UW Math Circle March 26, 2020

Number theory problems

To prove Fermat's two square theorem, we relied on two facts:

Theorem 1 (Wilson's theorem) If p is prime, then $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \mod p$.

Lemma 1 (Lagrange's lemma) If p is prime and $p \equiv 1 \mod 4$ is prime, then there exists an integer m such that $p|m^2 + 1$.

It's now your job to prove these two facts! The following steps will walk you through it.

Let's start with a quick review of modular arithmetic. Using mod 5, for example, means that means we call two numbers equivalent if their difference is a multiple of 5. For example, $12 \equiv 2 \mod 5$ because 12 - 2 = 10 is a multiple of 5. Mods are nice because they preserve addition and multiplication: for any integers a, b, c, d,

$$a \equiv b \mod c \implies a + d \equiv b + d \mod c$$
, and $ad \equiv bd \mod c$.

Now to the proofs:

1. Let p be prime. Fix an integer $1 \le x \le p-1$, and consider the list

$$x \mod p, 2x \mod p, 3x \mod p, \dots, (p-1)x \mod p.$$

Prove that all the numbers in this list are different, and that none of them are 0.

- 2. Conclude that every integer $1 \le x \le p-1$ has a unique inverse mod p, i.e. there exists a unique number x^{-1} such that $x^{-1}x \equiv 1 \mod p$.
- 3. Check that $1! \equiv -1 \mod 2$ and $2! \equiv -1 \mod 3$.
- 4. Suppose p > 3 is prime. Show that you can group the numbers $2, 3, \ldots, (p-2)$ into pairs so that the product of each pair is 1. Use this to complete the proof of Wilson's theorem. (Hint: use your work from part 1.)
- 5. Applying Wilson's theorem directly to p = 4k + 1 gives

$$(4k)! \equiv -1 \mod p. \tag{1}$$

Show that $(4k)! \equiv (2k)!^2 \mod p$ by re-grouping the terms of (4k)! in a special way.

6. Conclude that $p|(2k)!^2 + 1$.

Bonus: What is $(p-1)! \mod p$ if p is not prime?

Gaussian Integers

We also used the fact that Gaussian integers can always be factored into primes. Let's explore the Gaussian integers/primes a little more...

If z and w are Gaussian integers, we say z divides w if there exists a Gaussian integer u such that $w = u \cdot z$. There are some special numbers in the Gaussian integers, that we call **units**: they are the Gaussian integers of norm 1, i.e. 1, -1, i and -i. The units are special because they divide everything!

A Gaussian integer z is called a **G-prime** (Gaussian prime) if it cannot be written as $z = x \cdot y$ for some Gaussian integers x, y, with neither x nor y a unit.

Regular primes may not be Gaussian primes: for example, 5 is prime, but not G-prime, because 5 = (1+2i)(1-2i). Proving that Gaussian integers are G-prime can be a tricky business. One useful tool is the norm, $N(a+bi) = a^2 + b^2$.

Some problems:

- a. Prove that $N((a+ib)\cdot(c+di))=N(a+ib)\cdot N(c+di)$ by doing all the multiplications.
- b. Let z denote a Gaussian integer. Use part a to show that if N(z) is prime, then z is G-prime.
- c. Show that 1+i is prime.
- d. Show that N(z) is even if and only if 1 + i|z.
- e. Show that 2 is not prime by factoring it.
- f. List all G-primes that have norm less than 10. How many are there?
- g. Show that 3 is prime. Note that the norm of 3 is 9, so you can't use the test from part b!
- h. Determine which of the following are G-prime: 1+3i, 3+4i, 14-5i, 53. If it isn't G-prime, find a factorization into G-primes.
- i. Note that 5 = (1+2i)(1-2i) = (2+i)(2-i). Why doesn't this violate unique factorization?

Harder problems:

- Show that if p is a prime and $p \equiv 1 \mod 4$, then there is a unique pair of integers a, b such that $a^2 + b^2 = p$. (Hint: suppose there are two different pairs, and try to derive a contradiction using prime factorization over the Gaussian integers.)
- For which odd numbers n is n + i G-prime?
- Show that if p is a prime and $p \equiv 3 \mod 4$, then p is G-prime. (Hint: start by showing that there is no Gaussian integer z with $N(z) \equiv 3 \mod 4$.)
- Suppose N(z) is a square number (1, 4, 9, 16, etc). Does there necessarily exist a Gaussian integer w with $z = w^2$? Prove that this is always true, or find a counterexample.