

## Math 445 Number Theory

September 20, 2004

Finishing our proof that for  $n$  prime, there is an  $a$  with  $\text{ord}_n(a) = n - 1$  : we introduce the notation  $p^k||N$ , which means that  $p^k|N$  but  $p^{k+1} \nmid N$  .

For each prime  $p_i$  dividing  $n - 1$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq s$ , we let  $p_i^{k_i}||n - 1$  . Then the equation  $(*)$   $x^{p_i^{k_i}} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  has  $p_i^{k_i}$  solutions, while  $(\dagger)$   $x^{p_i^{k_i-1}} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  has only  $p_i^{k_i-1} < p_i^{k_i}$  solutions; pick a solution,  $a_i$  to  $(*)$  which is not a solution to  $(\dagger)$  . [In particular,  $\text{ord}_n(a_i) = p_i^{k_i}$ .] Then set  $a = a_1 \cdots a_s$  . Then a computation yields that, mod  $n$ ,  $a^{\frac{n-1}{p_i}} \equiv a_i^{\frac{n-1}{p_i}} \not\equiv 1$ , since otherwise  $\text{ord}_n(a_i) \mid \frac{n-1}{p_i}$ , and so  $\text{ord}_n(a_i) \mid \text{gcd}(p_i^{k_i}, \frac{n-1}{p_i}) = p_i^{k_i-1}$  , a contradiction. So  $p_i^{k_i}||\text{ord}_n(a)$  for every  $i$ , so  $n - 1 \mid \text{ord}_n(a)$ , so  $\text{ord}_n(a) = n - 1$ .

This result is fine for theoretical purposes (and we will use it many times), but it is somewhat less than satisfactory for computational purposes; this process of *finding* such an  $a$  would be very laborious.

*Pythagorean triples:* If  $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$ , then we call  $(a, b, c)$  a Pythagorean triple. Their connection to right triangles is well-known, and so it is of interest to know what the triples are! It is fairly straightforward to generate a lot of them (e,g, via  $(n + 1)^2 = n^2 + (2n + 1)$ , so any odd square  $k^2 = 2n + 1$  can be used to build one). But to find them all takes a bit more work:

A Pythagorean triple  $(a, b, c)$  is *primitive* if the three numbers share no common factor. This is equivalent, in this case, to  $(a, b) = (a, c) = (b, c) = 1$  . Then by considering the equation mod 4, we can see that for a primitive triple,  $c$  must be odd,  $a$  (say) even and  $b$  odd. If we then write the equation as  $a^2 = c^2 - b^2 = (c + b)(c - b)$ , we find that we have factored  $a^2$  in two different ways. Since  $a, b + c$  and  $b - c$  are all even, we can write  $(a/2)^2 = [(c + b)/2]^2[(c - b)/2]^2$  But because  $(c + b)/2 + (c - b)/2 = c$  and  $(c + b)/2 - (c - b)/2 = b$ ,  $\text{gcd}((c + b)/2, (c - b)/2) = 1$  . Then we can apply:

*Proposition:* If  $(x, y) = 1$  and  $xy = c^2$ , then  $x = u^2, y = v^2$  for some integers  $u, v$  .

This allows us to write  $(c + b)/2 = u^2$  and  $(c - b)/2 = v^2$  , so  $c = u^2 + v^2$  and  $b = u^2 - v^2$  . Also,  $(a/2)^2 = u^2v^2 = (uv)^2$  , so  $a = 2uv$  . So we find that if  $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$  is a primitive Pythagorean triple (with the parity information above), then

$$a = 2uv , b = u^2 - v^2 , \text{ and } c = u^2 + v^2 \text{ for some integers } u, v .$$

Note that such a triple *is* a Pythagorean triple; these formulas therefore describe *all* primitive Pythagorean triples.