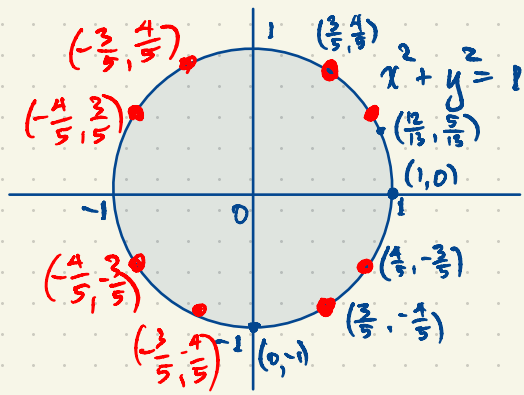


Number Theory

Book 1



How many points on the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ ($x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$) have rational number coordinates?

Not $(\frac{1}{2}, \pm\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2})$

Are there infinitely many "rational points" on the unit circle?

$(\frac{3}{5}, \frac{4}{5}) \leftrightarrow 3^2 + 4^2 = 5^2$ solution of $x^2 + y^2 = z^2$ ($x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$)

A Pythagorean triple is a triple (a, b, c) of positive integers a, b, c , satisfying $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$.

eg. $(3, 4, 5)$, $(6, 8, 10)$, $(9, 12, 15)$, $(5, 12, 13)$, ...

A triple (a, b, c) is primitive if it is not an integer scalar multiple of a smaller triple eg. $(3, 4, 5)$ is primitive; $(6, 8, 10) = 2(3, 4, 5)$ is imprimitive, as is $(9, 12, 15) = 3(3, 4, 5)$.

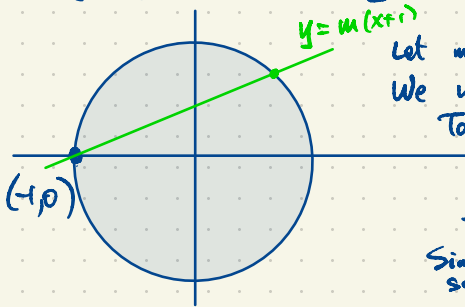
There are infinitely many primitive Pythagorean triples.

The triple $(3, 4, 5)$ yields eight rational points $(\pm\frac{3}{5}, \pm\frac{4}{5})$, $(\pm\frac{4}{5}, \pm\frac{3}{5})$. So does $(9, 12, 15)$

Theorem There are infinitely many rational points on the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

See Chapter 3.

Proof



Let $m \in \mathbb{Q}$. Consider the line $y = m(x+1)$ through $(-1, 0)$.

We will see that this line intersects the circle in two rational points.

To find these points, solve $\begin{cases} y = m(x+1) \\ x^2 + y^2 = 1 \end{cases}$ for (x, y) .

$x^2 + (m(x+1))^2 = 1$ (we have eliminated y from this equation)

This is a quadratic equation in x with rational coefficients.

Since $x = -1$ is one rational root, the other root must also be rational so (x, y) is rational. Every $m \in \mathbb{Q}$ gives a rational point on the unit circle.

Starting over, we give a completely algebraic approach to parameterizing the primitive Pythagorean triples.

$\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ ring of integers.

$\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots\}$ positive integers.

\mathbb{N} has unique factorization. Every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ factors uniquely as a product of prime numbers $2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, (17, 19, 23, 29, 31, \dots)$

ie. if $n = p_1 p_2 \dots p_k = q_1 q_2 \dots q_\ell$ where all p_i, q_j are primes then $k = \ell$ and $p_i = q_i$ after re-indexing if necessary.

eg. $12 = 2 \times 6 = 2 \times 2 \times 3$ is a prime factorization of 12.

$$12 = 3 \times 4 = 3 \times 2 \times 2$$

$1 = 1$ is a prime factorization with 0 prime factors.

A prime number is an integer $n > 1$ which is not of the form ab ($a, b \in \mathbb{N}$, $a, b > 1$).

We'll assume unique factorization for now but later, we'll have to explain this.

$$\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} = \{0, 1\}$$

x	x^2
0	0
1	1

$\gcd(a, b) =$ greatest common divisor of a, b

for $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$

eg. $\gcd(40, 68) = 2 \times 2 = 4$
 $2 \times 2 \times 5 \quad 2 \times 2 \times 17$

$$(3, 4, 5), (4, 3, 5)$$

Pythagorean triple (a, b, c) , a, b, c positive integers with $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$

(a, b, c) is primitive if it's not a scalar multiple (ka', kb', kc') with $k > 1$. $(6, 8, 10) = 2(3, 4, 5)$ is imprimitive.

If (a, b, c) is a primitive Pythagorean triple, what can we say about the parity of a, b, c ?

a, b, c can't all be even and they can't all be odd. In fact one must be even and the other two must be odd. ↖ the quality of being even or odd

Can a, b be odd and c even? No.

Integers mod 4 $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z} = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$

x	x^2
0	0
1	1
2	0
3	1

If a, b are odd then $a^2 + b^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ but if c is even then $c^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$

There is no Pythagorean triple (a, b, c) with a, b odd.

So every primitive Pythagorean triple is either (even, odd, odd) or (odd, even, odd).

Without loss of generality, take (odd, even, odd) ie. a, c odd, b even.

We will prove:

Theorem Every primitive Pythagorean triple has the form $(a,b,c) = (m^2-n^2, 2mn, m^2+n^2)$ for a unique pair of relatively prime integers m,n of opposite parity (i.e. one even, the other odd) with $m > n \geq 1$. (Or with a,b reversed).
Every such triple is a primitive Pythagorean triple.

Towards the proof, let's observe that in a primitive Pythagorean triple (a,b,c) , any two of a,b,c are relatively prime i.e. $\gcd(a,b)=1 = \gcd(a,c) = \gcd(b,c)$. Why?

Suppose (a,b,c) is not primitive, i.e. $(a,b,c) = (ka, kb, kc)$ with $k \geq 2$. Then $\gcd(a,b) \neq 1$ ($\gcd(a,b) \geq k$)
 $\gcd(a,c) \neq 1$
 $\gcd(b,c) \neq 1$.

Suppose (a,b,c) is a primitive Pythagorean triple. Why must $\gcd(a,b)=1$?
Why must $\gcd(a,c)=1$?
Why must $\gcd(b,c)=1$?

Aside

Subtlety: The triple $(6,10,15)$ is primitive: it is not of the form $(a,b,c) = k(a',b',c')$, $k,a',b',c' \in \mathbb{N}$, $k > 1$.
But $\gcd(6,10)=2$, $\gcd(6,15)=3$, $\gcd(10,15)=5$. No two of $6,10,15$ are relatively prime.
Of course $(6,10,15)$ is not Pythagorean.

Given a primitive Pythagorean triple (a,b,c) , $a^2+b^2=c^2$ if $\gcd(a,b) > 1$ then there is a prime number p which is a factor of both a and b . But then p is a factor of a^2+b^2 so p is a factor of c^2 so p is a factor of c .
Then $a=pa'$, $b=pb'$, $c=pc'$, $(a,b,c) = p(a',b',c')$, $a',b',c' \in \mathbb{N}$. Then (a,b,c) is imprimitive.

What about $a^n+b^n=c^n$? (a,b,c,n positive integers) For $n > 2$ there are no solutions.
This was known as Fermat's Last Theorem. Proved about 30⁺ years ago by Andrew Wiles and others.

Given a primitive Pythagorean triple (a, b, c) , $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$, we have $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, $\gcd(a, c) = 1$, $\gcd(b, c) = 1$.
 Without loss of generality, a, c are odd, b is even. Then $\underbrace{b^2}_{\text{even}} = \underbrace{c^2 - a^2}_{\text{even}} = \underbrace{(c+a)}_{\text{even}} \underbrace{(c-a)}_{\text{even}}$. So $\left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{c+a}{2} \cdot \frac{c-a}{2}$.
 $\frac{b}{2} \in \mathbb{N}$, $\frac{c+a}{2} \in \mathbb{N}$, $\frac{c-a}{2} \in \mathbb{N}$.

Write $m = \frac{c+a}{2}$, $n = \frac{c-a}{2}$ so $m, n \in \mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ positive integers.

$m > n \geq 1$. Then $\gcd(m, n) = 1$. Why? If not then there is a prime p which is a factor of both m and n . Then $m+n = c$ is a multiple of p and $m-n = a$ is a multiple of p . This is impossible since $\gcd(a, c) = 1$.

$\left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^2 = m \cdot n$ An integer squared equals mn where m, n are relatively prime.

- eg. $10^2 = 100 = mn$
- $100 = 100 \times 1$
 - ~~$= 50 \times 2$~~
 - ~~$= 25 \times 4$~~
 - ~~$= 20 \times 5$~~
 - ~~$= 10 \times 10$~~
 - ~~$= 5 \times 20$~~
 - $= 4 \times 25$
 - ~~$= 2 \times 50$~~
 - $= 1 \times 100$

Aside

Then m and n must both be squares. This fact follows directly from considering the prime factorization on both sides. We will discuss uniqueness of prime factorization later.

$m = M^2, n = N^2, M, N \in \mathbb{N}$.

$\left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^2 = M^2 N^2$
 $b^2 = 4M^2 N^2$
 $b = \pm 2MN$
 $b = 2MN$

$c = m+n = M^2 + N^2$
 $a = m-n = M^2 - N^2$

$M > N \geq 1$
 $\gcd(M, N) = 1$

If M, N are both odd then a, c would be even which is not true. So M, N must have opposite parity (one is even; the other is odd).

Are there infinitely many primes of the form n^2+1 ? e.g.

$$\begin{aligned} 1^2+1 &= 2 \\ 2^2+1 &= 5 \\ 4^2+1 &= 17 \\ &\text{etc.} \end{aligned}$$

We believe the answer is "yes" but the problem is open.

Goldbach's Conjecture: Is every even number > 2 a sum of two primes?

e.g. $4 = 2+2$, $6 = 3+3$, $8 = 3+5$, $10 = 5+5 = 3+7$, $12 = 5+7$, $14 = 7+7 = 3+11$

The Riemann Hypothesis: more about this later this semester. (Biggest open problem in mathematics.)

There are infinitely many prime numbers $2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, \dots$

Are there infinitely many twin primes? e.g. $3, 5$, $5, 7$, $11, 13$, $17, 19$, $29, 31$ etc.

Importance of Fermat's Last Theorem:

Try to use an idea similar to proof of classification of primitive Pythagorean triples.

e.g. to show $x^3 + y^3 = z^3$ has no solution in positive integers $x, y, z \in \mathbb{N}$:

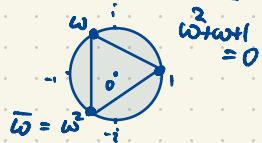
$$y^3 = z^3 - x^3 = (z-x)(z^2 + zx + x^2) = (z-x)(z-\omega x)(z-\omega^2 x)$$

Each of

$$\begin{aligned} z-x &= a^3 \\ z-\omega x &= b^3 \\ z-\omega^2 x &= c^3 \end{aligned}$$

$$a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega] = \{r + s\omega : r, s \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

is the ring of Eisenstein integers.

$$\omega = e^{2\pi i/3} = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{-3}}{2}$$


$\omega^2 + \omega + 1 = 0$

This leads to a contradiction, so we get a proof of Fermat's Last Theorem in the case of exponent 3.

This idea works a lot of the time so we can prove $x^n + y^n = z^n$ has no solution for certain values of n .

The argument fails for ^(most) many values of n because of the failure of unique factorization.

One early goal of our course: explain why \mathbb{Z} has unique factorization and most similar rings do not have unique factorization.

Back to foundations of arithmetic of \mathbb{Z} . See handout on the integers on the course website.

a, b, c, \dots are integers: $a, b, c, \dots \in \mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$

We say a divides b if $b = ka$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. (written $a \mid b$).

- eg.
- 3 divides $6 = 3 \cdot 2$
 - 3 divides $3 = 3 \cdot 1$
 - 3 divides $-12 = -4 \cdot 3$
 - 3 divides $0 = 0 \cdot 3$
 - 3 does not divide 5.

$$a \mid b \iff a \text{ divides } b$$

$\iff b$ is a multiple of a

$\iff a$ is a divisor of b

$\iff a$ is a "factor" of b .

The divisors of 12 are $\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 4, \pm 6, \pm 12$. There are exactly twelve numbers that divide 12: i.e. $-12, -6, -4, -3, -2, -1, 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 12$.

The divisors of 10 are $\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 5, \pm 10$. (There are eight divisors of 10).

The divisors of -14 are $\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 7, \pm 14$.

The divisors of 5 are $\pm 1, \pm 5$.

The divisors of 1 are ± 1 . (two divisors)

The divisors of 0 are $0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 4, \dots$

$$0 = 17 \cdot 0$$

Given two integers a, b , their common divisors:

The divisors of 68 are $\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 4, \pm 17, \pm 34, \pm 68$

The divisors of 10 are $\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 5, \pm 10$.

The common divisors of 68 and 10 are $\pm 1, \pm 2$ i.e. $-2, -1, 1, 2$.

The greatest common divisor of 68 and 10 is 2.

Range of difficulty of computational problems
add, subtract, multiply: easy (with modest computational tools)

factorization: hard

find gcd: easy

testing primality: easy

Compute $\text{gcd}(a, b)$ efficiently using Euclid's Algorithm

$$\text{gcd}(68, 0) = 68$$

$\text{gcd}(0, 0)$ is undefined

Divisors of 68: $\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 4, \pm 17, \pm 34, \pm 68$

Divisors of 0: $0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 4, \dots$

Common divisors of 68 and 0: $\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 4, \pm 17, \pm 34, \pm 68$

Greatest common divisor: 68

Computing $\gcd(513, 381) = 3$

$$513 = 1 \times 381 + 132$$

$$381 = 2 \times 132 + 117$$

$$132 = 1 \times 117 + 15$$

$$117 = 7 \times 15 + 12$$

$$15 = 1 \times 12 + 3$$

$$12 = 4 \times 3 + 0$$

Division Algorithm: Given $a, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $d > 0$, there exist unique $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a = qd + r$, $0 \leq r < d$.
(If $r=0$ we say d divides a , i.e. $d|a$.)
 r is the remainder; q is the quotient.

The $\gcd(a, b)$ is the last nonzero remainder

The extended form of Euclid's Algorithm:

$(a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, \text{ not both zero})$

$$3 = 513r + 381s, \quad r, s \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

We can write $\gcd(a, b)$ as an integer linear combination of a and b .

$$3 = 513 \times 26 + 381 \times (-35)$$

This tells us: $\{513r + 381s : r, s \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{3t : t \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{\dots, -9, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, 9, 12, \dots\}$

Shortcut:

513	381	
1	0	513
0	1	381
1	-1	132
-2	3	117
3	-4	15
-23	31	12
26	-35	3
*	*	0

i.e. $1 \times 513 + 0 \times 381 = 513$

i.e. $1 \times 513 - 1 \times 381 = 132$

i.e. $-2 \times 513 + 3 \times 381 = 117$

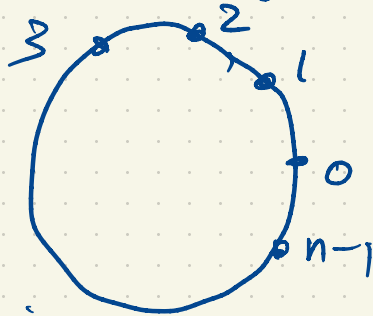
i.e. $\gcd(513, 381) = 3 = 26 \times 513 - 35 \times 381$

Congruences; modular arithmetic

If n is a positive integer then we write $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ whenever $a-b$ is divisible by n

$$\Leftrightarrow n \mid a-b$$

$\Leftrightarrow a-b$ is a multiple of n



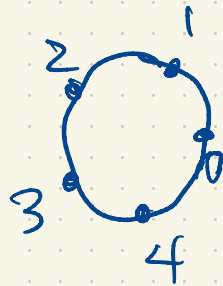
eg. integers mod 5: Every $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ is congruent mod 5 to exactly one of 0, 1, 2, 3 or 4

$7 \times 8 = 56 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$ (56 is congruent to 1 mod 5 because $56-1=55$ is divisible by 5).

$33 \equiv 78 \pmod{5}$ because $33-78$ is divisible by 5.

$$33 \equiv -7 \pmod{5}$$

$33 \not\equiv 6$ because $33-6=27$ is not divisible by 5.



Look in early chapters of textbook and my handouts including integers

If (a, b, c) is a primitive Pythagorean triple then $c \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

($c = m^2 + n^2$ where m, n are integers of opposite parity so $c \equiv 0^2 + 1^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$)

Solve for $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$:
$$\begin{aligned} 3x + 5y &\equiv 1 \pmod{7} \\ 4x + y &\equiv 3 \pmod{7} \end{aligned}$$

Solution: $x \equiv 0, y \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$.

Check:
$$\begin{aligned} 3 \cdot 0 + 5 \cdot 3 &\equiv 1 \pmod{7} \\ 4 \cdot 0 + 3 &\equiv 3 \pmod{7}. \end{aligned}$$

i.e. $(x, y) \in \{(0, 3), (7, 3), (-7, -4), (-7, 10), \dots\}$
infinitely many solutions in \mathbb{Z}^2 .
(satisfying our congruences)

x	y	
3	5	1
4	1	3
0	6	4
0	1	3
3	0	-14
3	0	0
1	0	0

i.e. $3x + 5y \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$

i.e. $6y \equiv 4$

i.e. $3x \equiv -14 \equiv 0$

$$\mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z} = \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \bar{3}, \bar{4}, \bar{5}, \bar{6}\} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 6\}$$
 abbreviated for simplicity

$$\bar{0} = [0] = \{\dots, -14, -7, 0, 7, 14, 21, \dots\}$$

$$\bar{1} = [1] = \{\dots, -13, -6, 1, 8, 15, 22, \dots\}$$

etc.

~~$5 \times 6 = 2$ in $\mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z}$~~

i.e. $5 \times 6 = 2$

~~$5 \times 6 \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$ in \mathbb{Z}~~

Solve:
$$\begin{aligned} 3x + 5y &= 1 \\ 4x + y &= 3 \end{aligned}$$
 for $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{F}_7 = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 6\}$ finite field of order 7

Answer: $(x, y) = (0, 3)$ is the unique solution in $\mathbb{F}_7^2 = \{(x, y) : x, y \in \mathbb{F}_7\}$.

Equivalently: Solve
$$\begin{cases} 3x + 5y \equiv 1 \pmod{7} \\ 4x + y \equiv 3 \pmod{7} \end{cases}$$
 for $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$.

There are infinitely many solutions of this system of two linear congruences in two unknowns $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$, namely $x \equiv 0 \pmod{7}, y \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$. i.e. $x \in \{\dots, -14, -7, 0, 7, 14, 21, \dots\}, y \in \{\dots, -11, -4, 3, 10, 17, 24, \dots\}$

Solve $4x=5$ for $x \in \mathbb{F}_7 = \mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ (integers mod 7).

If we were working in \mathbb{R} or in \mathbb{Q} , $x = \frac{5}{4}$. In \mathbb{F}_7 , the answer $x = \frac{5}{4}$ is technically correct but this is not simplified.

x	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
$4x$	0	4	1	5	2	6	3

The unique solution is $x = \frac{5}{4} = 3$.

$$\frac{5}{4} = \frac{12}{4} = \frac{6}{2} = 3$$

In \mathbb{Z} , solve the congruence $4x \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$. Solution: $x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$ i.e. $x \in \{\dots, -11, -4, 3, 10, 17, \dots\}$

If x is a positive integer such that the last two decimal digits of $41x$ are 01 i.e. $41x = \square\square\square\square\square\square 01$, what are the last two digits of x ?

Solve $41x \equiv 1 \pmod{100}$. We need the inverse of 41 in $\mathbb{Z}/100\mathbb{Z} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 99\}$

$$\gcd(100, 41) = 1 = (16) \cdot 100 + (-39) \cdot 41 = 1600 - 1599$$

check:

100	41	
1	0	100
0	1	41
1	-2	18
-2	5	5
7	-17	3
-9	22	2
16	-39	1
*	*	0

$$1 \equiv 41 \times (-39) \equiv 41 \times 61$$

Solution: $x \equiv 61 \pmod{100}$

i.e. the last two decimal digits of x are 61.

Note: $45x \equiv 1 \pmod{100}$ has no solution for $x \in \mathbb{Z}$.
 $15x \equiv 5 \pmod{100}$ has multiple solutions mod 100.

$$\gcd(45, 100) = 5 \neq 1.$$

Important fact: $\mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{F}_7$ is a field: every nonzero element has an inverse.

This is because 7 is a prime number.

If p is prime then every one of $1, 2, \dots, p-1$ has an inverse mod p .

$\mathbb{F}_p = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ is a field. Every nonzero element has an inverse.

Use Euclid's algorithm to find inverses.

$\mathbb{Z}/100\mathbb{Z}$ is not a field. It's only a ring.

Let x be a positive integer such that the last two decimal digits of x^{67} are ...83.
What are the last two digits of x ? Hint: The last two digits of x^{23} are ...03.
Another hint: 67 and 23 are relatively prime.

67	23	
1	0	67
0	1	23
1	-2	21
-1	3	2
11	-32	$\boxed{11}$
*	*	0

$\boxed{11} = \gcd(67, 23) = 11 \times 67 - 32 \times 23$

$$x^{67} \equiv 83 \pmod{100}$$

$$x^{23} \equiv 3 \pmod{100}$$

All congruences
mod 100.

$$\begin{aligned} x^1 &= x^{11 \times 67 - 32 \times 23} \equiv (x^{67})^{11} (x^{23})^{-32} \equiv 83^{11} \cdot 3^{-32} \\ &\equiv 67 \cdot (3^{32})^{-1} \equiv 67 \cdot 41^{-1} \pmod{100} \\ &\equiv 67 \times 61 \equiv 4087 \equiv 87 \end{aligned}$$

↑ see previous page

Check: $87^{67} \equiv 83 \pmod{100}$

$87^{23} \equiv 3 \pmod{100}$

Write 61 as a sum of two squares.
97

$$61 = 5^2 + 6^2 = 25 + 36 = |z|^2, \quad z = 5+6i$$
$$97 = 9^2 + 4^2 = 81 + 16 = |w|^2, \quad w = 9+4i$$

See handout
on complex
numbers

In each of these two cases, the solution is essentially unique.

$$61 = 5^2 + 6^2 = 6^2 + 5^2 = (-5)^2 + 6^2 = (-5)^2 + (-6)^2 = 6^2 + (-5)^2 = \dots$$

There are exactly 8 pairs of integers $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ satisfying $x^2 + y^2 = 61$.

Solutions: $(5, 6), (6, 5), (-5, 6), (-6, 5), (-6, -5), (6, -5), (5, -6), (-5, -6)$

Given a positive integer n , we may ask:

Can n be written as a sum of two squares?

If so, in how many ways? or how many essentially distinct ways?

1003 is not a sum of two squares. Every square $a^2 \equiv 0$ or $1 \pmod{4}$.

So every sum of two squares is congruent to $0, 1$ or $2 \pmod{4}$.

Since $1003 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, it's not a sum of two squares.

The converse ("Every positive integer congruent to $0, 1$ or $2 \pmod{4}$ is a sum of two squares") is false. (6 is the smallest counterexample.)

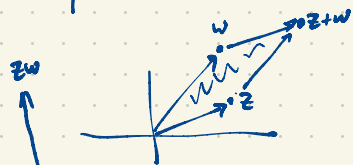
5917 is a sum of two squares since $5917 = 61 \times 97 = (5^2 + 6^2)(9^2 + 4^2) = |z|^2 |w|^2 = |zw|^2 = 21^2 + 74^2$
where $z = 5+6i, w = 9+4i, zw = (5+6i)(9+4i) = 45 + 20i + 54i - 24 = 21 + 74i$

Actually, there are essentially two (integer) solutions to $5917 = x^2 + y^2$

eg. $z = 6+5i, w = 9+4i$: $5917 = |z|^2 |w|^2 = |zw|^2 = 34^2 + 69^2$

$zw = (6+5i)(9+4i)$
 $= 54 + 24i + 45i - 20$
 $= 34 + 69i$
(altogether 16 distinct solutions $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ satisfying $x^2 + y^2 = 5917$).

Complex numbers $\mathbb{C} = \{x+yi : x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$, $i = \sqrt{-1}$



If $z = x+yi$
 $w = u+vi$

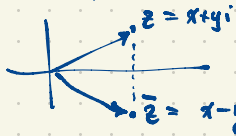
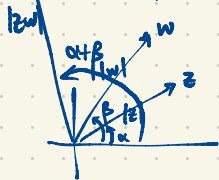
Then $z+w = (x+u) + (y+v)i$
 $zw = (x+yi)(u+vi) = xu + xvi + yui - yv$
 $= (xu-yv) + (xv+yu)i$

The real part of z is x
 The imaginary part of z is y .
 (Both parts are real numbers.)

$$|z| = \sqrt{x^2+y^2}$$

$$|w| = \sqrt{u^2+v^2}$$

$$|zw| = |z||w|$$



$\bar{z} = x-yi$ = (complex) conjugate of z

Conjugation is an automorphism of \mathbb{C} :

Also $z\bar{z} = (x+yi)(x-yi)$
 $= x^2+y^2 = |z|^2$
 $\bar{\bar{z}} = z$

$z \mapsto \bar{z}$ is bijective

$$\overline{z+w} = \bar{z} + \bar{w}$$

$$\overline{zw} = \bar{z}\bar{w}$$

$$|zw|^2 = zw\bar{z}\bar{w} = z\bar{z}\bar{w}w = |z|^2|w|^2$$

$$\Rightarrow |zw| = |z||w|$$

Coming up:

Which numbers can be written as a sum of two squares?
In how many ways can a number be written as a sum of two squares?
How difficult is it to find solutions of $x^2 + y^2 = n$?
For large prime numbers $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ then there is an essentially unique solution for $p = a^2 + b^2$ and there is a fast algorithm for finding it.

(If $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ then p is not a sum of two squares.)

But if n is a large composite number (more than one prime factor) then writing n as a sum of two squares is computationally hard, as hard as factoring n .

If $n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ then n is not a sum of two squares.

Which numbers are expressible as a sum of three or four squares?

6 is not a sum of two squares but it is a sum of three squares.
 $6 = 2^2 + 1^2 + 1^2$

7 is not a sum of 3 squares.

7 is a sum of 4 squares.