Math 4527 (Number Theory 2) Lecture #28 of 37 ∼ March 29, 2021

Factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]$ , and  $\mathcal{O}_{\sqrt{-3}}$ .

- Factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  and Sums of Two Squares
- Factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]$ , and  $\mathcal{O}_{\sqrt{-3}}$

This material represents §8.3.1-8.3.2 from the course notes.

## Recall

Last time, we proved the Kummer-Dedekind factorization theorem:

#### Theorem (Factorization of (p) in  $\mathcal{O}_D$ )

Let p be a prime and let

 $q(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 - D & \text{for } D \equiv 2, 3 \text{ mod } 4 \\ 2 & \text{for } D = 1, 3 \end{cases}$  $x^2 - x - (D-1)/4$  for  $D \equiv 1 \mod 4$ , where  $\omega =$  $\begin{cases} \sqrt{D} & \text{for } D \equiv 2, 3 \text{ mod } 4 \\ (1 + \sqrt{D})/2 & \text{for } D \equiv 1 \text{ mod } 4 \end{cases}$ is a root of  $q(x)$ . If the polynomial  $q(x)$  has a repeated root r modulo p then the ideal  $(p) = (p, \omega - r)^2$  is the square of a prime ideal of norm p in  $\mathcal{O}_D$ , if  $q(x)$  is irreducible modulo p then the ideal (p) is prime in

 $\mathcal{O}_D$  of norm  $p^2$ , and if  $q(x)$  is reducible with distinct roots r, r' modulo p, then  $(p) = (p, \omega - r) \cdot (p, \omega - r')$  factors as the product of two distinct ideals in  $\mathcal{O}_D$  each of norm p.

This theorem tells us how to find prime ideals in  $\mathcal{O}_D$ .

Now we will discuss factorization in the Gaussian integers  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , which we have already shown to be a Euclidean domain, a principal ideal domain, and a unique factorization domain.

- $\bullet$  We need only analyze the factorization of primes p, which is fully determined by the ideal factorization of  $(p)$  inside  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ .
- Because  $N(a + bi) = a^2 + b^2$ , factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is closely related to the question of writing an integer as the sum of two squares, and so by analyzing prime factorizations in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , we can classify the integers that can be written as the sum of two squares.

Our first task is to write down the irreducible elements in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ :

### Theorem (Irreducibles in  $\mathbb{Z}[i])$

Up to associates, the irreducible elements in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  are as follows:

- 1. The element  $1 + i$  (of norm 2).
- 2. The primes  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$  congruent to 3 modulo 4 (of norm  $p^2$ ).
- 3. The distinct irreducible factors  $a + bi$  and  $a bi$  (each of norm p) of  $p = a^2 + b^2$  where  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$  is congruent to  $1$  modulo 4.

There are various ways to prove this result using modular arithmetic (which I usually discuss in Math 3527), but we can establish this result directly from our theorem on factoring the ideal  $(p)$ .

# Factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , III

### Proof:

- Since  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is Euclidean, we may equivalently find the ideal factors of the ideals  $(p)$  for integer primes p, which we may do by factoring  $q(x) = x^2 + 1$  modulo p.
- For  $p = 2$  we have  $x^2 + 1 \equiv (x 1)^2$  mod 2. This gives the ideal factorization  $(2)=(2,i+1)^2$ , yielding the element factorization 2 =  $-(i + 1)^2$ .
- For  $p \equiv 3$  mod 4, we claim  $x^2 + 1$  is irreducible modulo p.
- To see this note that  $\left(\frac{-1}{-}\right)$ p  $\Big) \equiv (-1)^{(p-1)/2} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  by Euler's criterion, so  $-1$  is not a square mod p.
- Thus,  $(p)$  is prime in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , so the element p is irreducible and its norm is  $p^2$ .

# Factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , IV

Proof (continued):

- Finally, suppose  $p \equiv 1$  mod 4: then  $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)$  $\left(\frac{-1}{\rho}\right)\equiv(-1)^{(p-1)/2}\equiv1$ (mod  $p$ ) by Euler's criterion, so  $x^2 + 1$  factors modulo  $p$ , say as  $x^2 + 1 \equiv (x - r)(x + r)$  (mod p).
- This gives the ideal factorization  $(p) = (p, i r) \cdot (p, i + r)$ .
- Since  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is a PID, the ideal  $(p, i + r)$  is principal, say  $(a + bi)$  for some a, b which we can compute by applying the Euclidean algorithm to p and  $i + r$ . Then the conjugate ideal  $(p, r - i) = (p, i - r)$  is equal to  $(a - bi)$ .
- This yields the ideal factorization  $(p) = (a + bi)(a bi)$  and so we get the element factorization  $p = (a + bi)(a - bi)$  up to a unit factor, which by rescaling we may assume is 1.
- This means  $p = (a + bi)(a bi) = a^2 + b^2$ , and we have  $N(a + bi) = a<sup>2</sup> + b<sup>2</sup> = p = N(a - bi)$ , so both irreducible factors have norm  $p$  as claimed.

With the list of prime elements in hand, we can give a procedure for finding the prime factorization of an arbitrary Gaussian integer:

- First, find the prime factorization of  $N(a + bi) = a^2 + b^2$  over the integers  $\mathbb Z$ , and write down a list of all (rational) primes  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$  dividing  $N(a + bi)$ .
- $\bullet$  Second, for each  $p$  on the list, find the factorization of  $p$  over the Gaussian integers  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ .
- **•** Finally, use trial division to determine which of these irreducible elements divide  $a + bi$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , and to which powers. (The factorization of  $N(a + bi)$  can be used to determine the expected number of powers.)

## Example: Find the factorization of  $7 - 11i$  into irreducibles in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ .

Example: Find the factorization of  $7 - 11i$  into irreducibles in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ .

- We compute  $N(7 11i) = 7^2 + (-11)^2 = 170 = 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 17$ .
- Over  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , we find the factorizations  $2 = -i(1+i)^2$ ,  $5 = (2 + i)(2 - i)$ , and  $17 = (4 + i)(4 - i)$ .
- Now we just do trial division to find the correct elements dividing  $4 + 22i$ : we will get one copy of  $1 + i$ , one element from  $\{2 + i, 2 - i\}$ , and one from  $\{4 + i, 4 - i\}$ .
- Doing the trial division yields the factorization  $7 - 11i = -i(1 + i)(2 - i)(4 + i).$

Example: Find the factorization of  $4 + 22i$  into irreducibles in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ .

## Factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , VI

Example: Find the factorization of  $4 + 22i$  into irreducibles in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ .

- We compute  $\mathcal{N}(4+22i) = 4^2 + 22^2 = 2^2 \cdot 5^3.$  The primes dividing  $N(4 + 22i)$  are 2 and 5.
- Over  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , we find the factorizations  $2 = -i(1+i)^2$  and  $5 = (2 + i)(2 - i)$ .
- Now we just do trial division to find the correct powers of each of these elements dividing  $4 + 22i$ .
- Since  $N(4+22i)=2^2\cdot 5^3$ , we should get two copies of  $(1+i)$ and three elements from  $\{2+i, 2-i\}$ .
- Doing the trial division yields the factorization  $4+22i=-i\cdot(1+i)^2\cdot(2+i)^3$ . (Note that in order to have powers of the same irreducible element, we left the unit  $-i$  in front of the factorization.)

The primes appearing in the example above were small enough to factor over  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  by inspection, but if  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  is large then it is not so obvious how to factor p in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ . We briefly explain how to find this expression algorithmically.

- We have the ideal factorization  $(p) = (p, i + r) \cdot (p, i r)$  and then use the Euclidean algorithm to write  $(p, i + r) = (a + bi)$ . Thus, all we need to do is find a root r of the polynomial  $x^2+1$  (mod  $p$ ), which is equivalent to finding a square root of  $-1$  modulo  $p$ .
- We can do this using Euler's criterion: for any quadratic nonresidue  $u$  modulo  $p$ , Euler's criterion tells us that  $u^{(p-1)/2} \equiv -1$  (mod p), and so  $u^{(p-1)/4}$  will be a square root  $of -1$ .

There is no general formula for identifying a quadratic nonresidue modulo an arbitrary prime  $p$ , but we can just search small residue classes (or random residue classes) until we find one.

- $\bullet$  Indeed, we don't even need to test whether  $u$  is a quadratic residue: we can just try calculating  $u^{(p-1)/4}$ , which will either be a square root of  $-1$  or a square root of  $+1$ , but in the latter case we will get  $\pm 1$  and thus know we need to try a different u.
- Then, as noted on the last slide, to compute the solution to  $p = a^2 + b^2$  we can use the Euclidean algorithm in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  to find a greatest common divisor of p and  $r + i$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ : the result will be an element  $\pi = a + bi$  with  $a^2 + b^2 = p$ .

Example: Express the prime  $p = 3329$  as the sum of two squares using the fact that  $3^{(p-1)/4} \equiv 1729$  (mod p).

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- Our discussion on the last slides tells us that 1729 is a square root of  $-1$  modulo p: indeed, we can double-check by computing  $1729^2 + 1 = 898 \cdot 3329$ .
- Now we compute the gcd of  $1729 + i$  and 3329 in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  using the Euclidean algorithm:

$$
3329 = 2(1729 + i) + (-129 - 2i)
$$
  
\n
$$
1729 + i = -13(-129 - 2i) + (52 - 25i)
$$
  
\n
$$
-129 - 2i = (-2 - i)(52 - 25i)
$$

• The last nonzero remainder is  $52 - 25i$ , and indeed we can see that  $3329 = 52^2 + 25^2$ .

As a corollary to our characterization of the irreducible elements in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , we can deduce the following theorem of Fermat on when an integer is the sum of two squares:

#### Theorem (Fermat's Characterization of Sums of Two Squares)

Let n be a positive integer, and write  $n = 2^k p_1^{n_1} \cdots p_k^{n_k} q_1^{m_1} \cdots q_d^{m_d}$ where  $p_1, \dots, p_k$  are distinct primes congruent to 1 modulo 4 and  $q_1, \dots, q_d$  are distinct primes congruent to 3 modulo 4. Then n can be written as a sum of two squares in  $\mathbb Z$  if and only if all the  $m<sub>i</sub>$  are even. Furthermore, in this case, the number of ordered pairs of integers  $(A, B)$  such that  $n = A^2 + B^2$  is equal to  $4(n_1+1)(n_2+1)\cdots(n_k+1)$ .

### Proof:

- $\bullet$  Observe that the question of whether *n* can be written as the sum of two squares  $n=A^2+B^2$  is equivalent to the question of whether *n* is the norm of a Gaussian integer  $A + Bi$ .
- Write  $A + Bi = \rho_1 \rho_2 \cdots \rho_r$  as a product of irreducibles (unique up to units), and take norms to obtain  $n = N(\rho_1) \cdot N(\rho_2) \cdot \cdots \cdot N(\rho_r).$
- By our classification, if  $\rho$  is irreducible in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , then  $N(\rho)$  is either 2, a prime congruent to 1 modulo 4, or the square of a prime congruent to 3 modulo 4. Hence there exists such a choice of  $\rho_i$  with  $n=\prod \mathcal{N}(\rho_i)$  if and only if all the  $m_i$  are even.

## Proof (continued):

- For the counting, since the factorization of  $A + Bi$  is unique, to find the number of possible pairs  $(A, B)$ , we need only count the number of ways to select terms for  $A + Bi$  and  $A - Bi$  from the factorization of *n* over  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , which is  $n = i^{-k} (1+i)^{2k} (\pi_1 \overline{\pi_1})^{n_1} \cdots (\pi_k \overline{\pi_k})^{n_k} q_1^{m_1} \cdots q_d^{m_d}$ .
- Up to associates, we must choose  $A + Bi = (1 + i)^k (\pi_1^{a_1} \overline{\pi_1}^{b_1}) \cdots (\pi_k^{a_k} \overline{\pi_k}^{b_k}) q_1^{m_1/2}$  $q_1^{m_1/2} \cdots q_d^{m_d/2}$ ,‴d/∠<br>d where  $a_i + b_i = n_i$  for each  $1 \leq i \leq k$ .
- Since there are  $n_i + 1$  ways to choose the pair  $(a_i, b_i)$ , and 4 ways to multiply  $A + Bi$  by a unit, the total number of ways is  $4(n_1 + 1) \cdots (n_k + 1)$ , as claimed.

## Sums of Two Squares, IV

Example: Find all ways of writing  $n = 6649 = 61 \cdot 109$  as the sum of two squares.

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- Note *n* is the product of two primes each congruent to 1 modulo 4, so it can be written as the sum of two squares in 16 different ways.
- We compute  $61=5^2+6^2$  and  $109=10^2+3^2$  (either by the algorithm earlier or by inspection), so the 16 ways can be found from the different ways of choosing one of  $5 \pm 6i$  and multiplying it with  $10 \pm 3i$ .
- Explicitly:  $(5 + 6i)(10 + 3i) = 32 + 75i$ , and  $(5 + 6i)(10 - 3i) = 68 + 45i$ , so we obtain the sixteen ways of writing 6649 as the sum of two squares as  $(\pm 32)^2 + (\pm 75)^2$ ,  $(\pm 68)^2 + (\pm 45)^2$ , and the eight other decompositions with the terms interchanged.

We can use a similar approach to the one we used in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  to study Factorization in  $\mathcal{O}_{\sqrt{-2}} = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$  $\sqrt{2}$ ] and  $\mathcal{O}_{\sqrt{-3}} = \mathbb{Z}[\frac{1+\sqrt{-3}}{2}]$  $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$ , which in turn allows us to characterize the integers of the form  $a^2+2b^2$  and  $a^2 + 3b^2$ .

- $\mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{Z}}$   $\cdot$   $\mathbb{V}$  will start with  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$ −2].
- By using a similar proof to the one we used for  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , we can establish that  $\mathcal{O}_{\sqrt{-2}}$  is a Euclidean domain, hence is also a PID and a UFD.

• Also, the units in 
$$
\mathcal{O}_{\sqrt{-2}}
$$
 are simply  $\pm 1$ .

#### Factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[$ −2], II

Our first task is to write down the irreducible elements:

Theorem (Irreducibles in  $\mathcal{O}_{\sqrt{-2}}$ )

Up to associates, the irreducible elements in  $\mathcal{O}_{\sqrt{-2}}$  are as follows:

- 1. The element  $\sqrt{-2}$  (of norm 2).
- 2. The primes  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$  congruent to 5 or 7 modulo 8 (of norm  $p^2$ ).
- 3. The distinct irreducible factors  $a + b$ √  $-2$  and a  $- b$ √  $-2$ (each of norm p) of  $p = a^2 + 2b^2$  where  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$  is congruent to 1 or 3 modulo 8.

The proof of this theorem is essentially the same as the one for the Gaussian integers, except that we have to factor  $x^2 + 2$  modulo  $p$ rather than  $x^2 + 1$ .

#### Factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[$ −2], III

### Proof:

- ∸<br>Since ℤ[√ −2] is Euclidean, we may equivalently find the ideal factors of the ideals  $(p)$  for integer primes p, which we may do by factoring  $q(x) = x^2 + 2$  modulo p.
- For  $p = 2$  we have  $x^2 + 2 \equiv x^2$  mod 2, so we get the ideal For  $p = z$  we have  $x + z = x$  mod 2, so we get the ideal<br>factorization  $(2) = (\sqrt{-2})^2$ , yielding the element factorization  $2 = -(\sqrt{-2})^2$ .
- For  $p \equiv 5$  or 7 mod 8, the polynomial  $x^2 + 2$  is irreducible modulo p: from one of the "secondary" relations from quadratic reciprocity, we know that  $-2$  is a square modulo p if and only if p is congruent to 1 or 3 mod 8. Thus, for  $p \equiv 5$  or 7 mod 8, the ideal  $(p)$  is prime, so the element p is also prime.

#### Factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[$ −2], IV

### Proof (continued):

- If  $p \equiv 1$  or 3 mod 8, the polynomial  $x^2+2$  factors modulo  $p$ , say as  $x^2 + 2 \equiv (x - r)(x + r) \pmod{p}$ . Then we get the ideal factorization  $(p)=(p,\sqrt{-2}-r)\cdot (p,\sqrt{-2}+r).$
- Since Z[ √  $[-2]$  is a PID, we have  $(\rho,$ √  $(-2 + r) = (a + b)$ √  $^{(-2)}$ for some  $a, b$  that we can compute by applying the Euclidean algorithm to p and  $\sqrt{-2} + r$ . The conjugate ideal  $(p, r - \sqrt{-2}) = (p, \sqrt{-2} - r)$  is then  $(a - b\sqrt{-2}).$
- This yields the ideal factorization  $p(n) = (a + b\sqrt{-2})(a - b\sqrt{-2})$  and so we get the element factorization  $p=(a+b\sqrt{-2})(a-b\sqrt{-2})$  up to a unit factor, which by rescaling we may assume is 1. √ √
- Then  $p=(a+b)$  $(-2)(a - b)$  $=(a + b\sqrt{-2})(a - b\sqrt{-2}) = a^2 + 2b^2$ , and we have  $N(a + b\sqrt{-2}) = a^2 + 2b^2 = p = N(a - b\sqrt{-2})$ , so both irreducible factors have norm  $p$  as claimed.

#### Factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[$ −2], V

We can use the same general factorization procedure as in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  to vve can use the same general ractorizations<br>compute element factorizations in ℤ[√ −2].

- First, find the prime factorization of  $N(a + b)$ √  $\sqrt{-2}$ ) =  $a^2 + 2b^2$ over the integers  $\mathbb{Z}$ , and write down a list of all (rational) primes  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$  dividing  $N(a + b\sqrt{-2}).$
- $\bullet$  Second, for each p on the list, find the factorization of p in  $\sigma$  second, for eac<br>the ring in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$  $\overline{-2}$ ], which we can do by solving  $p = a^2 + 2b^2$ in integers a, b for  $p \equiv 1, 3 \pmod{8}$ .
- $\bullet$  We can find this factorization by inspection for small  $p$ , and for large  $p$  we can find a solution by solving the quadratic  $r^2 \equiv -D \pmod{p}$  and then using the Euclidean algorithm to  $r = -D$  (mod *p*) and then using the Euchdean algorithm<br>compute the gcd  $a + b\sqrt{-D}$  of *p* and  $\sqrt{-D} + r$  in  $\mathcal{O}_{\sqrt{-D}}$ .
- Finally, use trial division to determine which irreducible elements divide  $\emph{a}+\emph{b}\sqrt{-D}$  in  $\mathcal{O}_{\sqrt{-D}}$  and to which powers.

#### Factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[$ −2], VI

#### <u>Example</u>: Find the prime factorization of 47 + 32 $\sqrt{-2}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$  $[-2]$ .

#### Factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[$ −2], VI

<u>Example</u>: Find the prime factorization of 47 + 32 $\sqrt{-2}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$  $[-2]$ .

We compute  $N(47 + 32\sqrt{-2}) = 47^2 + 2 \cdot 32^2 = 3^2 \cdot 11 \cdot 43$ , so the primes dividing the norm are 3, 11, and 43.

• Over 
$$
\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]
$$
, we find the factorizations  
\n $3 = 1^2 + 2 \cdot 1^2 = (1 + \sqrt{-2})(1 - \sqrt{-2})$ ,  
\n $11 = 3^2 + 2 \cdot 1^2 = (3 + \sqrt{-2})(3 - \sqrt{-2})$  and  
\n $43 = 5^2 + 2 \cdot 3^2 = (5 + 3\sqrt{-2})(5 - 3\sqrt{-2})$ .

- Now we just do trial division to find the correct powers of Now we just do that division to find the correct powers of each of these elements dividing  $47 + 32\sqrt{-2}$ : we will get two of  $1\pm$ √  $-2$  and one each of 3  $\pm$ √  $-2$  and  $5 \pm 3$ √  $^{(-2)}$
- Doing the trial division yields the factorization  $47 + 32\sqrt{-2} = (1 + \sqrt{-2})^2(3 - \sqrt{-2})(5 - 3)$  $^{\rm{H}}$  ,  $(-2)$ .

We can use our characterization of primes in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$ −2] to describe the integers that can be represented by the quadratic form  $a^2 + 2b^2$ :

### Theorem (Integers of the Form  $a^2 + 2b^2$ )

Let n be a positive integer, and write  $n = 2^k p_1^{n_1} \cdots p_k^{n_k} q_1^{m_1} \cdots q_d^{m_d}$ where  $p_1, \dots, p_k$  are distinct primes congruent to 1 or 3 modulo 8 and  $q_1, \dots, q_d$  are distinct primes congruent to 5 or 7 modulo 8. Then n can be written in the form  $a^2 + 2b^2$  for integers a, b if and only if all the m<sub>i</sub> are even. Furthermore, in this case, the number of ordered pairs of integers  $(A, B)$  such that  $n = A^2 + 2B^2$  is equal to  $2(n_1 + 1)(n_2 + 1) \cdots (n_k + 1)$ .

#### Factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[$ −2], VIII

### Proof:

- The question of whether *n* can be written as  $n = A^2 + 2B^2$  is equivalent to the question of whether  $n$  is the norm of an element  $A+B$  $\sqrt{-2}$  ∈  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$ −2].
- Write  $A + B$ √  $-2 = \rho_1 \rho_2 \cdots \rho_r$  as a product of irreducibles (unique up to units), and take norms to obtain  $n = N(\rho_1) \cdot N(\rho_2) \cdot \cdots \cdot N(\rho_r).$
- $B$ y the classification of primes in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$  $\gamma$  the classification of primes in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]$ , if  $\rho$  is irreducible in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]$ , then  $\mathcal{N}(\rho)$  is either 2, a prime congruent to  $1$  or  $3$ modulo 8, or the square of a prime congruent to 5 or 7 modulo 8. Hence there exists such a choice of  $\rho_i$  with  $n = \prod N(\rho_i)$  if and only if all the  $m_i$  are even.

#### Factorization in  $\mathbb{Z}[$ −2], IX

## Proof (continued):

- For the counting, since the factorization of  $A+B$ √ −2 is unique, to find the number of possible pairs  $(A, B)$ , we need only count the number of ways to select terms for  $A + B\sqrt{-2}$ and  $A - B\sqrt{-2}$  from the factorization of *n* over  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]$ , which is  $n = (-1)^k (\sqrt{-2})^{2k} (\pi_1 \overline{\pi_1})^{n_1} \cdots (\pi_k \overline{\pi_k})^{n_k} q_1^{\overline{n_1}} \cdots q_d^{\overline{n_d}}.$
- Up to associates, we must choose  $A + B$ associates, we must choose<br>  $\sqrt{-2} = (\sqrt{-2})^k (\pi_1^{a_1} \overline{\pi_1}^{b_1}) \cdots (\pi_k^{a_k} \overline{\pi_k}^{b_k}) q_1^{m_1/2}$  $q_1^{m_1/2} \cdots q_d^{m_d/2}$ ,‴d/∠<br>d where  $a_i + b_i = n_i$  for each  $1 \leq i \leq k$ .
- Since there are  $n_i + 1$  ways to choose the pair  $(a_i, b_i)$ , and 2 ways to multiply  $A+B\sqrt{-2}$  by a unit, the total number of ways is  $2(n_1 + 1) \cdots (n_k + 1)$ , as claimed.

Example: Determine whether 21, 101, and 292 can be written in the form  $a^2+2b^2$  for integers  $\emph{a}$  and  $\emph{b}$ .

Example: Determine whether 21, 101, and 292 can be written in the form  $a^2+2b^2$  for integers  $\emph{a}$  and  $\emph{b}$ .

- We have  $21 = 3 \cdot 7$ . Since there is a prime congruent to 7 mod 8 that occurs to an odd power, 21 is not of the form  $a^2 + 2b^2$ .
- The integer 101 is prime, and it is congruent to 5 modulo 8. Therefore, it cannot be written in the form  $a^2 + 2b^2$ .
- We have  $292 = 2^2 \cdot 73$ . Since 73 is congruent to 1 modulo 8, each odd prime is congruent to 1 or 3 modulo 8, so 292 can be written in the form  $a^2 + 2b^2$ .

We characterized the primes in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , described how to compute factorizations in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ , and characterized the integers that are sums of two squares.

 $\cdot$  . ... equates:<br>We characterized the primes in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$ he primes in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]$ , described how to compute factorizations in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]$ , and characterized the integers of the form  $a^2 + 2b^2$ .

Next lecture: Factorization in  $\mathcal{O}_{\sqrt{-3}}$ , Diophantine equations