak{a}_0^{-1}$  is principal (as a fractional ideal).

**Theorem 4.11.** Let p be a regular odd prime,  $\epsilon \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]^{\times}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ . Then the equation  $x^p + y^p + \epsilon(1 - \zeta_p)^{pn}z^p = 0$  has no solutions with  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ , all non-zero and xyz coprime to  $(1-\zeta_p)$ .

**Theorem 4.12.** Let p be an odd regular prime. Then

$$x^p + y^p = z^p$$

has no solutions with  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$  and p|xyz.

**Theorem 4.13.** Let p be an odd regular prime. Then

$$x^p + y^p = z^p$$

has no solutions with  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $xyz \neq 0$ .

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