## Week 8 Summary

## Lecture 15

Example: Given that $81=\sqrt{-1}$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{193}$, use Fermat's method of descent to write 193 as a sum of two squares.
We are told that $81^{2}+1$ is divisible by 193 , and calculating it we find that

$$
81^{2}+1=34 \times 193
$$

Since $81 \equiv 13(\bmod 34)$ it follows that $13^{2}+1$ is a multiple of 34 , and calculating it we find that

$$
13^{2}+1=34 \times 5
$$

So $\left(81^{2}+1^{2}\right)\left(13^{2}+1^{2}\right)=34^{2} \times 5 \times 193$. Now use either
or $\quad\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)\left(c^{2}+d^{2}\right)=(a d-b c)^{2}+(a c+b d)^{2}$

$$
\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)\left(c^{2}+d^{2}\right)=(a d+b c)^{2}+(a c-b d)^{2}
$$

choosing whichever expression permits the cancellation of the squared factor (which is $34^{2}$ in this example). Since we have $81 \equiv 13$ and $1 \equiv 1(\bmod 34)$ in fact it is the first of the two expressions that must be used. So we get $68^{2}+1054^{2}=34^{2} \times 5 \times 193$, and cancelling $34^{2}$ gives $2^{2}+31^{2}=5 \times 193$. Now reducing the numbers on the left hand side modulo 5 tells us that $2^{2}+1^{2}$ must be divisible by 5 , and of course it is $5 \times 1$. So we deduce that

$$
\left(2^{2}+31^{2}\right)\left(2^{2}+1^{2}\right)=5^{2} \times 1 \times 193,
$$

giving $(2-62)^{2}+(4+31)^{2}=5^{2} \times 1 \times 193$, and then cancelling $5^{2}$ gives $12^{2}+7^{2}=193$. Our next topic is the result known as the Chinese Remainder Theorem.
*Theorem: Suppose that $m_{1}, m_{2}, \ldots, m_{n}$ are pairwise coprime integers. Then for any integers $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}$ there exists an integer $x$ such that $x \equiv a_{i}\left(\bmod m_{i}\right)$ for each $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. If $x^{\prime}$ and $x^{\prime \prime}$ are both solutions of these congruences then $x^{\prime} \equiv x^{\prime \prime}\left(\bmod m_{1} m_{2} \cdots m_{n}\right)$.
If one can prove this for $n=2$ then the general case follows easily by induction on $n$. The idea is that once the case $n=2$ has been done then we know that the two congruences $x \equiv a_{1}\left(\bmod m_{1}\right)$ and $x \equiv a_{1}\left(\bmod m_{1}\right)$ can be replaced by a single congruence $x \equiv a\left(\bmod m_{1} m_{2}\right)$ for some appropriate $a$. So we get an equivalent system with one fewer congruence than the original system had. We can then apply the same idea again to reduce the number of congruences once more: since $m_{1} m_{2}$ and $m_{3}$ are coprime, the $n=2$ case tells us that $x \equiv a\left(\bmod m_{1} m_{2}\right)$ and $x \equiv a_{3}\left(\bmod m_{3}\right)$ are together equivalent to $x \equiv a^{\prime}\left(\bmod m_{1} m_{2} m_{2}\right)$ for some $a^{\prime}$. The proof given in Walters' book essentially uses this idea.
There is an alternative proof that is perhaps shorter, but does not correspond so closely to the practical procedure for solving simultaneous congruences (as illustrated in the example below). It goes like this. Let $M_{i}=\left(m_{1} m_{2} \cdots m_{n}\right) / m_{i}$.

Then $M_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$, and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(M_{i}, m_{i}\right)=1\left(\right.$ since $\operatorname{gcd}\left(m_{j}, m_{i}\right)=1$ for all $j \neq i$, by hypothesis). So there exists $N_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $M_{i} N_{i} \equiv 1\left(\bmod m_{i}\right)$. But also $M_{i} N_{i} \equiv 0\left(\bmod m_{j}\right)$ for $j \neq i$, since $M_{i}$ is divisible by all these $m_{j}$. So $x=a_{1} M_{1} N_{1}+a_{2} M_{2} N_{2}+\cdots+a_{n} M_{n} N_{n}$ satisfies $x \equiv a_{j}\left(\bmod m_{j}\right)$ for all $j$, as required. It is clear that the solution is unique modulo $m_{1} m_{2} \cdots m_{n}$, since $x^{\prime} \equiv x^{\prime \prime}\left(\bmod m_{i}\right)$ for all $i$ implies that $x^{\prime}-x^{\prime \prime}$ is divisible by all the $m_{i}$, and hence by $m_{1} m_{2} \cdots m_{n}$, since they are pairwise coprime.
For example, suppose we wish find a simultaneous solution of $x \equiv 3(\bmod 5)$, $x \equiv 4(\bmod 7), x \equiv 6(\bmod 9)$ and $x \equiv 0(\bmod 11)$. The general solution of the first congruence, by itself, is $x=3+5 k$, where $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ is arbitrary. Substituting this into the second congruence gives $3+5 k \equiv 4(\bmod 7)$, or $5 k \equiv 1$ $(\bmod 7)$. Since the inverse of 5 modulo 7 is 3 , this is equivalent to $k \equiv 3 \bmod 7$, or $k=3+7 l$ for arbitrary $l \in \mathbb{Z}$, and so the first two congruences are together equivalent to $x=3+5(3+3 l)$, or $x=18+35 l$, where $l \in \mathbb{Z}$ is arbitrary. Now substitute this into the third congruence. We get $18+35 l \equiv 6(\bmod 9)$, or $-l \equiv 6$ $(\bmod 9)$, or $l=3+9 m$ (where $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ ). So the first three congruences are together equivalent to $x=18+35(3+9 m)=123+315 m$, where $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. And substituting into the last congruence gives $123+315 m \equiv 0(\bmod 11)$, or $7 m \equiv-2$ $(\bmod 11)$, or $m \equiv 6(\bmod 11)$. So the final solution of our system of congruences is $x=123+315(-6+11 n) \equiv 2013(\bmod 3465)$.

## Lecture 16

To help you with the quiz, here is a procedure for factorizing Gaussian integers. We illustrate with the example $245+315 i$. Start by taking out all obvious integer factors, to get $n(a+b i)$, with $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$. Thus $245+315 i=5(49+63 i)=5.7(7+9 i)$. Now work out $(a+b i)(a-b i)=a^{2}+b^{2}$, and factorize it in $\mathbb{Z}$. Thus,

$$
(7+9 i)(7-9 i)=7^{2}+9^{2}=130=2.5 .13
$$

None of the prime factors $p$ will be congruent to 3 modulo 4 , since by Question 2 of Assignment 2, if $p \mid a^{2}+b^{2}$ and $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ then $p \mid a$ and $p \mid b$, whereas in our case $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$. So each of the prime factors can be written as a sum of two squares: $p=c^{2}+d^{2}=(c+d i)(c-d i)$. Here both $c+d i$ and $c-d i$ are irreducible Gaussian integers, since they have prime norm. In our example we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
(7+9 i)(7-9 i)=2.5 .13=(1+i)(i-i)(2+i)(2-i)(3+2 i)(3-2 i) \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

Up to associates, each irreducible factor of $7+9 i$ must appear amongst the irreducibles on the right hand side, and if $c+d i$ is a factor of $a+b i$ then $c-d i$ is a factor of $a-b i$. So one of each conjugate pair on the right hand will divide $a+b i$, and we can find which it is by performing a division. $\dagger$ Now
$\dagger$ In fact $1+i$ and $1-i$ are associates; so they both divide $7+9 i$. This does not happen when $N(c+d i)>2$.
$(7+9 i) /(2+i)=(7+9 i)(2-i) / 5=(23+11 i) / 5 \notin \mathbb{Z}[i]$. So it must be $2-i$ that divides $7+9 i$, and in fact we find that $(7+9 i) /(2-i)=(1+5 i)$. Now divide $1+5 i$ by one of the remaining factors on the right hand side of $(*)$, and continue on until a factorization of $7+9 i$ into irreducibles is found. The upshot is that

$$
245+315 i=5.7(2+i)(3+2 i)(1+i) .
$$

There is one remaining twist: the integer prime factors that we found at the first step are not irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ unless they are congruent to 3 modulo 4 . In this example, 5 should be factorized as $(2+i)(2-i)$; so the final answer is

$$
245+315 i=7(2+i)^{2}(2-i)(3+2 i)(1+i)
$$

Returning to our discussion of simultaneous congruences, we investigate the case when the moduli are not pairwise coprime. For example, suppose we wish to solve $x \equiv 41(\bmod 45)$ and $x \equiv 32(\bmod 75)$. The idea is to replace each congruence by a system of congruences where the moduli are the prime power divisors of the original modulus. Thus $x \equiv 41(\bmod 45)$ is equivalent to $x \equiv 1(\bmod 5)$ and $x \equiv 5(\bmod 9)$. Similarly, $x \equiv 32(\bmod 75)$ is equivalent to $x \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$ and $x \equiv 7(\bmod 25)$. Now the idea is that two congruences modulo powers of the same prime are either inconsistent or can be reduced to a single congruence (modulo the higher of the two powers). Thus $x \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$ is a consequence of $x \equiv 5$ $(\bmod 9)$, and is therefore redundant. However, $x \equiv 1(\bmod 5)$ is incompatible with $x \equiv 7(\bmod 25)$. It follows that this system of congruences has no solution. By way of contrast, consider now the system $x \equiv 41(\bmod 45)$ and $x \equiv 56$ $(\bmod 75)$. These give $x \equiv 1(\bmod 5), x \equiv 5(\bmod 9), x \equiv 6(\bmod 25)$ and $x \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$. In this case both congruences modulo the lower powers of the two primes are redundant, and so the original system is equivalent to $x \equiv 5(\bmod 9)$ and $x \equiv 6(\bmod 25)$. By the procedure described in Lecture 15 we easily discover that the solution is $x \equiv 131(\bmod 225)$.
To understand the Chinese Remainder Theorem better, it is helpful to use a concept from general algebra: that of a homomorphism. If $n$ is a fixed positive integer, then every integer may be considered as an integer modulo $n$. What this really means is that there is a function $f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{n}$; this function is usually called "reduction modulo $n$ ". The crucial thing about this function is that the arithemetic operations of addition and multiplication can be performed before or after reduction modulo $n$, and the final answer is unaltered. That is, $f(a+b)=f(a)+f(b)$ and $f(a b)=f(a) f(b)$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \ddagger \ddagger$ For example, let $n=5$ and suppose that $a=14$ and $b=8$. Then $f(a b)=f(112)=2 \in \mathbb{Z}_{5}$, and $f(a) f(b)=4 \times 3=12=2$ (in $\mathbb{Z}_{5}$ ).
Whenever $m$ and $n$ are integers such that $n \mid m$ then there is a reduction $\bmod n$ homomorphism $\mathbb{Z}_{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{n}$. For example, there is a function $f: \mathbb{Z}_{15} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{5}$ given by
$\ddagger$ A homomorphism is, by definition, a function satisfying these two equations.
reduction modulo 5 . Its values on the various elements of $\mathbb{Z}_{15}$ are given by the following table.

| $k$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $f(k)$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

This only works because $a \equiv b(\bmod 15)$ implies $a \equiv b(\bmod 5)$. There is no reduction $\bmod 5 \operatorname{map}$ from $\mathbb{Z}_{16}$ to $\mathbb{Z}_{5}$ since, for example, 1 and 17 are the same modulo 16 but different modulo 5 . So reduction $\bmod 5$ is not well-defined for elements of $\mathbb{Z}_{16}$.
Inspection of the example above shows that for each element of $\mathbb{Z}_{5}$ there are three elements of $\mathbb{Z}_{15}$ which yield the given element of $\mathbb{Z}_{5}$ on reduction $\bmod 5$. For example, 2, 7 and 12 are the three distinct elements of $\mathbb{Z}_{15}$ which give 2 on reduction mod 5 . Now if $x$ is any integer then reducing $x \bmod 15$ and then applying the reduction $\bmod 5$ map $\mathbb{Z}_{15} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{5}$ will yield the same result as directly reducing $x$ modulo 5 . Thus if $x \equiv 2$ modulo 5 then there are exactly three possibilities modulo 15 , namely, $x \equiv 2,7$ or $12(\bmod 15)$. Similarly, as pointed out in one of the examples above, $x \equiv 1(\bmod 5)$ and $x \equiv 7(\bmod 25)$ are not compatible: the 5 elements of $\mathbb{Z}_{25}$ that reduce to $1(\bmod 5)$ are $1,6,11,16$ and 21 .

