

## A little arithmetic

**Lemma 27** For all positive integers  $p$  and natural numbers  $m$ , if  $m = 0$  or  $m = p$  then  $\binom{p}{m} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

PROOF: Let  $p$  be a pos. int. and  $m$  a nat. number

Assume  $m=0 \vee m=p$

RTP:  $\binom{p}{m} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

$$C_m^p = \binom{p}{m} = \frac{p!}{m!(p-m)!}$$

Consider  $m=0$ . Then  $\binom{p}{0} = 1$  and we are done.

Consider  $m=p$ . Then  $\binom{p}{p} = 1$  and we are done.  $\square$

**Lemma 28** For all integers  $p$  and  $m$ , if  $p$  is prime and  $0 < m < p$  then  $\binom{p}{m} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ .

PROOF: Let  $p$  and  $m$  be integers.

Assume  $p$  prime and  $0 < m < p$ .

RTP:  $\binom{p}{m} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$

$$\binom{p}{m} = \frac{p!}{m!(p-m)!}$$

Then

$$m!(p-m)! \binom{p}{m} = p \cdot (p-1)!$$

} is a natural number

So  $p$  divides  $m!(p-m)! \cdot \binom{p}{m}$ . And  $p$  does not divide  $m!(p-m)!$ . Therefore it divides  $\binom{p}{m}$ .



WR: The argument hinges on the prime factorization theorem and

$$p \mid (a \cdot b) \Rightarrow (p \mid a \text{ or } p \mid b) \quad p \text{ prime}$$

So that

$$(p \mid (a \cdot b) \text{ and } p \nmid a) \Rightarrow p \mid b.$$

**Proposition 29** For all prime numbers  $p$  and integers  $0 \leq m \leq p$ , either  $\binom{p}{m} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  or  $\binom{p}{m} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

PROOF: Let  $p$  be a prime and  $m$  an integer  $0 \leq m \leq p$ .

Case  $m=0$  or  $m=p$ : Then  $\binom{p}{m} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

Case  $0 < m < p$ : Then  $\binom{p}{m} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ .

Therefore either  $\binom{p}{m} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  or  $\binom{p}{m} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

□

# Newton's Binomial Formula

$$(x+y)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} x^i y^{n-i}$$

Say  $n$  is a prime, what's

$$\begin{aligned} (x+y)^n &\equiv \binom{n}{0} y^n + \binom{n}{n} x^n \pmod{n} \\ &\equiv y^n + x^n. \end{aligned}$$

## A little more arithmetic

**Corollary 33 (The Freshman's Dream)** For all natural numbers  $m$ ,  $n$  and primes  $p$ ,

$$(m + n)^p \equiv m^p + n^p \pmod{p} .$$

PROOF: Let  $m$  and  $n$  be natural numbers, and  $p$  be a prime. Then

$$(m+n)^p = \sum_{i=0}^p \binom{p}{i} m^i n^{p-i} = m^p + n^p + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \binom{p}{i} m^i n^{p-i}$$

Since  $\binom{p}{i} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  for  $0 < i < p$ . Then, we are done. □

NB:  $a \equiv b \pmod{m} \quad x \equiv y \pmod{m}$

$\Rightarrow a + x \equiv b + y \pmod{m}$

$a \cdot x \equiv b \cdot y \pmod{m}$

**Corollary 34 (The Dropout Lemma)** For all natural numbers  $m$  and primes  $p$ ,

$$(m + 1)^p \equiv m^p + 1 \pmod{p} .$$

**Proposition 35 (The Many Dropout Lemma)** For all natural numbers  $m$  and  $i$ , and primes  $p$ ,

$$(m + i)^p \equiv m^p + i \pmod{p} .$$

PROOF: Let  $m$  and  $i$  be natural numbers, and  $p$  be a prime. Consider

$$(m+i)^p = \left( \underbrace{m+1+1+\dots+1}_{i \text{ times}} \right)^p \equiv \left( \underbrace{m+1+\dots+1}_{i-1 \text{ times}} \right)^p + 1$$

$$\equiv \left( \underbrace{m+1+1+\dots+1}_{i-2 \text{ times}} \right)^p + \underbrace{1+1}_{2 \text{ times}} \equiv \dots \equiv \left( \underbrace{m+1+\dots+1}_{i-k \text{ times}} \right)^p + \underbrace{(1+\dots+1)}_{k \text{ times}}$$



For  $k=i$ , we have

$$(m+i)^p \equiv m^p + i \pmod{p} .$$

□

For  $m=0$ ,

$$i^p \equiv i \pmod{p}$$

Then

$$(i^p - i) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

and so

$$p \text{ divides } i(i^{p-1} - 1)$$

From which we have  $p$  divides  $(i^{p-1} - 1)$  whenever  $p$  does not divide  $i$ .

Thus.

$$i^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

whenever  $p$  does not divide  $i$ .

Then

$$i \cdot (i^{p-2}) \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

whenever  $i \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ .

So modulo  $p$ ,  $i^{p-2}$  is a reciprocal of  $i$

for  $i \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ .

# Fermat's Little Theorem

The Many Dropout Lemma (Proposition 35) gives the first part of the following very important theorem as a corollary.

**Theorem 36 (Fermat's Little Theorem)** *For all natural numbers  $i$  and primes  $p$ ,*

1.  $i^p \equiv i \pmod{p}$ , and
2.  $i^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  whenever  $i$  is not a multiple of  $p$ .

The fact that the first part of Fermat's Little Theorem implies the second one will be proved later on .

Every natural number  $i$  not a multiple of a prime number  $p$  has a *reciprocal* modulo  $p$ , namely  $i^{p-2}$ , as  $i \cdot (i^{p-2}) \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

## Btw

1. Fermat's Little Theorem has applications to:
  - (a) primality testing<sup>a</sup>,
  - (b) the verification of floating-point algorithms, and
  - (c) cryptographic security.

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<sup>a</sup>For instance, to establish that a positive integer  $m$  is not prime one may proceed to find an integer  $i$  such that  $i^m \not\equiv i \pmod{m}$ .

# Negation

Negations are statements of the form

not  $P$

or, in other words,

$P$  is not the case

or

$P$  is absurd

or

$P$  leads to contradiction

or, in symbols,

$\neg P$

## A first proof strategy for negated goals and assumptions:

If possible, reexpress the negation in an *equivalent* form and use instead this other statement.

### Logical equivalences

$$\begin{aligned}\neg(P \implies Q) &\iff P \wedge \neg Q \\ \neg(P \iff Q) &\iff P \iff \neg Q \\ \neg(\forall x. P(x)) &\iff \exists x. \neg P(x) \\ \neg(P \wedge Q) &\iff (\neg P) \vee (\neg Q) \\ \neg(\exists x. P(x)) &\iff \forall x. \neg P(x) \\ \neg(P \vee Q) &\iff (\neg P) \wedge (\neg Q) \\ \neg(\neg P) &\iff P \\ \neg P &\iff (P \implies \mathbf{false})\end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 37** For all statements  $P$  and  $Q$ ,

$$(P \implies Q) \implies (\neg Q \implies \neg P) .$$

PROOF: Let  $P$  and  $Q$  be statements.

The contrapositive of  $P \implies Q$

Assume <sup>②</sup>  $P \implies Q$ .

Assume  $\neg Q \iff$  <sup>③</sup>  $(Q \implies \text{false})$

RTP  $\neg P \iff (P \implies \text{false})$

Assume <sup>①</sup>  $P$

RTP: false

By ① & ②, we have <sup>④</sup>  $Q$ . By ③ & ④, we have false  $\square$



# Proof by contradiction

Amongst the equivalences for negation, we have postulated the somewhat controversial:

$$\neg\neg P \iff P$$

which is *classically* accepted.

In this light,

to prove  $P$

one may equivalently

prove  $\neg P \implies \text{false}$  ;

that is,

assuming  $\neg P$  leads to contradiction .

This technique is known as *proof by contradiction*.

## The strategy for proof by contradiction:

To prove a goal  $P$  by contradiction is to prove the equivalent statement  $\neg P \implies \text{false}$

### Proof pattern:

In order to prove

$P$

1. **Write:** We use proof by contradiction. So, suppose  $P$  is false.
2. **Deduce a logical contradiction.**
3. **Write:** This is a contradiction. Therefore,  $P$  must be true.

## Scratch work:

Before using the strategy

Assumptions

Goal

$P$

⋮

After using the strategy

Assumptions

Goal

contradiction

⋮

$\neg P$

**Theorem 39** For all statements  $P$  and  $Q$ ,

$$(\neg Q \implies \neg P) \implies (P \implies Q) .$$

PROOF: Let  $P$  and  $Q$  be statements.

Assume <sup>①</sup>  $\neg Q \implies \neg P$

Assume <sup>②</sup>  $P$

RTP :  $Q$

We proceed by contradiction

Assume <sup>③</sup>  $\neg Q$

RTP : false

By <sup>①</sup> & <sup>③</sup>, we have <sup>④</sup>  $\neg P$ . And <sup>②</sup> & <sup>④</sup> is a contradiction.  $\square$

## Proof by contrapositive

**Corollary 40** *For all statements P and Q,*

$$(P \implies Q) \iff (\neg Q \implies \neg P) .$$

**Btw** Using the above equivalence to prove an implication is known as *proof by contrapositive*.

**Corollary 41** *For every positive irrational number  $x$ , the real number  $\sqrt{x}$  is irrational.*