

1. Primitive Pythagorean Triple

- (a) Definition
a triple of numbers (a,b,c) such that a,b,c have no common factors and $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$
- (b) PPT can be expressed as $a = st, b = \frac{s^2 - t^2}{2}, c = \frac{s^2 + t^2}{2}, s > t \geq 1, \gcd(s,t) = 1, s$ and t are odd.
Thm1: a and b cannot both be odd

Proof. suppose they are all odd

$$a = 2k+1, b = 2p+1, c = 2z$$

$$a^2 + b^2 = 4(k^2 + k + p^2 + p) + 2, c^2 = 4z^2$$

$$a^2 + b^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}, 4|c^2, \text{contradicts.}$$

So a and b cannot both be odd. \square

Thm2: Suppose $a \leftarrow \text{odd } b \leftarrow \text{even } c \leftarrow \text{odd}, a^2 = c^2 - b^2, a,b,c$ are coprime. we want to prove $(c-b)(c+b)$ are coprime.

Proof. Then $a^2 = (c-b)(c+b)$

Suppose they are not coprime (prove by contradict)

Then There exist a prime p s.t. $p|c-b$ or $p|c+b$

$$p|(c+b) + (c-b) \Rightarrow p|2c, p|(c+b) - (c-b) \Rightarrow p|2b$$

Since $p|(c-b)(c+b) \Rightarrow p|a^2 \Rightarrow p|a \Rightarrow p$ is odd. Then

$p|c$ & $p|b$, contradicts with c, b are coprime.

$$a^2 = (c-b)(c+b) \text{ and } (c-b), (c+b) \text{ are coprime.} \quad \square$$

Thm3: x, y are coprime, $a^2 = xy \Rightarrow x, y$ are perfect squares. Can be proved by Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic.

We express $c-b = s^2, c+b = t^2$, then $a = st, b = \frac{s^2 - t^2}{2}, c = \frac{s^2 + t^2}{2}$

2. Fermat's Last Theorem

If $n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq 3, x^n + y^n = z^n$ has no natural number solutions

3. Euclidean algorithm

Suppose $A, B \in \mathbb{N}$ There exist unique Q and R such that $Q \in \mathbb{N}, R \in \mathbb{N}, A = QB + R$. Then $\gcd(A, B) = \gcd(B, R)$

Proof of Correctness:

Proof. Let $d = \gcd(A, B), d_0 = \gcd(B, R)$

On one hand

$$\Rightarrow d|A, d|B \Rightarrow d|R$$

$$d|B, d|R \Rightarrow d \leq d_0$$

On the other hand

$$d_0|B, d_0|R \Rightarrow d_0|A \Rightarrow d_0 \leq d$$

In all: $d = d_0$ i.e. $\gcd(A, B) = \gcd(B, R)$ \square

Thm $\text{LCM}(a, b)\gcd(a, b) = ab$

Proof. let $d = \gcd(a, b)$

we need to find $\text{LCM}(a, b)$ by find the smallest $\text{LCM}(a, b) = ja = kb$.

$$\text{Then } j \frac{a}{d} = k \frac{b}{d}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{a}{d} | \frac{b}{d} k$$

$$\text{since } \gcd\left(\frac{a}{d}, \frac{b}{d}\right) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{a}{d} | k$$

$$\text{smallest } k = \frac{a}{d}$$

Same process, we get $j = \frac{b}{d}$

$$\text{Then } \text{LCM} = ja = \frac{ab}{d} \Rightarrow \text{LCM}(a, b) \cdot \gcd(a, b) = ab \quad \square$$

4. Linear Equations

we can use Euclidean algorithm to get a Linear Equation: $ax_0 + by_0 = \gcd(a, b)$. Thus, we can find a solution to $ax + by = n$ iff $\gcd(a, b) | n$

Thm1: $\gcd(m, n) = 1, m | nc \Rightarrow m | c$

Proof. $\exists x_0, y_0$ s.t. $mx_0 + ny_0 = 1$

$$\text{Then } mx_0c + ny_0c = c$$

$$m | nc \Rightarrow m | (mx_0c + ny_0c) \Rightarrow m | c \quad \square$$

Thm2: suppose p is prime, $p | ab \Rightarrow p | a$ or $p | b$

Proof. if $p | a$, this is true. if $p \nmid a$, then $\gcd(p, a) = 1$ since p is prime.

$$\text{Then } p | ab \Rightarrow p | b \quad \square$$

Thm3: all solutions to $ax + by = \gcd(a, b)$

we can find $ax_0 + by_0 = \gcd(a, b)$ by Euclidean algorithm.

Then we have $ax + by = ax_0 + by_0 = \gcd(a, b)$

$$\text{Then } a(x_0 - x) + b(y_0 - y) = 0 \Rightarrow a(x_0 - x) = b(y - y_0)$$

Divides both sides by $\gcd(a, b)$

$$\frac{a(x_0 - x)}{\gcd(a, b)} = \frac{b(y - y_0)}{\gcd(a, b)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{a}{\gcd(a, b)} | \frac{b}{\gcd(a, b)} \cdot (y - y_0)$$

$$\text{since } \frac{a}{\gcd(a, b)}, \frac{b}{\gcd(a, b)} \text{ are co-prime} \Rightarrow \frac{a}{\gcd(a, b)} | y - y_0$$

$$y = y_0 + k \frac{a}{\gcd(a, b)}$$

$$\text{similarly, } x = x_0 - k \frac{b}{\gcd(a, b)}, \text{ where } k \text{ are the same.}$$

5. Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ where $n \geq 2$, n factors as a product of prime numbers, and does so in a unique way.

6. Chapter 8 Congruences

Properties:

$$\cdot a \equiv a \pmod{m}$$

$$\cdot a \equiv b \pmod{m} \Rightarrow b \equiv a \pmod{m}$$

$$\cdot a \equiv b \pmod{m}, b \equiv c \pmod{m} \Rightarrow a \equiv c \pmod{m}$$

$$\cdot \text{if } a \equiv b \pmod{m}, c \equiv d \pmod{m} \Rightarrow$$

$$a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$$

$$a - c \equiv b - d \pmod{m}$$

$$ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$$

Proof. $m | a - b, m | c - d \Rightarrow m | ac - bc, m | bc - bd \Rightarrow$

$$m | ac - bc + bc - bd \Rightarrow m | ac - bd \Rightarrow ac \equiv bd \pmod{m} \quad \square$$

$$\cdot \gcd(m, c) = 1, ca \equiv cb \pmod{m} \Rightarrow a \equiv b \pmod{m}$$

Proof. $m | ca - cb \Rightarrow m | c(a - b)$ since $\gcd(m, c) = 1$, they are coprime $\Rightarrow m | (a - b) \Rightarrow a \equiv b \pmod{m} \quad \square$

7. Fermat's Little Theorem

If p is prime, and $p \nmid a$ then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

8. Euler's phi function:

$$\phi : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}, \phi = \#\{a | 1 \leq a \leq m, \gcd(a, m) = 1\}$$

Properties:

$$(a) \text{ For prime } p: \phi(p) = p - 1$$

$$(b) \text{ If } \gcd(m, n) = 1, \phi(mn) = \phi(m) \cdot \phi(n)$$

(c) For prime p : $\phi(p^k) = p^k - p^{k-1}$

(d) For number $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k}$
 $\phi(n) = (p_1^{\alpha_1} - p_1^{\alpha_1-1})(p_2^{\alpha_2} - p_2^{\alpha_2-1}) \dots (p_k^{\alpha_k} - p_k^{\alpha_k-1})$
 $= n(1 - \frac{1}{p_1})(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}) \dots (1 - \frac{1}{p_k})$

9. Euler's Phi Formula:

If $\gcd(a, m) = 1$, $a^{\phi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$

Proof. Suppose $\gcd(a, m) = 1$. $b_n, 1 \leq n \leq \phi(m)$ represents all numbers that are co-prime to m .

Consider $A = ab_1, ab_2, ab_3, \dots, ab_{\phi(m)} \pmod{m}$ and $B = b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots, b_{\phi(m)} \pmod{m}$. They have the same number of elements. If all elements in A are congruent to different number mod m , two set are the same.

We prove by contradiction, suppose $ab_i \equiv ab_j \pmod{m} \Rightarrow m | a(b_i - b_j) \Rightarrow m | (b_i - b_j) \Rightarrow b_i \equiv b_j$ contradicts!

Then $b_1 b_2 \dots b_{\phi(m)} \equiv ab_1 ab_2 \dots ab_{\phi(m)} \pmod{m}$

$\Rightarrow \prod_{i=1}^{\phi(m)} b_i \equiv a^{\phi(m)} \prod_{i=1}^{\phi(m)} b_i \pmod{m}$

since b_i 's are coprime to m , $\prod_{i=1}^{\phi(m)} b_i$ are coprime to m .
 $\Rightarrow 1 \equiv a^{\phi(m)} \pmod{m}$ \square

10. Chinese Remainder Theorem

If $\gcd(m, n) = 1$, let $b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then there exist a solution to the simultaneous congruence:

$$\begin{cases} x \equiv b \pmod{m} \\ x \equiv c \pmod{n} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

and such a solution is unique modulo mn

Proof. Existence:

$m | x - b, n | x - c \Rightarrow m\alpha = x - b, n\beta = x - c$

$\Rightarrow m\alpha - n\beta = c - b$ since m, n are coprime

\Rightarrow we can find solution α_0, β_0 such that $m\alpha_0 - n\beta_0 = 1$

$\Rightarrow m\alpha_0(c - b) - n\beta_0(c - b) = c - b$

We get $x = m\alpha_0(c - b) + b$

Uniqueness:

suppose that there are two solution x_0, x_1

$\Rightarrow x_0 \equiv x_1 \equiv b \pmod{m} \quad x_0 \equiv x_1 \equiv c \pmod{n}$

$\Rightarrow m | (x_1 - x_0), n | (x_1 - x_0) \Rightarrow mn | x_1 - x_0$

$\Rightarrow x_1 \equiv x_0 \pmod{mn}$ \square

11. Solving congruences functions

(a) $x^2 \equiv k^2 \pmod{p}$, p is prime

$p | x^2 - k^2 \Rightarrow p | (x - k)(x + k)$

$\Rightarrow x \equiv k \pmod{p}$ or $x \equiv -k \pmod{p}$

(b) $a^k \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$, $\gcd(m, a) = 1$

Use Euler's Phi Formula to decrease k .

(c) $ax \equiv c \pmod{m}$, $\gcd(a, m) | c$

There is no solution if $\gcd(a, m) \nmid c$

$m | ax - c \Rightarrow ym = ax - c \Rightarrow c = ax - ym$

Find an x_0 suits the function by Euclidean Algorithm

Then $ax_0 \equiv c \pmod{m}$. We want to find all x .

Then $ax_0 = ax \pmod{m}$

$m | a(x - x_0) \Rightarrow \frac{m}{\gcd(m, a)} | \frac{a}{\gcd(m, a)} (x - x_0)$

$\gcd(\frac{m}{\gcd(m, a)}, \frac{a}{\gcd(m, a)}) = 1 \Rightarrow \frac{m}{\gcd(m, a)} | x - x_0$

$\Rightarrow x = x_0 + k \frac{m}{\gcd(m, a)}$

(d) $x \equiv b \pmod{m}, x \equiv c \pmod{n}, \gcd(m, n) = 1$

Use Chinese Remainder Theorem's proof

12. Dirichlet's Theorem

If $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, there are infinite number of prime of the form $an + b$.

In book we have primes $3 \pmod{4}$ Theorem, which is a special case of Dirichlet's Theorem.

primes $3 \pmod{4}$ Theorem:

There are infinite number of primes of the form $4n + 3$

Proof. Prove by Contradiction

Suppose there are finite number of $P = \{3, p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_n\}$ in $4n+3$ form.

Consider $A = 4p_1 p_2 \dots p_n + 3$

Since A can be factored to product of primes, $A = q_1 q_2 q_3 \dots q_k$

$q_i \equiv 1, 3 \pmod{4}$ since primes are odd. At least one of the $q_i \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$

If $q_i = 3, 3 | q_1 q_2 \dots q_k \Rightarrow 3 | 4p_1 p_2 \dots p_n + 3 \Rightarrow 3 | 4p_1 p_2 \dots p_n$

Since $3 \nmid 4$, we have $3 | p_1 p_2 \dots p_n$ which contradicts. (p_i 's are primes bigger than 3)

If q_i is one of $\{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\}$

$q_i | A \Rightarrow q_i | 4p_1 p_2 \dots p_n + 3$

Since $q_i | p_1 p_2 \dots p_n, q_i | 4p_1 p_2 \dots p_n$

Then $q_i | 3$. However, q_i is prime and should not divide 3, contradicts.

Therefore, q_i is a new prime of the form $4n + 3$.

Therefore, there are infinite number of primes of the form $4n + 3$ \square

13. Prime Number Theorem:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi(n)}{\frac{n}{\ln n}} = 1$$

where $\pi(n) := \#$ of prime numbers $\leq n$

14. Mersenne Primes

Def: primes have the form of $2^p - 1$

Look at geometric series: $S = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^{n-1}, x > 1, x \in \mathbb{N}$

$S = \frac{x^n - 1}{x - 1}$. So when $x > 2, x^n - 1$ is composite. When n is composite, write n as pq . Thus, $x^p - 1 | x^{pq} - 1 = x^n$, i.e x^n is composite.

Thus, Mersenne Primes have the form $2^p - 1$

15. Perfect Numbers

Def: a number equal to the sum of its proper divisors.

$\sigma(n) = \sum_{d \geq 1, d | n} d$ (sum of all the divisors)

$\hat{\sigma}(n) = \sigma(n) - n$, n is perfect iff $\sigma(n) = 2n$

Property of $\sigma(n)$:

(a) If p is prime, $\sigma(p^k) = 1 + p + p^2 + \dots + p^k = \frac{p^{k+1} - 1}{p - 1}$

(b) $\gcd(m, n) = 1, \sigma(mn) = \sigma(m)\sigma(n)$

All even perfect number have the form: $n = 2^{p-1}(2^p - 1)$

Proof. n is even, write n as $2^a m, a \geq 1, m$ is odd.

$\gcd(m, 2^a) = 1 \rightarrow \sigma(2^a m) = \sigma(2^a)\sigma(m) = (2^{a+1} - 1)\sigma(m)$

since n is perfect number, $\sigma(n) = 2n = 2^{a+1}m$

$\rightarrow 2^{a+1}m = (2^{a+1} - 1)\sigma(m)$

$\rightarrow 2^{a+1}m = (2^{a+1} - 1)(\hat{\sigma}(m) + m)$

$\rightarrow 0 = 2^{a+1}\hat{\sigma}(m) - \hat{\sigma}(m) - m$

$$\rightarrow m = (2^{a+1} - 1)\sigma(\hat{m})$$

since $a > 1$, $\sigma(\hat{m})|m, m > \sigma(\hat{m})$

so $\sigma(\hat{m})$ is a proper divisor of m and $\sigma(\hat{m}) = \sum d$

$\rightarrow \sigma(\hat{m}) = 1$: m has only one divisor that is smaller than itself: $1 \rightarrow m$ is a prime.

$m = 2^{a+1} - 1$, m is a Mersenne Prime. m has the form of $2^p - 1$ and $n = 2^{p-1}(2^p - 1)$ \square