

Chapter 15

$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$ and the golden ratio

15.1 The field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$

Recall that the quadratic field

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5}) = \{x + y\sqrt{5} : x, y \in \mathbb{Q}\}.$$

Recall too that the conjugate and norm of

$$z = x + y\sqrt{5}$$

are

$$\bar{z} = x - y\sqrt{5}, \quad \mathcal{N}(z) = z\bar{z} = x^2 - 5y^2.$$

We will be particularly interested in one element of this field.

Definition 15.1. *The golden ratio is the number*

$$\phi = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}.$$

The Greek letter ϕ (phi) is used for this number after the ancient Greek sculptor Phidias, who is said to have used the ratio in his work.

Leonardo da Vinci explicitly used ϕ in analysing the human figure.

Evidently

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5}) = \mathbb{Q}(\phi),$$

ie each element of the field can be written

$$z = x + y\phi \quad (x, y \in \mathbb{Q}).$$

The following results are immediate:

Proposition 15.1. 1. $\bar{\phi} = \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}$;

2. $\phi + \bar{\phi} = 1, \phi\bar{\phi} = -1$;

3. $\mathcal{N}(x + y\phi) = x^2 + xy - y^2$;

4. $\phi, \bar{\phi}$ are the roots of the equation

$$x^2 - x - 1 = 0.$$

15.2 The number ring $\mathbb{Z}[\phi]$

As we saw in the last Chapter, since $5 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ the associated number ring

$$\mathbb{Z}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5}) \cap \bar{\mathbb{Z}}$$

consists of the numbers

$$\frac{m + n\sqrt{5}}{2},$$

where $m \equiv n \pmod{2}$, ie m, n are both even or both odd. And we saw that this is equivalent to

Proposition 15.2. *The number ring associated to the quadratic field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$ is*

$$\mathbb{Z}[\phi] = \{m + n\phi : m, n \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

15.3 Unique Factorisation

Theorem 15.1. *The ring $\mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ is a Unique Factorisation Domain.*

Proof. We prove this in exactly the same way that we proved the corresponding result for the gaussian integers Γ .

The only slight difference is that the norm can now be negative, so we must work with $|\mathcal{N}(z)|$.

Lemma 15.1. *Given $z, w \in \mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ with $w \neq 0$ we can find $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ such that*

$$z = qw + r,$$

with

$$|\mathcal{N}(r)| < |\mathcal{N}(w)|.$$

Proof. Let

$$\frac{z}{w} = x + y\phi,$$

where $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$. Let m, n be the nearest integers to x, y , so that

$$|x - m| \leq \frac{1}{2}, \quad |y - n| \leq \frac{1}{2}.$$

Set

$$q = m + n\phi.$$

Then

$$\frac{z}{w} - q = (x - m) + (y - n)\phi.$$

Hence

$$\mathcal{N}\left(\frac{z}{w} - q\right) = (x - m)^2 + (x - m)(y - n) - (y - n)^2.$$

It follows that

$$-\frac{1}{2} < \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{z}{w} - q\right) < \frac{1}{2},$$

and so

$$|\mathcal{N}\left(\frac{z}{w} - q\right)| \leq \frac{1}{2} < 1,$$

ie

$$|\mathcal{N}(z - qw)| < |\mathcal{N}(w)|.$$

□

This allows us to apply the euclidean algorithm in $\mathbb{Z}[\phi]$, and establish

Lemma 15.2. *Any two numbers $z, w \in \mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ have a greatest common divisor δ such that*

$$\delta \mid z, w$$

and

$$\delta' \mid z, w \implies \delta' \mid \delta.$$

Also, δ is uniquely defined up to multiplication by a unit.

Moreover, there exists $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ such that

$$uz + vw = \delta.$$

From this we deduce that irreducibles in $\mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ are primes.

Lemma 15.3. *If $\pi \in \mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ is irreducible and $z, w \in \mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ then*

$$\pi \mid zw \implies \pi \mid z \text{ or } \pi \mid w.$$

Now Euclid's Lemma, and Unique Prime Factorisation, follow in the familiar way. □

15.4 The units in $\mathbb{Z}[\phi]$

Theorem 15.2. *The units in $\mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ are the numbers*

$$\pm\phi^n \quad (n \in \mathbb{Z}).$$

Proof. We saw in the last Chapter that any real quadratic field contains units $\neq \pm 1$, and that the units form the group

$$\{\pm\epsilon^n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\},$$

where ϵ is the smallest unit > 1 .

Thus the theorem will follow if we establish that ϕ is the smallest unit > 1 in $\mathbb{Z}[\phi]$.

Suppose $\eta \in \mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ is a unit with

$$1 < \eta = m + n\phi \leq \phi.$$

Then

$$\mathcal{N}(\eta) = \eta\bar{\eta} = \pm 1,$$

and so

$$\bar{\eta} = \pm\eta^{-1}.$$

Hence

$$-\phi^{-1} \leq \bar{\eta} = m + n\bar{\phi} \leq \phi^{-1}.$$

Subtracting,

$$1 - \phi^{-1} < \eta - \bar{\eta} = n(\phi - \bar{\phi}) \leq \phi + \phi^{-1},$$

ie

$$1 - \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2} < \sqrt{5}n < \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}$$

ie

$$\frac{3-\sqrt{5}}{2} < \sqrt{5}n \leq \sqrt{5}.$$

So the only possibility is

$$n = 1.$$

Thus

$$\eta = m + \phi.$$

But

$$-1 + \phi < 1.$$

Hence

$$m \geq 0,$$

and so

$$\eta \geq \epsilon.$$

□

15.5 The primes in $\mathbb{Z}[\phi]$

Theorem 15.3. *Suppose $p \in \mathbb{N}$ is a rational prime.*

1. *If $p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{5}$ then p splits into conjugate primes in $\mathbb{Z}[\phi]$:*

$$p = \pm \pi \bar{\pi}.$$

2. *If $p \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{5}$ then p remains prime in $\mathbb{Z}[\phi]$.*

Proof. Suppose p splits, say

$$p = \pi \pi'.$$

Then

$$\mathcal{N}(p) = p^2 = \mathcal{N}(\pi)\mathcal{N}(\pi').$$

Hence

$$\mathcal{N}(\pi) = \mathcal{N}(\pi') = \pm p.$$

Suppose

$$\pi = m + n\phi.$$

Then

$$\mathcal{N}(\pi) = m^2 - mn - n^2 = \pm p,$$

and in either case

$$m^2 - mn - n^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

If $p = 2$ then m and n must both be even. (For if one or both of m, n are odd then so is $m^2 - mn - n^2$.) Thus

$$2 \mid \pi,$$

which is impossible.

Now suppose p is odd, Multiplying by 4,

$$(2m - n)^2 - 5n^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

But

$$n \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \implies m \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \implies p \mid \pi,$$

which is impossible. Hence $n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, and so

$$r^2 \equiv 5 \pmod{p},$$

where

$$r \equiv (2m - n)/n \pmod{p}.$$

Thus

$$\left(\frac{5}{p}\right) = 1.$$

It follows by Gauss' Reciprocity Law, since $5 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, that

$$\left(\frac{p}{5}\right) = 1,$$

ie

$$p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{5}.$$

So if $p \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{5}$ then p remains prime in $\mathbb{Z}[\phi]$.

Now suppose $p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{5}$. Then

$$\left(\frac{5}{p}\right) = 1,$$

and so we can find n such that

$$n^2 \equiv 5 \pmod{p},$$

ie

$$p \mid n^2 - 5 = (n - \sqrt{5})(n + \sqrt{5}).$$

If p remains prime in $\mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ then

$$p \mid n - \sqrt{5} \text{ or } p \mid n + \sqrt{5},$$

both of which imply that $p \mid 1$, which is absurd.

We conclude that

$$p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{5} \implies p \text{ splits in } \mathbb{Z}[\phi].$$

Finally we have seen in this case that if $\pi \mid p$ then

$$\mathcal{N}(\pi) = \pm p \implies p = \pm \pi \bar{\pi}.$$

□

15.6 Fibonacci numbers

Recall that the Fibonacci sequence consists of the numbers

$$0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, \dots$$

defined by the *linear recurrence relation*

$$F_{n+1} = F_n + F_{n-1},$$

with initial values

$$F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1.$$

There is a standard way of solving a general linear recurrence relation

$$x_n = a_1 x_{n-1} + a_2 x_{n-2} + \dots + a_d x_{n-d}.$$

Let the roots of the *associated polynomial*

$$p(t) = t^d - c_1 t^{d-1} - c_2 t^{d-2} + \dots + c_d.$$

be $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d$.

If these roots are distinct then the general solution of the recurrence relation is

$$x_n = C_1 \lambda_1^n + C_2 \lambda_2^n + \dots + C_d \lambda_d^n.$$

The coefficients C_1, \dots, C_d are determined by d ‘initial conditions’, eg by specifying x_0, \dots, x_{d-1} .

If there are multiple roots, eg if λ occurs e times then the term $C\lambda^n$ must be replaced by $\lambda^n p(\lambda)$, where p is a polynomial of degree e .

But these details need not concern us, since we are only interested in the Fibonacci sequence, with associated polynomial

$$t^2 - t - 1.$$

This has roots $\phi, \bar{\phi}$. Accordingly,

$$F_n = A\phi^n + B\bar{\phi}^n.$$

Substituting for $F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1$, we get

$$A + B = 0, A\phi + B\bar{\phi} = 1.$$

Thus

$$B = -A, A(\phi - \bar{\phi}) = 1.$$

Since

$$\phi - \bar{\phi} = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} - \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2} = \sqrt{5},$$

this gives

$$A = 1/\sqrt{5}, B = -1/\sqrt{5}.$$

Our conclusion is summarised in

Proposition 15.3. *The Fibonacci numbers are given by*

$$F_n = \frac{(1 + \sqrt{5})^n - (1 - \sqrt{5})^n}{2^n \sqrt{5}}.$$

15.7 The weak Lucas-Lehmer test for Mersenne primality

Recall that the Mersenne number

$$M_p = 2^p - 1,$$

where p is a prime.

We give a version of the Lucas-Lehmer test for primality which only works when $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. In the next Chapter we shall give a stronger version which works for all primes.

Proposition 15.4. *Suppose the prime $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. Then*

$$P = 2^p - 1$$

is prime if and only if

$$\phi^{2^p} \equiv -1 \pmod{P}.$$

Proof. Suppose first that P is a prime.

Since $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ and $2^4 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$,

$$\begin{aligned} 2^p &\equiv 2^3 \pmod{5} \\ &\equiv 3 \pmod{5}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$P = 2^p - 1 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}.$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} \phi^P &= \left(\frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^P \\ &\equiv \frac{1^P + (\sqrt{5})^P}{2^P} \pmod{P}, \end{aligned}$$

since P divides all the binomial coefficients except the first and last. Thus

$$\phi^P \equiv \frac{1 + 5^{(P-1)/2} \sqrt{5}}{2} \pmod{P},$$

since $2^P \equiv 2 \pmod{P}$ by Fermat's Little Theorem.

But

$$5^{(P-1)/2} \equiv \left(\frac{5}{P} \right),$$

by Euler's criterion. Hence by Gauss' Quadratic Reciprocity Law,

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{5}{P} \right) &= \left(\frac{P}{5} \right) \\ &= -1, \end{aligned}$$

since $P \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$. Thus

$$5^{(P-1)/2} \equiv -1 \pmod{P},$$

and so

$$\phi^P \equiv \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2} \pmod{P}.$$

But

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2} &= \bar{\phi} \\ &= -\phi^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$\phi^{P+1} \equiv -1 \pmod{P},$$

ie

$$\phi^{2^p} \equiv -1 \pmod{P}.$$

Conversely, suppose

$$\phi^{2^p} \equiv -1 \pmod{P}.$$

We must show that P is prime.

The order of ϕ is exactly 2^{p+1} . For

$$\phi^{2^{p+1}} = (\phi^{2^p})^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{P},$$

so the order divides 2^{p+1} . On the other hand,

$$\phi^{2^p} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{P},$$

so the order does not divide 2^p .

Suppose now P is not prime. Since

$$P \equiv 2 \pmod{5},$$

it must have a prime factor

$$Q \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{5}.$$

(If all the prime factors of P were $\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{5}$ then so would their product be.) Hence Q does not split in $\mathbb{Z}[\phi]$.

Since $Q \mid P$, it follows that

$$\phi^{2^p} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{Q};$$

and so, by the argument above, the order of $\phi \pmod{Q}$ is 2^{p+1} .

We want to apply Fermat's Little Theorem, but we need to be careful since we are working in $\mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ rather than \mathbb{Z} .

Lemma 15.4 (Fermat's Little Theorem, extended). *If the rational prime Q does not split in $\mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ then*

$$z^{Q^2-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{Q}$$

for all $z \in \mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ with $z \not\equiv 0 \pmod{Q}$.

Proof. The quotient-ring $A = \mathbb{Z}[\phi] \bmod Q$ is a field, by exactly the same argument that $\mathbb{Z} \bmod p$ is a field if p is a prime. For if $z \in A$, $z \neq 0$ then the map

$$w \mapsto zw : A \rightarrow A$$

is injective, and so surjective (since A is finite). Hence there is an element z' such that $zz' = 1$, ie z is invertible in A .

Also, A contains just Q^2 elements, represented by

$$m + n\sqrt{5} \quad (0 \leq m, n < Q).$$

Thus the group

$$A^\times = A \setminus 0$$

has order $Q^2 - 1$, and the result follows from Lagrange's Theorem. \square

In particular, it follows from this Lemma that

$$\phi^{Q^2-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{Q},$$

ie the order of $\phi \bmod Q$ divides $Q^2 - 1$. But we know that the order of $\phi \bmod Q$ is 2^{p+1} . Hence

$$2^{p+1} \mid Q^2 - 1 = (Q - 1)(Q + 1).$$

But

$$\gcd(Q - 1, Q + 1) = 2.$$

It follows that either

$$2 \parallel Q - 1, 2^p \mid Q + 1 \text{ or } 2 \parallel Q + 1, 2^p \mid Q - 1.$$

Since $Q \leq P = 2^p - 1$, the only possibility is

$$2^p \mid Q + 1,$$

ie $Q = P$, and so P is prime. \square

This result can be expressed in a different form, more suitable for computation.

Note that

$$\phi^{2^p} \equiv -1 \pmod{P}$$

can be re-written as

$$\phi^{2^{p-1}} + \phi^{2^{-(p-1)}} \equiv 0 \pmod{P}.$$

Let

$$t_i = \phi^{2^i} + \phi^{2^{-i}}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} t_i^2 &= \phi^{2^{i+1}} + 2 + \phi^{2^{-(i+1)}} \\ &= t_{i+1} + 2, \end{aligned}$$

ie

$$t_{i+1} = t_i^2 - 2.$$

Since

$$t_0 = 2$$

it follows that $t_i \in \mathbb{N}$ for all i .

Now we can re-state our result.

Corollary 15.1. *Let the integer sequence t_i be defined recursively by*

$$t_{i+1} = t_i^2 - 2, \quad t_0 = 2.$$

Then

$$P = 2^p - 1 \text{ is prime} \iff P \mid t_{p-1}.$$