# TWO APPLICATIONS OF CYCLOTOMIC POLYNOMIALS 

VLADIMIR DOTSENKO

## BACKGROUND

The $n^{\text {th }}$ cyclotomic polynomial $\Phi_{n}(x)$ is defined as $\prod_{\eta}(x-\eta)$, where $\eta$ runs over all primitive $n^{\text {th }}$ roots of 1 . Previously in class, we proved that this polynomial has integer coefficients and is irreducible over integers. It is also worth noting that since $\Phi_{n}(x)$ divides $x^{n}-1$, the constant term of $\Phi_{n}(x)$ divides the constant term of $x^{n}-1$ and is hence equal to $\pm 1$ for every $n$.

## DIRICHLET'S THEOREM FOR PRIMES $p \equiv 1(\bmod n)$

Theorem 1. For every integer $n$, there exist infinitely many primes $p \equiv 1(\bmod n)$.
The proof of this theorem relies on the following
Lemma. For every integer $n$, there exist a integer $A>0$ such that all prime divisors $p>A$ of values of $\Phi_{n}(c)$ at integer points $c$ are congruent to 1 modulo $n$. In other words, prime divisors of values of the $n^{\text {th }}$ cyclotomic polynomial either are "small" or are congruent to 1 modulo $n$.

Let us explain how to use Lemma to prove Theorem 1. Assume that there are only finitely many primes congruent to 1 modulo $n$; let $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}$ be those primes. Let us consider the number $c=$ $A!p_{1} p_{2} \cdots p_{m}$. The number $k=\Phi_{n}(c)$ is relatively prime to $c$ (since the constant term of $\Phi_{n}$ is $\pm 1$ ), so it is not divisible by any of the primes $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}$, and has no divisors $d \leq A$ either. This almost guarantees that we can find a new prime congruent to 1 modulo $n$ : take any prime divisor $p$ of $k$, and Lemma ensures that $p \equiv 1(\bmod n)$. The only problem that may occur is that $k= \pm 1$, so it has no prime divisors. In this case, replace $k$ by $N k$ for $N$ large enough, so that $N k$ is greater than all the roots of the equation $\Phi_{n}(x)= \pm 1$, with everything else remaining the same.

Proof of Lemma. Let us consider the polynomial $f(x)=(x-1)\left(x^{2}-1\right) \ldots\left(x^{n-1}-1\right)$. The polynomials $f(x)$ and $\Phi_{n}(x)$ have no common roots, so their gcd in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ is equal to 1 , hence $a(x) f(x)+b(x) \Phi_{n}(x)=1$ for some $a(x), b(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$. Let $A$ denote the common denominator of all coefficients of $a(x)$ and $b(x)$. Then for $p(x)=A a(x), q(x)=A b(x)$ we have $p(x) f(x)+q(x) \Phi_{n}(x)=$ $A$, and $p(x), q(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. Assume that a prime number $p>A$ divides $\Phi_{n}(c)$ for some $c$. Then $c$ is a root of $\Phi_{n}(x)$ modulo $p$, and consequently, $c^{n} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$. Let us notice that $n$ is the order of $c$ modulo $p$. Indeed, if $c^{k} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ for some $k<n$, then $c$ is a root of $f(x)$ modulo $p$, but the equality $p(x) f(x)+q(x) \Phi_{n}(x)=A$ shows that $f(x)$ and $\Phi_{n}(x)$ are relatively prime modulo $p$. Recall that $c^{p-1} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ by Fermat's Little Theorem, so $p-1$ is divisible by $n$, the order of $c$, that is $p \equiv 1(\bmod n)$, and the lemma is proved.

Remark. Most available proofs of Theorem 1 that use cyclotomic polynomials use a different proof of Lemma. The main point that is being made by our proof is that it seems to accumulate the key ideas of elementary number theory: the Euclidean algorithm and its applications, the relationship between $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ and $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, the techniques based on the reduction modulo $p$, and the multiplicative group of integers modulo $p$ (through Fermat's Little Theorem).

## Wedderburn's Little Theorem

Theorem 2. Every finite division ring is commutative.
By a ring we mean a set $R$ with two operations (sum and product) satisfying the usual axioms. The product does not have to be commutative, e.g. square matrices of the given size form a ring, and quaternions form a ring too. By a division ring we mean a ring where every nonzero element is invertible, e.g. quaternions. Thus, the theorem states that if $R$ is a finite division ring, then it in fact is a field.

Let us recall several definitions from ring theory that we need in this proof.
For a ring $R$, its centre $Z(R)$ consists of all elements that commute with all elements from $R$ :

$$
Z(R)=\{z \in R: z r=r z \text { for all } r \in R\}
$$

The centre of a ring is closed under sum and product, and so forms a subring of $R$. If $R$ is a division ring, then $Z(R)$ is a field, and $R$ is a vector space over this field.

More generally, if $S \subset R$, the centraliser of $S$ is defined as the set of all elements that commute with all elements from $S$ :

$$
C_{S}(R)=\{z \in R: z s=s z \text { for all } s \in S\}
$$

The centraliser of every subset is a subring of $R$, and in the case of a division ring, a field. Clearly, $C_{R}(R)=Z(R)$.

The last ingredient of the proof we need is the class formula for finite groups. Let $G$ be a finite groups. For $g \in G$, denote by $C(g)$ the conjugacy class of $g$, that is the set of all elements of the form $h^{-1} g h$, where $h \in G$. Then $G$ is a disjoint union of conjugacy classes. We have $\# C(g)=\frac{\# G}{\# C_{g}}$, where $C_{g}$ is the centraliser subgroup (consisting, as in the case of rings, of all elements that commute with $g$ ).

Proof of Theorem 2. Our goal is to prove that $Z(R)=R$. Let $q=\# Z(R)$. Since $R$ is a vector space over $Z(R)$, we have $\# R=q^{n}$, where $n$ is the dimension of this vector space. Since $R$ is a division ring, the set $G=R \backslash\{0\}$ is a group. Applying the class formula to this group, we obtain

$$
q^{n}-1=\sum_{\text {conjugacy classes }} \# C(g)=\sum_{\text {conjugacy classes }} \frac{q^{n}-1}{\# C_{g}}
$$

Let us look closer at this sum. It contains terms corresponding to conjugacy classes consisting of a single element (these are conjugacy classes of nonzero elements from the centre) and all other conjugacy classes. Every centraliser $C_{g}$ of such a conjugacy class, with the zero element adjoined to it, forms a subring of $R$ containing $Z(R)$, that is a vector space over $Z(R)$. Let $n_{g}$ be the dimension of that vector space, $n_{g}<n$. We have

$$
q^{n}-1=q-1+\sum_{\substack{\text { non-central } \\ \text { conjugacy classes }}} \frac{q^{n}-1}{q^{n_{g}}-1}
$$

It is easy to see that $\frac{q^{n}-1}{q^{n} g}$ is an integer only if $n_{g}$ divides $n$ (and that in general $\operatorname{gcd}\left(q^{n}-1, q^{k}-1\right)=$ $q^{\operatorname{gcd}(n, k)}-1$ ), so in fact not only $\frac{q^{n}-1}{q^{n g}-1}$ is an integer but also $\frac{x^{n}-1}{x^{n g}-1}$ is a polynomial with integer coefficients. As polynomials in $x, x^{n_{g}}-1$ and $\Phi_{n}(x)$ are coprime, so $x^{n}-1$ is divisible by their product. This means that in our equality above all terms except for the term $q-1$ are divisible by $\Phi_{n}(q)$. Thus $q-1$ is divisible by $\Phi_{n}(q)$. But the latter is impossible for $n>1:|q-\eta|>|q-1|$ for all roots of unity $\eta \neq 1$, so $\left|\Phi_{n}(q)\right|=\prod_{\eta}|q-\eta|>|q-1|$. This completes the proof.

Remark. Irreducibility of cyclotomic polynomials, while of crucial importance for Galois Theory, is not really used in our proofs at all (contrary to what I might made you believe in class).

