

A detailed explanation of each statement

/machine translation/

Fermat's Last Theorem (main case: n is prime):

For integers A, B, C and prime $n > 2$ the equal $A^n + B^n = C^n$ does not exist.

From this it follows that equation $a^{dn} + b^{dn} = c^{dn}$, or $(a^d)^n + (b^d)^n = (c^d)^n$, also does not exist.

The essence of the contradiction: If A, B, C are integers and $A^n + B^n = C^n$, then $A + B - C = 0$ and $A^n + B^n < C^n$.

If $A + B = C$ then $A^n + B^n < (A + B)^n$.

Notations are done in a number system with a prime base n:

Prime base we have because in this case, there are important properties of the integers evidence: Fermat's Little Theorem, and others.

$A_{(t)}$ – t-th digit from the end in the number A; for convenience: $A_{(1)} = A'$, $A_{(2)} = A''$, $A_{(3)} = A'''$;

Use a dash to indicate the numbers greatly simplifies the writing of formulas, especially that only the last three digits are primarily used in the proof.

$A_{[t]}$ – t-digits ending of the number A; $A_{/t}$, where $A = pq \dots r$, – the product of $p_{[t]} * q_{[t]} * \dots * r_{[t]}$.

The factors p, q, ... r can be as simple and composite numbers.

For example, in the decimal system for $p = 321$, $q = 1433$:

$p_{(1)} = p' = 1$, $p_{(2)} = p'' = 2$, $p_{(2)} = p''' = 3$, и т.д.; $q_{(1)} = q' = 3$, $q_{(2)} = q'' = 3$, $q_{(3)} = q''' = 4$, etc.

$p_{[2]} = 21$; $q_{[2]} = 33$; $(pq)_{[2]} = p_{[2]} * q_{[2]} = 21 * 33$, wherein $(pq)_{[2]} = 93$.

From binomial theorem (for prime n) its follow two simple lemmas:

0a°) if $A_{[t+1]} = xn^t + 1$, where $t > 0$ and A is the base of a degree A^n , then the digit $(A^n)_{(t+2)} = x$;

Proof. We write the last three terms of the expansion of the binomial:

$(xn^t + 1)^n = \dots + 0,5 * n * (n-1) * (xn^t)^2 + n * xn^t + 1 = \dots + 0,5(n-1)x^{2t+1} + xn^{t+1} + 1$, where the second (from the end) member has $t+1$ zeros, and all subsequent (from the end) the members have at least $t+2$ zeros. Consequently, the digit with number $t+2$ is equal to x, i.e. $(A^n)_{(t+2)} = x$.

0b°) if $a_{[t+1]} = xn^t + 1$, where digit $a_{(t+1)} = x > 0$ and $t > 0$, then the digit $[(a_{[t+1]})^{n-1}]_{(t+1)} = \ll -x \gg = n-x$.

In this case $(xn^t + 1)^{n-1} = \dots + (n-1) * xn^t + 1 = \dots + (-x)n^t + 1 = Sn^{t+1} + (-x)n^t + 1$, where the second (from the end) member has t zeros, and the sum S has not less than $t+1$ zeros. At the same time the absolute value $Sn^{t+1} > |(-x)n^t + 1|$. Therefore, to get a positive value of $(-x)n^t + 1$ [and $(-x)n^t$], the number S must be reduced by n^{t+1} and by this number increase the amount of the last two terms $(-x)n^t + 1$ with the results obtained $(n-x)n^t + 1$, where the digit $n-x$ is simple and positive number.

So, let us assume that for a prime number $n > 2$, relatively prime A, B, C, and A' [or B'] $\neq 0$

1°) $A^n = (C-B)P$ [$= aP = C^n - B^n$, where $P = p^n$ and /for convenience/ $a = C-B$] where, as known,

$C^n - B^n = (C-B)P$, where $P = C^{n-1} + BC^{n-2} + \dots + B^{n-2}C + C^{n-1}$, – formula of elementary algebra course. If the digit $A' = 0$, instead of A we consider the number B .

1a°) $P' = p' = 1$ (a consequence of Fermat's little theorem),

Indeed, since $A' \neq 0$, then, according to Fermat's little theorem, $A^{n-1} = 1$. If $B' = 0$, then $B^{n-1} = 0$. As a result from $(A'A^{n-1}) = (C'C^{n-1} - B'B^{n-1})$ follows $A' = (C' - B)'$, from here $P' = 1$. Equality $p' = 1$ follows from the equality $P = p^n$. The equality $P = p^n$ follows from the fact that:

1) the numbers $(C-B)$ and P are relatively prime (if $A' \neq 0$ and the numbers A, B, C are mutually prime), and their product is the n -th degree. Therefore, the numbers $(C-B)$ and P are the n -th powers. The numbers $(C-B)$ and P are relatively prime, because the number P can be represented as: $P = D(C-B)^2 + n(CB)^{n-1}$.

1b°) $[U =] A + B - C = un^k$, where $k > 0$ – the number of zeroes after the digit u' (i.e. $U_{[k+1]} \neq 0$).

Equality $U' = 0$ follows from the equation $A' = C' - B'$. Since $U > 0$, then it has a significant digits, the first of which from the end has the number $k+1$.

1c°) g – any integer solution [which exists!] of the equation $(Ag)_{[k+2]} = 1$.

This follows from the lemma for the number system with the prime base n : in the multiplication table $Ag_{(i)}$ ($i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$), where $A' \neq 0$ and $g_{(i)}$ – digits in a number system with the prime base n , all the latest digits $[Ag_{(i)}]'$ ($i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$) are different (the lemma is easily proved by contradiction). Consequently, for any digit A' not equal to zero, there is a one-digit number $G_{[1]} = g$, that $(A'g)' = 1$.

Further, if the number $x > 0$, then we take the number A with ending $A_{[2]} = xn + 1$.

It is easy to find such number $G_{[2]} = yn + 1$, that $[(xn+1)(yn+1)]_{[2]} = 1$, from here $(x+y)n + 1 = 1$, from here $y = n - x$. Etc. Thus, by multiplying of the number A by corresponding numbers $G_{[i]}$, or as a result by the number $g = G_{[1]} * G_{[2]} * \dots * G_{[t]}$, we can get the number Ag with the end $(Ag)_{[t]} = 1$, where t is arbitrarily large.

An example of the last digits in multiplication table for $n=7$ and $g=2$:

$0 \times 2 = \dots 0, 1 \times 2 = \dots 2, 2 \times 2 = \dots 4, 3 \times 2 = \dots 6, 4 \times 2 = \dots 1, 5 \times 2 = \dots 3, 6 \times 2 = \dots 5$, with a set of the latest digits 0, 2, 4, 6, 1, 3, 5, where no figure is not repeated!

An elementary proof of the Fermat's Last Theorem

Let's multiply the equation 1° by the number g^n from $1c^\circ$ received the new equality 1° :

$1^\circ) A^n = (C-B)P$, where $P = Pg^{n-1}$, $A = Ag$, $A^n = A^n g^n$ and $A_{[k+2]} = A^n_{[k+2]} = 1$; k and n are const.

Let us show that the ending $(C-B)_{[k+2]}$, or $a_{[k+2]}$, is also equal to 1.

To do this, the number P will be represented in the following form: **$P = q^{n-1} + Qn^{k+2}$**

[this is the KEY to the demonstration], where q and Q are integers.

Now, leaving in the numbers $A, C-B$ [or a] and P only $(k+2)$ -digit ending, we obtain the equation: $A^n_{[k+2]} = (a_{[k+2]} * q^{n-1})_{[k+2]}$. And then, based on the digits a'' , a''' etc. up to $(k+2)$ -th digit of a , we will consistently calculate the second, third, etc. digit of numbers q'' , $(q^{n-1})''$, a''' , then a''' , q''' , $(q^{n-1})'''$, a'''' , etc. (All of them are equal to zero. Hence **$P = 1 + Qn^{k+2} = 1^{n-1} + Qn^{k+2}$** .)

2°) $a' = q' = 1$, which is deduced from $1^\circ b$.

Because $(\mathbf{aP})'=1$, where $\mathbf{P}'=1$.

3°) From the identity $\mathbf{A}^n_{(2)}=[(\mathbf{a}^n\mathbf{n}+1)(\mathbf{q}^n\mathbf{n}+1)^{n-1}]_{(2)}=(\text{cf. } 0\mathbf{b}^\circ)=[(\mathbf{a}^n\mathbf{n}+1)(-\mathbf{q}^n\mathbf{n}+1)]_{(2)} [=0]$ we find: $\mathbf{a}^n=\mathbf{q}^n$ and the degree of endings $\mathbf{A}^n_{\{2\}}=(\mathbf{a}^n\mathbf{n}+1)_{[2]}^n$, from here (cf. $0\mathbf{a}^\circ$) we find the digit $\mathbf{A}^n_{(3)}$: This main logic double-thread operation: from the ending $\mathbf{A}^n_{(2)} [=1]$ we find a parity digits \mathbf{a}^n and \mathbf{q}^n , hence, and the equality of endings $\mathbf{a}_{[2]}$ and $\mathbf{q}_{[2]}$. But the latter form (make) product of the endings in the form of degree $\mathbf{A}^n_{\{2\}}=(\mathbf{a}^n\mathbf{n}+1)_{[2]}^n$. And it is important that this work is the degree \mathbf{A}^n , in which the meaning of the digit $\mathbf{A}^n_{(3)}$ is uniquely determined by the degree of ending $\mathbf{A}^n_{[2]}$!

4°) $\mathbf{A}^n_{(3)} (=0 - \text{cf. } 1^\circ) = \mathbf{a}^n$ and therefore $\mathbf{a}^n=\mathbf{q}^n=0$ (otherwise $\mathbf{A}^n_{(3)} \neq 0$).

That is, from $(\mathbf{A}^n)'''=\mathbf{A}^n$, where $\mathbf{A}^n=\mathbf{a}^n$ and $(\mathbf{A}^n)'''=0$, we find3: $\mathbf{a}^n=\mathbf{q}^n=0$.

And then, we makes calculations $3^\circ-4^\circ$ with all subsequent digits [until the $(k+1)$ -th] of the numbers \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{P} and \mathbf{a} , with the result equality $\mathbf{A}_{[k+1]}=\mathbf{P}_{[k+1]}=\mathbf{a}_{[k+1]}=(\mathbf{C}-\mathbf{B})_{[k+1]}=1$ and

5°) $[\mathbf{A}-(\mathbf{C}-\mathbf{B})]_{[k+1]}=[\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B}-\mathbf{C}]_{[k+1]}=\mathbf{U}_{[k+1]}=0$, which contradicts to $1\mathbf{b}^\circ$. Thus FLT proved.

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