

# Fermat's Little Theorem

## Theorem

### *Fermat's Little Theorem.*

Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . If  $p$  is a prime then  $a^p \equiv_p a$ .

### Example:

$2^{13} \equiv_{13} 2$  as 13 is prime.

Check:

$2^4 \equiv_{13} 3$  as  $2^4 = 16$  and  $16 \equiv_{13} 3$ .

$2^{12} = (2^4)^3 \equiv_{13} 3^3 \equiv_{13} 1$  as  $3^3 = 27$ . i.e

$2^{12} \equiv_{13} 1$ .

$2^{13} = 2^{12} * 2 \therefore$

$2^{13} \equiv_{13} 2$ .

Also, e.g.  $6^{13} \equiv_{13} 6$ .

# Fermat's Primality Test

From Fermat's Little Theorem we have its contraposition:  
 Contraposition of  $p \rightarrow q$  is  $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$

## Theorem

### *Fermat's Test for Primality*

*If, for some  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $a^n \not\equiv_n a$  then  $n$  is not prime.*

### Example:

Consider  $2^{12} \bmod 12$ .

$$2^4 \equiv_{12} 4 \text{ as } 2^4 = 16.$$

$$2^{12} = (2^4)^3 \equiv_{12} 4^3 \equiv_{12} 4 \text{ as}$$

$$4^3 = 4^2 * 4 \equiv_{12} 4 * 4 \equiv_{12} 4$$

$$\therefore 2^{12} \not\equiv_{12} 2$$

$\therefore 12$  is not prime.

# Exponent and Base

Based of the properties of exponents:

$$a^n = (a^{\frac{n}{2}})^2 \text{ if } n \text{ is even}$$

$$a^n = a * a^{n-1} \text{ if } n \text{ is odd.}$$

calculating exponents can be done efficiently in 'log n' time. Also, calculating exponents is done efficiently due to calculating in modular arithmetic.

**Terminology:** In the expression  $x^y$ ,  $y$  is the 'exponent' and  $x$  is the 'base'.

# Primality counter examples

From Fermat's Primality test:

## Theorem

*If, for some  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $a^n \not\equiv_n a$  then  $n$  is not prime*

We cannot conclude that if  $a^n \equiv_n a$  then  $n$  is prime.

(In Logic:  $\neg P \rightarrow \neg Q \neq P \rightarrow Q$ )

**Note:** Fermat's Little Thm states: if  $n$  is prime then  $a^n \equiv_n a$ .

It is possible for  $a^n \equiv_n a$  and  $n$  is not prime.

In particular, let  $n = 341$ .

341 is not prime as  $341 = 11 * 31$

but  $2^{341} \equiv_{341} 2$ .

i.e.  $2^{341} \equiv_{341} 2$  and 341 is not prime.

Since Fermat's Primality is true for some  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  we could try another value.

Since  $3^{341} \equiv_{341} 168$  and so  $3^{341} \not\equiv_{341} 3$  then 341 is not prime.

# Carmichael Numbers

## Carmichael Numbers

While Fermat's Primality test works for 341 if we use  $3^{341}$ , the test does not work for the number, 561. 561 is a **Carmichael number**. A **Carmichael number**,  $n$ , is a composite (i.e. not prime) number that satisfies the property  $a^n \equiv_n a$ .

While rare, there are an infinite number of Carmichael numbers. The only **Carmichael numbers** less than 2000 are 561, 1105 and 1729.

The **Carmichael number**  $561 = 3 * 11 * 17$ ,  $1105 = 5 * 13 * 17$ ,  $1729 = 7 * 13 * 19$ .

The **Carmichael numbers** are counter examples to Fermat's Primality test.

# Carmichael Numbers (Cont'd)

The number 561 is not prime as  $561 = 3 * 11 * 17$

For any integer,  $a$ , we have that  $a^{561} \equiv_{561} a$ , even though 561 is not prime.

Due to the rarity of **Carmichael numbers** and that other tests can be applied, Fermat's Primality Test may be used to check if a number is **possibly prime**.

If a number,  $n$ , satisfies  $a^n \equiv_n a$  then there is very high probability, but not certainty, that the number,  $n$ , is prime.

# From Wikipedia

The Carmichael number 1729 is known as the Hardy–Ramanujan number after a famous anecdote of the British mathematician G. H. Hardy regarding a visit to the hospital to see the Indian mathematician Srinivasa Ramanujan. In Hardy's words:

" I remember once going to see him when he was ill at Putney. I had ridden in taxi cab number 1729 and remarked that the number seemed to me rather a dull one, and that I hoped it was not an unfavorable omen. "No," he replied, "it is a very interesting number; it is the smallest number expressible as the sum of two cubes in two different ways."

1729

$$= 1^3 + 12^3$$

$$= 9^3 + 10^3$$

# Fermat's Little Theorem

**Checking Fermat's Little Theorem:**  $a^p \equiv_p a$  where  $p$  is prime.

Check  $3^7 \equiv_7 3$ .

For  $p = 7$  and  $a = 3$ , consider the product:

$$(3 *_7 1) *_7 (3 *_7 2) *_7 (3 *_7 3) *_7 (3 *_7 4) *_7 (3 *_7 5) *_7 (3 *_7 6).$$

As  $*_7$  is associative and commutative, this product is the same as:

$$3^6 *_7 1 *_7 2 *_7 3 *_7 4 *_7 5 *_7 6$$



# Fermat's Little Theorem (Cont'd)

Also, for

$$(3 * 1)_7 (3 * 2)_7 (3 * 3)_7 (3 * 4)_7 (3 * 5)_7 (3 * 6)_7.$$

we can calculate for each  $k$ ,  $3 * k$

$k$	1	2	3	4	5	6
$3 * k$	3	6	2	5	1	4

$\therefore$

$$(3 * 1)_7 (3 * 2)_7 (3 * 3)_7 (3 * 4)_7 (3 * 5)_7 (3 * 6)_7$$

$$= 3 * 6 * 2 * 5 * 1 * 4$$

$$= 1 * 2 * 3 * 4 * 5 * 6$$

## Fermat's Little Theorem (Cont'd)

 $\therefore$ 

$$3^6 * 1 * 2 * 3 * 4 * 5 * 6 = 1 * 2 * 3 * 4 * 5 * 6$$

Since 7 is prime: for  $k \in \{1 \dots 6\}$ ,  $\gcd(k, 7) = 1$ .

Cancelling on both sides we get

$$3^6 \equiv_7 1$$

$\therefore$  multiplying both sides by 3,

$$3^7 \equiv_7 3$$

Check:  $3^7 = 2187 = 7 * 312 + 3$ .

# Cancelling

**Recall:** if  $a$  and  $n$  are relatively prime (i.e.  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ ) then  
if  $a * x \equiv_n a * y$  then  $x \equiv_n y$ .

i.e. we can 'divide across' or 'cancel' the ' $a$ ' .

Taking the Contrapositive (From Logic:  $p \rightarrow q = \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$  ) we  
get, when  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$  ,

if  $x \not\equiv_n y$  then  $a * x \not\equiv_n a * y$

# Proof 'Fermat's Little Theorem', $a^p \equiv_p a$

## Proof Fermat's Little Theorem

Since  $p$  is prime, we consider 2 cases:

- $\gcd(a, p) = p$  (i.e.  $p|a$ )

or

- $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ , (i.e.  $a$  and  $p$  are relatively prime).

- **Case**  $\gcd(a, p) = p$  i.e.  $p|a$  i.e.  $a \bmod p = 0$ .

$$a \bmod p = 0$$

$$a \equiv_p 0$$

then

$$0^p \equiv_p 0$$

i.e.

$$a^p \equiv_p a$$

More briefly, when  $a \equiv_p 0$  then  $0^p \equiv_p 0$ .

# Lemma

## Lemma

Let  $p$  be a prime. For an integer,  $a$ , such that  $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ , the sequence of numbers

$1 * _p a, 2 * _p a, 3 * _p a, \dots (p-1) * _p a$  is a permutation of  $1, 2, 3 \dots p-1$

i.e. as sets

$$\{1 * _p a, 2 * _p a, 3 * _p a, \dots (p-1) * _p a\} = \{1, 2, 3 \dots p-1\}$$

Note that for  $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ , if  $x \not\equiv_p y$  then  $a * x \not\equiv_p a * y$

## Lemma proof

**Proof Lemma:**

Since  $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ , then  $a \not\equiv_p 0$ . Let  $k \in \{1, 2 \dots p-1\}$

$\therefore \gcd(k, p) = 1$ .

For each  $k \in \{1, 2, 3 \dots p-1\}$ ,  $k *_p a \in \mathbb{Z}_p$  and all of

$1 *_p a, 2 *_p a \dots (p-1) *_p a$  are different,

as if  $i *_p a = j *_p a$  then, by cancellation of  $a$ ,  $i = j$ , i.e. if  $i \neq j$  then  $i *_p a \neq j *_p a$ .

$\therefore \{1 *_p a, 2 *_p a, 3 *_p a, \dots (p-1) *_p a\} = \{1, 2, 3 \dots p-1\}$

i.e.  $1 *_p a, 2 *_p a, 3 *_p a, \dots (p-1) *_p a$  is a permutation of

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

# Proof: Fermat's Little Theorem.

- **Case**  $\gcd(a, p) = 1$  i.e.  $a$  and  $p$  are relatively prime.

## Theorem

For prime,  $p$ ,  $a^p \equiv_p a$  when  $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ .

## Proof.

Assume  $p$  is a prime, show  $a^p \equiv_p a$ .

From Lemma,

$$\{1 *_p a, 2 *_p a, 3 *_p a, \dots, (p-1) *_p a\} = \{1, 2, 3 \dots p-1\}$$

$\therefore$  the products of these elements are equal i.e.

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

i.e.

$$(1 * a) * (2 * a) * \dots * ((p-1) * a) \equiv_p 1 * 2 * 3 * \dots * (p-1) \quad \square$$

## Proof Cont'd

## Proof.

but

$$(1 * a) * (2 * a) * \dots * (p-1) * a = a^{p-1} * (1 * 2 * 3 * \dots * (p-1))$$

$$\therefore a^{p-1} * (1 * 2 * 3 * \dots * (p-1)) \equiv_p 1 * 2 * 3 * \dots * (p-1)$$

$$\therefore a^{p-1} * (1 * 2 * 3 * \dots * (p-1)) - (1 * 2 * 3 * \dots * (p-1)) \equiv_p 0$$

i.e.  $\therefore (a^{p-1} - 1) * (1 * 2 * 3 * \dots * (p-1))$  is divisible by  $p$ .

Since  $p \nmid 1$  and  $p \nmid 2 \dots p \nmid (p-1)$  then  $p \mid (a^{p-1} - 1)$  i.e.

$$a^{p-1} - 1 \equiv_p 0 \text{ i.e.}$$

$$a^{p-1} \equiv_p 1$$

Multiplying both sides by,  $a$ , we get

$$a^p \equiv_p a$$



This proof is attributed to Ivory in 1806.