

17 Sums of two squares

$$n = a^2 + b^2; \ a, b \geq 0, \ n \geq 1$$

Note:

$1 = 1^2 + 0^2$	$16 = 4^2 + 0^2$	$31 = \text{---}$
$2 = 1^2 + 1^2$	$17 = 4^2 + 1^2$	$32 = 4^2 + 4^2$
$3 = \text{---}$ ←	$18 = 3^2 + 3^2$	$33 = \text{---}$
$4 = 2^2 + 0^2$	$19 = \text{---}$ ←	$34 = 5^2 + 3^2$
$5 = 2^2 + 1^2$	$20 = 4^2 + 2^2$	$35 = \text{---}$ ←
$6 = \text{---}$	$21 = \text{---}$	$36 = 6^2 + 0^2$
$7 = \text{---}$ ←	$22 = \text{---}$	$37 = 6^2 + 1^2$
$8 = 2^2 + 2^2$	$23 = \text{---}$ ←	$38 = \text{---}$
$9 = 3^2 + 0^2$	$24 = \text{---}$	$39 = \text{---}$ ←
$10 = 3^2 + 1^2$	$25 = 5^2 + 0^2 = 4^2 + 3^2$	$40 = 6^2 + 2^2$
$11 = \text{---}$ ←	$26 = 5^2 + 1^2$	$41 = 5^2 + 4^2$
$12 = \text{---}$	$27 = \text{---}$ ←	$42 = \text{---}$
$13 = 3^2 + 2^2$	$28 = \text{---}$	$43 = \text{---}$ ←
$14 = \text{---}$	$29 = 5^2 + 2^2$	
$15 = \text{---}$ ←	$30 = \text{---}$	

For all integers a, b , we have

$$a^2 + b^2 \equiv 0, 1 \text{ or } 2 \pmod{4}$$

Indeed, $a, b = 0, 1, 2, 3 \pmod{4} \Rightarrow a^2, b^2 \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{4} \Rightarrow a^2 + b^2 \equiv 0, 1, 2 \pmod{4}$. So the numbers congruent to 3 mod 4 *cannot* be written as sums of 2 squares. It appears from this table that if p is an odd prime, we may write $p = a^2 + b^2$ iff $p \not\equiv 3 \pmod{4}$.

Lemma A: If m, n are sums of 2 squares, then so is their product mn .

Proof: Use the identity $(A^2 + B^2)(x^2 + y^2) = (Ax + By)^2 + (Ay - Bx)^2$

Proposition A. Let p be a prime congruent to 1 mod 4. Then p is a sum of two squares in \mathbb{Z} .

Proof of Proposition A. First we claim that there exists integers A, B, m , with $1 \leq m < p$, such that

$$mp = A^2 + B^2 \tag{1}$$

Indeed, since $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, $(\frac{-1}{p}) = 1$ and so we can find $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$. It was proved earlier that the set $T : \{1, 2, \dots, \frac{p-1}{2}\}$ is a set of representatives for the **squares** in $(\mathbb{Z}/p)^*$. Hence we may choose $n \in T$ such that

$$n^2 + 1 = mp,$$

for some integer $m \geq 1$. Since $n < \frac{p}{2}$, we have:

$$m = \frac{1}{p}(n^2 + 1) < \frac{1}{p} \left(\frac{p^2}{4} + 1 \right) < p,$$

which proves the claim.

Now there may be more than one m for which (1) holds. (Of course (A, B) will depend on m .) So we may, and we will, choose m to be the **smallest** integer ≥ 1 for which (1) holds. Of course, $m < p$. We are done if $m = 1$, so we will assume that $m > 1$ and derive a contradiction.

Find $x, y \in \mathbb{Z} \cap [-\frac{m}{2}, \frac{m}{2}]$ such that $x \equiv A \pmod{m}$, $y \equiv B \pmod{m}$.

Then

$$x^2 + y^2 = km, \text{ for some integer } k \geq 1, \tag{2}$$

$$\text{since } A^2 + B^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{m}.$$

By construction,

$$x^2 + y^2 \leq \frac{m^2}{4} + \frac{m^2}{4} = \frac{m^2}{2} = \frac{m}{2} \cdot m.$$

So $k < m$. Applying the identity proving Lemma 1, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} (x^2 + y^2)(A^2 + B^2) &= km \cdot mp = m^2 kp \\ &= (Ax + By)^2 + (Ay - Bx)^2. \end{aligned}$$

Notice that

$$Ay \equiv xy \equiv xB \pmod{m}.$$

So

$$m^2 | (Ay - Bx)^2,$$

and this gives

$$m^2 | (Ax + By)^2.$$

Hence $m|(Ax + By)$, and

$$\left(\frac{Ax + By}{m}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{Ay - Bx}{m}\right)^2 = kp. \quad (3)$$

Since $k < m$, and (3) gives a contradiction to the minimality of m .

Example: $p = 41$, $9^2 = 81 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$

Start with $9^2 + 1^2 = 2 \cdot 41$, $x, y \in \mathbb{Z} \cap [-1, 1]$ such that $x \equiv 9 \pmod{2}$, $y \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$. Pick $x = y = 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{Ax + By}{m} &= \frac{9 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 1}{2} = 5 \\ \frac{Ay - Bx}{m} &= \frac{9 \cdot 1 - 1}{2} = 4 \end{aligned}$$

This gives:

$$41 = 5^2 + 4^2.$$

Proposition C. Let p be a prime $\equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. Then no integer n divisible precisely by an **odd** power of p can be written as a sum of two squares.

Theorem Let $n \geq 1$ be an integer. Then n can be written as a sum of two squares **iff** every prime $\equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ occurs to a even power in its prime factorization.

Proof of Theorem (modulo Proposition C)

(\Rightarrow): This is because Proposition C says that any prime congruent to 3 mod 4 has to occur to an even power r in n .

(\Leftarrow): Let $r = p_1 p_2 \dots p_m q_1^{2n_1} \dots q_\ell^{2n_\ell}$, with $p_i \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, $q_j \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. By Prop. B, p_i is a sum of two squares, and $q_j^{2n_j} = (q_j^{n_j})^2 + 0^2$. Thus n is a product of numbers which are sums of two squares, and we are done by applying Lemma A.

Proof of Proposition C: Let $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ be a prime. Suppose

$$n = a^2 + b^2, \text{ with } p^{2s+1} \parallel n.$$

Let $d = (a, b)$, so that $d^2|(a^2 + b^2) = n$. Hence

$$\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{a}{d}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{b}{d}\right)^2, \text{ if } m = \frac{n}{d}, \quad x = \frac{a}{d}, \quad y = \frac{b}{d}.$$

So we get

$$m = x^2 + y^2, \text{ with } \gcd(x, y) = 1,$$

and

$$p^{2s+1} \parallel m.$$

In particular, $p|m$, but p does not divide both x and y . But if $p|x$, as $m = x^2 + y^2$, $p|y^2$, and so $p|y$. Consequently, $p \nmid xy$.

It follows, since $(p, x) = 1$, that

$$Ax - Bp = t$$

is solvable in \mathbb{Z} for all t . Take $t = y$ to get $Ax \equiv y \pmod{p}$.

Then

$$0 \equiv x^2 + y^2 \equiv x^2(A^2 + 1) \pmod{p}.$$

Since $p \nmid x$, get:

$$A^2 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

But $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = -1$ as $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, giving a contradiction.

Questions:

1. What if one considers sums of k squares with $k > 2$, e.g., $7 = 2^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2$.

In Section 19, we will prove that any positive integer can be written as a sum of four squares.

2. If $n = a^2 + b^2$, in how many ways can one write n as a sum of two squares?

Example: $25 = 5^2 + 0^2 = 4^2 + 3^2$

$65 = 8^2 + 1^2 = 7^2 + 4^2$

Note in general that

$$\begin{aligned} (x^2 + y^2)(A^2 + B^2) &= (xA + yB)^2 + (xB - yA)^2 \\ &= (xA - yB)^2 + (xB + yA)^2 \end{aligned}$$

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} 25 &= 5 \cdot 5 = (2^2 + 1)(2^2 + 1) \\ &= (x \cdot 2 + 1 \cdot 1)^2 + (2 \cdot 1 - 1 \cdot 2)^2 = 5^2 + 0^2 \\ &= (2 \cdot 2 - 1 \cdot 1)^2 + (2 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 2)^2 = 3^2 + 4^2 \end{aligned}$$

When do these two ways of writing it coincide?

They do iff we have

$$(xA + yB)^2 = (xA - yB)^2$$

or

$$(xA + yB)^2 = (xB + yA)^2$$

First case:

Square both sides to get

$$xyAB = 0 \text{ i.e., at least one of } x, y, A, B \text{ is zero.}$$

Second case: Here we get

$$\begin{aligned} x^2A^2 + y^2B^2 &= y^2A^2 + x^2B^2 \\ \Leftrightarrow x^2(A^2 - B^2) + y^2(B^2 - A^2) &= 0 \\ \Leftrightarrow (x^2 - y^2)(A^2 - B^2) &= 0 \\ \Leftrightarrow x = y \text{ or } A = B \end{aligned}$$

Claim: If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ is a prime, then $p = a^2 + b^2$ uniquely.

Indeed, suppose $p = a^2 + b^2 = c^2 + d^2$, for $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then

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

$\Rightarrow ad \equiv bc \pmod{p}$, or $ad \equiv -bc \pmod{p}$.

Clearly $0 < a, b, c, d < \sqrt{p}$. So

$$ad \equiv bc, \text{ or } ad = p - bc.$$

If $ad = p - bc$

$$\begin{aligned} p^2 &= (a^2 + b^2)(c^2 + d^2) = (ad + bc)^2 + (ac - bd)^2 \\ &= p^2 + (ac - bd)^2 \Rightarrow ac = bd \end{aligned}$$

Hence $a|bd$, and $\gcd(a, b) = 1 \Rightarrow a|d$. Also $d|ac$, and $\gcd(c, d) = 1$, so $d|a$. So $a = \pm d$, so $a = d \Rightarrow b = c$.

If $ad = bc$, we find that $a = c$, $b = c$, and also $c = d$. Now the uniqueness assertion follows.