## Chapter 15

## $Q(\sqrt{5})$ 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

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

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 $\phi$ (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 $\phi$ 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. $\mathcal{N}(x+y \phi)=x^{2}+x y-y^{2}$;
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 $5 \equiv 1 \bmod 4$ the associated number ring

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

consists of the numbers

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

where $m \equiv n \bmod 2$, 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 $\Gamma$.

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

$$
z=q w+r
$$

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

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

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

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

ie

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

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 $\delta$ such that

$$
\delta \mid z, w
$$

and

$$
\delta^{\prime}\left|z, w \Longrightarrow \delta^{\prime}\right| \delta
$$

Also, $\delta$ is uniquely defined up to multiplication by a unit.
Moreover, there exists $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ such that

$$
u z+v w=\delta .
$$

From this we deduce that irreducibles in $\mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ are primes.
Lemma 15.3. If $\pi \in \mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ is irreducible and $z, w \in \mathbb{Z}[p h i]$ then

$$
\pi|z w \Longrightarrow \pi| z \text { or } \pi \mid w .
$$

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

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

where $\epsilon$ is the smallest unit $>1$.
Thus the theorem will follow if we establish that $\phi$ 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 $p \equiv \pm 1 \bmod 5$ then $p$ splits into conjugate primes in $\mathbb{Z}[\phi]$ :

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

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

Proof. Suppose $p$ splits, say

$$
p=\pi \pi^{\prime}
$$

Then

$$
\mathcal{N}(p)=p^{2}=\mathcal{N}(\pi) \mathcal{N}\left(\pi^{\prime}\right) .
$$

Hence

$$
\mathcal{N}(\pi)=\mathcal{N}\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)= \pm p
$$

Suppose

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

Then

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

and in either case

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

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

$$
2 \mid \pi
$$

which is impossible.
Now suppose $p$ is odd, Multiplying by 4 ,

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

But

$$
n \equiv 0 \bmod p \Longrightarrow m \equiv 0 \bmod p \Longrightarrow p \mid \pi,
$$

which is impossible. Hence $n \not \equiv 0 \bmod p$, and so

$$
r^{2} \equiv 5 \bmod p
$$

where

$$
r \equiv(2 m-n) / n \bmod p .
$$

Thus

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

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

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

ie

$$
p \equiv \pm 1 \bmod 5
$$

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

Now suppose $p \equiv \pm 1 \bmod 5$. Then

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

and so we can find $n$ such that

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

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

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

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

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

### 15.6 Fibonacci numbers

Recall that the Fibonacci sequence consists of the numbers

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

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

$$
x_{n}=a_{1} x_{n-1}+a_{2} x_{n-2}+\cdots+a_{d} x_{n-d} .
$$

Let the roots of the associated polynomial

$$
p(t)=t^{d}-c_{1} t^{d-1}-c_{2} t^{d-2}+\cdots+c_{d} .
$$

be $\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{d}$.
If these roots are distinct then the general solution of the recurrence relation is

$$
x_{n}=C_{1} \lambda_{1}^{n}+C_{2} \lambda_{2}^{n}+\cdots+C_{d} \lambda_{d}^{n} .
$$

The coefficients $C_{1}, \ldots, C_{d}$ are determined by $d$ 'initial conditions', eg by specifying $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{d-1}$.

If there are multiple roots, eg if $\lambda$ 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

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

### 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 $p \equiv 3 \bmod 4$. In the next Chapter we shall give a stronger version which works for all primes.

Proposition 15.4. Suppose the prime $p \equiv 3 \bmod 4$. Then

$$
P=2^{p}-1
$$

is prime if and only if

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

Proof. Suppose first that $P$ is a prime.
Since $p \equiv 3 \bmod 4$ and $2^{4} \equiv 1 \bmod 5$,

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

Hence

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

Now

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

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

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

since $2^{P} \equiv 2 \bmod P$ 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 $P \equiv 2 \bmod 5$. Thus

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

and so

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

But

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

It follows that

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

ie

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

Conversely, suppose

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

We must show that $P$ is prime.
The order of $\phi$ is exactly $2^{p+1}$. For

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

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

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

so the order does not divide $2^{p}$.
Suppose now $P$ is not prime. Since

$$
P \equiv 2 \bmod 5,
$$

it must have a prime factor

$$
Q \equiv \pm 2 \bmod 5
$$

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

Since $Q \mid P$, it follows that

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

and so, by the argument above, the order of $\phi \bmod Q$ 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

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

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

$$
w \mapsto z w: A \rightarrow A
$$

is injective, and so surjective (since $A$ is finite). Hence there is an element $z^{\prime}$ such that $z z^{\prime}=1$, 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

$$
A^{\times}=A \backslash 0
$$

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

In particular, it follows from this Lemma that

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

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

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

It follows that either

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

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

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

ie $Q=P$, and so $P$ is prime.
This result can be expressed in a different form, more suitable for computation.

Note that

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

can be re-written as

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

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

$$
t_{i+1}=t_{i}^{2}-2, t_{0}=2
$$

Then

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

