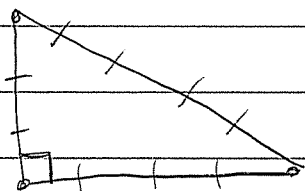


HW 2 Ave 17.5  
Med 18 / 20.

Mon Sept 24.

Back to the story of math...

We all know that  $3^2 + 4^2 = 5^2$



(Ancient engineering)

Maybe you also know  $5^2 + 12^2 = 13^2$ .

Q: How could we find more of these  
"Pythagorean triples"?

(i.e. integers  $a, b, c$  such that  $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$ )

==

There is a Babylonian clay tablet from  
~1800 BC ("Plimpton 322") that contains  
a systematic table of 15 Pyth. triples  
- suggests they knew a method.

eg.  $120^2 + 119^2 = 169^2$

⋮

$$90^2 + 56^2 = 106^2$$

==

We will solve the problem.

Suppose  $a, b, c$  are integers with  $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$

Divide by  $c^2$  to get

$$\frac{a^2}{c^2} + \frac{b^2}{c^2} = 1$$

$$\left(\frac{a}{c}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{b}{c}\right)^2 = 1.$$

$\Rightarrow (x, y) = \left(\frac{a}{c}, \frac{b}{c}\right)$  is a "rational point" on the unit circle, written with a common denominator. We may assume  $a, b, c$  have no common factor.

Conversely, let  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  with  $x, y$  rational and write  $x = \frac{a}{c}$ ,  $y = \frac{b}{c}$  and reduce

fractions so  $a, b, c$  have no common factors.

Then

$$\left(\frac{a}{c}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{b}{c}\right)^2 = 1$$

$$\frac{a^2}{c^2} + \frac{b^2}{c^2} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow a^2 + b^2 = c^2.$$

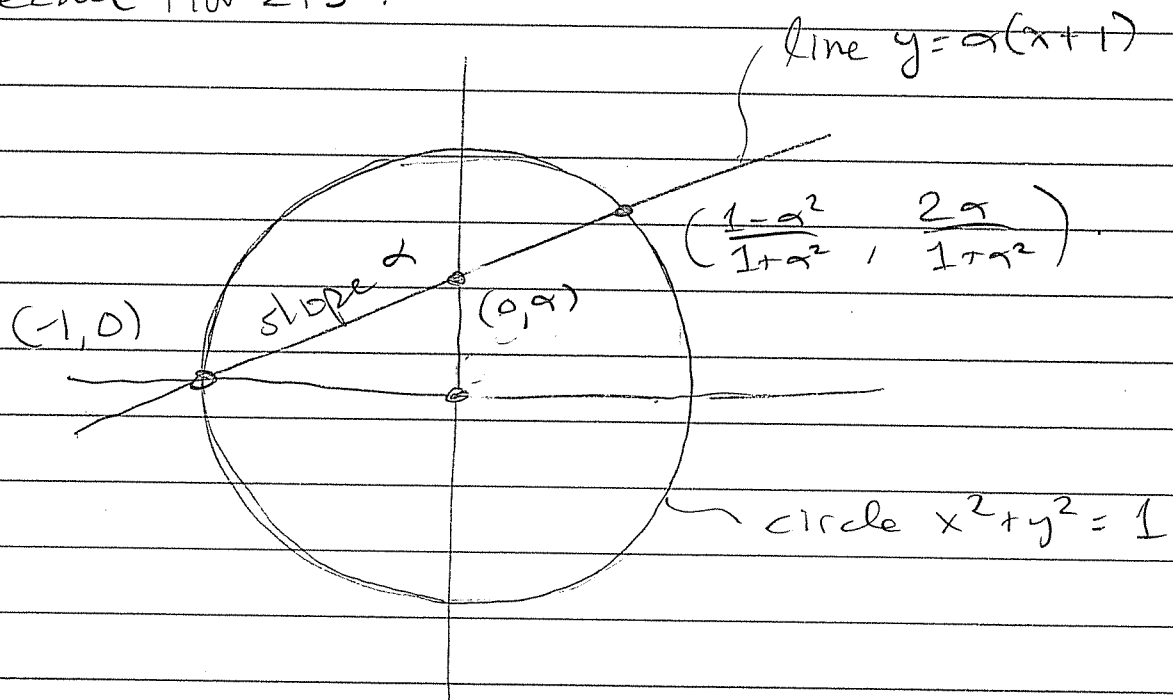
Conclusion: There is a bijection between

rational points on  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$   $\iff$  Pythagorean triples  $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$   
where  $a, b, c$  have no common factor.

"Primitive Pyth. Triples".

Does this help?

Recall HW 2.5.



You proved:  $\alpha$  is rational  $\iff$  the point  $(\frac{1 - \alpha^2}{1 + \alpha^2}, \frac{2\alpha}{1 + \alpha^2})$  is rational

Idea: As  $\alpha$  moves between  $-\infty$  and  $+\infty$  we get every rational point on  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  (i.e. primitive Pythagorean triple) exactly once.

So let  $\alpha = m/n$  in lowest terms. Then

$$\frac{1-\alpha^2}{1+\alpha^2} = \frac{1-m^2/n^2}{1+m^2/n^2} = \frac{n^2-m^2}{n^2+m^2}$$

$$\frac{2\alpha}{1+\alpha^2} = \frac{2m/n}{1+m^2/n^2} = \frac{2mn}{n^2+m^2}$$

Hence

$$\left(\frac{n^2-m^2}{n^2+m^2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{2mn}{n^2+m^2}\right)^2 = 1$$

$$(n^2-m^2)^2 + (2mn)^2 = (n^2+m^2)^2$$

this gives us all the primitive Pythagorean triples.

eg.

Coprime

prim. Pyth. triple.

$$(m, n) \longrightarrow (n^2 - m^2, 2mn, n^2 + m^2)$$

$$(1, 2) \longrightarrow (3, 4, 5) \quad 3^2 + 4^2 = 5^2$$

$$(2, 3) \longrightarrow (5, 12, 13) \quad 5^2 + 12^2 = 13^2$$

$$(3, 4) \longrightarrow (7, 24, 25) \quad 7^2 + 24^2 = 25^2$$

⋮

$$(55, 72) \longrightarrow (2159, 7920, 8209)$$

$$2159^2 + 7920^2 = 8209^2$$

To get all Pythagorean Triples, just scale these.

Theorem: Every Pyth. Triple  $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$  has the form

$$(a, b, c) = (k(n^2 - m^2), k2mn, k(n^2 + m^2))$$

for some integers  $k, m, n$ . (And every triple of this form is Pythagorean.)

Euclid knew this (Prop X.29), but he didn't know about rational points on a circle (Why?).

The "parametrization" of rational  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

by  $x = \frac{1-t^2}{1+t^2}$ ,  $y = \frac{2t}{1+t^2}$

was discovered by Diophantus of Alexandria  $\sim 250$  AD in his "Arithmetica" (of 13 books, only 6 have survived).

==  
Thinking Homework:

Find all the rational points on  $x^2 + y^2 = 3$

Wed Sept 26.

Exam 1 Average 16.8  
Median 18.5 / 20.

(Ave. too high to assign grades :-( )  
≥ 10 is a pass.

== (Compare Euclid ~ 300 BC)

Recall: Diophantus of Alexandria ~ 250 AD  
knew the following in some form.

∃ bijection between rational numbers and  
rational points on the unit circle (minus  
one special point).

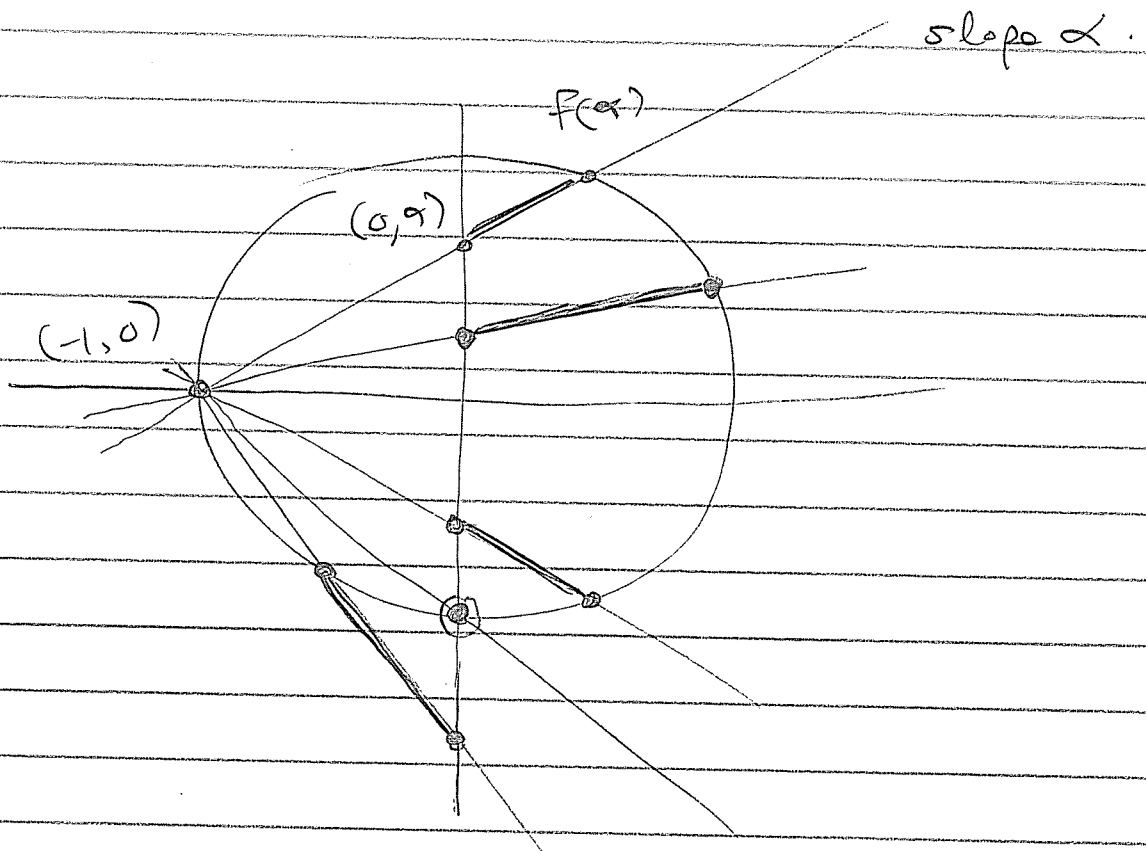
set of rational numbers  $\mathbb{Q}$   $\xrightarrow{f}$   $\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{Q}^2 : x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$   
 $-\{( -1, 0 \}$

Defined by  $f(\alpha) := \left( \frac{1-\alpha^2}{1+\alpha^2}, \frac{2\alpha}{1+\alpha^2} \right)$ .

We showed this function is invertible  
with inverse

$$f^{-1}(x, y) = \frac{y}{x+1}$$

Modern (Cartesian) Picture :



Think of y-axis as  $\mathbb{Q}$   
 $(0, \alpha) \longleftrightarrow \alpha$

Diophantus used this to classify  
"Pythagorean Triples"

$$(a, b, c) \in \mathbb{Z}^3 \text{ with } a^2 + b^2 = c^2$$



Then Alexandria fell.

- the library was destroyed
- Hypatia was murdered.

⋮

people forgot

⋮

(13 books)

6 books of Diophantus' "Arithmetica" survived. Bachet's edition was published in 1621.

Enter Pierre de Fermat.

Quote: "perhaps posterity will thank me for having shown it that the ancients did not know everything"

Theorem (Fermat): There are **NO** rational points on the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 3$ .

Proof ?



Suppose that there is a rational point.  
Take common denominators to write

$$\left(\frac{A}{c}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{B}{c}\right)^2 = 3$$

$$A^2 + B^2 = 3C^2 \quad (*)$$

for some integers  $A, B, C$ .

(\*) implies that  $A$  and  $B$  are both multiples of 3. (Why? There are four cases.)

So let  $A = 3a$  and  $B = 3b$ . Then

$$(3a)^2 + (3b)^2 = 3C^2$$

$$9a^2 + 9b^2 = 3C^2$$

$$3a^2 + 3b^2 = C^2$$

$$3(a^2 + b^2) = C^2$$

Hence  $C^2$  (and also  $C$ ) is a multiple of 3. Say  $C = 3c$ . Then

$$A^2 + B^2 = 3C^2$$

$$(3a)^2 + (3b)^2 = 3(3c)^2$$

$$9a^2 + 9b^2 = 27c^2$$

$$a^2 + b^2 = 3c^2$$

So what?

IF  $(A, B, C)$  is an integer solution to  $A^2 + B^2 = 3C^2$ , then so is

$$(a, b, c) = \left( \frac{A}{3}, \frac{B}{3}, \frac{C}{3} \right).$$

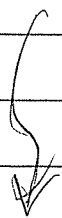
Repeat: Then we get another solution

$$(a', b', c') = \left( \frac{a}{3}, \frac{b}{3}, \frac{c}{3} \right).$$

Repeat... Wait, this is impossible.  
CONTRADICTION

This is called Fermat's method of "infinite descent".

He used it to prove that many "Diophantine equations" have NO solution

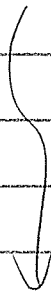


1670 : Pierre's son published an edition of  
Arithmetica with comments by Pierre.  
In it Fermat claimed that

$x^n + y^n = z^n$  has NO integer solution  
when  $n \geq 3$ .

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

OOPS!



Andrew Wiles proved it in 1995

Fri Sept 8

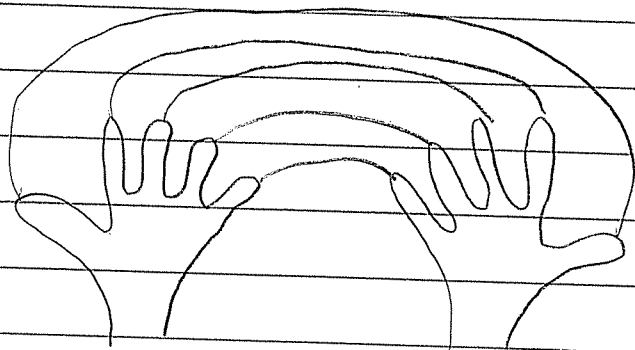
Today: The definition of  $\mathbb{Z}$

Q: What is a "number"?  
(The Greeks tried and failed to answer this.)

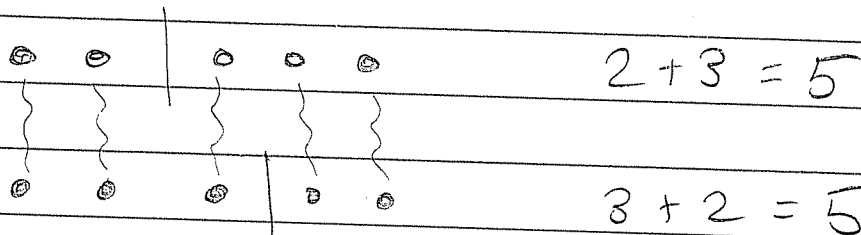
Step 1: A "number" is a quantity of discrete things (e.g. pebbles on a beach).

Two collections of things have the same "number" if  $\exists$  a bijection between them.

eg.



"Numbers" can be added and multiplied.



Theorem: Addition is commutative!

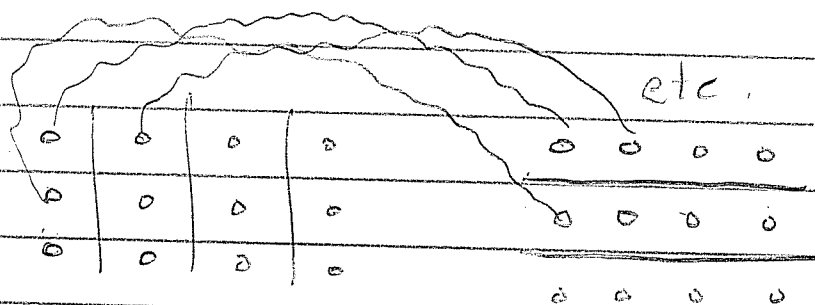
Next: 

o	o	o	o
o	o	o	o
o	o	o	o

 $4 \times 3 = 12$

Is  $\times$  commutative? Yes!

Proof:  $\exists$  bijection



$$4 \times 3 = 3 \times 4$$



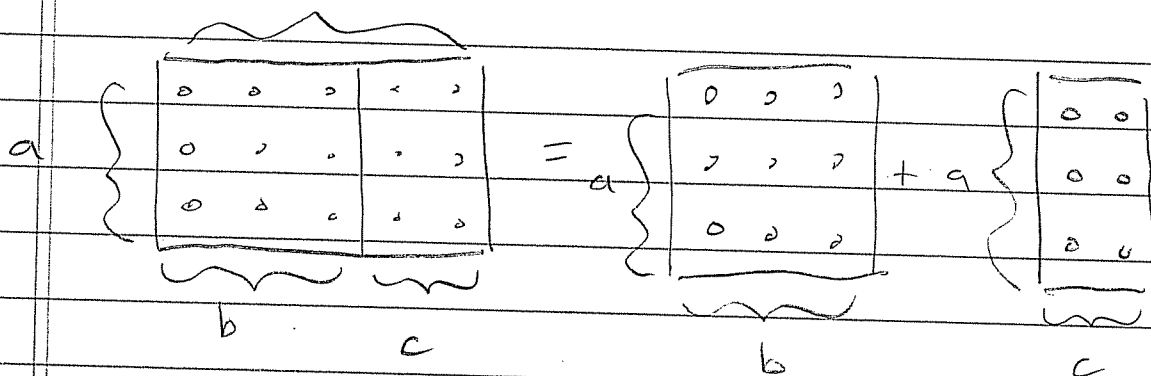
(Did you realize this needs a proof?)

Next: How do  $+$  and  $\times$  interact?

Answer: They "distribute"

$$a \times (b + c) = a \times b + a \times c$$

Proof:  $b+c$



Thus we can "define" the "natural numbers"  
(the "counting numbers")

$$\mathbb{N} := \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

with commutative & distributive  $+$ ,  $\times$ .

Q: Would a Martian Know this too?

Leopold Kronecker (1823-1891) thought so.

Quote: "God made  $\mathbb{N}$ ; all else  
is the work of man."

(Do you agree?  
Compare Euclid.)

Issues :

- What about zero?
- What about subtraction?
- What about order/comparison?  
(e.g.  $5 < 23$ )

These are much harder. Over time, our idea of "number" evolved into

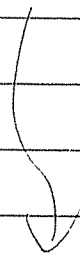
The Integers  $\mathbb{Z} := \{ \dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots \}$ .

SEE THE HANDOUT.

- There are 12 Axioms!
- The first 11 are "obvious", but they can't distinguish between  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Q: So what is the difference between  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $\mathbb{R}$ ?

- This is a subtle question, and it leads to the final Axiom





## ★ The Well-Ordering Axiom ★

Every non-empty subset of  $\mathbb{N}$  has a smallest element.

Formally:

$$\forall X \subseteq \mathbb{N}, X \neq \emptyset, \exists a \in X, \forall b \in X, a \leq b.$$

"For all subsets  $X$  of  $\mathbb{N}$  such that  $X$  is not empty, there exists a number  $a$  in  $X$  such that for all numbers  $b$  in  $X$  we have  $a \leq b$ ."

(Exercise: Show that  $\mathbb{R}$  is not well-ordered.)

---

### First Application:

Theorem: There are no uninteresting natural numbers.



Proof: Suppose for contradiction that there is an uninteresting natural number and let  $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  be the set of such. Since by assumption  $X \neq \emptyset$ , the Well-Ordering Axiom says that  $X$  has a smallest element, say  $a \in X$ . But then  $a$  is the "smallest uninteresting number", which is interesting, contradicting the fact that  $a \in X$ .



(I learned this proof from the audio commentary on a "Futurama" DVD.)

Mon Oct 1

HW 3 due Fri Oct 12.

Today: Subtraction and Division.

I gave you a definition of  $\mathbb{Z}$  but it only defines  $+$  and  $\times$ . What about  $-$  and  $\div$ ?

Axioms of Addition:

$$(A1) \forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, a + b = b + a.$$

$$(A2) \forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}, a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c.$$

$$(A3) \exists "0" \in \mathbb{Z}, \forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 + a = a.$$

$$(A4) \forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, \exists b \in \mathbb{Z}, a + b = 0.$$

A4 says: For all  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  there is some  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $a + b = 0$ .

Theorem: This  $b$  is unique. It is called THE additive inverse of  $a$ .

Proof: Suppose that there are two, say

$$a + b_1 = 0 = a + b_2.$$



Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} b_1 &= 0 + b_1 && \text{(A3)} \\ &= b_1 + 0 && \text{(A1)} \\ &= b_1 + (a + b_2) && \text{assumption} \\ &= (b_1 + a) + b_2 && \text{(A2)} \\ &= (a + b_1) + b_2 && \text{(A1)} \\ &= 0 + b_2 && \text{assumption} \\ &= b_2 \end{aligned}$$



Definition: Given  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  let " $-a$ " denote  
THE additive inverse of  $a$ .

Then we can define subtraction. For all  
 $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , let

$$"a - b" ::= a + (-b)$$

Q: How does subtraction interact  
with multiplication?

See HW 3.4

What about division?

Unfortunately, multiplication of integers is not invertible.

$\nexists n \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $2n = 1$  ☹️

But we can still say something useful.

Theorem (The Division Algorithm 2.12) :

Given  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $b > 0$ , there exist unique  $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$a = q \cdot b + r \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq r < b$$

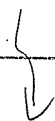
↑      ↑  
"quotient"   "remainder"

eg.

$$15 = 2 \cdot 6 + 3 \quad \checkmark$$

$$15 = 3 \cdot 6 - 3 \quad \times$$

We need  $0 \leq r < b$  for uniqueness.



eg.  $30 = 5 \cdot 6 + 0$ .

If the remainder is 0 we say  
"b divides a" and we write  $b|a$ .

DEF: Given  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , the symbol  
 $b|a$  means  $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $a = bk$ .  
(it's an existence statement)

eg.  $-10 = (-2) \cdot 6 + 2$ .  $\checkmark$

Quotient can be negative  
Remainders can't.

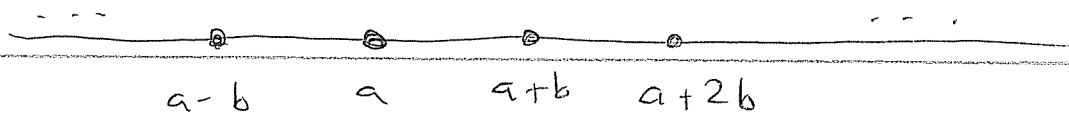
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Try to prove the Theorem.

It's easy to find  $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  
 $a = qb + r$ , but maybe harder  
to find  $0 \leq r < b$ .

Idea: Given  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $b > 0$ , consider  
the infinite set

$$S = \{ \dots, a-b, a, a+b, a+2b, \dots \}$$



What do we want?

If  $r = a - qb$  then  $a = qb + r$  ✓

So we want to find  $q$  such that  $r = a - qb$  is small and nonnegative.

Let  $S^+ = \{n \in S : n \geq 0\}$ .

By Well-Ordering,  $S^+$  has a smallest element call it  $r = a - qb$ .

Clearly  $0 \leq r$ .

We need to show that  $r < b$

Suppose for contradiction that  $b \leq r$ , and subtract  $b$  to get  $0 \leq r - b < r$

But this is a contradiction because

$$r - b = a - qb - b = a - (q+1)b \in S^+$$

and  $r$  was assumed to be smallest in  $S^+$ .

Hence  $0 \leq r < b$ .

Summary: Given  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $b > 0$ ,

Well-ordering  $\Rightarrow \exists q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  with

$$a = qb + r \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq r < b,$$

Are these  $q, r$  unique?