

UNIQUE FACTORIZATION IN EXOTIC NUMBER SYSTEMS

Exercise 1. a) Find the smallest positive integer n for which $n^2 + n + 41$ is NOT a prime number. b) Show that for every prime divisor p of $n^2 + n + 41$, we have $\left(\frac{-163}{p}\right) = 1$. (Hint: complete the square.)

The *Gaussian integers* are the set of complex numbers of the form $a + bi$, where a and b are ordinary integers. The set of Gaussian integers is notated $\mathbf{Z}[i]$. It is easy to see that Gaussian integers can be added, subtracted and multiplied to form new Gaussian integers. The *norm* of a Gaussian integer $\alpha = a + bi$ is $N(\alpha) = a^2 + b^2$. We have the rule $N(\alpha\beta) = N(\alpha)N(\beta)$.

Exercise 2. a) In the ordinary integers \mathbf{Z} , the only elements that have multiplicative inverses which are also integers are 1 and -1 . These are the *units* of \mathbf{Z} . What are the units in $\mathbf{Z}[i]$? b) Let α and β be two Gaussian integers. We say α divides β if there is a third Gaussian integer γ for which $\beta = \alpha\gamma$. Show that if p is a prime integer, and a Gaussian integer $\alpha = a + bi$ divides p , then either α is a unit, or else it equals a unit multiple of p , or else $a^2 + b^2 = p$.

We say that two Gaussian integers α, β are *unit multiples* if there is some unit u for which $\alpha = \beta u$. A Gaussian integer π is *prime* if its only divisors are 1, π , and the unit multiples of those. For instance, $1 + i$, $1 + 2i$ and 3 are primes in $\mathbf{Z}[i]$. But 5 is not a prime in $\mathbf{Z}[i]$ because it factors: $5 = (1 + 2i)(1 - 2i)$. (The units themselves are not considered primes, nor is zero.)

How do you find primes in $\mathbf{Z}[i]$? One observation is that if $\pi = a + bi$ is a Gaussian integer, and $N(\pi) = a^2 + b^2 = p$ is itself a prime integer, then π must be a prime. This is because if $\pi = \alpha\beta$, then $p = N(\pi) = N(\alpha)N(\beta)$. Then either $N(\alpha) = 1$ or $N(\beta) = 1$. We conclude that the only divisors of π are either units or unit multiples of π itself, which means that π is prime.

In this situation, when $N(\pi) = p$ is a prime, we say that π is a *split* prime.

Exercise 3. a) Find all the split primes π with $N(\pi) < 20$. If π is on your list, don't bother including unit multiples of π . b) Let p be a prime integer. Suppose that π is a prime Gaussian integer that divides p . Show that either π is a split prime with $N(\pi) = p$, or else π is a unit multiple of p itself. In the latter case, we say that π is an *inert* prime.

Thus the primes in $\mathbf{Z}[i]$ fall into two categories: The split primes, which are of the form $\pi = a + bi$ with norm $N(\pi) = a^2 + b^2 = p$ equal to an integer prime p , and the inert primes, which up to a unit multiple are already integer primes. A natural question is: Which integer primes p are inert primes in $\mathbf{Z}[i]$, and which are norms of split primes?

Exercise 4. a) Show that if an odd integer prime p is the sum of two squares, then it is congruent to 1 mod 4. b) Show that if p is the sum of two squares, then it must be the norm of a split prime in $\mathbf{Z}[i]$. c) Show that if p is not the sum of two squares, then it must be an inert prime.

Primes in $\mathbf{Z}[i]$ have the following nice property: if π divides a product $\alpha\beta$ of Gaussian integers, then π divides α or else π divides β . This is an important property of Gaussian integers. It has the consequence that every Gaussian integer factors as a product of primes in a unique way.

Exercise 5. Show that if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then p is the sum of two squares. Hint: Use the fact that $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = 1$ to show that p divides an integer of the form $n^2 + 1$. But then $n^2 + 1 = (n + i)(n - i)$...

We created the ring $\mathbf{Z}[i]$ by adding the element i to the integers. The element i is special because it is a root of the polynomial $X^2 + 1$. We can create other rings in a similar manner. Let $\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ be the set of complex numbers of the form $a + b\sqrt{-5}$, where a and b are integers. Define the norm of such a number to be $N(a + b\sqrt{-5}) = a^2 + 5b^2$.

The elements 2 and 3 do not have any proper divisors in $\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ other than ± 1 . Similarly, the elements $1 + \sqrt{-5}$ and $1 - \sqrt{-5}$ do not have any proper divisors either. But we have

$$2 \times 3 = 6 = (1 + \sqrt{-5}) \times (1 - \sqrt{-5}).$$

This is problematic because 2 does not divide either of $1 + \sqrt{-5}$ or $1 - \sqrt{-5}$. So $\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ does not have the unique factorization property that $\mathbf{Z}[i]$ has. A fascinating research problem in number theory is the investigation of which number systems have unique factorization and which do not.

Let j be one of the roots of the polynomial $X^2 + X + 41$, say $j = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{-163}}{2}$. It is a surprising result that $\mathbf{Z}[j]$, the set of all complex numbers of the form $a + bj$, has the unique factorization property. In fact 163 is the largest number that has this property, a fact “known” to Gauss but not proved rigorously until 1952.

Exercise 6. In this exercise we explain the bizarre behavior of the polynomial $n^2 + n + 41$ discussed in Exercise 1.

a) If $\alpha = a + bj$, we define $N(\alpha)$ to be $\alpha\bar{\alpha}$, where $\bar{\alpha}$ is the complex conjugate of α . What is $N(\alpha)$ in terms of a and b ?

b) Suppose that α belongs to $\mathbf{Z}[j]$. If $N(\alpha) > 1$, show that $N(\alpha) \geq 41$.

c) Let n be an integer, $0 \leq n \leq 39$. Assume for parts c)-e) that $n^2 + n + 41$ is composite. Show that $n^2 + n + 41$ has a prime factor p with $p < 41$.

d) Show that this prime p must not remain a prime in $\mathbf{Z}[j]$. Hint: Assume that it is. Then since p divides $n^2 + n + 41 = (n - j)(n - \bar{j})$, it must divide one of the factors. Derive a contradiction from this.

e) Since p is not prime in $\mathbf{Z}[j]$, we must have $p = N(\pi)$ for some prime π of $\mathbf{Z}[j]$. But then by part b), $p > 41$, contradiction. Therefore $n^2 + n + 41$ must be prime for $n = 0, \dots, 39$.