

Congruences

Arithmetical
functions

Primitive roots

Quadratic residues

Continued
fractions

Algebraic
Diophantine
Equations

Gaussian Integers

Number Theory, Lecture 13

Review

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TEKNISKA HÖGSKOLAN
LINKÖPINGS UNIVERSITET

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 $\mathbb{P} \ni n > 1.$

Definition

For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, we say that a is congruent to b modulo n ,

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n}$$

iff $n \mid (a - b)$.

Lemma

- $a \equiv a \pmod{n}$,
- $a \equiv b \pmod{n} \iff b \equiv a \pmod{n}$,
- $a \equiv b \pmod{n} \wedge b \equiv c \pmod{n} \implies a \equiv c \pmod{n}$.

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Theorem

If $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ then

$$ax \equiv b \pmod{n}$$

solvable; soln unique modulo n .

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Theorem (CRT)

If $\gcd(m, n) = 1$, then the system of eqns

$$x \equiv a \pmod{m}$$

$$x \equiv b \pmod{n}$$

(CRT)

is solvable; the soln unique modulo mn .

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Example

$$x \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$$

Solve first two eqns:

$$x = 1 + 2r \equiv 3 \pmod{2}$$

$$2r \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$$

$$r \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$$

$$r = 1 + 5s$$

$$x = 1 + 2(1 + 5s) = 3 + 10s$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{10}$$

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Example

Now to solve

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{10}$$

$$x \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$$

As before:

$$x = 3 + 10s \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$$

$$10s \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$$

$$5s \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

Find mult inverse of 5 modulo 7:

$$s \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$$

$$s = 3 + 7t$$

$$x = 3 + 10s = 3 + 10(3 + 7t)$$

$$= 33 + 70t$$

$$x \equiv 33 \pmod{70}$$

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Theorem (Euler)

If $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ then

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n} \quad (*)$$

Equivalently, $[a]_n^{\phi(n)} = [1]_n \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$.

Fermat: $n = p$ prime, $p \nmid a$, $\phi(p) = p - 1$.

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Example

What is the remainder when dividing 1247^{1231} with 7?

$$\begin{aligned}1248^{1231} &\equiv (178 * 7 + 2)^{205*6+1} \pmod{7} \\ &\equiv 2^{205*6+1} \pmod{7} \\ &\equiv 2^{205*6} * 2^1 \pmod{7} \\ &\equiv (2^6)^{205} * 2^1 \pmod{7} \\ &\equiv 1^{205} * 2^1 \pmod{7} \\ &\equiv 2 \pmod{7}\end{aligned}$$

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Theorem (Lagrange)

$f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$, $\deg(f(x)) = n$. Then $f(x)$ has at most n zeroes in \mathbb{Z}_p .

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- $m, n, r \in \mathbb{P}, c \in \mathbb{Z}, p$ prime
- $f(c) = 0$ implies $f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$, not conversely
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Example

$$x^2 + x + 5 \equiv 0 \pmod{77}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Modulo } 7: 0 &\equiv x^2 - 6x + 5 \equiv (x - 3)^2 - 9 + 5 \equiv (x - 3)^2 - 4 \equiv \\ &(x - 3 + 2)(x - 3 - 2) \equiv (x - 1)(x - 5) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Modulo } 11: 0 &\equiv x^2 - 10x + 5 \equiv (x - 5)^2 - 25 + 5 \equiv (x - 5)^2 - 9 \equiv \\ &(x - 5 + 3)(x - 5 - 3) \equiv (x - 2)(x - 8) \end{aligned}$$

Combine using CRT:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} x \equiv 1 \pmod{7} \\ x \equiv 2 \pmod{11} \end{array} \right\} \iff x \equiv 57 \pmod{77}$$

Three more solutions, find them as exercise!

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Lemma (Hensel's lemma)

- 1 p prime
- 2 $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$
- 3 $f(c) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^j}$
- 4 $f'(c) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$

Then there is a unique $t \pmod{p}$ such that

$$f(c + tp^j) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^{j+1}}$$

This t is the unique solution to

$$tf'(c) \equiv \frac{-f(c)}{p^j} \pmod{p}$$

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Example

- $p = 3$
- $f(x) = x^3 + 2$
- $f(1) \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$
- $f'(x) = 3x^2, f'(1) = 3 \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$
- Hensel: if it lifts, it lifts not uniquely
- In fact no soln modulo 9

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Euler, Fermat

Hensel Lifting

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Example

- $p = 5$
- $f(x) = x^3 + 2$
- f has no zeroes in \mathbb{Z} or \mathbb{Q} , but one in \mathbb{R} , and 3 zeroes in \mathbb{C}
- $f(2) \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$
- $f'(x) = 3x^2$, $f'(2) = 12 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{5}$
- Hensel: lifts uniquely to all powers of 5
- | p | p^2 | p^3 | p^4 | p^5 |
|-----|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 2 | 22 | 72 | 322 | 947 |

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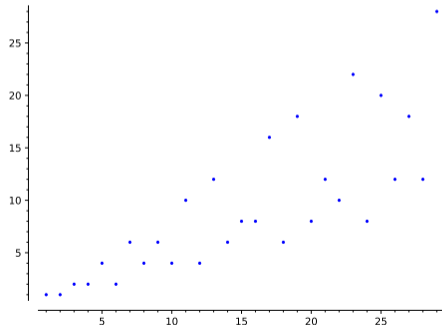
Gaussian Integers

Definition

An *arithmetical function* is a function $f : \mathbb{P} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$.

We will mostly deal with integer-valued a.f.

Euler ϕ is one:



Arithmetical functions defined by prime factorization

$$n = p_1^{a_1} \cdots p_r^{a_r}, \quad q_i \text{ distinct primes}$$

Liouville function λ , Möbius function μ :

$$\omega(n) = r$$

$$\Omega(n) = a_1 + \cdots + a_r$$

$$\lambda(n) = (-1)^{\Omega(n)}$$

$$\mu(n) = \begin{cases} \lambda(n) & \omega(n) = \Omega(n) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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Arithmetical functions related to divisors

d number of divisors, σ sum of divisors, and you know Euler ϕ .

$$d(n) = \sum_{k|n} 1$$

$$\sigma(n) = \sum_{k|n} k$$

$$\phi(n) = \sum_{\substack{1 \leq k < n \\ \gcd(k,n)=1}} 1$$

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Definition

Let f, g be arithmetical functions. Then their *Dirichlet convolution* is another a.f., defined by

$$(f * g)(n) = \sum_{\substack{1 \leq a, b \leq n \\ ab=n}} f(a)g(b) = \sum_{\substack{1 \leq k \leq n \\ k|n}} f(k)g(n/k) = \sum_{\substack{1 \leq \ell \leq n \\ \ell|n}} f(n/\ell)g(\ell)$$

(DC)

Example

$$(f * g)(10) = f(1)g(10) + f(2)g(5) + f(5)g(2) + f(10)g(1)$$

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Definition

- f is *totally multiplicative* if $f(nm) = f(n)f(m)$
- f is *multiplicative* if $f(nm) = f(n)f(m)$ whenever $\gcd(n, m) = 1$

Theorem

Let $n = \prod_j p_j^{a_j}$, prime factorization. Then

- If f mult then either $f = \mathbf{0}$ or $f(1) = 1$ and $f(n) = \prod_j f(p^j)$, i.e., f is determined by its values at prime powers
- If f tot mult then $f(n) = \prod_j f(p)^j$, i.e., f is determined by its values at primes

Proof.

Obvious! □

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Theorem (Möbius inversion)

① $\mathbf{1} * \mu = \mathbf{e}$

② $F(n) = \sum_{k|n} f(k)$ for all n iff $f(n) = \sum_{k|n} F(k)\mu(n/k)$ for all n

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Definition

The integer a is a *primitive root* modulo n if $[a]_n$ generates \mathbb{Z}_n^* , i.e., if it has multiplicative order $\phi(n)$.

Example

- 2 is a primitive root modulo 5, since

$$[2]_5^1 = [2], [2]_5^2 = [4], [2]_5^3 = [3], [2]_5^4 = [1]_5$$

- There are not primitive roots modulo 8, since \mathbb{Z}_8^* has $\phi(8) = 4$ elements, but no element has order > 2 :

*	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4
2	2	4	1	3
3	3	1	4	2
4	4	3	2	1

*	1	3	5	7
1	1	3	5	7
3	3	1	7	5
5	5	7	1	3
7	7	5	3	1

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Theorem

p prime. Then there exists a primitive root modulo p .

Proof.

- Ok when $p = 2$
- Assume p odd
- Factor $p - 1 = q_1^{a_1} \cdots q_r^{a_r}$
- $h_1(x) = x^{q_1^{a_1}} - 1$ has exactly $q_1^{a_1}$ roots
- $\hat{h}_1(x) = x^{q_1^{a_1-1}} - 1$ has exactly $q_1^{a_1-1}$ roots
- Exactly $q_1^{a_1} - q_1^{a_1-1}$ elems $v \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ with $v^{q_1^{a_1}} = 1$, $v^{q_1^{a_1-1}} \neq 1$
- These fellows have order $q_1^{a_1}$, pick one, u_1
- $u = u_1 u_2 \cdots u_r$
- $o(u) = o(u_1) \cdots o(u_r) = q_1^{a_1} \cdots q_r^{a_r} = p - 1$.



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Theorem

- p odd prime
- $k \in \mathbb{P}$
- Any primitive root mod p^k lifts to $2p^k$
- Thus, $n = 2p^k$ has primitive roots
- Primitive root modulo m iff m is 2 , 4 , p^k or $2p^2$

Proof.

Rosen!



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Definition

- p prime
- $p \nmid u$
- u is a quadratic residue modulo p if

$$x^2 \equiv u \pmod{p}$$

is solvable, a quadratic non-residue otherwise

Example

$p = 5$, squares	x	0	1	2	3	4
	x^2	0	1	4	4	1

1,4 q.r., 2,3 q.n.r. 0 square, not q.r.

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Definition

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & a \text{ q.r. w.r.t. } p \\ -1 & a \text{ q.n.r. w.r.t. } p \\ 0 & a \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \end{cases}$$

Usually, we only use $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. p is still an odd prime.

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Theorem

p odd prime, $a, b \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Then

- $\left(\frac{1}{p}\right) = 1$
- $\left(\frac{a^2}{p}\right) = 1$
- If $a \equiv b \pmod{p}$ then $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{p}\right)$
- $\left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \left(\frac{b}{p}\right)$

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Theorem (Euler criterion)

p odd prime, $P = (p - 1)/2$, $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Then

$$a^P \equiv \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \pmod{p}$$

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Theorem

$$\left(\frac{p-1}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) \equiv (-1)^P \pmod{p} \equiv \begin{cases} +1 & p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ -1 & p \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

Theorem

$$\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} +1 & p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8} \\ -1 & p \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{8} \end{cases}$$

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Theorem (Quadratic reciprocity) *p, q odd primes. Then*

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2} \frac{q-1}{2}}$$

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Example

Notation:

$$4 + \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{2}}}}} = [4, 2, 1, 1, 3, 2]$$

Convergents:

$$[4,] = 4, \quad [4, 2] = 4 + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{9}{2}$$

$$[4, 2, 1] = 4 + \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{1}} = \frac{13}{3}, \quad [4, 2, 1, 1] = 4 + \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1}}} = \frac{22}{5}$$

$$[4, 2, 1, 1, 3] = 4 + \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{3}}}} = \frac{79}{18}$$

$$[4, 2, 1, 1, 3, 2] = 4 + \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{2}}}}} = \frac{180}{41} = \frac{180 * 4}{41 * 4} = \frac{720}{164}$$

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- Assume a_0, a_1, \dots are positive real numbers (a_0 may be zero)
- For $0 \leq n \leq m$, the n th convergent of the continued fraction $[a_0, \dots, a_m]$ is $c_n = [a_0, \dots, a_n]$. These convergents for $n < m$ are also called *partial convergents*.
- $[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}, a_n] = \left[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-2}, a_{n-1} + \frac{1}{a_n} \right]$

Theorem

For each n with $-2 \leq n \leq m$, define real numbers p_n and q_n as follows:

$$\begin{array}{lll} p_{-2} = 0, & p_{-1} = 1, & p_0 = a_0 \\ q_{-2} = 1, & q_{-1} = 0, & q_0 = 1 \end{array}$$

and for $n \geq 1$,

$$\begin{array}{l} p_n = a_n p_{n-1} + p_{n-2} \\ q_n = a_n q_{n-1} + q_{n-2} \end{array}$$

Then, for $n \geq 0$ with $n \leq m$ we have

$$[a_0, \dots, a_n] = \frac{p_n}{q_n} = \frac{a_n p_{n-1} + p_{n-2}}{a_n q_{n-1} + q_{n-2}}$$

(the last equality for $n \geq 1$)

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The continued fraction process I

- Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and write

$$x = a_0 + t_0$$

with $a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $0 \leq t_0 < 1$. We call the number a_0 the floor of x , and we also sometimes write $a_0 = \lfloor x \rfloor$.

- If $t_0 \neq 0$, write

$$\frac{1}{t_0} = a_1 + t_1$$

with $a_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, $a_1 > 0$, and $0 \leq t_1 < 1$.

- Thus $t_0 = \frac{1}{a_1 + t_1} = [0, a_1 + t_1]$, which is a continued fraction expansion of t_0 , which need not be simple.

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The continued fraction process II

- Continue in this manner so long as $t_n \neq 0$ writing

$$\frac{1}{t_n} = a_{n+1} + t_{n+1}$$

with $a_{n+1} \in \mathbb{Z}$, $a_{n+1} > 0$, and $0 \leq t_{n+1} < 1$.

- We call this procedure, which associates to a real number x the sequence of integers a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots , the *continued fraction process*.

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Lemma

For every n such that a_n is defined, we have

$$x = [a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n + t_n],$$

and if $t_n \neq 0$, then $x = [a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n, \frac{1}{t_n}]$.

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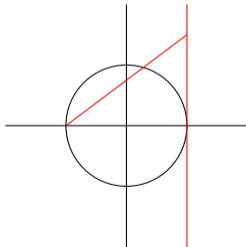
Theorem

(x, y, z) is a PPT with y even if and only if there exists integers $0 < n < m$, $m \not\equiv n \pmod{2}$, such that

$$x = m^2 - n^2$$

$$y = 2mn$$

$$z = m^2 + n^2$$



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Theorem

The positive integer $n = \prod_p p^{a_p}$ can be written as a sum of two squares iff a_p is even for all $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$.

Theorem

Every positive integer n can be written as the sum of four squares.

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Definition

- Pell's equation is the Diophantine equation in x, y

$$x^2 - dy^2 = 1$$

with d an integer

- Negative Pell is

$$x^2 - dy^2 = -1$$

- We also study the Pell-like equations

$$x^2 - dy^2 = n$$

where n is an integer

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Theorem

Suppose $0 < d$, $|n| < \sqrt{d}$, d not a square. If $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ satisfies $x^2 - dy^2 = n$, then x/y is a convergent of the CF of \sqrt{d} .

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Theorem

d positive integer, not square. Then the CF of $\sqrt{d} = [a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots]$, and the corresponding convergents p_k/q_k , can be computed as follows:

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \alpha_0 = \sqrt{d}, \quad a_0 = \lfloor \alpha_0 \rfloor, \quad P_0 = 0, \quad Q_0 = 1, \quad p_0 = a_0, q_0 = 1$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \alpha_k = \frac{P_k + \sqrt{d}}{Q_k}, \quad a_k = \lfloor \alpha_k \rfloor$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad P_{k+1} = a_k Q_k - P_k, \quad Q_{k+1} = (d - P_{k+1}^2) / Q_k$$

$$\textcircled{4}$$

$$P_{k+1} p_k - n q_k = -Q_{k+1} p_{k-1}$$

$$p_k - P_{k+1} q_k = Q_{k+1} q_{k-1}$$

For all k ,

$$p_k^2 - d q_k^2 = (-1)^{k+1} Q_{k+1}$$

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Theorem

d positive integer, not a square. Let $\sqrt{d} = [a_0, a_1, \dots]$, and let n be the period length of this periodic CF expansion. Let p_k/q_k be the k 'th convergent.

- If n even, negative Pell has no solns, and Pell $x^2 - dy^2 = 1$ has precisely the solns $x = p_{jn-1}$, $y = q_{jn-1}$, $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots$
- If n odd, negative Pell has precisely the solns $x = p_{(2j-1)n-1}$, $y = q_{(2j-1)n-1}$, $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots$, and Pell has precisely the solns $x = p_{2jn-1}$, $y = q_{2jn-1}$, $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

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Definition

$$\mathbb{Z}[i] = \{ a + ib \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \}$$

Lemma

- $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ subring of \mathbb{C}
- Not a subfield ($1/2 \notin \mathbb{Z}[i]$)
- Integral domain (no zero-divisors)
- Principal ideal domain
- Euclidean domain

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Lemma

$\alpha|\beta$ implies that $N(\alpha)|N(\beta)$

Corollary

- $N(\alpha) = 1$ iff α is a unit iff $\alpha \in \{\pm 1, \pm i\}$
- if $N(\alpha)$ is a (rational) prime, then α is irreducible.

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Theorem (Division algorithm)

If $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$, $\beta \neq 0$, then exists (not necessarily unique) $\gamma, \rho \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ such that

- ① $\alpha = \gamma\beta + \rho$,
- ② $N(\rho) < N(\beta)$, (in fact, can achieve $N(\rho) \leq \frac{1}{2}N(\beta)$)

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Theorem (Unique factorization)

If $0 \neq \alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$, then

$$\alpha = \pi_1 \cdots \pi_s$$

where the π_j 's are Gaussian primes. If furthermore

$$\alpha = q_1 \cdots q_t$$

is another factorization of α into Gaussian primes, then $t = s$, and there is some permutation $\sigma \in S_s$ such that $q_j = \epsilon_j \pi_{\sigma(j)}$ for $1 \leq j \leq s$, with $N(\epsilon_j) = 1$.

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Theorem

Every Gaussian prime α is associate to either

- ① $1 + i$
- ② π or $\bar{\pi}$, where $N(\pi) = p$ is a rational prime, $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$,
- ③ p , where p is a rational prime, $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$.

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Theorem

Let the positive integer n have prime factorization

$$n = 2^m \prod_{j=1}^s p_j^{e_j} \prod_{k=1}^t q_k^{f_k}$$

where the p_j 's are primes $\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, the q_k 's are primes $\equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, and all f_k 's are even.

Then the number of ways of writing n as a sum of two squares, counting signs and order, is

$$4 \prod_j (e_j + 1)$$

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Example

$$n = 5^2 = (2 + i)^2(2 - i)^2$$

Possible factors $u + iv$ are

$$(2+i)^2 = 3+4i, \quad i(2+i)^2 = -4+3i, \quad i^2(2+i)^2 = -3-4i, \quad i^3(2+i)^2 = 4-3i,$$

$$(2 + i)(2 - i) = 5$$

$$(2 - i)^2 = 3 - 4i$$

and 6 more, yielding $n = (\pm 5)^2 + 0^2 = (\pm 3)^2 + (\pm 4)^2 = (\pm 4)^2 + (\pm 3)^2$.

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Example

$$13 = (2 + 3i)(2 - 3i),$$

with factors

$$2 + 3i, -3 + 2i, -2 - 3i, 3 - 2i, 2 - 3i, 3 + 2i, -2 + 3i, -3 - 2i$$

Hence

$$5^2 * 13 = (2 + i)^2(2 - i)^2(2 + 3i)(2 - 3i),$$

one possible factor is

$$(2 + i)^2(2 + 3i) = (3 + 4i)(2 + 3i) = -6 + 17i$$

so

$$5^2 * 13 = (-6)^2 + 17^2.$$