# Fermat's Last Theorem in the XIX ${ }^{\text {th }}$ century 

Arkadiusz Męcel<br>am234204@students.mimuw.edu.pl<br>http://students.mimuw.edu.pl/~am234204/

Faculty of Mathematics, Informatics and Mechanics University of Warsaw

## 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 $n>2$.
***

I have discovered a truly marvellous proof of this, which this margin is too narrow to contain.

Pierre de Fermat - around 400 years before...

## Fermat's Hypothesis...

Theorem. The Diophantine equation:

$$
x^{n}+y^{n}=z^{n}
$$

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

I have discovered a truly marvellous proof of this, which this margin is too narrow to contain.

Pierre de Fermat - around 400 years before...
***

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

The spring of the year 1847

The spring of the year 1847

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:

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

## The spring of the year 1847

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:

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

Two possible cases:

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

## The spring of the year 1847

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:

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

Two possible cases:

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

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.

## The spring of the year 1847

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

$$
a_{1}+a_{2} \zeta+a_{3} \zeta^{2}+\ldots+a_{n-1} \zeta^{n-1}, a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

posess the property of unique factorization into irreducible elements.

## The spring of the year 1847

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

$$
a_{1}+a_{2} \zeta+a_{3} \zeta^{2}+\ldots+a_{n-1} \zeta^{n-1}, a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

posess the property of unique factorization into irreducible elements.
***

Theorem (Kummer, 1844). If $\zeta \neq 1$, $\zeta^{23}=1$ then $1-\zeta+\zeta^{21} \in \mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{23}\right]$ is an irreducible element, which is not prime.

## The spring of the year 1847

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

$$
a_{1}+a_{2} \zeta+a_{3} \zeta^{2}+\ldots+a_{n-1} \zeta^{n-1}, a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

posess the property of unique factorization into irreducible elements.
***

Theorem (Kummer, 1844). If $\zeta \neq 1$, $\zeta^{23}=1$ then $1-\zeta+\zeta^{21} \in \mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{23}\right]$ is an irreducible element, which is not prime.

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:

$$
6=2 \cdot 3=(1+\sqrt{-5})(1-\sqrt{-5})
$$

## Saving unique factorization

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

$$
6=2 \cdot 3=(1+\sqrt{-5})(1-\sqrt{-5})
$$

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
6 & = \\
& =\left(P_{1} \cdot P_{2}\right) \cdot\left(P_{3} \cdot P_{4}\right)
\end{aligned}=\left(P_{1} \cdot P_{3}\right) \cdot\left(P_{2} \cdot P_{4}\right), ~ l a \sqrt{-5} \cdot 1-\sqrt{-5},
$$

where $P_{1}, P_{2}, P_{3}, P_{4}$ are ideal prime factors.

## Saving unique factorization

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

$$
6=2 \cdot 3=(1+\sqrt{-5})(1-\sqrt{-5})
$$

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
6 & = \\
& =\left(P_{1} \cdot P_{2}\right) \cdot\left(P_{3} \cdot P_{4}\right)
\end{aligned}=\left(P_{1} \cdot P_{3}\right) \cdot\left(P_{2} \cdot P_{4}\right), ~ l a \sqrt{-5} \cdot 1-\sqrt{-5},
$$

where $P_{1}, P_{2}, P_{3}, P_{4}$ are ideal prime factors.

HOW TO CONSTRUCT THESE 'IDEAL FACTORS'?

## Ideal factors

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

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

## Ideal factors

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

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

The additional property of prime ideal factor should be:

$$
P|x y \Rightarrow P| x \text { or } P \mid y
$$

## Ideal factors

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

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

The additional property of prime ideal factor should be:

$$
P|x y \Rightarrow P| x \text { or } P \mid y .
$$

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.

## Ideal factors

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

$$
\begin{gathered}
0 \in P \\
x \in P, y \in P \Rightarrow x \pm y \in P \\
x \in P \Rightarrow x y \in P, \text { for all } y \in R
\end{gathered}
$$

The additional property of prime ideal is:

$$
x y \in P \Rightarrow x \in P \text { or } y \in P .
$$

## Ideal factors

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

$$
\begin{gathered}
0 \in P \\
x \in P, y \in P \Rightarrow x \pm y \in P \\
x \in P \Rightarrow x y \in P, \text { for all } y \in R
\end{gathered}
$$

The additional property of prime ideal is:

$$
x y \in P \Rightarrow x \in P \text { or } y \in P .
$$

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.

## Ideal factors

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 6=2 \cdot 3=1+\sqrt{-5} \cdot 1-\sqrt{-5} \\
& =\left(P_{1} \cdot P_{2}\right) \cdot\left(P_{3} \cdot P_{4}\right)=\left(P_{1} \cdot P_{3}\right) \cdot\left(P_{2} \cdot P_{4}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Ideal factors

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 6=2 \cdot 3=1+\sqrt{-5} \cdot 1-\sqrt{-5} \\
& =\left(P_{1} \cdot P_{2}\right) \cdot\left(P_{3} \cdot P_{4}\right)=\left(P_{1} \cdot P_{3}\right) \cdot\left(P_{2} \cdot P_{4}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
(6) & =(2) \quad \cdot(3) \\
& =\left(P_{1} \cdot P_{2}\right) \cdot\left(P_{3} \cdot P_{4}\right)=(1+\sqrt{-5}) \cdot(1-\sqrt{-5}) \\
& =\left(P_{1} \cdot P_{3}\right) \cdot\left(P_{2} \cdot P_{4}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
P_{1}=(2,1+\sqrt{-5}), & P_{2}=(2,1-\sqrt{-5}), \\
P_{3}=(3,1+\sqrt{-5}), & P_{4}=(3,1-\sqrt{-5}) .
\end{array}
$$

## This is not enough...

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:

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

Even if we exchange numbers for ideals:

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

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

$$
\left(x+\zeta^{k} y\right)=J_{k}^{n}
$$

for some $J_{k}$ - ideals of $\mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{n}\right]$.

## 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 $A I=B J$.

## 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 $A I=B J$. Ideal classes can be multiplied:

1. The multiplication $[A][B]=[A B]$ is well defined and commutative.
2. The principal ideals form the ideal class, which serves as an identity element for this multiplication.

## 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 $A I=B J$. Ideal classes can be multiplied:

1. The multiplication $[A][B]=[A B]$ is well defined and commutative.
2. The principal ideals form the ideal class, which serves as an identity element for this multiplication.

Remark. In every Dedekind domain R, if $A$ is a nontrivial ideal, then there exists an ideal $B$ such that $A B$ is principal.

## 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 $A I=B J$.

Ideal classes can be multiplied:

1. The multiplication $[A][B]=[A B]$ is well defined and commutative.
2. The principal ideals form the ideal class, which serves as an identity element for this multiplication.

Remark. In every Dedekind domain R, if $A$ is a nontrivial ideal, then there exists an ideal $B$ such that $A B$ is principal.

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.

## Half-factorial domains

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

Unique factorization domain. Let $R$ be a Dedekind domain. We say that $R$ is an UFD if and only if $a_{1} a_{2} \ldots a_{n}=b_{1} b_{2} \ldots b_{m}, a_{i}, b_{j}$ - irreducibles, implies that:

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

## Half-factorial domains

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

Unique factorization domain. Let $R$ be a Dedekind domain. We say that $R$ is an UFD if and only if $a_{1} a_{2} \ldots a_{n}=b_{1} b_{2} \ldots b_{m}, a_{i}, b_{j}$ - irreducibles, implies that:

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

Half-factorial domain. A Dedekind domain $R$ that satisfies only (1).

## Half-factorial domains

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

Unique factorization domain. Let $R$ be a Dedekind domain. We say that $R$ is an UFD if and only if $a_{1} a_{2} \ldots a_{n}=b_{1} b_{2} \ldots b_{m}, a_{i}, b_{j}$ - irreducibles, implies that:

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

Half-factorial domain. A Dedekind domain $R$ that satisfies only (1).

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.

## The class number of cyclotomic integers

Theorem (Masley, 1976). Let $m$ be an integer greater than 2, $m \neq 2 \bmod 4$. Then all the values of $m$, for which the cyclotomic integers $\mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{m}\right]$ 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 $\phi(m)=\left[\mathbb{Q}\left[\zeta_{m}\right]: \mathbb{Q}\right] \leq 24$ give the twenty-nine values of $m$ for which $h_{m}=1$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
3,4,5,7,8,9,11,12,13,15,16,17,19,20,21,24,25 \\
27,28,32,33,35,36,40,44,45,48,60,84
\end{gathered}
$$

FLT for regular primes

## FLT for regular primes

Definition (Regular prime). An odd prime $p$ is called regular if $p$ does not divide the class number of $\mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{p}\right]$.

Announcement (Kummer, 1847). FLT holds for regular primes.

## FLT for regular primes

Definition (Regular prime). An odd prime $p$ is called regular if $p$ does not divide the class number of $\mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{p}\right]$.

Announcement (Kummer, 1847). FLT holds for regular primes.
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 $0 \leq k \leq p-1$. Thus, in terms of ideals we have:

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

## FLT for regular primes

Definition (Regular prime). An odd prime $p$ is called regular if $p$ does not divide the class number of $\mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{p}\right]$.

Announcement (Kummer, 1847). FLT holds for regular primes.
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 $0 \leq k \leq p-1$. Thus, in terms of ideals we have:

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

From the unique factorization we can deduce that: $\left(x+\zeta^{k} y\right)=J_{k}^{p}$.

## FLT for regular primes

Definition (Regular prime). An odd prime $p$ is called regular if $p$ does not divide the class number of $\mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{p}\right]$.

Announcement (Kummer, 1847). FLT holds for regular primes.
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 $0 \leq k \leq p-1$. Thus, in terms of ideals we have:

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

From the unique factorization we can deduce that: $\left(x+\zeta^{k} y\right)=J_{k}^{p}$.
In the class group:

$$
\left[\left(x+\zeta^{k} y\right)\right]=\left[J_{k}\right]^{p}
$$

The order of $\left[J_{k}\right]$ divides $\left|C l\left(\mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{p}\right]\right)\right|$. But it cannot, since $p$ is regular! Thus $J_{k}$ are principal.

## FLT for regular primes

Definition (Regular prime). An odd prime $p$ is called regular if $p$ does not divide the class number of $\mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{p}\right]$.

Announcement (Kummer, 1847). FLT holds for regular primes.
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 $0 \leq k \leq p-1$. Thus, in terms of ideals we have:

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

For some $\alpha_{k} \in \mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{p}\right]$ and invertible $u_{k} \in \mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{p}\right]^{*}$ we have:

$$
x+\zeta^{k} y=u_{k} \alpha_{k}^{p}
$$

## FLT for regular primes

Definition (Regular prime). An odd prime $p$ is called regular if $p$ does not divide the class number of $\mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{p}\right]$.

Announcement (Kummer, 1847). FLT holds for regular primes.
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 $0 \leq k \leq p-1$. Thus, in terms of ideals we have:

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

For some $\alpha_{k} \in \mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{p}\right]$ and invertible $u_{k} \in \mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{p}\right]^{*}$ we have:

$$
x+\zeta^{k} y=u_{k} \alpha_{k}^{p}
$$

## 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 $k=2,4, \ldots, p-3$.

## 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 $k=2,4, \ldots, p-3$.

Bernoulli numbers. A sequence $B_{n}$ of signed rational numbers that can be defined by the identity:

$$
\frac{x}{e^{x}-1}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{B_{n} x^{n}}{n!}
$$

## 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 $k=2,4, \ldots, p-3$.

Bernoulli numbers. A sequence $B_{n}$ of signed rational numbers that can be defined by the identity:

$$
\frac{x}{e^{x}-1}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{B_{n} x^{n}}{n!}
$$

They can be also defined recursively by setting $B_{0}=1$, and then using:

$$
\binom{k+1}{1} B_{k}+\binom{k+1}{2} B_{k-1}+\ldots+\binom{k+1}{k} B_{1}+B_{0}=0
$$

## 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 $k=2,4, \ldots, p-3$.

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

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

## 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 $k=2,4, \ldots, p-3$.

Theorem (Jensen, 1915). There are infinitely many irregular primes.

## 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 $k=2,4, \ldots, p-3$.

Theorem (Jensen, 1915). There are infinitely many irregular primes.
Open question. Are there infinitely many regular primes? Are they exactly $e^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ of all primes?

## 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 $k=2,4, \ldots, p-3$.

Theorem (Jensen, 1915). There are infinitely many irregular primes.
Open question. Are there infinitely many regular primes? Are they exactly $e^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ of all primes?

Definition (Irregularity index). A prime $p$ has irregularity index sif $p$ divides exactly s numerators of Bernoulli numbers $B_{k}$ for $k=2,4, \ldots p-3$.

## 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 $k=2,4, \ldots, p-3$.

Theorem (Jensen, 1915). There are infinitely many irregular primes.
Open question. Are there infinitely many regular primes? Are they exactly $e^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ of all primes?

Definition (Irregularity index). A prime $p$ has irregularity index sif $p$ divides exactly s numerators of Bernoulli numbers $B_{k}$ for $k=2,4, \ldots p-3$.

Conjecture (Johnson, Wooldridge, 1975). As $p \rightarrow \infty$, 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 $E_{2 n}$ with $0<2 n<p-1$.

## Euler regular primes

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

Definition (Euler numbers). A sequence $E_{n}$ of signed integral numbers that can be defined by the identity:

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

## Euler regular primes

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

Definition (Euler numbers). A sequence $E_{n}$ of signed integral numbers that can be defined by the identity:

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

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.

## Fermat's Hypothesis...

Theorem. The Diophantine equation:

$$
x^{n}+y^{n}=z^{n}
$$

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

I have discovered a truly marvellous proof of this, which this margin is too narrow to contain.

Pierre de Fermat - around 350 years before...
***

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

## THE END

## Thank you for your attention!

Arkadiusz Męcel
University of Warsaw am234204@students.mimuw.edu.pl
http://students.mimuw.edu.pl/~am234204/

