Diophantus' 20th Problem and Fermat's Last Theorem for $n = 4$

Formalization of Fermat's Proofs
in the Coq Proof Assistant

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Abstract. We present the proof of Diophantus' 20th problem (book VI of Diophantus' *Arithmetica*), which consists in wondering if there exist right triangles whose sides may be measured as integers and whose surface may be a square. This problem was negatively solved by Fermat in the 17th century, who used the *wonderful* method (*ipse dixit* Fermat) of infinite descent. This method, which is, historically, the first use of induction, consists in producing smaller and smaller non-negative integer solutions assuming that one exists; this naturally leads to a *reductio ad absurdum* reasoning because we are bounded by zero. We describe the formalization of this proof which has been carried out in the Coq proof assistant. Moreover, as a direct and no less historical application, we also provide the proof (by Fermat) of Fermat's last theorem for $n = 4$, as well as the corresponding formalization made in Coq.

1 Introduction

Diophantus of Alexandria (c. AD 250) was a Greek mathematician whose life is little known but who wrote the 13 books of a collection called *Arithmetica* [13]. Diophantus is usually considered to be the father of Algebra, and his books consider more than 130 problems (most of which have been solved) of first and second order leading to equations whose roots are either integer or fractional. Until 1972, only 6 books of this collection had been retrieved (in the 15th century in Italy by Regiomontanus) when 4 other books were found in Iran. The collection was translated in the 16th century by Wilhelm Holtzmann (also known as Xylander) at Heidelberg (in Germany) and completed (in France) in Latin by Claude-Gaspard Bachet De Méziriac. Diophantus' work had a significant influence on Arabic mathematicians but also on western (and essentially French)

mathematicians like Viete and Fermat. In the 17th century, reading Bachet's translation (now lost) of book VI (related to propositions over right triangles whose sides are measured as integers), Pierre Simon de Fermat (1601-1665) [4] was interested, amongst others, in the following problem (20th problem): can a right triangle whose sides are measured as integers have a surface measured as a square? Formally, this is equivalent to knowing if there exist four non-zero integers x, y, z and t s.t.:

$$x^2 + y^2 = z^2 \text{ and } xy = 2t^2.$$

We know that the first equation has an infinity of solutions (for example, 3, 4 and 5, etc), called Pythagorean triples [14] (for they measure the sides of a right triangle and verify Pythagoras' relation), but with the condition over the surface the problem is a little more difficult so that Fermat answered this question negatively [11] using a *wonderful* method (the word was applied by Fermat himself): the infinite descent [4,21,10]. This method is based on the fact that there does not exist any strictly decreasing non-negative integer sequence. Thus, starting from a lemma characterizing Pythagorean triples, Fermat's idea consists in re-expressing the problem with (strictly) smaller non-negative integers. More precisely, Fermat concludes his proof as follows (quotation of the original text [4] in modern French):

> *Si on donne deux carrés dont la somme et la différence sont des carrés, on donne par là même, en nombres entiers, deux carrés jouissant de la même propriété et dont la somme est inférieure.*

> *Par le même raisonnement, on aura ensuite une autre somme plus petite que celle déduite de la première, et en continuant indéfiniment, on trouvera toujours des nombres entiers de plus en plus petits satisfaisant aux mêmes conditions. Mais cela est impossible, puisqu'un nombre entier étant donné, il ne peut y avoir une infinité de nombres entiers qui soient plus petits.*

which means that given two squares m^2, n^2 s.t. $m^2 + n^2$ and $m^2 - n^2$ are also squares, we can find two squares m'^2, n'^2 with the same properties s.t. $m'^2 + n'^2 < m^2 + n^2$. Re-applying the process infinitely, we always find smaller non-negative integers (w.r.t. $m^2 + n^2$), which is impossible because we are bounded by zero.

This proof is worth being formalized in a theorem prover for several reasons. First, this is a *nice* mathematical proof in the sense that it is rather short (without, nonetheless, being trivial) and uses an original method (infinite descent). Actually, it can be shown that the descent is equivalent to Noetherian induction and even if it is difficult to consider induction reasoning as original these days, it is more the expression of this induction (making it possible to establish universally false propositions) which is interesting here (this method has not been greatly formalized or even used in deduction systems). This provides an additional interest to Fermat's proof and to this work since this is the first use of induction in the history of Mathematics. Moreover, beyond the fact that adding

this new theorem contributes a little more to the formalization of Mathematics on a computer, the true challenge is certainly the development of the application of the method itself (which can vary widely from one problem to another[1]). Finally, this proof has a high re-use potential. Fermat's last theorem [17,21,16,10] (there do not exist non-zero integers x, y and z s.t. $x^n + y^n = z^n$ for $n > 2$) can be easily deduced for $n = 4$ (also proved by Fermat) from the proof of Diophantus' 20th problem and we also provide the proof in this paper as well as its formalization. Infinite descent is also used to prove Fermat's last theorem for $n = 3$ (probably first proved by Fermat and later by Leonhardt Euler and Karl Friedrich Gauss independently), $n = 5$ (proved by Adrien-Marie Legendre and Lejeune Dirichlet using Sophie Germain's work), $n = 7$ (proved by Gabriel Lamé) and $n = 14$ (proved by Dirichlet). More generally, as claimed in [21], the infinite descent method is the method *par excellence* in number theory and in Diophantine analysis in particular.

As a theorem prover, we chose to use the Coq proof assistant [18] (V8.0). Despite the fact that Coq is usually not considered to be one of the most mathematician-friendly theorem provers (essentially due to its proof style, i.e. the proofs are expressed in a procedural way which may seem unnatural for mathematician users, and probably a not high enough level of automation, i.e. the system may be, in some cases, not strong enough to deduce automatically theorems from others whereas it seems rather easy to do so by hand), our choice was motivated both by recent improvements regarding concrete syntax, in particular for arithmetic, and by a fairly sufficient degree of automation for the problem we wanted to formalize (actually, only ring simplifications were needed in our development).

In this paper, we present an *informal* (but rigorous) sketch of Fermat's proofs for Diophantus' 20th problem and Fermat's last theorem for $n = 4$, as it would be described in a usual Mathematics book. Next, we give details regarding the formalization of this proof emphasizing the difficult points (essentially the lemmas related to Pythagorean triples and the descent) and the solutions we provided.

2 Mathematical proof sketch

As said in the introduction, we want to prove that there do not exist right triangles whose sides are measured as integers and the surface as a square. This means that there do not exist four non-zero natural numbers (the theorem is also true for integers) x, y, z and t s.t.:

$$x^2 + y^2 = z^2 \text{ and } xy = 2t^2.$$

The proof starts looking for a characterization of Pythagorean triples, i.e. the set of triples of natural numbers x, y and z verifying $x^2 + y^2 = z^2$.

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[1] For example, using this method to prove Fermat's last theorem for $n = 4$ may be considered as rather elementary, whereas the proof of Leonhardt Euler for $n = 3$ ruins any hope, for Christian Goldbach (his friend and boss), of using such a method to find a general proof for this theorem.

In the following, $\mathbb{N}$ denotes the set of natural numbers (considering that $0 \in \mathbb{N}$), i.e. the set of non-negative integers, and $\mathbb{N}^*$ is the set of natural numbers except 0, i.e. the set of positive integers.

2.1 Pythagorean triples

Historically, Pythagorean triples (also called Pythagorean triads) were studied by Euclid of Alexandria in his *Stoicheion* [14] (*The Elements*). But, as can be seen in [21], a Babylonian tablet (Plimpton 322; c. BC 1900-1600) already contained the computation of fifteen Pythagorean triples, which tends to prove that such triples were at least known long before Euclid and may even have been calculated according to some rules. The set of Pythagorean triples can be characterized by theorem 1 below. The proof, we provide, uses a geometrical point of view and consists in locating the rational points of the unit circle. This proof is described in [5] and is far different from the usual proofs that can be found in [8] or [16].

Theorem 1 (Pythagorean triples). *Let $\mathcal{S}$ be the set of Pythagorean triples and defined as $\mathcal{S} = \{\ (a, b, c) \mid a, b, c \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } a^2 + b^2 = c^2\ \}$. Let $\mathcal{T}$ be the set defined as follows:*

$$\mathcal{T} = \{\ (m(q^2 - p^2), 2mpq, m(p^2 + q^2)),$$
$$(2mpq, m(q^2 - p^2), m(p^2 + q^2))\mid m, p \in \mathbb{N}, q \in \mathbb{N}^*, p \leq q,$$
$$p \text{ and } q \text{ relatively prime,}$$
$$p \text{ and } q \text{ have distinct parities}\}.$$

Then $\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{T}$.

Proof. We denote $C = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$, the unit circle and, for $r \in \mathbb{R}$, $D_r = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid y = r(x + 1)\}$. The proof is made in 6 steps:

Step 1: given a Pythagorean triple (a, b, c), which is not $(0, 0, 0)$, there exists a corresponding point $(\frac{a}{c}, \frac{b}{c})$ of the unit circle. As $c > 0$, we can divide by c^2: $(\frac{a}{c})^2 + (\frac{b}{c})^2 = 1$, which verifies the unit circle equation. Conversely, given a point $(\frac{a}{c}, \frac{b}{c})$ of the unit circle, there exists an infinity of corresponding Pythagorean triples (ma, mb, mc), for $m \in \mathbb{N}$. We have $(\frac{a}{c})^2 + (\frac{b}{c})^2 = 1$ and we can multiply by m^2c^2 obtaining: $(ma)^2 + (mb)^2 = (mc)^2$.

Step 2: the set $C \cap D_r$ has two points. To find these points, we have to solve the following system:

$$\begin{cases} y^2 = 1 - x^2 \\ y = r(x + 1) \end{cases} \tag{1}$$

Thus, x must be solution of the following equation:

$$(1 + r^2)x^2 + 2r^2x + r^2 - 1 = 0$$

The solutions are -1 and $\frac{1-r^2}{1+r^2}$. Using the second equation of (1), we obtain the two solutions $\{(-1, 0); (\frac{1-r^2}{1+r^2}, \frac{2r}{1+r^2})\}$. We notice that the second point

is non-negative for $0 \leq r \leq 1$.

Step 3: now, given $M \in C$, we can show that the coordinates of M are rational iff there exists a rational r s.t. $M \in C \cap D_r$. First, let us suppose that we have $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ with $M \in C \cap D_r$. We have two possibilities: either $M = (-1, 0)$, which is trivially rational, or $M = (\frac{1-r^2}{1+r^2}, \frac{2r}{1+r^2})$, where the coordinates are rational fractions (quotients of polynomials) in $r \in \mathbb{Q}$, thus also in $\mathbb{Q}$.

Conversely, let us suppose the coordinates (x, y) of M are rational. We have two cases: either $M = (-1, 0)$ and M is in $M \in C \cap D_r$, for all $r \in \mathbb{Q}$, or else $M \neq (-1, 0)$ and we take $r = \frac{y}{x+1}$ (which is a rational), M is in C by hypothesis as well as in D_r by construction of r.

Step 4: the points of C with non-negative rational coordinates are given by the set $\{(\frac{1-r^2}{1+r^2}, \frac{2r}{1+r^2})\}$, with $r \in \mathbb{Q} \cap [0; 1]$ (steps 2 and 3). Taking $r = \frac{p}{q}$, with $p \in \mathbb{N}$, $q \in \mathbb{N}^*$, $p \leq q$ and p, q relatively prime (irreducible fraction), the set of points of C with non-negative rational coordinates is the following:

$$\mathcal{W} = \{(\frac{q^2 - p^2}{p^2 + q^2}, \frac{2pq}{p^2 + q^2}) | p \in \mathbb{N}, q \in \mathbb{N}^*, p \leq q, p \text{ and } q \text{ relatively prime}\}$$

Step 5: It is not possible to derive a characterization of Pythagorean triples from $\mathcal{W}$ because the rational points of the unit circle must be expressed with irreducible fractions. Hence, let us consider the set $\mathcal{W}'$ defined as follows:

$$\mathcal{W}' = \{ (\frac{q^2-p^2}{p^2+q^2}, \frac{2pq}{p^2+q^2}), (\frac{2pq}{p^2+q^2}, \frac{q^2-p^2}{p^2+q^2}) \ |$$
$$p \in \mathbb{N}, q \in \mathbb{N}^*, p \leq q, p \text{ and } q \text{ relatively prime},$$
$$p \text{ and } q \text{ have distinct parities}\}$$

Let us show that $\mathcal{W} = \mathcal{W}'$. First, let us consider the inclusion $\mathcal{W} \subset \mathcal{W}'$: given a point $x = (\frac{q^2-p^2}{p^2+q^2}, \frac{2pq}{p^2+q^2}) \in \mathcal{W}$, since p and q are relatively prime, either p and q have distinct parities, or they are both odd. In the former case, we have trivially $x \in \mathcal{W}'$. In the latter case, let us look for p' and q' s.t.:

$$\frac{q^2 - p^2}{p^2 + q^2} = \frac{2p'q'}{p'^2 + q'^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{2pq}{p^2 + q^2} = \frac{q'^2 - p'^2}{p'^2 + q'^2} \tag{2}$$

which leads to the solutions $p' = \frac{q-p}{2}$ and $q' = \frac{p+q}{2}$. These solutions are both integers since p and q are both odd. We have $p' + q' = q$ and $q' - p' = p$; since p and q are relatively prime, p' and q' are relatively prime (knowing that if $m + n$ and $m - n$ are relatively prime then m and n are relatively prime). Since p and q are both odd, we have $p = 2k + 1$, $q = 2k' + 1$ and we obtain $p' = k' - k$, $q' = k + k' + 1$. Considering all the cases w.r.t. the parities of k and k', we easily verify that p' and q' have distinct parities. Thus, $x \in \mathcal{W}'$.

Conversely, let us prove the inclusion $\mathcal{W}' \subset \mathcal{W}$. Given a point $x \in \mathcal{W}'$, either $x = (\frac{q^2-p^2}{p^2+q^2}, \frac{2pq}{p^2+q^2})$ or $x = (\frac{2pq}{p^2+q^2}, \frac{q^2-p^2}{p^2+q^2})$. In the former case, x is trivially in $\mathcal{W}$.

In the latter case, we have to solve the system (2), which leads to the solutions $p' = q - p$ and $q' = p + q$. These solutions have distinct parities (using the conditions over p and q together with proposition 1 in subsection 2.2). Thus, $x \in \mathcal{W}$ and we have shown that $\mathcal{W} = \mathcal{W}'$.

Step 6: We have to show that $\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{T}$. Given $(a, b, c) \in \mathcal{S}$, $(\frac{a}{c}, \frac{b}{c})$ is a point of C (step 1), which can be written as $(\frac{q^2 - p^2}{p^2 + q^2}, \frac{2pq}{p^2 + q^2})$ or $(\frac{2pq}{p^2 + q^2}, \frac{q^2 - p^2}{p^2 + q^2})$ (step 5). The two fractions $\frac{q^2 - p^2}{p^2 + q^2}$ and $\frac{2pq}{p^2 + q^2}$ are irreducible (because p and q are relatively prime and have distinct parities), so c is a multiple of $p^2 + q^2$. Setting $c = m(p^2 + q^2)$, we obtain the triple $(a, b, c) = (m(q^2 - p^2), 2mpq, m(p^2 + q^2))$ or $(a, b, c) = (2mpq, m(q^2 - p^2), m(p^2 + q^2))$. Thus, $\mathcal{S} \subset \mathcal{T}$.

Given a triple $(a, b, c) \in \mathcal{T}$, either $(a, b, c) = (m(q^2 - p^2), 2mpq, m(p^2 + q^2))$ or $(a, b, c) = (2mpq, m(q^2 - p^2), m(p^2 + q^2))$. In both cases, we only have to verify that we have a Pythagorean triple (by computation), i.e.:

$$(m(q^2 - p^2))^2 + (2mpq)^2 = (2mpq)^2 + (m(q^2 - p^2))^2$$
$$= m^2(q^4 + p^4 - 2p^2q^2 + 4p^2q^2)$$
$$= m^2(p^2 + q^2)^2 = (m(p^2 + q^2))^2$$

Thus, $\mathcal{T} \subset \mathcal{S}$ and we have shown that $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{S}$.

2.2 Infinite descent

For this proof, which is an application of the infinite descent method [4,21,10], we essentially used [11], but it is also described in [10]. This proof can also be found in [8] and [16], integrated into the proof of Fermat's last theorem for $n = 4$.

Using theorem 1, we can express the surface of the right triangle as:

$$\frac{xy}{2} = k^2 pq(q^2 - p^2) \tag{3}$$

with $k, p \in \mathbb{N}$, $q \in \mathbb{N}^*$, $p \leq q$, p, q are relatively prime and have distinct parities.

Thus, Diophantus' 20th problem is equivalent to asking:

$$\text{Can } pq(q^2 - p^2) \text{ be a square?}$$

Preliminaries Here are some preliminary propositions (related to properties regarding relatively prime integers and squares) we will have to use when building the infinite descent proof (to save space, we do not provide the proofs of these rather basic notions):

Proposition 1. *Given $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $n < m$, if m, n are relatively prime and have distinct parities then $m + n$ and $m - n$ are relatively prime.*

Proposition 2. *Given $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $n \leq m$, if m, n are relatively prime then m^2, n^2 are relatively prime and m, n, $m^2 - n^2$ are relatively prime.*

Proposition 3. *Given $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$, if m^2, n^2 are relatively prime then m, n are relatively prime.*

Proposition 4. *Given the sequence (u_n) over $\mathbb{N}$, if $u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_n$ are relatively prime and $u_0 \times u_1 \times \ldots \times u_n$ is a square then $u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_n$ are squares.*

We also recall Gauss's theorem (we do not give the proof again because this is quite an usual theorem, which, in particular, is already part of the Coq standard library):

Theorem 2 (Gauss's theorem). *Given $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$, if d divides ab and if a, d are relatively prime then d divides b.*

To make the dependencies between the previous propositions and theorems clear, it should be noted that proposition 1 and theorem 2 are also (implicitly) used in the proof of theorem 1 whereas theorem 2 is used in the proof of proposition 1.

Proof of Diophantus' 20th problem We start by assuming that $pq(q^2 - p^2)$ is a square. Propositions 2 and 4 allow us to claim that p, q and $q^2 - p^2$ are squares. Let us have $q = m^2$, $p = n^2$ and $q^2 - p^2 = r^2$. Thus, we obtain:

$$r^2 = q^2 - p^2 = m^4 - n^4 = (m^2 + n^2)(m^2 - n^2) \tag{4}$$

We have:

- $m^2 + n^2$ and $m^2 - n^2$ are odd because p and q have distinct parities;
- m and n are relatively prime (proposition 3);
- $m^2 + n^2$ and $m^2 - n^2$ are relatively prime (proposition 1).

As $(m^2 + n^2)(m^2 - n^2)$ is a square, there exist (proposition 4) two natural numbers u and v s.t.:

$$m^2 + n^2 = u^2 \text{ and } m^2 - n^2 = v^2 \tag{5}$$

But, $u^2 = q + p$ and $v^2 = q - p$. Then, u and v are odd and are relatively prime. Moreover, $u^2 - v^2 = (u + v)(u - v) = 2n^2$ and $u + v$, $u - v$ are even (divisible by 2). If d is a common prime divisor of $u + v$ and $u - v$ then d divides $2u$ and $2v$ (by addition and subtraction). If $d > 2$ then d divides u and v (theorem 2): this leads to a contradiction because u and v are relatively prime. Thus, $\mathsf{gcd}(u + v, u - v) = 2$.

However, the product of two even numbers is divisible by 4. So, exactly one of $u + v$ and $u - v$ is a multiple of 4. Let us assume that $u - v$ is a multiple of 4: we have $u - v = 4s$ and $u + v = 2w$, with s, w relatively prime and w odd. Then we obtain:

$$(u + v)(u - v) = 8sw = 2n^2 \text{ and next: } n^2 = 4sw \Leftrightarrow (\frac{n}{2})^2 = sw$$

The numbers s and w are relatively prime and then s and w are squares (proposition 4). Thus, we have:

$$u - v = 4a^2,\ u + v = 2b^2,\ v = b^2 - 2a^2$$

Next:

$$n^2 = 4a^2b^2 \text{ and using (5): } m^2 = n^2 + v^2 = b^4 + 4a^4$$

Writing $m^2 = b^4 + 4a^4$ means that $(b^2, 2a^2, m)$ is a Pythagorean triple (we can remark that if we assume that $u + v$ is the multiple of 4, we have the same values for m and n). We can express this triple as described by theorem 1 and observing that b^2 is odd (for u and v are relatively prime):

$$(b^2, 2a^2, m) = (k'(q'^2 - p'^2), 2k'p'q', k'(p'^2 + q'^2))$$

It is necessary that $k' = 1$ since b^2 and $2a^2$ are relatively prime (for u and v are relatively prime) and we have:

$$b^2 = q'^2 - p'^2,\ a^2 = p'q'$$

Finally, for the same reason, p' and q' are also relatively prime. As $p'q'$ and $(p' + q')(q' - p')$ are squares, p', q', $p' + q'$ and $q' - p'$ are also squares (proposition 4). Setting $q' = m^2$ and $p' = n^2$, we are back to the initial point: looking for m^2 and n^2 whose addition and subtraction must be squares implies looking for m'^2 and n'^2 with the same property. But we have $m'^2 + n'^2 < m^2 + n^2$:

$$m'^2 + n'^2 = q' + p' = \frac{b^2}{(q' - p')} < b^2 < b^2 + 2a^2 < (b^2 + 2a^2)^2 = m^2 + n^2$$

We can restart the reasoning and we will always find strictly smaller non-negative integers (not w.r.t. m and n but w.r.t. $m^2 + n^2$) verifying the same conditions. However, this leads to a contradiction because there does not exist an infinity of smaller non-negative integers (bounded by 0). This reasoning was called *infinite descent* by Fermat. Thus, $pq(q^2 - p^2)$ cannot be a square and Diophantus' 20th problem has no solution.

2.3   Application: Fermat's last theorem for $n = 4$

From the proof of Diophantus' 20th problem, we can deduce quite directly the proof of Fermat's last theorem for $n = 4$, i.e. there do not exist three non-zero natural numbers x, y and z s.t. $x^4 + y^4 = z^4$. Regarding this proof, we essentially used [12], but it can be also found in [10], [8] and [16].

As previously (for Diophantus' 20th problem), the idea is to deduce a contradiction and the proof starts by assuming that there exist $x, y, z \in \mathbb{N}^*$ s.t.:

$$x^4 + y^4 = z^4 \tag{6}$$

We can assume that y and z are relatively prime. Otherwise if d is the gcd of y and z, then $y = dy'$, $z = dz'$ and we have:

$$z^4 - y^4 = d^4(y'^4 - z'^4) = x^4$$

Thus, d divides x and if $x = dx'$ then we have to prove:

$$x'^4 + y'^4 = z'^4$$

which is the initial equation (6) with y' and z' relatively prime.

We can also assume that y and z have distinct parities. First, y and z cannot be both even because we have just assumed that they are relatively prime. Next, let us show that y and z can be supposed not to be both odd. Equation (6) can be written as follows:

$$(x^2)^2 + (y^2)^2 = (z^2)^2$$

Thus, (x^2, y^2, z^2) is a Pythagorean triple. As a consequence of theorem 1, one of the numbers x^2 and y^2 is even (of the form $2mpq$). By symmetry of $\mathcal{T}$, we can assume that y^2 is even (otherwise we have to permute the role of x and y: we can show that x and z are also relatively prime and we apply the same reasoning which follows). In this way, x^2 and z^2 are both odd (divided by an odd m); otherwise, they are both even (divided by an even m) which contradicts the assumption that y and z are relatively prime. So, we can assume that y^2 and z^2 have distinct parities, as well as y and z.

Moreover, equation (6) is equivalent to:

$$z^4 - y^4 = (z^2 + y^2)(z^2 - y^2) = x^4 = (x^2)^2$$

This new equation shows that the problem is now reduced to proving that the expression $(z^2 + y^2)(z^2 - y^2)$ cannot be a square, with y, z relatively prime and having distinct parities. This has been already shown in subsection 2.2 when proving Diophantus' 20th problem with infinite descent. More precisely, we are exactly in the conditions of equation (4), where m, n are relatively prime and have distinct parities (since p and q have distinct parities).

3 Formalization

3.1 Generalities

As mentioned in the introduction, we used the Coq proof assistant (latest version V8.0 [18]) to carry out the entire formalization of Diophantus' 20th problem. This choice was essentially motivated by some of the recent improvements proposed by this version of Coq. Amongst other features, we were attracted by the complete revision of the concrete syntax which appears more homogeneous and which allows us to get a kind of overloading with a system of scopes. In particular, for number theory, this is quite appropriate because we have exactly the same notations (e.g. for 0, 1, $+$, $*$, etc) over $\mathbb{N}$, $\mathbb{Z}$, $\mathbb{Q}$ or $\mathbb{R}$. Despite the fact that the proof style and the level of automation provided by Coq is not as suitable as could be expected for mathematical developments, this release does clearly represent a step toward a more mathematician-friendly framework.

Regarding the formalization, it was also necessary to make some choices essentially motivated by the developments provided by the standard library of

Coq as well as the level of automation offered by the system. For example, as seen in section 2, the theorem deals only with natural numbers but we use many expressions with the opposite - (together with appropriate side conditions ensuring that the corresponding expressions are always natural numbers; see equation (3), for example) and as $\mathbb{N}$ is only a semi-ring, the automation strategy over rings (tactic `Ring`) does not work as expected (it does not simplify expressions involving the opposite). As a consequence, many algebraic simplifications must be carried out manually using the appropriate combination of rewritings. This tends to slow down the development significantly and we decided to use $\mathbb{Z}$ (with some additional non-negativity conditions) instead of $\mathbb{N}$. In this way, the theorem is formally the same and we get a full automation for algebraic manipulations (the tactic `Ring` does work as expected). Another point which had to be dealt with is that `Coq`'s standard library does not provide a rational number theory (used in the proof of theorem 1). Actually, there are several libraries of rationals (contributed by some `Coq` users), but no standard tends to emerge and especially none of them is related to the classical real number theory provided by the standard library. To work around this problem, we considered the real number library and we used an *ad hoc* rational predicate (considering that a rational number is a real number expressed as a fraction of two integers), which was quite sufficient to deal with our proof.

In the following, we present an outline of our formalization which has been separated in three significant parts: the characterization of Pythagorean triples, the application of infinite descent and the proof of Fermat's last theorem for $n = 4$. The whole development is available as a `Coq` contribution [2]. For information, this contribution involves about 2000 lines of code and took the equivalent of two months of development.

3.2 Pythagorean triples

The proof in `Coq` of theorem 1 follows exactly the steps described in subsection 2.1 (trying to characterize the non-negative rational coordinates of the unit circle). We do not give all the intermediary lemmas necessary to build the proof and here are the two main lemmas (step 6) which allows us to conclude:

```
Lemma pytha_thm1 : forall a b c : Z,
  (is_pytha a b c) -> (pytha_set a b c).

Lemma pytha_thm2 : forall a b c : Z,
  (pytha_set a b c) -> (is_pytha a b c).
```

where `is_pytha` is the Pythagorean triple predicate (corresponding to $\mathcal{S}$) and `pytha_set` is the set of Pythagorean triples (corresponding to $\mathcal{T}$), which are defined as follows:

```
Definition pos_triple (a b c : Z) :=
  (a >= 0) /\ (b >= 0) /\ (c >= 0).
```

```
Definition is_pytha (a b c : Z) :=
  (pos_triple a b c) /\ a * a + b * b = c * c.

Definition cond_pqb (p q : Z) :=
  p >= 0 /\ q > 0 /\ p <= q /\ (rel_prime p q).

Definition distinct_parity (a b : Z) :=
    (Zeven a) /\ (Zodd b) \/ (Zodd a) /\ (Zeven b).

Definition cond_pq (p q : Z) := cond_pqb p q /\ (distinct_parity p q).

Definition pytha_set (a b c : Z) :=
  exists p : Z, exists q : Z, exists m : Z,
    (a = m * (q * q - p * p) /\ b = 2 * m * (p * q) \/
     a = 2 * m * (p * q) /\ b = m * (q * q - p * p)) /\
    c = m * (p * p + q * q) /\ m >= 0 /\ (cond_pq p q).
```

where Z corresponds to $\mathbb{Z}$, Zeven/Zodd are respectively the even/odd predicates over Z (predefined in the Coq library) and rel_prime is the relatively prime predicate over Z (also predefined).

3.3 Infinite descent

Infinite descent and induction Historically, infinite descent [4,21,10], invented in the 17th century by Fermat, is one of the first explicit uses of reasoning by induction[2] (over natural numbers) in a mathematical proof (around the same time, Blaise Pascal used a similar principle to prove properties for numbers in *his triangle*). Nevertheless, as claimed in [22], some tend to think that this principle was, in fact, already used by the ancient Greeks (in particular, by the Pythagorean mathematician Hippasos of Metapont in the proof of the irrationality of the golden number $\frac{1}{2}(1+\sqrt{5})$) in the 5th century BC, and thus, long before Fermat, who simply reinvented it. Formally, Fermat's induction schema can be expressed in a general way as follows:

$$(\forall x.P(x) \Rightarrow \exists y.y \prec x \wedge P(y)) \Rightarrow \forall x.\neg P(x) \qquad (7)$$

where the relation $\prec$ is supposed to be well-founded.

This schema is quite appropriate to establish universally false properties (in particular, Diophantus' 20th problem) but even if it appears that Fermat failed to adapt it to prove universally true properties[3], this principle is, in fact, equivalent

---

[2] Here, by induction, we mean *complete induction* (or *mathematical induction*), in contrast to *incomplete induction*, which was used in Fermat's time to establish conjectures and which simply consisted in verifying the validity of a proposition over $\mathbb{N}$ for the first values of $\mathbb{N}$.

[3] Actually, as can be noticed in a work sent to Christiaan Huygens *vîa* Pierre de Carcavi (see [21,4,10]), Fermat succeeded in using the descent to answer positive questions, operating a kind of ¬¬-translation over the statement, more or less easily in some

to Noetherian induction [3,22], which allows us to prove properties *positively* and which is the following:

$$(\forall x.(\forall y.y \prec x \Rightarrow P(y)) \Rightarrow P(x)) \Rightarrow \forall x.P(x)$$

where the relation $\prec$ is supposed to be well-founded.

Thus, to apply one or the other of these schemas to our proof (see subsection 2.2), we only have to prove that the relation $\mathcal{R}(x,y)(x',y') \equiv x+y < x'+y'$ (over $\mathbb{N}$) is well-founded. This is trivially done using a compatibility lemma related to the relation $<$ (predefined in the Coq library), i.e. if there exists a function f s.t. $\mathcal{R}(x,y) \Rightarrow f(x) < f(y)$ then $\mathcal{R}$ is well-founded. Here, in our case, the function is simply $f(x,y) = x + y$.

Development The formalization in Coq of Diophantus' 20th problem follows the steps described in subsection 2.2 and to conclude, we use the infinite descent schema. As said previously, for the infinite descent principle, we started proving the Noetherian induction lemma adapted to our proof (using the well-foundedness induction schema provided by the library of Coq, as well as the proof that the relation given previously is well-founded) and then we deduced the infinite descent lemma. Here are some of the corresponding lemmas (we proved the infinite descent schema for $\mathbb{N}$ and we generalized it, with non-negativity side conditions, to work over $\mathbb{Z}$):

```
Lemma noetherian : forall P : nat * nat -> Prop,
  (forall z : nat * nat, (forall y : nat * nat,
    (fst(y) + snd(y) < fst(z) + snd(z))%nat -> P y) -> P z) ->
  forall x : nat * nat, P x.

Lemma infinite_descent_nat : forall P : nat * nat -> Prop,
  (forall x : nat * nat, (P x -> exists y : nat * nat,
    (fst(y) + snd(y) < fst(x) + snd(x))%nat /\ P y)) ->
  forall x : nat * nat, ~(P x).

Lemma infinite_descent : forall P : Z -> Z -> Prop,
  (forall x1 x2 : Z, 0 <= x1 -> 0 <= x2 ->
    (P x1 x2 -> exists y1 : Z, exists y2 : Z, 0 <= y1 /\ 0 <= y2 /\
    y1 + y2 < x1 + x2 /\ P y1 y2)) ->
  forall x y: Z, 0 <= x -> 0 <= y -> ~(P x y).
```

where the notation `%nat` is used to switch to the arithmetic scope of `nat` (the default scope has been set for Z), the symbol $*$ is the Cartesian product and `fst`/`snd` are respectively the first/second components of a couple.

---

cases (for example, every prime number of the form $4n+1$ is the sum of two squares) and quite painfully in some others (such as, every number is a square or composed of two, three or four squares). However, he never used a positive induction schema to do so.

Next, here are four lemmas corresponding to the propositions stated in the preliminaries of subsection 2.2 (as said in this subsection, Gauss's theorem has already been proved in Coq and is part of the standard library):

```
Lemma prop1 : forall m n : Z, rel_prime m n -> distinct_parity m n ->
  rel_prime (m + n) (m - n).

Lemma prop2 : forall m n : Z, rel_prime m n ->
  rel_prime (m * m) (n * n) /\ rel_prime m (m * m - n * n).

Lemma prop3 : forall m n : Z, rel_prime (m * m) (n * n) -> rel_prime m n.

Lemma prop4 : forall p q : Z, 0 <= p -> 0 <= q -> rel_prime p q ->
  is_sqr (p * q) -> is_sqr p /\ is_sqr q.
```

where `is_sqr` is the square predicate defined as follows:

```
Definition is_sqr (n : Z) : Prop :=
  0 <= n -> exists i : Z, i * i = n /\ 0 <= i.
```

Finally, here are the two main lemmas, a refined version of the problem (i.e. looking for p, q s.t. $pq(q^2 - p^2)$ is a square) and the final problem:

```
Lemma diophantus20_refined : forall p q : Z,
  p > 0 -> q > 0 -> p <= q -> rel_prime p q -> distinct_parity p q ->
  ~is_sqr (p * (q * (q * q - p * p))).

Lemma diophantus20 :
  ~(exists x : Z, exists y : Z, exists z : Z, exists t : Z,
    0 < x /\ 0 < y /\ 0 < z /\ 0 < t /\ x * x + y * y = z * z /\
    x * y = 2 * (t * t)).
```

3.4   Fermat's last theorem for $n = 4$

The formalization in Coq of Fermat's last theorem for $n = 4$ follows the proof described in subsection 2.3. As previously stated, the idea is to use the refutation of equation (4), established by the descent in the proof of Diophantus' 20th problem and expressed as follows:

```
Lemma diophantus20_equiv : forall y z : Z,
  y > 0 -> z > 0 -> y <= z -> rel_prime y z -> distinct_parity y z ->
  ~is_sqr ((z * z + y * y) * (z * z - y * y)).
```

Here are the main lemma as well as a refined version making the application of the previous lemma possible:

```
Lemma fermat4_weak:
   ~(exists x : Z, exists y : Z, exists z : Z,
     0 < x /\ 0 < y /\ 0 < z /\ rel_prime y z /\ distinct_parity y z /\
     x * x * x * x + y * y * y * y = z * z * z * z).
```

```
Lemma fermat4:
   ~(exists x : Z, exists y : Z, exists z : Z,
     0 < x /\ 0 < y /\ 0 < z /\
     x * x * x * x + y * y * y * y = z * z * z * z).
```

4   Conclusion

4.1   Related proofs and formalizations

One of the most significant related proofs is certainly John Harrison's work, who did the same formalization in HOL90 (an old implementation of the HOL [7] system). Actually, it is not exactly the same especially regarding the proof of Pythagorean triples (theorem 1), which, as seen in subsection 2.1, is based on the characterization of the rational points of the unit circle. Moreover, the formalization described here is fully constructive in contrast to Harrison's; we do not use the excluded middle or any form of the axiom of choice (the real numbers we use are classical but this could be avoided relying on a constructive formalization of real numbers or more appropriately of rational numbers; unfortunately, none of these formalizations are standard theories in Coq).

In Coq, some non trivial proofs regarding number theory have been also developed (as user contributions, see [2]). For example, Olga Caprotti and Martijn Oostdijk formalized Pocklington's criterion for checking primality for large natural numbers (their development includes also a proof of Fermat's little theorem). Valérie Ménissier-Morain also developed a proof of Chinese lemma (related to the notion of congruence) and finally, Laurent Théry [19] formalized the correctness proof of Knuth's algorithm which gives the first n prime numbers.

In other theorem provers, the Mizar system [20] provides a large library of formalizations (the Mizar Mathematical Library). In particular, a subset of this library is dedicated to Mathematics and is edited as the collection entitled *Formalized Mathematics* [6], which contains many developments regarding number theory. In HOL (and variants), Joe Hurd [9] formalized the Miller-Rabin probabilistic primality test and John Harrison is developing the Agrawal-Kayal-Saxena primality test. Finally, in Isabelle [15], the project directed by Jeremy Avigad [1] at Carnegie Mellon University aims at developing Mathematics in Isabelle's higher-order logic and is focusing, in particular, on extending the number theory library of the Isabelle system.

4.2   Extensions

As far as the authors know, this work is one of the first formalizations (together with Harrison's) of a proof based on the infinite descent principle (other formalizations must certainly use Noetherian inductions but they are not expressed in the infinite descent way). This opens up some possibilities of re-using this method, which can be easily generalized to any well-founded relation, for some

other proofs which may be appropriate for this kind of reasoning (essentially universally false properties). As examples, we have another historical proof, which is the proof of Fermat's last theorem for $n = 3$ [8] (which is, in fact, the basic case if we try to prove Fermat's last theorem by induction). The proof (maybe by Fermat and later by Euler and Gauss independently) also uses the principle of infinite descent but is longer and far more technical than that for $n = 4$. This should not be considered as surprising: induction can be applied trivially in some proofs whereas in some others, it turns out to be tricky to make it work and this is also true for the infinite descent schema. Also, it would be possible to adapt the method to formalize other proofs (equally historical) of the same theorem for other specific values of n ($n = 5$, $n = 7$, etc), which similarly use the descent and which essentially come from attempts to prove the theorem in the general case (in this situation, it may appear surprising that the breakthrough came from a link with algebraic geometry and did not use any kind of induction). But, more generally, as pointed out in [21], infinite descent is the method *par excellence* in number theory and in Diophantine analysis. In this way, some other projects could be Fermat's equation [16,8,21,10] (also wrongly called Pell's equation in older writings; i.e. the equation $x^2 - Ny^2 = 1$ has infinitely many solutions in $\mathbb{Z}$ if $N > 1$ and is not a square), where the method of descent could be used to get a proof of existence (but not to compute solutions), or, more ambitiously and also more *modern*, the proof of Mordell's theorem [21] (the group of rational points of an elliptic curve is always finitely generated), where the descent has been refined to be applied.

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