FLORENTIN SMARANDACHE On A Theorem of Wilson

In Florentin Smarandache: "Collected Papers", vol. I (second edition). Ann Arbor (USA): InfoLearnQuest, 2007.

ON A THEOREM OF WILSON

§1. In 1770 Wilson found the following result in the Number's Theory: "If p is prime, then $(p-1)! \equiv (-1 \mod p)$ ".

Did you ever question yourself what happens if the module m is not anymore prime? It's simple, one answers, "if m is not prime and $m \neq 4$ then $(m-1)! \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$ "; for the proof see [4].

This is fine, I would continue, but if in the product from the left side of this congruence we consider only numbers that are prime with m?

For this reason we'll address this case, and provide a generalization of Wilson's theorem to any modulo, this will conduce to a nice result.

§2. Let *m* be a whole number. We note $A = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}, x \text{ is of the form } \pm p^n, \pm 2p^n, \pm 2^r, \text{ or } 0, \text{ where } p \text{ is odd prime, } n \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ and } r = 0, 1, 2 \}.$

Theorem*. Let $c_1, c_2, ..., c_{\varphi(m)}$ a reduced system of residues modulo m. Then $c_1c_2...c_{\varphi(m)} \equiv -1 \pmod{m}$ if $m \in A$, respectively +1 if $m \notin A$; where φ is Euler's function.

To prove this we'll introduce some lemmas.

Lemma 1. $\varphi(m)$ is a multiple of 2.

Lemma 2. If $c^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ then $(m-c)^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ and $c(m-c) \equiv -1 \pmod{m}$, and $m-c \not\equiv c \pmod{m}$.

Indeed, if $m - c \equiv c \pmod{m}$, we obtain $2c \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$, that is $(c, m) \neq 1$. This is absurd.

Therefore we proved that in any reduced system of residue modulo m it exists an even number of elements c with the property

 $P_1: c^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m}.$

If c_{i_0} is part of the system, because $(c_{i_0}, m) \cong 1$, it results that also $c_1c_{i_0}, c_2c_{i_0}, ..., c_{\varphi(m)}c_{i_0}$ constitutes a reduced system of residues m. Because $(1,m) \cong 1$ results that for any c from $c_1, c_2, ..., c_{\varphi(m)}$ it exist and it is unique c' from $c_1, c_2, ..., c_{\varphi(m)}$ such that

(1) $cc' \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$

and reciprocally: for any c' from $c_1, c_2, ..., c_{\varphi(m)}$ it exists an unique c such that

(2) $c'c \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$.

By multiplying these two congruence for all the elements from the system and selecting one of them in the case in which $c \neq c'$ it results that $c_1, c_2, ..., c_{\varphi(m)} \cdot b \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$, where *b* represents the product of all elements *c* for which

c = c', because in this case $c^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$. These elements which verify the property P_1 can be grouped in pairs as follows: c with m - c, and then $c(m - c) \equiv -1 \pmod{m}$. Therefore

$$c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{\varphi(m)} \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{m},$$

depending of the number of distinct *c* in the system that have the property P_1 is or not a multiple of 4.

If $m \in A$ the equation $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ has two solutions (see [1], pp. 38-88), therefore we conclude that $c_1, c_2, ..., c_{\varphi(m)} \equiv -1 \pmod{m}$.

This first part of the theorem could have been proved also using the following reasoning:

If $m \in A$ then it exist primitive roots modulo m (see [1], pp. 65-68-72); let d be such a root; then we could represent the system reduced to residues modulo m, $\{c_1, c_2, ..., c_{\varphi(m)}\}$ as $\{d^1, d^2, ..., d^{\varphi(m)}\}$ after rearranging, from were

$$c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{\varphi(m)} \equiv \left(d^{\frac{\varphi(m)}{2}}\right)^{1+\varphi(m)} \equiv -1 \pmod{m},$$

because from $d^{\varphi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ we have that

$$\left(d^{\frac{\varphi(m)}{2}}-1\right)\left(d^{\frac{\varphi(m)}{2}}+1\right)\equiv 0 \pmod{m}$$

therefore

$$d^{\frac{\varphi(m)}{2}} \equiv -1 \pmod{m};$$

contrary would have been implied that d is not a primitive root modulo m.

For the second part of the proof we shall present some other lemmas.

Lemma 3. Let's consider the integer numbers nonzero, non-unitary m_1 and m_2 with $(m_1, m_2) \cong 1$. Then

(3) $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_1}$ admits the solution x_1

and

(4) $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_2}$ admits the solution x_2

if and only if

(5) $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_1 m_2}$ admits the solution (5') $x_3 \equiv (x_2 - x_1)m_1m_1 + x_1 \pmod{m_1 m_2}$,

where m_1 is the inverse of m_1 in rapport with modulo m_2 .

Proof. From (3) it results $x = m_1h + x_1, h \in \mathbb{Z}$, and from (4) we find $x = m_2k + x_2, k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore (6) $m_1h - m_2k = x_2 - x_1$

this Diophantine equation has integer solutions because

(7) $(m_1, m_2) \cong 1$

From (6) results $h \equiv (x_2 - x_1) m'_1 \pmod{m_2}$.

Therefore

$$h \equiv (x_2 - x_1)m_1 + m_2 t, t \in \mathbb{Z}$$

and

$$x \equiv (x_2 - x_1)m_1 m_1 + x_1 + m_1 m_2 t$$

or

 $x \equiv (x_2 - x_1)m_1m_1 + x_1 \mod(m_1m_2).$

(The rationale would have been analog if we would have determined k by finding $x \equiv (x_1 - x_2)m_2m_2 + x_2 \mod(m_1m_2)$,

but this solution is congruent modulo m_1m_2 with the one found anterior; m_2 being the reciprocal of m_2 modulo m_1 .)

Reciprocal. Immediately, results that

 $x_3 \equiv x_1 \pmod{m_1}$ and $x_3 \equiv x_2 \pmod{m_2}$.

Lemma 4. Let x_1, x_2, x_3 be the solutions for congruencies (3), (4) respective (5) such that

 $x_3 \equiv (x_2 - x_1)m_1m_1 + x_1 \pmod{m_1 m_2}$

Analogue for x_1 , x_2 , x_3 .

(O) Will consider from now on every time the classes of residue modulo *m* that have represents in the system $\{0, 1, 2, ..., |m| - 1\}$.

Then if $(x_1, x_2) \neq (x_1, x_2)$ it results that $x_3 \neq x_3 \pmod{m}$.

Proof. By absurd.

Let $x_1 \neq x'_1$ (analogue it can be shown for $x_2 \neq x'_2$).

From $x_3 \equiv x_3 \pmod{m_1 m_2}$ it would result that $x_3 \equiv x_3 \pmod{m_1}$,

that is

$$(x_2 - x_1)m_1m_1 + x_1 \equiv (x_2 - x_1)m_1m_1 + x_1 \pmod{m_1},$$

Thus

$$x_1 \equiv x_1 \pmod{m_1}.$$

Since x_1 and x'_1 are from $\{0, 1, 2, ..., |m| - 1\}$ it results that $x_1 = x'_1$, which is absurd.

Lemma 5. The congruence $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ has an even number of distinct solutions.

This results from lemma 2.

Lemma 6. In the conditions of lemma 3 we have that the number of distinct solutions for congruence (5) is equal to the product between the number of congruencies' solutions (3) and (4). And, all solutions for congruence (5) are obtained from the solutions of congruencies (3) and (4) by applying formula (5').

Indeed, from lemmas 3, 4 we obtain the assertion.

Lemma 7. The congruence

(8) $x^2 \neq 1 \pmod{2^m}$, has only four distinct solutions:

 $\pm 1, \pm (2^{n-1}-1) \mod 2^n$.

By direct verification it can be shown that these satisfy (8).

Using induction we will show that there don't exist others .

For n = 3 it verifies, by tries, analog for n = 4.

We consider the affirmation true for values $\leq n - 1$. Let's prove it for *n*.

We retain observation (O) and the following remark:

(9) if x_0 is solution for congruence (8) it will be solution also for congruence $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{2^i}$, $3 \le i \le n-1$.

By absurdum let $a \neq \pm 1$, $\pm (2^{n-1} - 1)$ be a solution for (8). We will show that $(\exists)i \in \{3, 4, ..., n-1\}$ such that $a^2 \neq 1 \pmod{2^i}$.

We can consider $2^{\frac{n}{2}} < a < 2^n - 1$; because *a* is solution for (8) if and only if -a is solution for (8).

We consider the case n = 2k, $k \ge 2$, integer. (It will analogously be shown when *n* is odd). Let $a = 2^k + r$, $1 \le r \le 2^{2k} - 2^k - 2$

(10) $a^2 = 2^{2k} + r \cdot 2^{k+1} + r^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{2^n}$,

from here $r \neq 1$; it results that

 $r^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{2^i}, \ 3 \le i \le k+1$

From the induction's hypothesis, for k+1 we find $r \equiv 2^k - 1 \pmod{2^{k+1}}$ and substituting in (10) we obtain:

 $-2^{k+2} \equiv 0 \pmod{2^{2k}},$

or $k \le 2$ thus n = 4, which is a contradiction.

Therefore, it results the lemma's validity.

Lemma 8. The congruence $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ has

$$\begin{cases} 2^{s-1}, & \text{if } \alpha_1 = 0, 1; \\ 2^s, & \text{if } \alpha_1 = 2; \\ 2^{s+1}, & \text{if } \alpha_1 \ge 3 \end{cases}$$

distinct solutions modulo $m = \varepsilon 2^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_s^{\alpha_s}$, where $\varepsilon = \pm 1$, $\alpha_j \in \mathbb{N}^*$, j = 2, 3, ..., s, and p_j are odd prime, different numbers two by two.

Indeed, the congruence $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{2^{\alpha_1}}$ has

 $\begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \alpha_1 = 0, 1; \\ 2, & \text{if } \alpha_1 = 2; \\ 4, & \text{if } \alpha_1 \ge 3 \end{cases}$

distinct solutions, and congruence $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p_j^{\alpha_j}}$, $2 \le j \le s$ have each two distinct solutions (see [1], pp. 85-88). From lemma 6 and 7 it results this lemma too.

*

With these lemmas, it results that the congruence $c^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ with $m \in A$ admits a number of distinct solutions which is a multiple of 4. From where $c_1c_2\cdots c_{\varphi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$, that completely resolves the generalization of Wilson's theorem.

The reader could generalize lemmas 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8 and utilize lemma 7 for the case in which we have the congruence $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{m}$, with $(a,m) \cong 1$.

REFERENCES

- [1] Francisco Bellot Rosada, Maria Victoria Deban Miguel, Felix Lopez Fernandez – Asenjo – "Olimpiada Matematica Española/Problemas propuestos en el distrito Universitario de Valladolid", Universidad de Valladolid, 1992.
- [2] "Introducion a la teoria de numeros primos (Aspectos Algebraicos y Analiticos)", Felix Lopez Fernandez – Asenjo, Juan Tena Ayuso Universidad de Valladolid, 1990.

[*After completing this paper the author read in the "History of the Theory of Numbers", by L. E. Dickson, Chelsea Publ. Hse., New York, 1992, that this theorem was also found by F. Gauss in 1801.]