

## MISCELLANEOUS RESULTS ON PRIME NUMBERS

A. M. KASPRZYK

Many of the following results, along with much more, can be found in *An Introduction to the Theory of Numbers* by G. H. Hardy and E. M. Wright (Oxford Science Publications, OUP, 1979).

**Definition 0.1.** A number  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$  is called a *prime number* if  $p \geq 2$  and  $p$  has no factors except  $\pm 1$  and  $\pm p$

**Theorem 0.2.** Let  $p$  be a prime number and let  $b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Suppose that  $p \mid bc$ , then  $p \mid b$  or  $p \mid c$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $p \nmid b$ . Then  $(p, b) = 1$  since the only factors of  $p$  are  $\pm 1$  and  $\pm p$ . Thus there exist  $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $1 = \lambda p + \mu b$ . Hence  $c = \lambda cp + \mu cb$ . But  $p$  divides the r.h.s., and hence  $p$  must divide  $c$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 0.3** (The Infinitude of Primes). *There are infinitely many primes.*

*Proof.* Suppose that the number of primes is finite, with the set of all prime numbers being equal to  $\{2, 3, 5, \dots, p_r\}$ . Let

$$q = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \dots \cdot p_r + 1$$

where  $p_r$  is the  $r^{\text{th}}$  prime number. Let  $p$  be a prime dividing  $q$ . Then  $p$  cannot be any of  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_r$  since  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{p_i}$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$ ). Thus this prime  $p$  is a prime not in our original list, and so we obtain the desired contradiction.  $\square$

**Theorem 0.4** (Fermat's Little Theorem). *Let  $p$  be a prime and let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  be such that  $p \nmid a$ . Then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .*

*Proof.* Start by listing the first  $p - 1$  positive multiples of  $a$

$$a, 2a, 3a, \dots, (p-1)a$$

Suppose that  $ra$  and  $sa$  are the same modulo  $p$ . Then we have  $r \equiv s \pmod{p}$ , which is not possible. Thus the  $p - 1$  multiples of  $a$  above are distinct and non-zero. Thus they must be congruent to  $1, 2, 3, \dots, p - 1$  (in some order). Multiply all these congruences together and we find

$$a \cdot 2a \cdot 3a \cdot \dots \cdot (p-1)a \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}$$

and hence

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

Dividing both sides by  $(p-1)!$  gives the result.  $\square$

**Corollary 0.5.** *Let  $p$  be a prime and  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$ .*

*Proof.* The result is trivial if  $p \mid a$  (since both sides are 0). If  $p \nmid a$  then simply multiply the congruence in Fermat's Little Theorem by  $a$  to get the desired result.  $\square$

**Theorem 0.6** (Wilson's Theorem). *Let  $p$  be an integer greater than 1. We have that  $p$  is prime if and only if  $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ .*

*Proof.* The result is clearly true if  $p = 2$  or  $3$ , so let us assume  $p > 3$ . If  $p$  is composite, then its positive divisors are among the integers

$$1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1$$

and it is clear that  $\text{g.c.d.}\{(p-1)!, p\} > 1$ , so we cannot have  $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ .

If  $p$  is prime then each of the above integers are relatively prime to  $p$ . So for each of these integers  $a$  there exists  $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $\lambda a + \mu p = 1$ . Hence  $\lambda a \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . It is important to note that this  $\lambda$  is unique modulo  $p$ , and that since  $p$  is prime,  $a = \lambda$  if and only if  $a$  is 1 or  $p-1$ . Now if we omit 1 and  $p-1$  then the others can be grouped into pairs whose product is

$$2 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot (p-2) \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Finally we simply multiply both sides by  $p-1$  to obtain our result.  $\square$

**Theorem 0.7.** *Let  $p$  be prime. Then  $\sqrt{p}$  is irrational.*

*Proof.* Let  $p \in \mathbb{N}$  be prime, and for a contradiction suppose that

$$\sqrt{p} = \frac{q}{r} \in \mathbb{Q}$$

where  $q, r \in \mathbb{N}$  are coprime,  $r \neq 1$ . Then we have that

$$(0.1) \quad pr^2 = q^2$$

and hence that  $p \mid q^2$ .

Suppose that  $p \nmid q$ . By the uniqueness of prime factorization we have that there exist (not necessarily distinct) primes  $p_i \neq p$  such that

$$q = p_1 \dots p_n.$$

Thus  $q^2 = p_1^2 \dots p_n^2$  and so  $p \nmid q^2$ , which is a contradiction. Hence we must have that  $p \mid q$ .

We may thus write  $q = pk$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , and equation (0.1) gives us that

$$pr^2 = p^2 k^2.$$

Dividing through by  $p$  we have that  $r^2 = pk^2$  and thus that  $p \mid r^2$ . By the same argument as above this gives us that  $p \mid r$ .

So we have shown that  $p \mid r$  and  $p \mid q$ , and so  $q$  and  $r$  are not coprime, which contradicts our original hypothesis. Hence it must be that  $\sqrt{p}$  is irrational.  $\square$

**Theorem 0.8.** *3, 5, 7 are the only three consecutive odd numbers which are prime.*

*Proof.* One of  $n, n+2, n+4$  must be divisible by 3.  $\square$

**Theorem 0.9.** *If for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $2^n - 1$  is prime, then so is  $n$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $r, s \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then we have

$$x^{rs} - 1 = (x^s - 1)(x^{s(r-1)} + x^{s(r-2)} + \dots + x^s + 1).$$

So if  $n$  is composite (say  $n = rs$  with  $1 < s < n$ ) then  $2^n - 1$  is also composite (because it is divisible by  $2^s - 1$ ).  $\square$

**Corollary 0.10.** *Let  $a$  and  $n$  be integers greater than 1. If  $a^n - 1$  is prime then  $a = 2$  and  $n$  is prime.*

*Proof.* Since  $x - 1$  divides  $x^n - 1$ , for the latter to be prime the former must be equal to 1.  $\square$

**Theorem 0.11.** *3 is the only prime number of the form  $2^{2^n} - 1$ .*

*Proof.*  $2^{2^n} - 1 = (2^n - 1)(2^n + 1)$ , so for the l.h.s. to be prime we require  $2^n - 1 = 1$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 0.12.** *There are infinitely many primes of the form  $4n + 3$ .*

*Proof.* Define

$$q = 2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \dots \cdot p_r - 1$$

where  $p_r$  is the  $r^{\text{th}}$  prime number (c.f. proof of the Infinitude of Primes).

Then  $q$  is of the form  $4n + 3$  and is not divisible by any of the primes up to  $p_r$ . It cannot be a product of primes only of the form  $4n + 1$  since the product of two numbers of this form is also of this form. Thus it is divisible by a prime of the form  $4n + 3$  greater than  $p_r$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 0.13.** *There are infinitely many primes of the form  $6n + 5$ .*

*Proof.* This proof is very similar to the previous one.

Define

$$q = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \dots \cdot p_r - 1$$

and observe that any prime number except 2 or 3 is of the form  $6n + 1$  or  $6n + 5$ , and that the product of two numbers of the form  $6n + 1$  is of the same form.  $\square$