Nashville Math Club

September 22, 2020

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

Question

How many numbers are perfect squares?

Question

How many numbers are perfect squares?

• Of course, there are infinitely many: 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36,

Question

How many numbers are perfect squares?

• Of course, there are infinitely many: 1,4,9,16,25,36,....

Question

But how common are they?

Question

How many numbers are perfect squares?

• Of course, there are infinitely many: 1,4,9,16,25,36,....

Question

But how common are they?

• Look at the whole numbers from 1 to X. about \sqrt{X} of them are perfect squares.

Question

How many numbers are perfect squares?

• Of course, there are infinitely many: 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36,

Question

But how common are they?

• Look at the whole numbers from 1 to X. about \sqrt{X} of them are perfect squares.

• So about
$$\frac{\sqrt{X}}{X} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{X}}$$
 are.

Question

How many numbers are perfect squares?

• Of course, there are infinitely many: 1,4,9,16,25,36,....

Question

But how common are they?

• Look at the whole numbers from 1 to X. about \sqrt{X} of them are perfect squares.

• So about
$$\frac{\sqrt{X}}{X} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{X}}$$
 are.

• So up to a million, about 0.1% are, up to a trillion, about 1 in a million are.

Question

How many numbers are perfect squares?

• Of course, there are infinitely many: 1,4,9,16,25,36,....

Question

But how common are they?

• Look at the whole numbers from 1 to X. about \sqrt{X} of them are perfect squares.

• So about
$$\frac{\sqrt{X}}{X} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{X}}$$
 are.

• So up to a million, about 0.1% are, up to a trillion, about 1 in a million are. So 0% of numbers are perfect squares.



• The question gets more interesting if we ask about sums of squares.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● のへで

• The question gets more interesting if we ask about sums of squares.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへぐ

• 20 is a sum of two squares as $20 = 2^2 + 4^2$.

- The question gets more interesting if we ask about sums of squares.
- 20 is a sum of two squares as $20 = 2^2 + 4^2$. So is $16 = 4^2 + 0^2$.

- The question gets more interesting if we ask about sums of squares.
- 20 is a sum of two squares as $20 = 2^2 + 4^2$. So is $16 = 4^2 + 0^2$.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへぐ

Question

- The question gets more interesting if we ask about sums of squares.
- 20 is a sum of two squares as $20 = 2^2 + 4^2$. So is $16 = 4^2 + 0^2$.

Question

Which numbers from 1 to 10 are sums of two squares?

• $1 = 1^2 + 0^2$,

- The question gets more interesting if we ask about sums of squares.
- 20 is a sum of two squares as $20 = 2^2 + 4^2$. So is $16 = 4^2 + 0^2$.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへぐ

Question

•
$$1 = 1^2 + 0^2$$
, $2 = 1^2 + 1^2$,

- The question gets more interesting if we ask about sums of squares.
- 20 is a sum of two squares as $20 = 2^2 + 4^2$. So is $16 = 4^2 + 0^2$.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへぐ

Question

•
$$1 = 1^2 + 0^2, 2 = 1^2 + 1^2, \beta$$
,

- The question gets more interesting if we ask about sums of squares.
- 20 is a sum of two squares as $20 = 2^2 + 4^2$. So is $16 = 4^2 + 0^2$.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへぐ

Question

•
$$1 = 1^2 + 0^2$$
, $2 = 1^2 + 1^2$, 3 , $4 = 2^2 + 0^2$,

- The question gets more interesting if we ask about sums of squares.
- 20 is a sum of two squares as $20 = 2^2 + 4^2$. So is $16 = 4^2 + 0^2$.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへぐ

Question

•
$$1 = 1^2 + 0^2$$
, $2 = 1^2 + 1^2$, 3 , $4 = 2^2 + 0^2$, $5 = 2^2 + 1^2$,

- The question gets more interesting if we ask about sums of squares.
- 20 is a sum of two squares as $20 = 2^2 + 4^2$. So is $16 = 4^2 + 0^2$.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへぐ

Question

•
$$1 = 1^2 + 0^2, 2 = 1^2 + 1^2, \beta, 4 = 2^2 + 0^2, 5 = 2^2 + 1^2, \beta$$

- The question gets more interesting if we ask about sums of squares.
- 20 is a sum of two squares as $20 = 2^2 + 4^2$. So is $16 = 4^2 + 0^2$.

Question

Which numbers from 1 to 10 are sums of two squares?

•
$$1 = 1^2 + 0^2, 2 = 1^2 + 1^2, \beta, 4 = 2^2 + 0^2, 5 = 2^2 + 1^2, \beta, 7,$$

- The question gets more interesting if we ask about sums of squares.
- 20 is a sum of two squares as $20 = 2^2 + 4^2$. So is $16 = 4^2 + 0^2$.

Question

Which numbers from 1 to 10 are sums of two squares?

•
$$1 = 1^2 + 0^2, 2 = 1^2 + 1^2, 3, 4 = 2^2 + 0^2, 5 = 2^2 + 1^2, 6, 7, 8 = 2^2 + 2^2,$$

- The question gets more interesting if we ask about sums of squares.
- 20 is a sum of two squares as $20 = 2^2 + 4^2$. So is $16 = 4^2 + 0^2$.

Question

Which numbers from 1 to 10 are sums of two squares?

•
$$1 = 1^2 + 0^2, 2 = 1^2 + 1^2, 3, 4 = 2^2 + 0^2, 5 = 2^2 + 1^2, 6, 7, 8 = 2^2 + 2^2, 9 = 3^2 + 0^2,$$

- The question gets more interesting if we ask about sums of squares.
- 20 is a sum of two squares as $20 = 2^2 + 4^2$. So is $16 = 4^2 + 0^2$.

Question

Which numbers from 1 to 10 are sums of two squares?

•
$$1 = 1^2 + 0^2, 2 = 1^2 + 1^2, 3, 4 = 2^2 + 0^2, 5 = 2^2 + 1^2, 6, 7, 8 = 2^2 + 2^2, 9 = 3^2 + 0^2, 10 = 3^2 + 1^2.$$

- The question gets more interesting if we ask about sums of squares.
- 20 is a sum of two squares as $20 = 2^2 + 4^2$. So is $16 = 4^2 + 0^2$.

Question

Which numbers from 1 to 10 are sums of two squares?

•
$$1 = 1^2 + 0^2, 2 = 1^2 + 1^2, 3, 4 = 2^2 + 0^2, 5 = 2^2 + 1^2, 6, 7, 8 = 2^2 + 2^2, 9 = 3^2 + 0^2, 10 = 3^2 + 1^2.$$

• So 70% of them are.

- The question gets more interesting if we ask about sums of squares.
- 20 is a sum of two squares as $20 = 2^2 + 4^2$. So is $16 = 4^2 + 0^2$.

Question

Which numbers from 1 to 10 are sums of two squares?

- $1 = 1^2 + 0^2, 2 = 1^2 + 1^2, 3, 4 = 2^2 + 0^2, 5 = 2^2 + 1^2, 6, 7, 8 = 2^2 + 2^2, 9 = 3^2 + 0^2, 10 = 3^2 + 1^2.$
- So 70% of them are. What is special about the numbers 3, 6, 7?

- The question gets more interesting if we ask about sums of squares.
- 20 is a sum of two squares as $20 = 2^2 + 4^2$. So is $16 = 4^2 + 0^2$.

Question

Which numbers from 1 to 10 are sums of two squares?

- $1 = 1^2 + 0^2, 2 = 1^2 + 1^2, 3, 4 = 2^2 + 0^2, 5 = 2^2 + 1^2, 6, 7, 8 = 2^2 + 2^2, 9 = 3^2 + 0^2, 10 = 3^2 + 1^2.$
- So 70% of them are. What is special about the numbers 3,6,7? How can you test?

• Look at the first squares 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, ... and divide by 4 with remainder. What do you notice?

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

- Look at the first squares 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, ... and divide by 4 with remainder. What do you notice?
- If we look **modulo** 4, the remainders are 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, So squares look like they're 0 or 1 mod 4.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ - 三 - のへの

- Look at the first squares 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, ... and divide by 4 with remainder. What do you notice?
- If we look **modulo** 4, the remainders are 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, So squares look like they're 0 or 1 mod 4. Can you explain this?

- Look at the first squares 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, ... and divide by 4 with remainder. What do you notice?
- If we look **modulo** 4, the remainders are 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, So squares look like they're 0 or 1 mod 4. Can you explain this?
- Explanation: Every number is even or odd. So its of the form x = 2n or x = 2n + 1.

- Look at the first squares 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, ... and divide by 4 with remainder. What do you notice?
- If we look **modulo** 4, the remainders are 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, So squares look like they're 0 or 1 mod 4. Can you explain this?
- Explanation: Every number is even or odd. So its of the form x = 2n or x = 2n + 1.

• Now $(2n)^2 = 4n^2$ is a multiple of 4, and $(2n+1)^2 = 4(n^2+n)+1$ is a multiple of 4 plus 1.

- Look at the first squares 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, ... and divide by 4 with remainder. What do you notice?
- If we look **modulo** 4, the remainders are 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, So squares look like they're 0 or 1 mod 4. Can you explain this?
- Explanation: Every number is even or odd. So its of the form x = 2n or x = 2n + 1.

A D > 4 目 > 4 目 > 4 目 > 5 4 回 > 3 Q Q

- Now $(2n)^2 = 4n^2$ is a multiple of 4, and $(2n+1)^2 = 4(n^2+n)+1$ is a multiple of 4 plus 1.
- What about a sum of two squares?

- Look at the first squares 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, ... and divide by 4 with remainder. What do you notice?
- If we look **modulo** 4, the remainders are 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, So squares look like they're 0 or 1 mod 4. Can you explain this?
- Explanation: Every number is even or odd. So its of the form x = 2n or x = 2n + 1.
- Now $(2n)^2 = 4n^2$ is a multiple of 4, and $(2n+1)^2 = 4(n^2+n)+1$ is a multiple of 4 plus 1.
- What about a sum of two squares? (0 or 1) plus (0 or 1) equals 0, 1, 2.

- Look at the first squares 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, ... and divide by 4 with remainder. What do you notice?
- If we look **modulo** 4, the remainders are 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, So squares look like they're 0 or 1 mod 4. Can you explain this?
- Explanation: Every number is even or odd. So its of the form x = 2n or x = 2n + 1.
- Now $(2n)^2 = 4n^2$ is a multiple of 4, and $(2n+1)^2 = 4(n^2+n)+1$ is a multiple of 4 plus 1.
- What about a sum of two squares? (0 or 1) plus (0 or 1) equals 0, 1, 2.
- So a number that's 4n + 3 (its 3 mod 4) can **never** be a sum of two squares.

- Look at the first squares 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, ... and divide by 4 with remainder. What do you notice?
- If we look **modulo** 4, the remainders are 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, So squares look like they're 0 or 1 mod 4. Can you explain this?
- Explanation: Every number is even or odd. So its of the form x = 2n or x = 2n + 1.
- Now $(2n)^2 = 4n^2$ is a multiple of 4, and $(2n+1)^2 = 4(n^2+n)+1$ is a multiple of 4 plus 1.
- What about a sum of two squares? (0 or 1) plus (0 or 1) equals 0, 1, 2.
- So a number that's 4n + 3 (its 3 mod 4) can **never** be a sum of two squares.
- This explains 3 and 7. What about 6? The answer has to do with prime factorizations.



• A product of sums of two squares is a sum of two squares.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● のへで

A Crazy Formula

• A product of sums of two squares is a sum of two squares.

Fact (Brahmagupta–Fibonacci identity) We have

$$(a^2 + b^2)(c^2 + d^2) = (ac - bd)^2 + (ad + bc)^2.$$

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ - 三 - のへで
• A product of sums of two squares is a sum of two squares.

Fact (Brahmagupta–Fibonacci identity) We have

$$(a^2 + b^2)(c^2 + d^2) = (ac - bd)^2 + (ad + bc)^2.$$

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ - 三 - のへで

• Its just algebra!

• A product of sums of two squares is a sum of two squares.

Fact (Brahmagupta–Fibonacci identity) *We have*

$$(a^{2}+b^{2})(c^{2}+d^{2})=(ac-bd)^{2}+(ad+bc)^{2}.$$

 Its just algebra! But its the first hint of a long story... and new identities have been made famous by Fields Medalist Manjul Bhargava.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ - 三 - のへで

• A product of sums of two squares is a sum of two squares.

Fact (Brahmagupta–Fibonacci identity) *We have*

$$(a^{2}+b^{2})(c^{2}+d^{2})=(ac-bd)^{2}+(ad+bc)^{2}.$$

• Its just algebra! But its the first hint of a long story... and new identities have been made famous by Fields Medalist Manjul Bhargava. Its even related to black holes!

• A product of sums of two squares is a sum of two squares.

Fact (Brahmagupta–Fibonacci identity) *We have*

$$(a^{2} + b^{2})(c^{2} + d^{2}) = (ac - bd)^{2} + (ad + bc)^{2}.$$

- Its just algebra! But its the first hint of a long story... and new identities have been made famous by Fields Medalist Manjul Bhargava. Its even related to black holes!
- Example: $8 = 2^2 + 2^2$, $10 = 3^2 + 1^2$, so $80 = (6-2)^2 + (2+6)^2 = 16 + 64$ is a sum of two squares.

• A product of sums of two squares is a sum of two squares.

Fact (Brahmagupta–Fibonacci identity) *We have*

$$(a^{2}+b^{2})(c^{2}+d^{2})=(ac-bd)^{2}+(ad+bc)^{2}.$$

- Its just algebra! But its the first hint of a long story... and new identities have been made famous by Fields Medalist Manjul Bhargava. Its even related to black holes!
- Example: $8 = 2^2 + 2^2$, $10 = 3^2 + 1^2$, so $80 = (6-2)^2 + (2+6)^2 = 16 + 64$ is a sum of two squares.
- Natural first step: which **prime numbers** are $\Box + \Box$?



• Fermat, the prince of amateur mathematicians, proved:

◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆三▶ ◆三▶ 三三 のへぐ

• Fermat, the prince of amateur mathematicians, proved:

Theorem (Fermat's Two Squares Theorem)

A prime p > 2 is a sum of two squares if and only if p is 1 mod 4.

(日)

• Fermat, the prince of amateur mathematicians, proved:

Theorem (Fermat's Two Squares Theorem)

A prime p > 2 is a sum of two squares if and only if p is 1 mod 4.

• $p = 2 = 1^2 + 1^2$; all other primes are 1 or 3 mod 4.

• Fermat, the prince of amateur mathematicians, proved:

Theorem (Fermat's Two Squares Theorem)

A prime p > 2 is a sum of two squares if and only if p is 1 mod 4.

- $p = 2 = 1^2 + 1^2$; all other primes are 1 or 3 mod 4.
- If something is 3 mod 4, then its not a sum of two squares.

• Fermat, the prince of amateur mathematicians, proved:

Theorem (Fermat's Two Squares Theorem)

A prime p > 2 is a sum of two squares if and only if p is 1 mod 4.

- $p = 2 = 1^2 + 1^2$; all other primes are 1 or 3 mod 4.
- If something is 3 mod 4, then its not a sum of two squares.

• So we just have to show primes of the form 4n + 1 are.

• Fermat, the prince of amateur mathematicians, proved:

Theorem (Fermat's Two Squares Theorem)

A prime p > 2 is a sum of two squares if and only if p is 1 mod 4.

- $p = 2 = 1^2 + 1^2$; all other primes are 1 or 3 mod 4.
- If something is 3 mod 4, then its not a sum of two squares.

- So we just have to show primes of the form 4n + 1 are.
- Any ideas about how to do this?

World record

• Shockingly short (but not easy!) proof:

World record

Shockingly short (but not easy!) proof:

A One-Sentence Proof That Every Prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ Is a Sum of Two Squares

D. ZAGIER Department of Mathematics, University of Maryland, College Park, MD 20742

The involution on the finite set $S = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{N}^3 : x^2 + 4yz = p\}$ defined by

$$(x, y, z) \mapsto \begin{cases} (x + 2z, z, y - x - z) & \text{if } x < y - z \\ (2y - x, y, x - y + z) & \text{if } y - z < x < 2y \\ (x - 2y, x - y + z, y) & \text{if } x > 2y \end{cases}$$

has exactly one fixed point, so |S| is odd and the involution defined by $(x, y, z) \mapsto (x, z, y)$ also has a fixed point. \Box

World record

Shockingly short (but not easy!) proof:

A One-Sentence Proof That Every Prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ Is a Sum of Two Squares

D. ZAGIER Department of Mathematics, University of Maryland, College Park, MD 20742

The involution on the finite set $S = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{N}^3 : x^2 + 4yz = p\}$ defined by

$$(x, y, z) \mapsto \begin{cases} (x + 2z, z, y - x - z) & \text{if } x < y - z \\ (2y - x, y, x - y + z) & \text{if } y - z < x < 2y \\ (x - 2y, x - y + z, y) & \text{if } x > 2y \end{cases}$$

has exactly one fixed point, so |S| is odd and the involution defined by $(x, y, z) \mapsto (x, z, y)$ also has a fixed point. \Box

• We will try to discover our own proof.



• Mantra: Always use algebra when you can.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

• Mantra: Always use algebra when you can.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

• We want to solve $n = x^2 + y^2$.

• Mantra: Always use algebra when you can.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへぐ

- We want to solve $n = x^2 + y^2$.
- Main algebra trick: Factor!

- Mantra: Always use algebra when you can.
- We want to solve $n = x^2 + y^2$.
- Main algebra trick: Factor!
- If instead we wanted to study **differences** of two squares, we'd have $n = x^2 y^2 = (x + y)(x y)$.

- Mantra: Always use algebra when you can.
- We want to solve $n = x^2 + y^2$.
- Main algebra trick: Factor!
- If instead we wanted to study **differences** of two squares, we'd have $n = x^2 y^2 = (x + y)(x y)$.

• For example, any odd number 2n + 1 is a difference of two squares.

- Mantra: Always use algebra when you can.
- We want to solve $n = x^2 + y^2$.
- Main algebra trick: Factor!
- If instead we wanted to study **differences** of two squares, we'd have $n = x^2 y^2 = (x + y)(x y)$.
- For example, any odd number 2n + 1 is a difference of two squares. Solve x + y = 2n + 1, x y = 1 to get x = n + 1, y = n.

A D > 4 回 > 4 回 > 4 回 > 1 回 9 Q Q

- Mantra: Always use algebra when you can.
- We want to solve $n = x^2 + y^2$.
- Main algebra trick: Factor!
- If instead we wanted to study differences of two squares, we'd have n = x² y² = (x + y)(x y).
- For example, any odd number 2n + 1 is a difference of two squares. Solve x + y = 2n + 1, x y = 1 to get x = n + 1, y = n. Thus, $2n + 1 = (x + y)(x y) = (n + 1)^2 n^2$.

- Mantra: Always use algebra when you can.
- We want to solve $n = x^2 + y^2$.
- Main algebra trick: Factor!
- If instead we wanted to study differences of two squares, we'd have $n = x^2 y^2 = (x + y)(x y)$.
- For example, any odd number 2n + 1 is a difference of two squares. Solve x + y = 2n + 1, x y = 1 to get x = n + 1, y = n. Thus, $2n + 1 = (x + y)(x y) = (n + 1)^2 n^2$.
- This doesn't seem to work for us. We need a **bigger number** system.

• You may have seen the **imaginary unit** *i* defined by $i^2 = -1$.

• You may have seen the imaginary unit *i* defined by $i^2 = -1$.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

• This allows us to solve quadratic equations.

- You may have seen the **imaginary unit** *i* defined by $i^2 = -1$.
- This allows us to solve quadratic equations. But we can say something much better:

- You may have seen the **imaginary unit** *i* defined by $i^2 = -1$.
- This allows us to solve quadratic equations. But we can say something much better:
- A complex number is a number *x* + *iy* where *x*, *y* are real numbers.

- You may have seen the **imaginary unit** *i* defined by $i^2 = -1$.
- This allows us to solve quadratic equations. But we can say something much better:
- A complex number is a number *x* + *iy* where *x*, *y* are real numbers.

Theorem (The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra)

Every polynomial factors into degree one factors if you allow complex numbers.

- You may have seen the **imaginary unit** *i* defined by $i^2 = -1$.
- This allows us to solve quadratic equations. But we can say something much better:
- A complex number is a number *x* + *iy* where *x*, *y* are real numbers.

Theorem (The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra)

Every polynomial factors into degree one factors if you allow complex numbers.

• This is completely crazy! You throw in one extra number to solve quadratic equations, and suddenly you can solve polynomials of **any** degree.

- You may have seen the **imaginary unit** *i* defined by $i^2 = -1$.
- This allows us to solve quadratic equations. But we can say something much better:
- A complex number is a number *x* + *iy* where *x*, *y* are real numbers.

Theorem (The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra)

Every polynomial factors into degree one factors if you allow complex numbers.

- This is completely crazy! You throw in one extra number to solve quadratic equations, and suddenly you can solve polynomials of **any** degree.
- Really great article giving pictures to explain this: "The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra for Artists".

• Try computing some complex numbers yourself! Do the following:

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

• Try computing some complex numbers yourself! Do the following:

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

• Compute (3+5i) - (7-2i).

• Try computing some complex numbers yourself! Do the following:

Compute (3 + 5i) - (7 - 2i). Answer: Add real and imaginary parts: (3 - 7) + (5 + 2)i = -4 + 7i.

• Try computing some complex numbers yourself! Do the following:

- Compute (3 + 5i) − (7 − 2i). Answer: Add real and imaginary parts: (3 − 7) + (5 + 2)i = −4 + 7i.
- What is (3+5i)(7-2i)?

- Try computing some complex numbers yourself! Do the following:
- Compute (3 + 5i) − (7 − 2i). Answer: Add real and imaginary parts: (3 − 7) + (5 + 2)i = −4 + 7i.
- What is (3+5i)(7-2i)? Answer: Expand out $(3+5i)(7-2i) = 21+35i-6i-10i^2 = (21+10)+29i = 31+29i$.

- Try computing some complex numbers yourself! Do the following:
- Compute (3 + 5i) − (7 − 2i). Answer: Add real and imaginary parts: (3 − 7) + (5 + 2)i = −4 + 7i.
- What is (3+5i)(7-2i)? Answer: Expand out $(3+5i)(7-2i) = 21+35i-6i-10i^2 = (21+10)+29i = 31+29i$.

What about i³?

- Try computing some complex numbers yourself! Do the following:
- Compute (3 + 5i) − (7 − 2i). Answer: Add real and imaginary parts: (3 − 7) + (5 + 2)i = −4 + 7i.
- What is (3+5i)(7-2i)? Answer: Expand out $(3+5i)(7-2i) = 21+35i-6i-10i^2 = (21+10)+29i = 31+29i$.

• What about i^3 ? Answer: $i^3 = i^2 \cdot i = -i$.
Practicing with complex numbers

- Try computing some complex numbers yourself! Do the following:
- Compute (3 + 5i) − (7 − 2i). Answer: Add real and imaginary parts: (3 − 7) + (5 + 2)i = −4 + 7i.
- What is (3+5i)(7-2i)? Answer: Expand out $(3+5i)(7-2i) = 21+35i-6i-10i^2 = (21+10)+29i = 31+29i$.

- What about i^3 ? Answer: $i^3 = i^2 \cdot i = -i$.
- What is $\frac{3+5i}{7-2i}$?

Practicing with complex numbers

- Try computing some complex numbers yourself! Do the following:
- Compute (3 + 5i) − (7 − 2i). Answer: Add real and imaginary parts: (3 − 7) + (5 + 2)i = −4 + 7i.
- What is (3+5i)(7-2i)? Answer: Expand out $(3+5i)(7-2i) = 21+35i-6i-10i^2 = (21+10)+29i = 31+29i$.
- What about i^3 ? Answer: $i^3 = i^2 \cdot i = -i$.
- What is ³⁺⁵ⁱ/_{7-2i}? Answer: Trick: Multiply top and bottom by the conjugate 7 + 2i to get a difference of squares

Practicing with complex numbers

- Try computing some complex numbers yourself! Do the following:
- Compute (3 + 5i) − (7 − 2i). Answer: Add real and imaginary parts: (3 − 7) + (5 + 2)i = −4 + 7i.
- What is (3+5i)(7-2i)? Answer: Expand out $(3+5i)(7-2i) = 21+35i-6i-10i^2 = (21+10)+29i = 31+29i$.
- What about i^3 ? Answer: $i^3 = i^2 \cdot i = -i$.
- What is ³⁺⁵ⁱ/_{7-2i}? Answer: Trick: Multiply top and bottom by the conjugate 7 + 2i to get a difference of squares

$$\frac{3+5i}{7-2i} = \frac{(3+5i)(7+2i)}{(7-2i)(7+2i)} = \frac{21+35i+6i+10i^2}{49-4i^2} = \frac{11+41i}{53}$$

$$=rac{11}{53}+rac{41}{53}i.$$

・ロト・西ト・モート 一回・シック

• For us:
$$p = (x^2 + y^2)$$
 factors as $p = (x + iy)(x - iy)$.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

• For us:
$$p = (x^2 + y^2)$$
 factors as $p = (x + iy)(x - iy)$.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

• For example:
$$5 = 2^2 + 1^2 = (2 + i)(2 - i)$$
.

- For us: $p = (x^2 + y^2)$ factors as p = (x + iy)(x iy).
- For example: $5 = 2^2 + 1^2 = (2 + i)(2 i)$.
- Prime numbers are numbers that can't be split up into products of smaller numbers (except for 1 and *p*).

- For us: $p = (x^2 + y^2)$ factors as p = (x + iy)(x iy).
- For example: $5 = 2^2 + 1^2 = (2 + i)(2 i)$.
- Prime numbers are numbers that can't be split up into products of smaller numbers (except for 1 and *p*).
- What we are asking: Do primes split up or not over the set of Gaussian integers Z[i] = {x + iy |x, y are integers}.

- For us: $p = (x^2 + y^2)$ factors as p = (x + iy)(x iy).
- For example: $5 = 2^2 + 1^2 = (2 + i)(2 i)$.
- Prime numbers are numbers that can't be split up into products of smaller numbers (except for 1 and *p*).
- What we are asking: Do primes split up or not over the set of Gaussian integers Z[i] = {x + iy |x, y are integers}.
- These form a **lattice**: they are the points (*x*, *y*) with whole number coordinates: (note: the point 3 + *i* should say 2 + *i*)

A D > 4 目 > 4 目 > 4 目 > 5 4 回 > 3 Q Q

- For us: $p = (x^2 + y^2)$ factors as p = (x + iy)(x iy).
- For example: $5 = 2^2 + 1^2 = (2 + i)(2 i)$.
- Prime numbers are numbers that can't be split up into products of smaller numbers (except for 1 and *p*).
- What we are asking: Do primes split up or not over the set of Gaussian integers Z[i] = {x + iy |x, y are integers}.
- These form a **lattice**: they are the points (*x*, *y*) with whole number coordinates: (note: the point 3 + *i* should say 2 + *i*)



• Gaussian integers have a lot of similar properties to the number system of ordinary integers Z.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

• Gaussian integers have a lot of similar properties to the number system of ordinary integers Z.

• You can add, subtract, and multiply, them.

- Gaussian integers have a lot of similar properties to the number system of ordinary integers Z.
- You can add, subtract, and multiply, them.
- There are prime numbers here. What should a prime be?

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへぐ

- Gaussian integers have a lot of similar properties to the number system of ordinary integers Z.
- You can add, subtract, and multiply, them.
- There are prime numbers here. What should a prime be? p in Z is prime if p = ab with a, b in Z means a or b is ±1.

- Gaussian integers have a lot of similar properties to the number system of ordinary integers Z.
- You can add, subtract, and multiply, them.
- There are prime numbers here. What should a prime be? p in Z is prime if p = ab with a, b in Z means a or b is ±1.

• What is special about $\pm 1?$

- Gaussian integers have a lot of similar properties to the number system of ordinary integers Z.
- You can add, subtract, and multiply, them.
- There are prime numbers here. What should a prime be? p in Z is prime if p = ab with a, b in Z means a or b is ±1.
- What is special about ± 1 ? Answer: They are the only integers a with 1/a still an integer; you can solve ab = 1 in \mathbb{Z} .

- Gaussian integers have a lot of similar properties to the number system of ordinary integers Z.
- You can add, subtract, and multiply, them.
- There are prime numbers here. What should a prime be? p in Z is prime if p = ab with a, b in Z means a or b is ±1.
- What is special about ±1? Answer: They are the only integers a with 1/a still an integer; you can solve ab = 1 in Z. These are called units.

- Gaussian integers have a lot of similar properties to the number system of ordinary integers Z.
- You can add, subtract, and multiply, them.
- There are prime numbers here. What should a prime be? p in Z is prime if p = ab with a, b in Z means a or b is ±1.
- What is special about ±1? Answer: They are the only integers a with 1/a still an integer; you can solve ab = 1 in Z. These are called units.

• What are the units in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$?

• The size of an integer is |*a*|. If you multiply integers together, they usually get bigger (except when you multiply by 0 or ±1).

• The size of an integer is |*a*|. If you multiply integers together, they usually get bigger (except when you multiply by 0 or ±1).

• The units are exactly the integers with |a| = 1.

• The size of an integer is |*a*|. If you multiply integers together, they usually get bigger (except when you multiply by 0 or ±1).

- The units are exactly the integers with |a| = 1.
- The norm of a Gaussian integer is $N(a + bi) = (a + bi)(a bi) = a^2 + b^2$.

• The size of an integer is |*a*|. If you multiply integers together, they usually get bigger (except when you multiply by 0 or ±1).

A D > 4 回 > 4 回 > 4 回 > 1 回 9 Q Q

- The units are exactly the integers with |a| = 1.
- The norm of a Gaussian integer is $N(a + bi) = (a + bi)(a - bi) = a^2 + b^2$. So $N(2 + i) = 2^2 + 1^2 = 5$.

- The size of an integer is |*a*|. If you multiply integers together, they usually get bigger (except when you multiply by 0 or ±1).
- The units are exactly the integers with |a| = 1.
- The norm of a Gaussian integer is $N(a + bi) = (a + bi)(a - bi) = a^2 + b^2$. So $N(2 + i) = 2^2 + 1^2 = 5$.
- Why is this useful? Its **multiplicative**: N(xy) = N(x)N(y). Check this in the next few minutes.

- The size of an integer is |a|. If you multiply integers together, they usually get bigger (except when you multiply by 0 or ±1).
- The units are exactly the integers with |a| = 1.
- The norm of a Gaussian integer is $N(a + bi) = (a + bi)(a - bi) = a^2 + b^2$. So $N(2 + i) = 2^2 + 1^2 = 5$.
- Why is this useful? Its multiplicative: N(xy) = N(x)N(y). Check this in the next few minutes.
- Ok, let's check: Its the secret behind our strange identity!

$$N((a+bi)(c+di)) = N((ac-bd)+(ad+bc)i)$$

$$= (ac - bd)^{2} + (ad + bc)^{2}$$
$$= a^{2}c^{2} + a^{2}d^{2} + b^{2}c^{2} + b^{2}d^{2} = (a^{2} + b^{2})(c^{2} + d^{2}) = N(a + bi)N(c + di).$$

• Since we can divide with complex numbers, we are asking: for which x is there a y with xy = 1.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

 Since we can divide with complex numbers, we are asking: for which x is there a y with xy = 1. Thus, N(x)N(y) = 1.

Since we can divide with complex numbers, we are asking: for which x is there a y with xy = 1. Thus, N(x)N(y) = 1.

• But the only units in $\mathbb Z$ are $\pm 1!$

- Since we can divide with complex numbers, we are asking: for which x is there a y with xy = 1. Thus, N(x)N(y) = 1.
- But the only units in \mathbb{Z} are $\pm 1!$ So we have to have N(x) = 1.

- Since we can divide with complex numbers, we are asking: for which x is there a y with xy = 1. Thus, N(x)N(y) = 1.
- But the only units in Z are ±1! So we have to have N(x) = 1.
 What numbers satisfy this?

- Since we can divide with complex numbers, we are asking: for which x is there a y with xy = 1. Thus, N(x)N(y) = 1.
- But the only units in Z are ±1! So we have to have N(x) = 1.
 What numbers satisfy this?

• If $a^2 + b^2 = 1$, we have *a*, *b* are 0, ±1.

- Since we can divide with complex numbers, we are asking: for which x is there a y with xy = 1. Thus, N(x)N(y) = 1.
- But the only units in Z are ±1! So we have to have N(x) = 1.
 What numbers satisfy this?

• If $a^2 + b^2 = 1$, we have a, b are $0, \pm 1$. Only possibilities: $\pm 1, \pm i$. That's it!

- Since we can divide with complex numbers, we are asking: for which x is there a y with xy = 1. Thus, N(x)N(y) = 1.
- But the only units in Z are ±1! So we have to have N(x) = 1.
 What numbers satisfy this?
- If $a^2 + b^2 = 1$, we have a, b are $0, \pm 1$. Only possibilities: $\pm 1, \pm i$. That's it!
- These are the Gaussian integers on the **unit circle** (note: the point 3 + *i* should say 2 + *i*)

- Since we can divide with complex numbers, we are asking: for which x is there a y with xy = 1. Thus, N(x)N(y) = 1.
- But the only units in Z are ±1! So we have to have N(x) = 1.
 What numbers satisfy this?
- If $a^2 + b^2 = 1$, we have a, b are $0, \pm 1$. Only possibilities: $\pm 1, \pm i$. That's it!
- These are the Gaussian integers on the **unit circle** (note: the point 3 + *i* should say 2 + *i*)



• We can finally define primes.

• We can finally define primes. A **prime Gaussian integer** is a number x such that if x = ab, then one of a or b is $\pm 1, \pm i$.

• We can finally define primes. A prime Gaussian integer is a number x such that if x = ab, then one of a or b is $\pm 1, \pm i$.

Theorem (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic)

Every Gaussian integer factors uniquely as a product of primes.

• We can finally define primes. A prime Gaussian integer is a number x such that if x = ab, then one of a or b is $\pm 1, \pm i$.

Theorem (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic)

Every Gaussian integer factors uniquely as a product of primes.

• The main reason: You can do long division: Given a, b, solve a = bq + r with $0 \le N(r) < N(b)$.
Primes in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$

• We can finally define primes. A prime Gaussian integer is a number x such that if x = ab, then one of a or b is $\pm 1, \pm i$.

Theorem (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic)

Every Gaussian integer factors uniquely as a product of primes.

• The main reason: You can do long division: Given a, b, solve a = bq + r with $0 \le N(r) < N(b)$. Why: solve $\frac{a}{b} = q + \frac{r}{b}$ with $N(\frac{r}{b}) < 1$.

Primes in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$

• We can finally define primes. A prime Gaussian integer is a number x such that if x = ab, then one of a or b is $\pm 1, \pm i$.

Theorem (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic)

Every Gaussian integer factors uniquely as a product of primes.

- The main reason: You can do long division: Given *a*, *b*, solve a = bq + r with $0 \le N(r) < N(b)$. Why: solve $\frac{a}{b} = q + \frac{r}{b}$ with $N(\frac{r}{b}) < 1$.
- But lattice you are always at distance less than 1 from a lattice point! Maximal distance is diagonal of square: $\sqrt{2}/2 < 1$.

Primes in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$

• We can finally define primes. A prime Gaussian integer is a number x such that if x = ab, then one of a or b is $\pm 1, \pm i$.

Theorem (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic)

Every Gaussian integer factors uniquely as a product of primes.

- The main reason: You can do long division: Given *a*, *b*, solve a = bq + r with $0 \le N(r) < N(b)$. Why: solve $\frac{a}{b} = q + \frac{r}{b}$ with $N(\frac{r}{b}) < 1$.
- But lattice you are always at distance less than 1 from a lattice point! Maximal distance is diagonal of square: $\sqrt{2}/2 < 1$.
- This is extremely special! For example, $6 = 2 \cdot 3 = (1 + \sqrt{-5})(1 - \sqrt{-5})$ means that the theorem is false for $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}] = \{a + b\sqrt{-5} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$

A picture of the Gaussian primes



ヨー つくぐ

Theorem (Wilson's Theorem)

If p is a prime integer, then $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへぐ

Theorem (Wilson's Theorem)

If p is a prime integer, then $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$.



▲ロ ▶ ▲周 ▶ ▲ ヨ ▶ ▲ ヨ ▶ ● の < ○

Theorem (Wilson's Theorem)

If p is a prime integer, then $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$.

$$p = |3 \qquad (p - 1)! = |2! \qquad (p - 1)! = |$$

Lemma (Lagrange)

If p is prime of the form 4n + 1, then $-1 \equiv m^2 \pmod{p}$ for an m.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ - 三 - のへで

Theorem (Wilson's Theorem)

If p is a prime integer, then $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$.

$$p = |3 \qquad (p - 1)! = |2! \qquad (p - 1)! = 12! \qquad (p - 1)! = 1$$

Lemma (Lagrange)

If p is prime of the form 4n + 1, then $-1 \equiv m^2 \pmod{p}$ for an m.

 $-1 \equiv 12! \equiv (1 \cdot 12)(2 \cdot 11)(3 \cdot 10) \dots (6 \cdot 7) \equiv (-1)^6 (6!)^2 \equiv (6!)^2 \pmod{13}$

• Claim: If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $p = x^2 + y^2$ is solvable.

• Claim: If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $p = x^2 + y^2$ is solvable.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

• Pick the *m* with $p|(m^2+1)$ by Lagrange.

• Claim: If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $p = x^2 + y^2$ is solvable.

- Pick the *m* with $p|(m^2 + 1)$ by Lagrange.
- Factor $m^2 + 1 = (m + i)(m i)$.

- Claim: If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $p = x^2 + y^2$ is solvable.
- Pick the *m* with $p|(m^2+1)$ by Lagrange.
- Factor $m^2 + 1 = (m + i)(m i)$.
- As m/p±i/p is not a Gaussian integer, p doesn't divide m + i or m − i.

- Claim: If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $p = x^2 + y^2$ is solvable.
- Pick the *m* with $p|(m^2+1)$ by Lagrange.
- Factor $m^2 + 1 = (m + i)(m i)$.
- As $m/p \pm i/p$ is not a Gaussian integer, p doesn't divide m + i or m i.
- So *p* divides a product of two numbers, but neither of those two numbers by themselves! This implies that *p* is a **Gaussian prime** (the same is true for integer primes).

- Claim: If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $p = x^2 + y^2$ is solvable.
- Pick the *m* with $p|(m^2+1)$ by Lagrange.
- Factor $m^2 + 1 = (m + i)(m i)$.
- As $m/p \pm i/p$ is not a Gaussian integer, p doesn't divide m + i or m i.
- So *p* divides a product of two numbers, but neither of those two numbers by themselves! This implies that *p* is a **Gaussian prime** (the same is true for integer primes).
- Thus, p has a non-trivial factorization

$$p = (a + bi)(c + di).$$

- Claim: If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $p = x^2 + y^2$ is solvable.
- Pick the *m* with $p|(m^2+1)$ by Lagrange.
- Factor $m^2 + 1 = (m + i)(m i)$.
- As m/p±i/p is not a Gaussian integer, p doesn't divide m + i or m − i.
- So *p* divides a product of two numbers, but neither of those two numbers by themselves! This implies that *p* is a **Gaussian prime** (the same is true for integer primes).
- Thus, p has a non-trivial factorization

$$p = (a + bi)(c + di).$$

• Take norms:

- Claim: If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $p = x^2 + y^2$ is solvable.
- Pick the *m* with $p|(m^2+1)$ by Lagrange.
- Factor $m^2 + 1 = (m + i)(m i)$.
- As m/p±i/p is not a Gaussian integer, p doesn't divide m + i or m − i.
- So *p* divides a product of two numbers, but neither of those two numbers by themselves! This implies that *p* is a **Gaussian prime** (the same is true for integer primes).
- Thus, p has a non-trivial factorization

$$p = (a + bi)(c + di).$$

• Take norms:

$$N(p) = p^2 = (a^2 + b^2)(c^2 + d^2).$$

◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆三▶ ◆三▶ 三回 のへぐ

• So
$$a^2 + b^2 = p = c^2 + d^2!$$

▲□▶ ▲圖▶ ▲国▶ ▲国▶ - 国 - のへで

• So
$$a^2 + b^2 = p = c^2 + d^2!$$

• For example, $13|((6!)^2 + 1) = (720 + i)(720 - i)$.

・ロト・日本・ヨト・ヨト・日・ つへぐ

- So $a^2 + b^2 = p = c^2 + d^2!$
- For example, $13|((6!)^2 + 1) = (720 + i)(720 i)$.
- 13 splits up as 13 = (3+2i)(3-2i). So $13^2 = 3^2 + 2^2$.



• What about non-prime numbers?





• What about non-prime numbers? By combining what we learned, you can show:

Any numbers

• What about non-prime numbers? By combining what we learned, you can show:

Theorem

An integer n > 1 is a sum of two squares if and only if the exponents of any prime that's 3 (mod 4) in the prime factorization of n is **even** (note: zero is an even number).

Any numbers

• What about non-prime numbers? By combining what we learned, you can show:

Theorem

An integer n > 1 is a sum of two squares if and only if the exponents of any prime that's 3 (mod 4) in the prime factorization of n is **even** (note: zero is an even number).

Example

 $5096 = 2^3 \cdot 13^1 \cdot 7^2$ is a sum of two squares (14² and 70²), but $35672 = 2^3 \cdot 13^1 \cdot 7^3$ is **not**.

• What about sums of three squares? Four squares? A famous theorem of Lagrange says **every** number is a sum of 4 squares.

・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・

• What about sums of three squares? Four squares? A famous theorem of Lagrange says **every** number is a sum of 4 squares.

• How many ways can you write a number as a sum of two squares?

• What about sums of three squares? Four squares? A famous theorem of Lagrange says **every** number is a sum of 4 squares.

- How many ways can you write a number as a sum of two squares?
- How many primes of the form $x^2 + ny^2$ are there?

- What about sums of three squares? Four squares? A famous theorem of Lagrange says **every** number is a sum of 4 squares.
- How many ways can you write a number as a sum of two squares?
- How many primes of the form $x^2 + ny^2$ are there?



- What about sums of three squares? Four squares? A famous theorem of Lagrange says **every** number is a sum of 4 squares.
- How many ways can you write a number as a sum of two squares?
- How many primes of the form $x^2 + ny^2$ are there?



• What other questions can you think of?