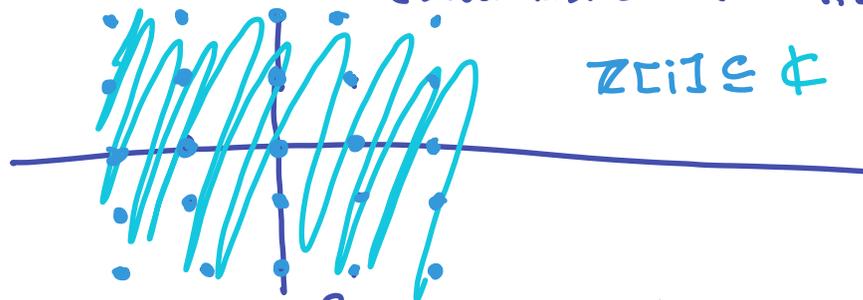


Math 4400  
Week 12, Thursday  
Gaussian primes and unique factorization.

Recall: Gaussian integers  $\mathbb{Z}[i] = a+bi$  with  
 $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .  
(Lives inside  $\mathbb{C} = \mathbb{R}[i]$ ).



$N(z) = z\bar{z} = \|z\|^2$  ← square of distance from origin.

if  $z = a+bi$   $N(z) = (a+bi)(a-bi) = a^2 + b^2$ .

$N(z_1 z_2) = N(z_1) N(z_2)$ .

$$N: \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{>0} \quad (\text{positive real numbers})$$

$$\mathbb{Z}[i] \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \quad (\text{positive integers}).$$

Crucial reformulation of  
sums of two squares problem:

Which positive integers  $n$  can be  
written as  $n = a^2 + b^2$ ,  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ?



$$n = a^2 + b^2$$



$$n = N(a+bi).$$

Which positive integers  $n$  can be  
written as  $n = N(z)$ ,  $z \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$

Allows us to use structure of  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$   
to study sums of 2 squares.

Today: unique factorization and primes in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$

Indecomposables, units, and primes.

Definition: A Gaussian integer  $z$  is indecomposable if

$z = \alpha\beta \Rightarrow \alpha$  or  $\beta$  is a unit in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ .  
(otherwise decomposable).

Example.  $\cdot$   $11$  is indecomposable in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ .  
( $11+0i$ ).

Suppose  $11 = \alpha\beta$   $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ .

$$N(11) = N(\alpha\beta) \Rightarrow 11^2 = N(\alpha)N(\beta)$$

Possibilities are:

$N(\alpha) = N(\beta) = 11$ : But if  $\alpha = a+bi$ ,  $11 = a^2 + b^2$   $\times$   
not possible -  $11 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ !

$N(\alpha) = 11^2$   $N(\beta) = 1$ .  $N(\beta) = 1$   $\beta = a+bi$ .

$(a+bi)(a-bi) = 1$  so  $\beta$  is a unit!

$N(\alpha) = 1$   $N(\beta) = 11^2$  similarly get  $\alpha$  is a unit!

Lemma: (1)  $z$  is a unit in  $\mathbb{Z}[i] \Leftrightarrow N(z) = 1$

$$\Leftrightarrow z \in \{1, -1, i, -i\}$$

(2) If  $N(z)$  is prime, then  $z$  is indecomposable.

$\uparrow$  Proof: (1) If  $N(z) = 1$   $z = a+bi$   $1 = N(z) = (a+bi)(a-bi)$   
so  $z$  is a unit.

$\Delta$  Can be indecom. but  $N$  not prime  
e.g.  $N(11) = 121$ .

If  $z$  is a unit, so there is  $t \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$

s.t.  $st = 1$  then  $N(s)N(t) = 1 \Rightarrow N(s) = N(t) = 1$ .

$1 = N(a+bi) = a^2 + b^2 \Rightarrow$  one of  $a, b$  is  $\pm 1$   
the other is zero.

(2) If  $N(z) = p$ ,  $z = \alpha\beta$ .

$$p = N(\alpha\beta) = N(\alpha)N(\beta) \Rightarrow N(\alpha)=1 \text{ or } N(\beta)=1$$

so by (1)  $\alpha$  or  $\beta$   
is a unit.

Example:

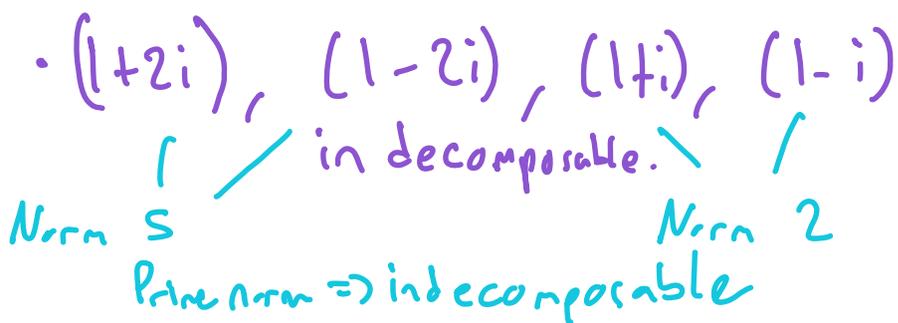
•  $10 = 5 \cdot 2$  is decomposable.

Decompose/Composite as an int.  $\Rightarrow$  decomposable Gaussian integer.

•  $5 = (1+2i)(1-2i)$  is decomposable.

Prime as an integer  $\nrightarrow$  indecomposable as a Gaussian integer.

•  $2 = (1+i)(1-i)$  is decomposable



Note:  $10 = (1+2i)(1-2i)(1+i)(1-i)$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_5 \quad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_2$

But  $1-i = (-i)(1+i)$ .

So also  $10 = (-i)(1+2i)(1-2i)(1+i)^2$

unit  $\uparrow$  "Prime factorization of  $10^{11}$ "

Definition: A Gaussian prime is a set of indecomposables in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  which

differ by multiplication by a unit.

Example:  $\{1, -1, i, -i\}$ .

$$\cdot \{1+2i, -1-2i, -2+i, 2-i\}$$

$$\cdot \{1-2i, -1+2i, 2+i, -2-i\}.$$

$$\cdot \{1+i, -1-i, -1+i, 1-i\}.$$

Theorem:

- (1) Any Gaussian prime contains exactly one indecomposable of the form
- $1+i$
  - $a+bi$  or  $a-bi$  where  $a > b$  are positive integers with  $a^2+b^2$  an integer prime  $\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .
  - $p$  an integer prime  $\equiv 3 \pmod{4}$

(2) Any Gaussian integer  $z$  has a unique factorization

$$z = i^m \gamma_1 \cdot \gamma_2 \cdot \dots \cdot \gamma_n$$

where  $\gamma_i$  are indecomposables as in (1)

unique up to reordering and  $m \in \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$ .

Corollary: A positive integer  $n$  is a sum of two squares  $\Leftrightarrow$

$n = p_1^{k_1} \cdots p_m^{k_m}$   
where  $p_i$  are distinct integer primes  
and  $k_i$  is even if  $p_i \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ .

Proof of corollary assuming theorem: Apply norm to unique factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ .

Just like for integers, proof of theorem boils down to a Euclidean algorithm for gcd (plus stuff from Tuesday for part (1)).

Exactly like Euclidean alg for integers using:

Division for Gaussian integers:

If  $\alpha, \beta$  are Gaussian integers,

$$\beta = q\alpha + \tau \quad \text{for } N(\tau) \leq \frac{N(\alpha)}{2}.$$

Proof/construction of  $q$ :

In  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $\frac{\beta}{\alpha} = \frac{\beta\bar{\alpha}}{N(\alpha)} = x + yi$ .  
 to get  $q$ , round  $x$  and  $y$  to nearest integers.

Example:  $\gcd(11+i, 61)$ .

$$61 = q_1(11+i) + \tau_1$$

In  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $\frac{61}{11+i} = \frac{61(11-i)}{122} = \frac{11}{2} + (-\frac{1}{2})i$   
 $\frac{61}{11+i} = \frac{61(11-i)}{122} = \frac{11}{2} - \frac{i}{2} \rightarrow q_1 = 6$ .

$$61 = 6(11+i) + (-5-6i).$$

$$(11+i) = q_2(-5-6i) + \tau_2$$

$$\frac{11+i}{-5-6i} = \frac{(11+i)(-5+6i)}{61} = \frac{(-61+61i)}{61} = -1+i$$

$$(11+i) = (-1+i)(-5-6i) + 0$$

$$-5-6i = \gcd(11+i, 61).$$

$$\text{Note: } |1 + i|^2 = 2 \cdot 61$$

$$N(-5 - 6i) = (-5)^2 + (-6)^2 = 61.$$