

Course 2316 — Sample Paper 3

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The exam will last for 2 hours.

Attempt 5 questions. All carry the same mark.

1. Show that

$$\sum_{p \text{ prime}} \frac{1}{p}$$

is divergent. **Answer:**

By the Fundamental Theorem, each integer $n \geq 1$ is expressible in the form

$$n = 2^{e_2} 3^{e_3} 5^{e_5} \dots,$$

where the sum extends over the primes, and $e_p \in \mathbb{N}$, with all but a finite number of the $e_p = 0$.

Inverting,

$$\frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{2^{e_2}} \frac{1}{3^{e_3}} \frac{1}{5^{e_5}} \dots$$

Informally, by addition,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{1}{n} &= \sum_{e_2 \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{1}{2^{e_2}} \sum_{e_3 \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{1}{3^{e_3}} \sum_{e_5 \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{1}{5^{e_5}} \dots \\ &= (1 - 1/2)^{-1} (1 - 1/3)^{-1} (1 - 1/5)^{-1} \dots \\ &= \prod_p \frac{1}{1 - 1/p}. \end{aligned}$$

Formally,

$$\sum_{n \leq N} \frac{1}{n} \leq \prod_{p \leq N} \frac{1}{1 - 1/p},$$

since the primes dividing n are all $\leq n$.

We know that

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{1}{n}$$

is divergent. It follows that

$$\prod_{p \leq N} \frac{1}{1 - 1/p} \rightarrow \infty$$

as $N \rightarrow \infty$.

Thus, taking logarithms,

$$\sum_p \ln \left(\frac{1}{p-1} \right) = \sum_p \ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{p-1} \right)$$

diverges.

But

$$\ln(1+x) \leq x$$

if $x \geq 1$; for if

$$f(x) = \ln(1+x) - x$$

then

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x} - 1 = -\frac{x}{1+x} \leq 0.$$

It follows that

$$\sum_p \frac{1}{p-1}$$

diverges, and so therefore does

$$\sum_p \frac{1}{p},$$

since $p_n - 1 \geq p_{n-1}$.

2. How many numbers between 1 and 1 million are not divisible by any of the 10 integers 1 – 10?

Answer: Lemma. Suppose X is a finite set, and suppose

$$S_i \subset X$$

for $i = 1, \dots, r$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \#(S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \dots \cup S_r) = \\ \sum_i \#(S_i) - \sum_{i,j} \#(S_i \cap S_j) + \sum_{i,j,k} \#(S_i \cap S_j \cap S_k) - \sum_{i,j,k,l} \#(S_i \cap S_j \cap S_k \cap S_l) + \dots \end{aligned}$$

We use this lemma to determine the size of the complementary set S , ie the numbers in $[1, 10^6]$ divisible by one of 2–10, or in other words by 2,3,5, or 7.

If we set

$$T_m = \{n \in [1, 10^6] : m|n\}$$

then

$$S = T_2 \cup T_3 \cup T_5 \cup T_7;$$

Also

$$T_m = [10^6/m],$$

where $[x]$ is the largest integer $\leq x$; and if $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ then

$$T_m \cap T_n = T_{mn}.$$

Hence, by the Lemma,

$$\begin{aligned} \#S &= \#T_2 + \#T_3 + \#T_5 + \#T_7 \\ &\quad - \#T_6 - \#T_{10} - \#T_{14} - \#T_{15} - \#T_{21} - \#T_{35} \\ &\quad + \#T_{30} + \#T_{42} + \#T_{70} + \#T_{105} \\ &\quad - \#T_{210} \\ &= 500,000 + 333,333 + 200,000 + 142,857 \\ &\quad - 166,666 - 100,000 - 71,428 - 66,666 - 47,619 - 28,571 \\ &\quad + 33,333 + 23,809 + 14,285 + 9,523 \\ &\quad - 4,761 \\ &= (500,000+200,000-100,000+333,333-33,333)+(142,857-71,428) \\ &\quad - (166,666+66,666)-(47,619-23,809)-(28,571-14,285)+(9,523-4,761) \\ &= 900,000 + 71,429 - 233,332 - 23,810 - 14,286 + 4,762 \\ &= 976,191 - 271,428 \\ &= 704,763. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the number not divisible by 1–10 is

$$1,000,000 - 704,763 = 295,237.$$

[Nb: I have not checked my arithmetic!]

3. State (without proof) the Prime Number Theorem.

Show that the theorem implies that

$$p_n \sim n \log n,$$

where p_n is the n th prime.

Answer:

(a) **Theorem.**

$$\pi(x) \sim \frac{\ln x}{x},$$

where $\pi(x)$ denotes the number of primes $\leq x$.

(b) *By definition*

$$\pi(p_n) = n.$$

Let

$$f(x) = \frac{x}{\ln x}, \quad g(x) = x \ln x.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} g(f(x)) &= \frac{x}{\ln x} (\ln x - \ln \ln x) \\ &= x \frac{\ln x}{\ln x - \ln \ln x} \\ &\sim x, \end{aligned}$$

while

$$\begin{aligned} f(g(x)) &= \frac{x \ln x}{\ln x + \ln \ln x} \\ &= x \frac{\ln x}{\ln x + \ln \ln x} \\ &\sim x. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\pi(x) \sim f(x) \implies g(\pi(x)) \sim g(f(x)) \sim x.$$

In particular, setting $x = p_n$,

$$g(n) \sim p_n,$$

ie

$$p_n \sim n \ln n.$$

4. Find all the generators of the multiplicative group $(\mathbb{Z}/23)^\times$.

Is the group $(\mathbb{Z}/25)^\times$ (formed by the invertible elements of $\mathbb{Z}/(25)$) cyclic? If so, find a generator.

Answer:

(a) *The group $(\mathbb{Z}/23)^\times$ has 22 elements, so the order of each element divides 22, by Lagrange's Theorem, ie the order is 1,2,11 or 22.*

Evidently $2^2 \not\equiv 1 \pmod{23}$. So 2 has order 11 or 22 mod 23.

We have

$$2^6 = 64 \equiv -5 \pmod{23},$$

so

$$2^{12} \equiv 25 \equiv 2 \pmod{23}.$$

Since $\gcd(2, 23) = 1$, we can divide by 2, and so

$$2^{11} = 1 \pmod{23}.$$

Thus 2 has order 11 mod 23.

Since

$$(-2)^{11} \equiv -2^{11} \equiv -1 \pmod{23},$$

it follows that -2 has order 22 mod 23, ie -2 generates the group, which is therefore cyclic [as of course we know].

Lemma. If g is a generator of the cyclic group C_n then g^r is also a generator if and only if $\gcd(r, n) = 1$.

It follows that the generators of $(\mathbb{Z}/23)^\times$ are

$$(-2)^r \pmod{23} \quad (r = 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 13, 15, 17, 19, 21).$$

Now we know that

$$(-2)^r \equiv -2^r \pmod{23}$$

if r is odd, while

$$2^{11} \equiv 1 \pmod{23}.$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} (-2)^3 &\equiv -8 \pmod{23}, \\ (-2)^5 &\equiv -32 \equiv -9 \pmod{23}, \\ (-2)^7 &\equiv 4 \cdot -9 = -36 \equiv 10 \pmod{23}, \\ (-2)^9 &\equiv 4 \cdot 10 = 40 \equiv -6 \pmod{23}, \\ [(-2)^{11} &\equiv 4 \cdot -6 \equiv -1 \pmod{23},] \\ (-2)^{13} &\equiv 4 \cdot -1 = -4 \pmod{23}, \\ (-2)^{15} &\equiv 4 \cdot -4 = -16 \equiv 7 \pmod{23}, \\ (-2)^{17} &\equiv 4 \cdot 7 = 28 \equiv 5 \pmod{23}, \\ (-2)^{19} &\equiv 4 \cdot 5 = 20 \equiv -3 \pmod{23}, \\ (-2)^{21} &\equiv 4 \cdot -3 = -12 \equiv 11 \pmod{23}, \\ [(-2)^{22} &\equiv -2 \cdot 11 = -22 \equiv 1 \pmod{23}.] \end{aligned}$$

Thus the generators of the group are:

$$5, 7, 10, 11, -2, -3, -4, -6, -8, -9 \pmod{23}.$$

(b) The group $(\mathbb{Z}/25)^\times$ has order

$$\phi(5^2) = 5 \cdot 4 = 20.$$

Evidently $(\mathbb{Z}/5)^\times$ is cyclic, with generators ± 2 .

Thus 2 has order 4 mod 5; so its order mod 25 is a multiple of 4. On the other hand the order must divide 20. Hence it is either 4 or 20.

Now

$$2^4 = 16 \not\equiv 1 \pmod{25}.$$

Hence 2 has order 20 mod 25, ie it is a generator of $(\mathbb{Z}/25)^\times$, which is therefore cyclic.

5. Show that if $2^m + 1$ is prime then $m = 2^n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Show that the Fermat number

$$F_n = 2^{2^n} + 1,$$

where $n > 0$, is prime if and only if

$$3^{2^{2^n-1}} \equiv -1 \pmod{F_n}.$$

Answer:

(a) Let

$$f(x) = x^r + 1.$$

If r is odd then

$$f(-1) = 0.$$

It follows that

$$x + 1 \mid f(x).$$

In fact

$$f(x) = (x + 1)(x^{r-1} - x^{r-2} + \cdots - x + 1).$$

If now m has an odd factor r , say

$$m = rs,$$

then it follows on setting $x = 2^s$ that

$$2^s + 1 \mid 2^m + 1.$$

Hence m has no odd factors if $2^m + 1$ is prime, ie

$$m = 2^n.$$

(b) Suppose

$$F_n = 2^{2^n} + 1 \quad (n > 0)$$

is prime.

Then

$$F_n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

It follows from Gauss' Reciprocity Theorem that

$$\left(\frac{3}{F_n}\right) = \left(\frac{F_n}{3}\right).$$

Now

$$2^{2^n} \equiv (-1)^{2^n} \equiv 1 \pmod{3},$$

and so

$$F_n \equiv 2 \pmod{3}.$$

It follows that

$$\left(\frac{3}{F_n}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) = -1.$$

But by Eisenstein's Criterion,

$$3^{(N-1)/2} \equiv \left(\frac{3}{F_n}\right) = -1 \pmod{F_n},$$

ie

$$3^{2^{2^n-1}} \equiv -1 \pmod{F_n}.$$

Conversely, suppose this result holds. Since $F_n \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$, it must have a prime factor

$$P \equiv 2 \pmod{3};$$

and then

$$3^{2^{2^n-1}} \equiv -1 \pmod{P}.$$

It follows that the order of 3 mod P must be exactly 2^{2^n} . For certainly

$$3^{2^{2^n}} = (3^{2^{2^n-1}})^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{P}.$$

So the order divides 2^{2^n} , and is therefore a power of 2. But the order cannot be smaller than 2^{2^n} since

$$3^{2^{2^n-1}} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{P}.$$

By Fermat's Little Theorem,

$$2^{2^n} | P - 1.$$

Hence

$$2^{2^n} \leq P - 1.$$

ie

$$P \geq 2^{2^n} + 1 = F_n.$$

It follows that

$$P = F_n,$$

ie F_n is prime.

6. Suppose

$$n - 1 = 2^e m,$$

where m is odd. Show that if n is prime, and a is coprime to n , then either

$$a^m \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

or else

$$2^f a^m \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$$

for some $f \in [0, e)$.

Show conversely that if this is true for all a coprime to n then n is prime.

Answer:

(a) Suppose n is prime. Then

$$a^{n-1} = a^{2^e m} \equiv 1 \pmod{n},$$

by Fermat's Little Theorem. Thus

$$(a^{2^{e-1} m})^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{n},$$

and so

$$a^{2^{e-1} m} \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{n}.$$

If

$$a^{2^{e-1} m} \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$$

we are done; otherwise

$$(a^{2^{e-2}m})^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{n},$$

and so

$$a^{2^{e-2}m} \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{n}.$$

Continuing in this way, we see that either

$$a^{2^f m} \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$$

at some stage, or else we conclude with

$$a^m \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{n}.$$

(b) Suppose now that n is not prime, but that all a coprime to n have the above property.

Then n has at least two prime factors. Let us suppose first that it has two distinct prime factors, p and q .

We are going to consider the orders of a modulo p, q, n . But we are only interested in the power of 2 dividing the order, in each case. Suppose $g \in G$ has order $2^f m$, where m is odd. Let us call f the 2-order of g , and write

$$O_2(g, n) = f.$$

[Nb: This is not a standard notation.]

Lemma. Suppose

$$a^{2^f m} \equiv -1 \pmod{n}.$$

Then

$$O_2(a, n) = f + 1.$$

For certainly

$$a^{2^{f+1}m} = (a^{2^f m})^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{n},$$

and so

$$O_2(a, n) \leq f + 1.$$

On the other hand, if

$$O_2(a, n) = f' \leq f,$$

so the order of $a \pmod n$ is $2^{f'} m'$, where m' is odd, then

$$\begin{aligned} 2^{f'} m' \mid 2^{f+1} m &\implies m' \mid m \\ &\implies a^{2^f m} \equiv 1 \pmod n, \end{aligned}$$

contrary to the supposition that

$$a^{2^f m} \equiv -1 \pmod n,$$

Hence

$$O_2(a, n) = f + 1.$$

Now suppose

$$a^{2^f m} \equiv -1 \pmod n.$$

Then

$$a^{2^f m} \equiv -1 \pmod p \text{ and } a^{2^f m} \equiv -1 \pmod q.$$

It follows from the lemma that

$$O_2(a, n) = O_2(a, p) = O_2(a, q) = f + 1.$$

Lemma. If p is an odd prime, the group $(\mathbb{Z}/p)^\times$ is cyclic.

It follows that we can find a having any order $\mid p - 1$ modulo p , and any order $\mid q - 1$ modulo q .

In particular, we can find an a such that

$$O_2(a, p) \neq O_2(a, q),$$

leading to a contradiction. It remains to consider the case when

$$n = p^r,$$

with $r \geq 2$. In this case the group $(\mathbb{Z}/n)^\times$ has order

$$\phi(p^r) = (p - 1)p^{r-1}.$$

It follows that we can find an element a of order p . But our hypothesis implies that

$$a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod n.$$

Thus

$$p \mid p^r - 1,$$

which is absurd.

We have shown that if all a coprime to n have the specified property then n must be prime.

[Note: Eisenstein's Criterion gives an alternative way of finding an a with

$$O_2(a, p) \neq O_2(a, q),$$

Suppose

$$p - 1 = 2^g r, \quad q - 1 = 2^h s,$$

where r, s are odd.

By Eisenstein's Criterion,

$$a^{(p-1)/2} = a^{2^{g-1}r} \equiv \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \pmod{p}.$$

Thus

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = -1 \implies a^{2^{g-1}r} \equiv -1 \pmod{p} \implies O_2(a, p) = g.$$

On the other hand

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 1 \implies a^{2^{g-1}r} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \implies O_2(a, p) < g.$$

But by the Chinese Remainder Theorem, we can choose $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$ and $\left(\frac{a}{q}\right)$ independently. In particular, we can find an a with

$$O_2(a, p) \neq O_2(a, q),$$

contradicting our hypothesis.]

7. State without proof Gauss' Quadratic Reciprocity Law.

Does there exist a number n such that n^2 ends in the digits 1234? If so, find the smallest such n . **Answer:**

(a) If a is coprime to the prime p then we set

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a quadratic residue mod } p, \\ -1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a quadratic non-residue mod } p. \end{cases}$$

Gauss' Law states that if p, q are odd primes then

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } p \equiv q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}, \\ +1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

(b) We have to determine if there is an integer n such that

$$n^2 \equiv 1234 \pmod{10000}.$$

By the Chinese Remainder Theorem this is equivalent to asking if each of the congruences

$$\begin{aligned} m^2 &\equiv 1234 \pmod{2^5}, \\ n^2 &\equiv 1234 \pmod{5^5} \end{aligned}$$

is soluble.

The first is insoluble, since

$$m^2 \equiv 1234 \pmod{2^5} \implies m^2 \equiv 1234 \pmod{2^2},$$

and

$$1234 \equiv 2 \pmod{4},$$

while

$$m^2 \equiv 0 \text{ or } 1 \pmod{4}.$$

Hence there is no such n .

8. What is meant by an *algebraic number* and by an *algebraic integer*?

Show that the algebraic integers in the field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-3})$ form the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$, where $\omega = (1 + \sqrt{-3})/2$.

Show that this ring is a unique factorisation domain, and determine the units and primes in this domain.

Answer:

(a) An algebraic number is a number $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ satisfying a polynomial equation

$$x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + a_2x^{n-2} + \cdots + a_n = 0,$$

with $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Q}$.

(b) An algebraic integer is a number $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ satisfying a polynomial equation

$$x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + a_2x^{n-2} + \cdots + a_n = 0,$$

with $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{N}$.

(c) The field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-3})$ consists of the numbers

$$z = x + y\sqrt{-3}$$

with $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$. If z satisfies the equation

$$x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + a_2x^{n-2} + \cdots + a_n = 0,$$

with $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Q}$, then so does

$$\bar{z} = x - y\sqrt{-3}.$$

Lemma. The algebraic integers form a ring.

Lemma. If $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$ is an algebraic integer then $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Suppose z is an algebraic integer. Then so is \bar{z} (since it satisfies the same polynomial equations over \mathbb{Q} or \mathbb{Z}). It follows that

$$z + \bar{z} = 2x$$

is an algebraic integer, and so

$$2x \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Similarly,

$$z\bar{z} = x^2 + 3y^2 \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} 4x^2 + 12y^2 &= (2x)^2 + 3(2y)^2 \in \mathbb{Z} \\ \implies 3(2y)^2 &\in \mathbb{Z} \\ \implies 2y &\in \mathbb{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$x = a/2, \quad y = b/2,$$

where $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and

$$x^2 + 3y^2 = \frac{a^2 + 3b^2}{4} \in \mathbb{N}$$

ie

$$a^2 + 3b^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}.$$

Hence either a, b are both odd, or both even. It follows that

$$z = c + d\frac{1 + \sqrt{-3}}{2} = c + d\omega,$$

with $c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Conversely, ω is an algebraic integer, since it satisfies the equation

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

Thus

$$z = c + d\omega$$

is an algebraic integer, since the algebraic integers form a ring.

Hence the algebraic integers in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-3})$ are the numbers

$$\{c + d\omega : c, d \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \mathbb{Z}[\omega].$$

(d) If

$$z = x + y\sqrt{-3} \quad (x, y \in \mathbb{Q})$$

we set

$$\mathcal{N}(z) = z\bar{z} = x^2 + 3y^2.$$

Evidently,

$$\mathcal{N}(zw) = \mathcal{N}(z)\mathcal{N}(w).$$

Now suppose $z, w \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]$. Let

$$\frac{z}{w} = x + y\omega.$$

Choose $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$|x - a| \leq 1/2, \quad |y - b| \leq 1/2,$$

and let

$$q = a + b\omega.$$

Then

$$\frac{z}{w} - q = (x - a) + (y - b)\omega.$$

Hence

$$\mathcal{N}\left(\frac{z}{w} - q\right) = \frac{(x - a)^2 + 3(y - b)^2}{4} \leq \frac{1/4 + 3/4}{4} = \frac{1}{4} < 1.$$

Thus

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

In other words, given $z, w \neq 0 \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ we can find $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ such that

$$z = qw + r,$$

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

This allows us to set up the Euclidean Algorithm:

$$\begin{aligned} z &= q_0 w + r_0, \\ w &= q_1 r_0 + r_1, \\ r_0 &= q_2 r_1 + r_2, \\ &\dots \\ r_{n-1} &= q_{n+1} r_n. \end{aligned}$$

The process must finish, since

$$\mathcal{N}(r_0) > \mathcal{N}(r_1) > \dots > \mathcal{N}(r_n) > 0,$$

ie the norms form a decreasing sequence of positive integers.

It follows that

$$d = r_n = \gcd(z, w),$$

ie

$$d \mid z, w \text{ and } e \mid z, w \implies e \mid d.$$

Also, working backwards through the algorithm, we can find $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ such that

$$uz + vw = d.$$

Recall that $\epsilon \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ is said to be a unit if it is invertible in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$.

Lemma. ϵ is a unit if and only if $\mathcal{N}(\epsilon) = 1$.

For

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon\theta = 1 &\implies \mathcal{N}(\epsilon)\mathcal{N}(\theta) = \mathcal{N}(1) = 1 \\ &\implies \mathcal{N}(\epsilon) = \mathcal{N}(\theta) = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Conversely

$$\mathcal{N}(\epsilon) = 1 \implies \epsilon\bar{\epsilon} = 1.$$

We say that π is indecomposable if

$$\pi = \sigma\tau$$

implies that σ or τ is a unit.

Now we can establish Euclid's Lemma: If π is indecomposable then

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

Lemma. Suppose $z \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]$. Then z is expressible as a product of indecomposables:

$$z = \pi_1 \cdots \pi_r.$$

This follows by induction on $\mathcal{N}(z)$. If z is indecomposable the result is trivial. Otherwise

$$z = uv,$$

where neither u nor v is a unit. Hence

$$\mathcal{N}(u), \mathcal{N}(v) > 1 \implies \mathcal{N}(u), \mathcal{N}(v) < \mathcal{N}(z),$$

so the inductive hypothesis can be applied to u, v , giving the result for z .

Finally, the uniqueness of the expression for z as a product of irreducibles (up to order and multiplication by units) follows from Euclid's Lemma. Again, we argue by induction on $\mathcal{N}(z)$. Suppose

$$z = \pi_1 \cdots \pi_r = \pi'_1 \cdots \pi'_s.$$

Then

$$\pi_1 \mid \pi'_i$$

for some i , by Euclid's Lemma; and uniqueness follows on applying the inductive hypothesis to

$$z/\pi_1 = \pi_2 \cdots \pi_r = \pi'_1 \cdots \pi'_{r-1} \pi'_{r+1} \cdots \pi'_s.$$

(e) *We have seen that*

$$\epsilon = a + b\omega$$

is a unit if and only if

$$\mathcal{N}(\epsilon) = (a + b\omega)(a + b\bar{\omega}) = (a + b\omega)(a + b\omega^2) = a^2 - ab + b^2 = 1.$$

In other words,

$$\left(a - \frac{1}{2}b\right)^2 + \frac{3}{4}b^2 = 1,$$

ie

$$(2a - b)^2 + 3b^2 = 4.$$

Evidently the only solutions to this are

$$(2a - b, b) = (\pm 2, 0) \text{ or } (\pm 1, \pm 1),$$

giving

$$(a, b) = \pm(1, 0), \pm(1, 1), \pm(0, 1).$$

Since $1 + \omega = -\omega^2$, it follows that $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ has just 6 units:

$$\pm 1, \pm \omega, \pm \omega^2.$$

(f) *Since we have established unique factorisation, we may refer to indecomposables as ‘primes’, with the understanding that we do not distinguish between π and $\epsilon\pi$, where ϵ is a unit.*

Suppose π is prime. Let

$$\mathcal{N}(\pi) = \pi\bar{\pi} = p_1 \dots p_r,$$

where the p_i are rational primes. Then

$$\pi \mid p_i$$

for some p_i .

So every prime π divides a rational prime p . Hence

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

Thus

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

If $\mathcal{N}(\pi) = p^2$ then

$$p = \epsilon\pi,$$

ie the rational prime p does not split in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$.

If $\mathcal{N}(\pi) = p$ then

$$p = \pi\bar{\pi},$$

ie p splits into two primes.

Evidently,

$$3 = -(\sqrt{-3})^2,$$

so 3 ramifies.

Thus we may assume that $p \neq 3$.

Suppose

$$p = \pi\bar{\pi},$$

where

$$\pi = a + b\omega.$$

Then

$$a^2 + ab + b^2 = p.$$

Note that if $p = 2$ then a, b must both be even, in which case the left-hand side is divisible by 4, which is impossible. So 2 does not split in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$, and we may assume that $p \neq 2, 3$.

Now

$$a^2 + ab + b^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{p},$$

and so

$$(2a - b)^2 + 3b^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

But this implies that -3 is a quadratic residue mod p , since b is evidently coprime to p , ie

$$\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = 1.$$

But

$$\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) \left(\frac{3}{p}\right),$$

and

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8}, \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$$

Also, by Gauss' Reciprocity Theorem,

$$\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} +\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \\ -\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) & \text{if } p \equiv -1 \pmod{4}, \end{cases}$$

while

$$\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv -1 \pmod{3}. \end{cases}$$

Putting all these together, we see that

$$\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } p \equiv 1, 5, 19, 23 \pmod{24}, \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv 7, 11, 13, 17 \pmod{24}. \end{cases}$$

ie

$$\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 1, \pm 5 \pmod{24}, \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 7, \pm 11 \pmod{24}. \end{cases}$$

Finally, suppose

$$\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = 1,$$

ie -3 is a quadratic residue mod p . Then we can find a coprime to p such that

$$a^2 + 3 \equiv 0 \pmod{p},$$

ie

$$a^2 + 3 = pq$$

ie

$$(a + \sqrt{-3})(a - \sqrt{-3}) = pq.$$

If now p remains prime in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ then since there is unique factorisation in this ring it follows that

$$p \mid (a + \sqrt{-3}) \text{ or } p \mid (a - \sqrt{-3})$$

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

We conclude that the rational prime $p \neq 2, 3$ splits in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ if and only if

$$p \equiv \pm 1, \pm 5 \pmod{24}.$$

We should consider finally if the prime p ramifies in any of these cases, ie if

$$\bar{\pi} = \epsilon\pi,$$

where $\epsilon \in \{\pm 1, \pm\omega, \pm\omega^2\}$.

If this is so, then (multiplying by π),

$$p = \epsilon\pi^2.$$

Suppose

$$\pi = a + b\omega.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\pi^2 &= (a + b\omega)^2 \\ &= a^2 + ab\omega + b^2\omega^2 \\ &= (a^2 - b^2) + (ab - b^2)\omega.\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}p \mid \pi^2 &\implies ab - b^2 = b(a - b) \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \\ &\implies a \equiv b \pmod{p} \\ &\implies p = a^2 - ab + b^2 \equiv a^2 \pmod{p} \\ &\implies p \mid a,\end{aligned}$$

contradicting the fact that a is coprime to p .

We have shown therefore that in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$

- i. $p = 3$ ramifies;
- ii. if $p = 2$ or $p \equiv \pm 7, \pm 11 \pmod{24}$ then p remains prime;
- iii. if $p \equiv \pm 1, \pm 5 \pmod{24}$ then p splits into 2 distinct primes.