Fermat's Last Theorem in the XIXth century

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Fermat's Hypothesis...

test

• 2+2=5

Theorem. The Diophantine equation:

$$x^n + y^n = z^n,$$

where x, y, z, n are nonzero integers, has no nonzero solutions for n > 2.

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Proof [Wiles, 1995]. Every semistable elliptic curve over \mathbb{Q} is modular.

Lamé's idea [The meeting of the Paris Academy, 1847]. We have to decompose $x^n + y^n$ completely into *n* linear factors – if $\zeta^n = 1, \zeta \neq 1$, *n* – odd then:

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Two possible cases:

- 1. x, y are such that $x + y, x + \zeta y, x + \zeta^2 y, \dots, x + \zeta^{n-1} y$ are relatively prime.
- 2. They are not such, but there is a common factor *m*, that when divided by *it*, they are.

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Lamé's collorary. From (\star) , each of these relatively prime factors must itself be an n - th power, thus we can derive an impossible infinite descent.

Remark (Liouville). *The collorary is uncertain. We do not know whether the numbers of form:*

$$a_1 + a_2\zeta + a_3\zeta^2 + \ldots + a_{n-1}\zeta^{n-1}, a_i \in \mathbb{Z}$$

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Theorem (Masley, 1976). There are only 29 values of $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$ such, that $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ is a UFD. The smallest n, for which unique factorization fails, is 23.

Saving unique factorization

Example (Irreducible, but not prime). $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is not UFD since:

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Kummer's idea. Extend the set of prime factors to have:

$$6 = 2 \cdot 3 = 1 + \sqrt{-5} \cdot 1 - \sqrt{-5} = (P_1 \cdot P_2) \cdot (P_3 \cdot P_4) = (P_1 \cdot P_3) \cdot (P_2 \cdot P_4),$$

where P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4 are ideal prime factors.

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HOW TO CONSTRUCT THESE 'IDEAL FACTORS'?

Kummer's ideal factors [1846]. We expect that:

$$\begin{split} P|0,\\ P|x,P|y \Rightarrow P|x\pm y,\\ P|x \Rightarrow P|xy, \text{ for all } y \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]. \end{split}$$

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Theorem (Kummer, 1846). If two cyclotomic integers $g(\zeta)$ and $h(\zeta)$ are divisible by exactly the same prime ideal divisors with exactly the same multiplicities, then they differ only by a unit multiple.

Dedekind's ideals [1871]. A subset P of the considered ring R, that satisfies:

 $0 \in P,$ $x \in P, y \in P \Rightarrow x \pm y \in P,$ $x \in P \Rightarrow xy \in P, \text{ for all } y \in R.$

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Remark. Dedekind proved the generalization of Kummer's theorem on unique factorization for a wider class of rings, later called Dedekind domains. Noether proved that it is the only class of rings with that property.

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Dedekind's idea. Exchange numbers for ideals. Then:

(6) = (2) · (3) =
$$(1 + \sqrt{-5})$$
 · $(1 - \sqrt{-5})$
= $(P_1 \cdot P_2)$ · $(P_3 \cdot P_4)$ = $(P_1 \cdot P_3)$ · $(P_2 \cdot P_4)$.

where:

$$P_1 = (2, 1 + \sqrt{-5}), \quad P_2 = (2, 1 - \sqrt{-5}),$$

 $P_3 = (3, 1 + \sqrt{-5}), \quad P_4 = (3, 1 - \sqrt{-5}).$

This is not enough...

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Even if we exchange numbers for ideals:

$$(x+y)\left(x+\zeta y\right)\left(x+\zeta^2 y\right)\cdots\left(x+\zeta^{n-1}y\right)=(z)^n,$$

and even if they are relatively prime, all we get from the unique factorization is:

$$(x+\zeta^k y)=J_k^n,$$

for some J_k - ideals of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_n]$.

Equivalent ideals

Definition (Ideal class). Let *R* by any integral domain. We say that two nontrivial ideals *A*, *B* of *R* are in the same ideal class (which we denote as $A \sim B$) if and only if there exist principal ideals I, J such that AI = BJ.

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Ideal classes can be multiplied:

- 1. The multiplication [A][B] = [AB] is well defined and commutative.
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Collorary. For every Dedekind domain R, the set of its ideal classes forms an abelian group called: **ideal class group**. If it is finite (not truth in general), its order is called **class number**.

Half-factorial domains

Observation. The order of the ideal class group tells us how much 'non – UFD' can a particular Dedekind domain be.

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Unique factorization domain. Let *R* be a Dedekind domain. We say that *R* is an UFD if and only if $a_1a_2 \ldots a_n = b_1b_2 \ldots b_m$, a_i, b_j - irreducibles, implies that:

- 1. n = m,
- 2. There exists $\sigma \in S_n$ such that $a_i, b_{\sigma(i)}$ are associates.

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Theorem (Carlitz, 1960). Let R be a Dedekind domain. Then R has class number less or equal to 2 if and only if R is HFD.

Theorem (Masley, 1976). Let *m* be an integer greater than 2, $m \neq 2 \mod 4$. Then all the values of *m*, for which the cyclotomic integers $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_m]$ have class number h_m with $2 \leq h_m \leq 10$ are listed in the table:

h_m	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
m	39	23	120	51	none	63	29	31	55
	56	52		80			68	57	
		72						96	

Furthermore, all the other values of m with $\phi(m) = [\mathbb{Q}[\zeta_m] : \mathbb{Q}] \le 24$ give the twenty-nine values of m for which $h_m = 1$:

3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 24, 25,27, 28, 32, 33, 35, 36, 40, 44, 45, 48, 60, 84.

FLT for regular primes

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The key idea. If we restrict ourselves to the 'first case' of FLT, we can prove that $x + \zeta^k y$ are relatively prime for $0 \le k \le p - 1$. Thus, in terms of ideals we have:

$$(x+y)\left(x+\zeta y\right)\left(x+\zeta^2 y\right)\cdots\left(x+\zeta^{p-1} y\right)=(z)^p.$$

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From the unique factorization we can deduce that: $(x + \zeta^k y) = J_k^p$. In the class group: $[(x + \zeta^k y)] = [J_k]^p$.

The order of $[J_k]$ divides $|Cl(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p])|$. But it **cannot**, since *p* is regular! Thus J_k are principal.

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For some $\alpha_k \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ and invertible $u_k \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]^*$ we have:

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Regular vs. Irregular

Theorem (Kummer, 1847). *Prime p is regular if and only if it does not divide* the numerator of any of the Bernoulli numbers B_k for k = 2, 4, ..., p - 3.

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They can be also defined recursively by setting $B_0 = 1$, and then using:

$$\binom{k+1}{1}B_k + \binom{k+1}{2}B_{k-1} + \ldots + \binom{k+1}{k}B_1 + B_0 = 0.$$

Hypothesis. There are only finitely many irregular primes. Up to year 1871 Kummer had found only 8 of them:

37, 59, 67, 101, 103, 131, 149, 157.

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Conjecture (Johnson, Wooldridge, 1975). As $p \to \infty$, the probability that p has index of irregularity r goes to:

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^r \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}}}{r!}.$$

Euler regular primes

Definition (E - regular number, 1940). A prime *p* is *E* – regular if it divides one of Euler numbers E_{2n} with 0 < 2n < p - 1.

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$$\frac{1}{\cosh(x)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \cdot \frac{E_n x^{2n}}{2n!}, \quad |x| < \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

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Theorem (Vandiver, 1940). The first case of FLT holds for E – regular primes.
Theorem (Carlitz, 1954). There are infinitely many E – irregular primes.
Conjecture. The E - irregular primes of index r satisfy a Poisson distribution.

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Proof [Wiles, 1995]. Every semistable elliptic curve over \mathbb{Q} is modular.

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