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, $b = \frac{s^2 - t^2}{2}$, $c = \frac{s^2 + t^2}{2}$, $s > t \ge 1$, $\gcd(s,t) = 1$, 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 $a^2 + b^2 = 4(k^2 + k + p^2 + p) + 2$, $c^2 = 4z^2$ $a^2 + b^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$, $4|c^2$, contradits. So a and b cannot both be odd.

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. $a^2 = (c-b)(c+b)$ and (c-b), (c+b) are coprime.

Thm3: x,y are coprime, $a^2 = xy \Rightarrow x$, y are perfect squares. Can be proved by Fundmental 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 $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n \ge 3$, $x^n + y^n = z^n$ 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

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

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

Thm LCM(a, b)gcd(a, b) = ab

Proof. let d = gcd(a,b)

we need to find LCM(a,b) by find the smallest LCM(a,b)

= ja = kb.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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. $\exists x_0, y_0 \text{ s.t. } mx_0 + ny_0 = 1$ Then $mx_0c + ny_0c = c$ $m|nc \Rightarrow m|(mx_0c + ny_0c) \Rightarrow m|c$

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.

Then $p|ab \Rightarrow p|b$

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

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)

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

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

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

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

5. Fundmental Theorem of Arithmetic For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ where $n \ge 2$, 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 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. $m|a-b, m|c-d \Rightarrow m|ac-bc, m|bc-bd \Rightarrow m|ac-bc+bc-bd \Rightarrow m|ac-bd \Rightarrow ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$

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

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

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:

 ϕ : $\mathbf{N} \rightarrow \mathbf{N}$, $\phi = \#\{a | 1 \le a \le m, \gcd(a, m) = 1\}$ Properties:

- (a) For prime p: $\phi(p) = p 1$
- (b) 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. $b_n, 1 \le n \le \phi(m)$ represents all numbers that are co-prime to m.

Consider $A = ab_1, ab_2, ab_3, ..., ab_{\phi(m)} \pmod{m}$ and B = $b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots, b_{\phi(m)}$ (mod 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 $ab_i \equiv ab_i \pmod{m}$ $m) \Rightarrow m|a(b_i - b_j) \Rightarrow m|(b_i - b_j) \Rightarrow b_i \equiv b_j \text{ contradicts!}$

Then $b_1 b_2 \dots b_{\phi(m)} \equiv a b_1 a b_2 \dots a b_{\phi(m)} \pmod{m}$

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

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

10. Chinese Remainder Theorem

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

$$\begin{cases} x \equiv b \mod m \\ x \equiv c \mod m \end{cases}$$
 (1)

and such a solution is unique modulo mn

Proof. Existence:

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

- $\Rightarrow m\alpha n\beta = c b$ 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

- $\Rightarrow x_0 \equiv x_1 \equiv b \pmod{m}$ $x_0 \equiv x_1 \equiv c \pmod{n}$
- $\Rightarrow m|(x_1-x_0), n|(x_1-x_0) \Rightarrow mn|x_1-x_0$
- $\Rightarrow x_1 \equiv x_0 \pmod{mn}$
- 11. Solving congruences functions

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

 $p|x^2 - k^2 \Rightarrow p|(x - k)(x + k)$ $\Rightarrow x \equiv k \pmod{m}$ or $x \equiv -k \pmod{m}$

- (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) $x \equiv b \pmod{m}$, $x \equiv c \pmod{m}$, gcd(m,n) = 1Use Chinese Remainder Theorm'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 (mod 4) Theorem, which is a special case of Dirichlet's Theorem.

primes 3 (mod 4) Theorem:

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

Proof. Prove by Contradiction

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

Consider $A = 4p_1p_2...p_n + 3$

Since A can be factored to product of primes, A =

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

If $q_i = 3$, $3|q_1q_2...q_k \Rightarrow 3|4p_1p_2...p_n + 3 \Rightarrow 3|4p_1p_2...p_n$ Since $3 \nmid 4$, we have $3 \mid p_1 p_2 \dots p_n$ which contradicts.(p_i 's are primes bigger than 3)

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

 $q_i|A \Rightarrow q_i|4p_1p_2...p_n + 3$

Since $q_i|p_1p_2...p_n$, $q_i|4p_1p_2...p_n$

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

13. Prime Number Theorem:

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

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

14. Mersenne Primes

Def: primes have the form of $a^n - 1$ 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, $x^p - 1 | x^{p^q} - 1 = x^n$, 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.

 $\sigma(n) = \sum_{d \ge 1, d|n} d$ (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 $2^a m$, $a \ge 1$, 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, $\sigma(n) = 2n = 2^{a+1}m$ $\rightarrow 0 = 2^{a+1}\hat{\sigma}(m) - \hat{\sigma}(m) - m$

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\rightarrow m = (2^{a+1} - 1)\hat{\sigma}(m) since a > 1, \hat{\sigma}(m)|m, m > \hat{\sigma}(m) so \hat{\sigma}(m) is a proper divisor of m and \hat{\sigma}(m) = \sum d \rightarrow \hat{\sigma}(m) = 1: m has only one divsor that is smaller than itself: 1 → 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) □
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- 16. Powers Modulo m and Successive Squaring Successive Squaring: a^b mod m when b and m are big.
 - (a) Write b in binary representation: $b = b_0 1 + b_1 2 + b_2 2^2 + b_3 2^3 \dots, b_i \in \{0, 1\}$
 - (b) calculate $a^{1}, a^{2} ... a^{2^{k}} \mod m$: $a^{2} \mod m = (a \mod m)^{2}$ $a^{4} \mod m = (a^{2} \mod m)^{2}$... $a^{p} \mod m = (a^{p-1} \mod m)^{2}$
 - (c) time them together and find modulo: e.g. $b_0, b_3, b_4 = 1$, other b_i 's are 0: $a^b \mod m = a^{2^0} * a^{2^3} * a^{2^4} \mod m$ $a^{2^0}, a^{2^3}, a^{2^4} \mod m$ was calucated in 2nd step
- 17. Computing k^{th} Roots Modulo m Given gcd(b, m) = 1, $gcd(k, \phi(m)) = 1$ Calculate $x^k \equiv b \mod m$:
 - (a) calculate $\phi(m)$
 - (b) Find positive integers u, v where $ku = \phi(m)v + 1$ Just use Euclidean algorithm and find $ku - \phi(m)v = 1$
 - (c) $x^{ku} \equiv x^{\phi(m)v+1} \equiv x \equiv b^u \mod m$ Find positive pair of u,v: $u = u_0 + p \frac{\phi(m)}{\gcd(k,\phi(m))} = u_0 + p\phi(m)$ $v = v_0 - p \frac{k}{\gcd(k,\phi(m))} = v_0 + pk$, p is a parameter $x^{ku} \equiv b^u \equiv x \mod m$, calculate $b^u \mod m$ use Successive Squaring

NOT FINDING POSSITIVE PAIR: $x^{ku} \equiv b^u \equiv b^{p\phi(m)+u}$ p is parameter $(b^{p\phi(m)} \equiv 1)$ we can finally get a positive $p\phi(m) + u$

18. Primality Testing and Carmichael Numbers Carmichael Number: a composite number n that satisfy: $a^n \equiv a \mod n$, a is all number < n