# Quadratic Forms, Sums of Three Squares 

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## Introduction

(1) Introduction to Quadratic Forms
(2) Classification of Binary Quadratic Forms
(3) Classification of Ternary Quadratic Forms
(9) Sums of Three Squares

## Introduction to Quadratic Forms I

Ex An example of an equivalence relation is $A \sim B \Longleftrightarrow a-b \equiv 0$ $(\bmod 2)$.

Say that two matrices $A, B \in M_{n}(\mathbb{Z})$ are equivalent

$$
A \sim B \Longleftrightarrow B=A \cdot U=U^{T} A U
$$

for some $U \in S L_{n}(\mathbb{Z})$.
This equivalence relation preserves determinants, so $A \sim B \Longrightarrow$ $\operatorname{det}(A)=\operatorname{det}(B)$

$$
\Longrightarrow \operatorname{det}(A \cdot U)=\operatorname{det}\left(U^{T} A U\right)=\operatorname{det}\left(U^{T}\right) \operatorname{det}(A) \operatorname{det}(U)=\operatorname{det}(A)
$$

## Introduction to Quadratic Forms II

The equivalence classes constructed by the equivalence relation partition the set of symmetric matrices in $M_{n}(\mathbb{Z})$ into equivalence classes based on their determinant.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Ex Let } U=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 2 \\
2 & 5
\end{array}\right) \text { and } A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
1 & 2
\end{array}\right) \\
& \qquad B=U^{T} A U=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 2 \\
2 & 5
\end{array}\right) \cdot\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
1 & 2
\end{array}\right) \cdot\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 2 \\
2 & 5
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
13 & 31 \\
31 & 74
\end{array}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Introduction to Quadratic Forms III

Def Each $n \times n$ symmetric matrix $A$ (where the entry in the ith row and jth column is $a_{i, j}$ ) has an associated Quadratic Form $F_{A}$ :

$$
F_{A}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{i, j} x_{i} x_{j} .
$$

We can think of the $x_{i}$ 's as entries in a column vector, $x$. This allows us to write the quadratic form as $F_{A}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=x^{T} A x$.

We say that two forms are equivalent if their associated matrices are equivalent and so

$$
A \sim B \Longleftrightarrow F_{A} \sim F_{B}
$$

## Introduction to Quadratic Forms IV

Ex The identity matrix $I_{2}$ has an associated Quadratic Form $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
F_{A}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) & =\left(\begin{array}{ll}
x_{1} & x_{2}
\end{array}\right) \cdot\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \cdot\binom{x_{1}}{x_{2}} \\
& =\left(\begin{array}{ll}
x_{1} & x_{2}
\end{array}\right) \cdot\binom{x_{1}}{x_{2}} \\
& =x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Introduction to Quadratic Forms V

We say that $F_{A}$ represents $N$ if $\exists x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ such that $F_{A}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=x^{T} A x=N$, where $N, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Ex The quadratic form $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}$ represents $13=2^{2}+3^{2}$ but not 7 .

Any two quadratic forms in the same equivalence class represent the same integers.

$$
\Longrightarrow F_{A}(x)=x^{T} A x=x^{T} U^{T} B U x=(U x)^{T} B(U x)=F_{B}(U x)
$$

## Introduction to Quadratic Forms VI

Def The quadratic form $F_{A}$ is called Positive-Definite if $F_{A}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \geq 1$ for all $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \neq(0, \ldots, 0)$. Every form equivalent to a positive-definite quadratic form is positive-definite.

Def A Binary quadratic form is over two variables $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ and a Ternary quadratic form is over three.

## Binary Quadratic Forms I

Def The discriminant of the quadratic form $F_{A}$ is the determinant of the matrix $A$.

In this section we will be classifying binary quadratic forms, in particular, by proving that every positive-definite binary quadratic form of discriminant 1 is equivalent to the form $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}$.

This is mainly useful in helping us understand ternary quadratic forms, which we will ultimately use in our proof about the sums of three squares.

## Binary Quadratic Forms II

## Lemma 1

Let

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} \\
a_{1,2} & a_{2,2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

be a $2 \times 2$ symmetric matrix and let

$$
F_{A}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=a_{1,1} x_{1}^{2}+2 a_{1,2} x_{1} x_{2}+a_{2,2} x_{2}^{2}
$$

be the quadratic form. $F_{A}$ is positive definite if and only if $a_{1,1} \geq 1$ and the discriminant $d$ satisfies

$$
d=\operatorname{det}(A)=a_{1,1} a_{2,2}-a_{1,2}^{2} \geq 1
$$

To prove an if and only if, we prove the forward and converse direction. First, we assume $F_{A}$ is positive-definite then show that the conditions are satisfied. Second, we assume the conditions are satisfied and show that $F_{A}$ is positive-definite.

## Binary Quadratic Forms III

## Lemma 1

Let

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} \\
a_{1,2} & a_{2,2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

be a $2 \times 2$ symmetric matrix and let

$$
F_{A}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=a_{1,1} x_{1}^{2}+2 a_{1,2} x_{1} x_{2}+a_{2,2} x_{2}^{2}
$$

be the quadratic form. $F_{A}$ is positive definite if and only if $a_{1,1} \geq 1$ and the discriminant $d$ satisfies

$$
d=\operatorname{det}(A)=a_{1,1} a_{2,2}-a_{1,2}^{2} \geq 1
$$

- $F_{A}$ is positive definite $\Longrightarrow F_{A}(1,0)=a_{1,1} \geq 1$
- $F_{A}$ is positive definite $\Longrightarrow F_{A}\left(-a_{1,2}, a_{1,1}\right)=a_{1,1}\left(a_{1,1} a_{2,2}-a_{1,2}^{2}\right)$ $=a_{1,1} d \geq 1$.
$d$ must be an integer and it can not be 0 or negative, otherwise $a_{1,1} d$ would be 0 or negative. Thus, $d \geq 1$.


## Binary Quadratic Forms IV

## Lemma 1

Let

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} \\
a_{1,2} & a_{2,2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

be a $2 \times 2$ symmetric matrix and let

$$
F_{A}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=a_{1,1} x_{1}^{2}+2 a_{1,2} x_{1} x_{2}+a_{2,2} x_{2}^{2}
$$

be the quadratic form. $F_{A}$ is positive definite if and only if $a_{1,1} \geq 1$ and the discriminant $d$ satisfies

$$
d=\operatorname{det}(A)=a_{1,1} a_{2,2}-a_{1,2}^{2} \geq 1
$$

If $a_{1,1} \geq 1$ and $d \geq 1$, then

$$
a_{1,1} F_{A}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=\left(a_{1,1} x_{1}+a_{1,2} x_{2}\right)^{2}+d x_{2}^{2} \geq 0
$$

Thus, if $a_{1,1} \geq 1$ and $d \geq 1, F_{A}$ is positive definite. $\left(F_{A}=0\right.$ ?) $\square$

## Binary Quadratic Forms V

The conditions we outlined in Lemma 1 then help us prove Lemma 2:

## Lemma 2

Every equivalence class of positive definite binary quadratic forms of discriminant $d$ contains at least one form

$$
F_{B}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=b_{1,1} x_{1}^{2}+2 b_{1,2} x_{1} x_{2}+b_{2,2} x_{2}^{2}
$$

for which

$$
2\left|b_{1,2}\right| \leq b_{1,1} \leq \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \sqrt{d}
$$

This proof is quite technical and so for time's sake I will simply outline it here. The details of the proof can be found in Nathanson $\S 1.3$ (Lemma 1.2) or in my lecture notes.

## Binary Quadratic Forms VI

## Lemma 2

Every equivalence class of positive definite binary quadratic forms of discriminant d contains at least one form

$$
F_{B}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=b_{1,1} x_{1}^{2}+2 b_{1,2} x_{1} x_{2}+b_{2,2} x_{2}^{2}
$$

for which

$$
2\left|b_{1,2}\right| \leq b_{1,1} \leq \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \sqrt{d}
$$

- I take arbitrary matrix $A$ and construct a subsequent matrix $U \in S L_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$.
- When I conjugate $A$ by $U$, I get a matrix $B=U^{T} A U$ which is positive-definite.
- I am then able to prove the inequality in the lemma, using a combination of clever algebraic manipulation and the properties outlined in Lemma 1


## Binary Quadratic Forms VII

Thm Every positive-definite binary quadratic form of discriminant 1 is equivalent to the form $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}$.

Let $F$ be some arbitrary positive-definite binary quadratic form of discriminant 1. By Lemma 2, the form $F$ is equivalent to a form $a_{1,1} x_{1}^{2}+2 a_{1,2} x_{1} x_{2}+a_{2,2} x_{2}^{2}$ for which

$$
2\left|a_{1,2}\right| \leq a_{1,1} \leq \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \sqrt{d}
$$

- Since $a_{1,1} \geq 1, d=1$, and $a_{1,1} \leq \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \sqrt{d}$, we must have $a_{1,1}=1$
- If $a_{1,1}=1$ and $2\left|a_{1,2}\right| \leq a_{1,1}$, we have that $a_{1,2}=0$
- Since $d=1$, it follows that $a_{2,2}=a_{1,1} a_{2,2}-a_{1,2}^{2}=1$.

Plugging $a_{2,2}=1, a_{1,2}=0, a_{1,1}=1$ into our quadratic form, we get that the form $F$ is equivalent to $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}$ and we are done.

## Ternary Quadratic Forms

Details of the classification of Ternary Quadratic Forms can be found in Nathanson §1.4. However, the general proof structure is similar and we end up proving a similar result.

Thm Every positive-definite ternary quadratic form of discriminant 1 is equivalent to the form $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+x_{3}^{2}$.

## Sums of Three Squares I

In this section we will ultimately look to classify integers that can be written as the sum of three squares:

Thm A positive integer $N$ can be represented as the sum of three squares if and only if $N$ is not of the form $N=4^{a}(8 k+7)$

We require three preliminary 'ingredients' to prove this. We will, of course, use the theorem we just stated:

Thm Every positive-definite ternary quadratic form of discriminant 1 is equivalent to the form $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+x_{3}^{2}$.
as well as Gauss's law of quadratic reciprocity, and Dirichlet's theorem on primes in arithmetic progressions. (see next slide)

## Sums of Three Squares II

Def If $a$ is a Quadratic Residue modulo $m$, it means that there is some $n$ such that $n^{2} \equiv a(\bmod m)$.

Ex 4 is a quadratic residue modulo 8 because $6^{2} \equiv 4(\bmod 8)$. As is $2^{2}$.

## Sums of Three Squares III

## Law of Quadratic Reciprocity

Let $p$ and $q$ be distinct odd prime numbers, and define the Legendre symbol as:

$$
\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } n^{2} \equiv q \bmod p \text { for some integer } n \\ -1 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Using the Legendre symbol, the quadratic reciprocity law can be stated concisely: $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)=(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2} \cdot \frac{q-1}{2}}$
$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)=\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)$ if $p$ or $q \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$
$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)=1$ if and only if $p \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$
Further, the Legendre Symbol is multiplicative: $\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)\left(\frac{c}{d}\right)=\left(\frac{a c}{b d}\right)$

## Sums of Three Squares IV

## Dirichlet's Theorem on Primes in Arithmetic Progressions

For fixed $a, q \in \mathbb{N}, a, q$ coprime, there are infinitely many primes of the form $a+q n$, i.e. there are infinitely many primes congruent to $a \bmod q$.

Ex There are infinitely many primes congruent to $1(\bmod 4)$ but finitely many primes congruent to $2(\bmod 4)$.

## Sums of Three Squares V

## Lemma 3

Let $n \geq 2$. If there exists a positive integer $d^{\prime}$ such that $-d^{\prime}$ is a quadratic residue modulo $d^{\prime} n-1$, then $n$ can be represented as the sum of three squares.

Recall that $-d^{\prime}$ is a quadratic residue modulo $d^{\prime} n-1$ if there is some $n$ such that $x^{2}=-d^{\prime}\left(\bmod d^{\prime} n-1\right)$.

Let $m=d^{\prime} n-1$.

- By definition, $\exists x \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x^{2} \equiv-d^{\prime}(\bmod m)$. So for some $y$, we can also say $x^{2}=m y-d^{\prime} \Longrightarrow d^{\prime}=m y-x^{2}$.
- We assumed in the lemma that $n \geq 2$ and $d^{\prime} \geq 1$. Thus, $m=d^{\prime} n-1 \geq 2 d^{\prime}-1 \geq 1$.


## Sums of Three Squares VI

We can now construct a symmetric matrix $A$ which corresponds to a ternary form $F_{A}$ which represents $n$ and has discriminant 1 . Given this matrix and using the previously stated theorem,

Thm Every positive-definite ternary quadratic form of discriminant 1 is equivalent to the form $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+x_{3}^{2}$.
we know that this means $n$ can be written as the sum of three squares. (See Lemma 1.3 in Nathanson for proof that $A$ is also positive-definite).

## Sums of Three Squares VII

## Lemma 3

Let $n \geq 2$. If there exists a positive integer $d^{\prime}$ such that $-d^{\prime}$ is a quadratic residue modulo $d^{\prime} n-1$, then $n$ can be represented as the sum of three squares.

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
y & x & 1 \\
x & m & 0 \\
1 & 0 & n
\end{array}\right)
$$

Recall from earlier in the proof that $d^{\prime}=m y-x^{2}$.

- $\operatorname{det}(A)=\left(m y-x^{2}\right) n-m=d^{\prime} n-m$
- We defined $m=d^{\prime} n-1$ and so $\operatorname{det}(A)=1$.

This matrix has determinant 1 and thus $F_{A}$ has discriminant 1 . If we let $x$ be $(0,0,1)$ then $F_{A}(0,0,1)=n$. We are thus done.

## Sums of Three Squares VIII

## Lemma 4

If $n$ is a positive integer and $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$, then $n$ can be represented as the sum of three squares.

Since $4 n$ and $n-1$ are coprime, we can use Dirichlet's Theorem to say that there are infinitely many primes congruent to $n-1 \bmod 4 n$.

Choose $j \geq 1$ such that $p=4 n j+n-1=(4 j+1) n-1$ is prime. Let $d^{\prime}=4 j+1$ and since $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$,

$$
p=d^{\prime} n-1 \equiv 1(\bmod 4)
$$

## Sums of Three Squares IX

By Lemma 3, we just need to show that $-d^{\prime}$ is a quadratic residue $\bmod p$ in order to show that $n$ can be represented as the sum of three squares. If we say that $q_{i}$ are the distinct primes dividing $d^{\prime}$, then we have

$$
p=d^{\prime} n-1 \equiv-1\left(\bmod q_{i}\right) .
$$

This is because $p$ is by definition one less than $d^{\prime} n$ which is a multiple of any $q_{i}$. Thus, $p \equiv-1\left(\bmod q_{i}\right)$.

## Sums of Three Squares $X$

We can write the prime factorization of $d^{\prime}$ as a series of $q_{i}^{k_{i}}$ where $q_{i}$ is the underlying prime and $k_{i}$ is the exponent:

$$
d^{\prime}=\prod_{q_{i} \mid d^{\prime}} q_{i}^{k_{i}}
$$

By quadratic reciprocity, we have that $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)=1$ since $p \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$.

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(\frac{-d^{\prime}}{p}\right) & =\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)\left(\frac{d^{\prime}}{p}\right)  \tag{1}\\
& =\left(\frac{d^{\prime}}{p}\right) \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

(1) follows because of multiplicativity

## Sums of Three Squares XI

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(\frac{d^{\prime}}{p}\right) & =\prod_{q_{i} \mid d^{\prime}}\left(\frac{q_{i}}{p}\right)^{k_{i}}  \tag{3}\\
& =\prod_{q_{i} \mid d^{\prime}}\left(\frac{p}{q_{i}}\right)^{k_{i}}  \tag{4}\\
& =\prod_{q_{i} \mid d^{\prime}}\left(\frac{-1}{q_{i}}\right)^{k_{i}} \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

- (3) follows from multiplicativity (each $q_{i}^{k_{i}}$ multiplied together equals $\left.d^{\prime}\right)$.
- (3) to (4) follows since $p$ is $1(\bmod 4) \Longrightarrow\left(\frac{q_{i}}{p}\right)=\left(\frac{p}{q_{i}}\right)$.
- (4) to $(5)$ follows since $p \equiv-1\left(\bmod q_{i}\right)$ so if $p$ is a quadratic residue so is -1 and vice versa


## Sums of Three Squares XII

$$
\begin{equation*}
\prod_{q_{i} \mid d^{\prime}}\left(\frac{-1}{q_{i}}\right)^{k_{i}}=\prod_{q_{i} \mid d^{\prime}, q_{i} \equiv 3(\bmod 4)}(-1)^{k_{i}} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Primes congruent to $3 \bmod 4$ are never residues and thus the Legendre Symbol in that case is always -1 .

## Sums of Three Squares XIII

$$
\prod_{q_{i} \mid d^{\prime}, q_{i} \equiv 3(\bmod 4)}(-1)^{k_{i}}=1
$$

$d^{\prime}=1 \bmod 4$ by definition. Further, each of the $q_{i}$ are 1 or $3 \bmod 4$.

- When $q_{i}=3(\bmod 4),(-1)^{k_{i}}=3^{k_{i}}=q_{i}^{k_{i}}(\bmod 4)$
- When $q_{i}=1(\bmod 4), q_{i}^{k_{i}}=1^{k_{i}}=1(\bmod 4)$
- So $d^{\prime}=q_{i}^{k_{i}} \cdot 1=q_{i}^{k_{i}}$ which is equivalent to $(-1)^{k_{i}}$ for each of the $q_{i}=3 \bmod 4$.

Given this, the product $(-1)^{k_{i}}$ for each of the $q_{i}=3 \bmod 4$ is congruent to $d^{\prime}$ which is $1 \bmod 4$. Since $(-1)^{k_{i}}$ must be 1 or -1 and congruent to 1 $\bmod 4$, we see that it must be equal to 1 . So $\left(\frac{-d^{\prime}}{p}\right)=1$ and we are done.

## Sums of Three Squares XIV

## Lemma 5

If $n$ is a positive integer such that $n \equiv 1,3,5(\bmod 8)$ then $n$ can be represented as the sum of three squares

The proof of this is structurally quite similar to Lemma 4. The full proof can be found in Nathanson $\S 1.5$ but I will not mention it here for time's sake.

## Sums of Three Squares XV

Thm A positive integer $N$ can be represented as the sum of three squares if and only if $N$ is not of the form $N=4^{a}(8 k+7)$

We first prove $(\Longrightarrow)$, that a sum of three squares can not have the form $N=4^{a}(8 k+7)$.

We can confirm by hand that only $0,1,4$ are quadratic residues modulo 8 . $\left(0^{2}=0,1^{2}=1,2^{2}=4\right.$ etc. $)$. Now, consider $N=x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}(\bmod 8)$. We can again manually check that $N$ can only be $0,1,2,3,4,5$, or 6 modulo 8 .

## Sums of Three Squares XVI

Thm A positive integer $N$ can be represented as the sum of three squares if and only if $N$ is not of the form $N=4^{a}(8 k+7)$

Let us assume for the sake of contradiction that there does exist a sum of three squares that has form $4^{a}(8 k+7)$. So we assume that we can write $N$ as such: $N=4^{a}(8 k+7)=x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+x_{3}^{2}$.

Note that $8 k+7 \equiv 7(\bmod 8)$. So if $N=8 k+7$, i.e. $a=0$, then it cannot be the sum of three squares.

## Sums of Three Squares XVII

Thm A positive integer $N$ can be represented as the sum of three squares if and only if $N$ is not of the form $N=4^{a}(8 k+7)$

Now, let's consider what happens when we multiply $8 k+7$ by powers of 4 . If $N$ could be written as a sum of three squares $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+x_{3}^{2}$ and is divisible by 4 , then $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}$ must all be even. This can again be manually verified since we know only $0,1,4$ are quadratic residues modulo 8. If any of $x_{1}^{2}, x_{2}^{2}, x_{3}^{2}$ are not even, i.e. congruent to 1 modulo 8 , then it is impossible for their sum to be divisible by 4 .

## Sums of Three Squares XVIII

Thm A positive integer $N$ can be represented as the sum of three squares if and only if $N$ is not of the form $N=4^{a}(8 k+7)$

Since $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}$ are all even we can divide by 4 :
$N_{1}=4^{a-1}(8 k+7)=\left(\frac{x_{1}}{2}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{x_{2}}{2}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{x_{3}}{2}\right)^{2}$. We can repeat this process, continually obtaining $N_{i}$ 's as follows:

$$
N_{i}=4^{a-i}(8 k+7)=\left(\frac{x_{1}}{2^{i}}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{x_{2}}{2^{i}}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{x_{3}}{2^{i}}\right)^{2}
$$

## Sums of Three Squares XIX

Thm A positive integer $N$ can be represented as the sum of three squares if and only if $N$ is not of the form $N=4^{a}(8 k+7)$

We continually divide until we have one of two cases (1) one of the three terms is odd or (2) we cannot divide by 4 any further.

In the case of (1): we have $N_{j}=4^{a-j}(8 k+7)=\left(\frac{x_{1}}{2^{j}}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{x_{2}}{2^{j}}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{x_{3}}{2^{j}}\right)^{2}$, where $j<a$ and at least one of $\frac{x_{1}}{2^{j}}, \frac{x_{2}}{2^{j}}, \frac{x_{3}}{2^{j}}$ are odd. This yields a contradiction since if the left side is divisible by 4 then all of $\frac{x_{1}}{2^{j}}, \frac{x_{2}}{2^{j}}, \frac{x_{3}}{2^{j}}$ must be even.

## Sums of Three Squares XX

Thm A positive integer $N$ can be represented as the sum of three squares if and only if $N$ is not of the form $N=4^{a}(8 k+7)$

In the case of (2), i.e. we cannot divide by 4 any further, our expression looks as follows: $N_{a}=4^{a-a}(8 k+7)=8 k+7=\left(\frac{x_{1}}{2^{a}}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{x_{2}}{2^{a}}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{x_{3}}{2^{a}}\right)^{2}$. This again is a contradiction, however, since we know that $(8 k+7)$ cannot be represented as the sum of three squares. Thus it is not possible for a sum of three squares to be written in the form $4^{a}(8 k+7)$.

## Sums of Three Squares XXI

Thm A positive integer $N$ can be represented as the sum of three squares if and only if $N$ is not of the form $N=4^{a}(8 k+7)$

Let's now prove the other direction $(\Longleftarrow)$, that is, if $N$ is not of the above form, it can be represented as the sum of three squares.

## Sums of Three Squares XXII

Thm A positive integer $N$ can be represented as the sum of three squares if and only if $N$ is not of the form $N=4^{a}(8 k+7)$

Notice that every positive integer can be written in the form $4^{a} m$, where $m$ is either $2(\bmod 4)$ or $1,3,5,7(\bmod 8)$ and $4^{a}$ is the highest possible power of 4 .

## Sums of Three Squares XXIII

Thm A positive integer $N$ can be represented as the sum of three squares if and only if $N$ is not of the form $N=4^{a}(8 k+7)$

If $m$ is even, then it is not divisible by 4 so it is $2 \bmod 4$ and if $m$ is odd then it is necessarily $1,3,5$, or 7 mod 8 . We know from proving the $(\Longrightarrow)$ direction, that if $m$ can be written as a sum of three squares then so can $4^{a} m$ (we just multiply $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}$ each by $2^{a}$ ).

## Sums of Three Squares XXIV

Thm A positive integer $N$ can be represented as the sum of three squares if and only if $N$ is not of the form $N=4^{a}(8 k+7)$

From Lemma 5 and Lemma 6, we know that if $m=1,2,3,5,6 \bmod 8$, then it can be represented as the sum of three squares.

So for any $m$ that is not equivalent to $7 \bmod 8$, it can be represented as the sum of three squares. Thus, if $N$ is not of the form $4^{a}(8 k+7), N$ can be represented as the sum of three squares and we are done.

