# Thue's lemma in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ and Lagrange's four-square theorem 

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#### Abstract

Without question, two of the most significant results of pre-19th century number theory are (a) Fermat's theorem that every prime $p \equiv 1$ ( $\bmod 4$ ) is a sum of two squares, and (b) Lagrange's theorem that every positive integer is a sum of four squares. Today, several proofs are known for both of these theorems. Perhaps the simplest proof of Fermat's theorem uses a beautiful combinatorial lemma of Axel Thue: For any $a$ and $m$, the congruence $a x \equiv y(\bmod m)$ has a "small" solution $x, y$ other than the trivial solution $(0,0)$. Here "small" means that $|x|,|y| \leq \sqrt{m}$. In 2010, Jameson gave a short, simple proof of Lagrange's theorem based on an extension of Thue's lemma to the Gaussian integers. Here we show how using a bit more of the arithmetic of $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ allows one to give a conceptually simpler proof based on these same ideas.


## 1. Introduction.

Lagrange's 1770 theorem that every positive integer is a sum of four squares seems destined to stand the test of time as one of the most beautiful results in number theory. In 2010, Jameson [4] gave a simple, short proof of this theorem based on the following Gaussian integer analogue of a 1902 lemma of Thue [6]. (A modern reference for the lemma, over $\mathbb{Z}$, is [ $\mathbf{1}$, Chapter 4], where it is used to give a "book proof" of Fermat's two-square theorem.) Recall that the norm $N \alpha$ of a Gaussian integer $\alpha$ is defined as $\alpha \bar{\alpha}$; equivalently, if $\alpha=a+b i$, then $N \alpha=a^{2}+b^{2}$. Put $\|a+b i\|=\max \{|a|,|b|\}$.

Thue's lemma in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$. Let $\mu$ be a nonzero Gaussian integer. For every $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$, there are $\beta, \gamma \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ with

$$
\alpha \beta \equiv \gamma \quad(\bmod \mu)
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|\beta\|,\|\gamma\| \leq \sqrt[4]{N \mu} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. We let $\tilde{\beta}$ and $\tilde{\gamma}$ range independently over all Gaussian integers $A+B i$ and $C+D i$ with $0 \leq A, B, C, D \leq \sqrt[4]{N \mu}$. There are $(1+\lfloor\sqrt[4]{N \mu}\rfloor)^{4}>N \mu$ such pairs $(\tilde{\beta}, \tilde{\gamma})$. But, as is well-known, $\# \mathbb{Z}[i] /(\mu)=N \mu$ (see [5, Proposition 1, p. 52] for a more general statement). Hence, there are two distinct pairs $(\tilde{\beta}, \tilde{\gamma})$ for which the residue classes of $\alpha \tilde{\beta}-\tilde{\gamma}$ modulo $\mu$ coincide. If these are $\left(\tilde{\beta}_{1}, \tilde{\gamma}_{1}\right)$ and $\left(\tilde{\beta}_{2}, \tilde{\gamma}_{2}\right)$, then the conclusion of the lemma holds with $\beta=\tilde{\beta}_{1}-\tilde{\beta}_{2}$ and $\gamma=\tilde{\gamma}_{1}-\tilde{\gamma}_{2}$.

The aim of this note is to describe a way of deducing Lagrange's theorem from Thue's lemma that seems slightly more natural than Jameson's.

## 2. Jameson's proof.

In this section we give our rendition of Jameson's original argument. First, note that to prove the four-square theorem, it is enough to show all squarefree $m$ are representable as a sum of four squares. ${ }^{1}$ Indeed, if $n$ is any positive integer, we can write $n=r^{2} m$ with $m$ squarefree; representing $m$ as a sum of four squares and absorbing the factors of $r^{2}$ into the summands gives a corresponding representation of $n$. In what follows, we focus on representing squarefree $m$.

To prepare for the application of Thue's lemma, we need the following auxiliary result which features in essentially all of the elementary proofs of Lagrange's theorem.

Lemma 1. Let $m$ be a squarefree integer. There is an $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ for which

$$
N \alpha \equiv-1 \quad(\bmod m)
$$

Proof. Recalling that $N(a+b i)=a^{2}+b^{2}$, our task is that of proving -1 is a sum of two squares in the ring $\mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z}$. By the Chinese remainder theorem, it is enough to show this when $m=p$ is prime. The case $p=2$ is clear, so we suppose $p$ is odd. Over any field of odd characteristic, $x \mapsto x^{2}$ is a 2-to- 1 map on nonzero elements. Hence, the number of nonzero squares in $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ is $\frac{p-1}{2}$, and the total number of squares in $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ is $\frac{p+1}{2}$. So if we put

$$
\mathcal{S}=\left\{a^{2}: a \in \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}\right\} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathcal{T}=\left\{-1-b^{2}: b \in \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}\right\}
$$

then $\# \mathcal{S}=\# \mathcal{T}=\frac{p+1}{2}$. Since $\# \mathcal{S}+\# \mathcal{T}>\# \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$, the sets $\mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{T}$ are not disjoint. Thus, there are $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ with $a^{2}=-1-b^{2}$, i.e., $a^{2}+b^{2}=-1$.

We are now able to deduce the following.
Proposition 2. Let $m$ be a squarefree integer. At least one of $m, 2 m$, and $3 m$ is a sum of four squares.

Proof. We can assume that $m>1$. Using Lemma 1, choose $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ with $N \alpha \equiv-1(\bmod m)$. By Thue's lemma, there are $\beta, \gamma \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$, not both 0 , with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha \beta \equiv \gamma \quad(\bmod m) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|\beta\|,\|\gamma\| \leq m^{1 / 2} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Applying complex conjugation to (2) shows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{\alpha} \bar{\beta} \equiv \bar{\gamma} \quad(\bmod m) . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Multiplying (2) and (4) and rearranging yields

$$
N \beta+N \gamma \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod m) .
$$

We claim that $N \beta+N \gamma=m, 2 m$, or $3 m$. From the above, it is clear that the integer $N \beta+N \gamma$ is positive (since $\beta$ and $\gamma$ do not both vanish) and a multiple of $m$. Moreover, since $m$ is not a square, the inequalities in (3) are necessarily strict, so that

$$
N \beta+N \gamma<4\left(m^{1 / 2}\right)^{2}=4 m
$$

Thus, $N \beta+N \gamma=m, 2 m$, or $3 m$, as claimed.

[^0]Disappointingly, the conclusion of Proposition 2 is not the representability of $m$, but the representability of at least one of $m, 2 m$, and $3 m$. When $m$ is represented, we are home free. The case when $2 m$ is represented is also OK, in view of the following easy lemma.

Lemma 3 (2-removal and insertion). For every positive integer $n$, we have that $n$ is a sum of four squares $\Longleftrightarrow 2 n$ is a sum of four squares.

Proof. Applying the observation that $(a+b)^{2}+(a-b)^{2}=2 a^{2}+2 b^{2}$ twice, one arrives at the duplication identity

$$
\begin{equation*}
2\left(x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+w^{2}\right)=(x+y)^{2}+(x-y)^{2}+(z+w)^{2}+(z-w)^{2} . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

This makes the forward implication of the lemma obvious. For the backward direction, suppose that $2 n=X^{2}+Y^{2}+Z^{2}+W^{2}$ with $X, Y, Z, W$ integers. If $x, y, z, w$ solve the system

$$
X=x+y, \quad Y=x-y, \quad Z=z+w, \quad W=z+w
$$

then (5) implies that $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+w^{2}=n$. So $n$ will be a sum of four squares as long as $x, y, z, w \in \mathbb{Z}$. Solving for $x, y, z, w$ explicitly, we see that this last condition is satisifed precisely when $X \equiv Y(\bmod 2)$ and $Z \equiv W(\bmod 2)$. Since we may permute $X, Y, Z, W$, the lemma will be proved if we show that $X, Y, Z, W$ can be put in pairs of the same parity. Now all of $X^{2}, Y^{2}, Z^{2}, W^{2}$ are 0 or 1 modulo 4 , and their sum is $2 n$, which is $\equiv 0$ or 2 modulo 4 . If $2 n \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$, then all of $X^{2}, Y^{2}, Z^{2}, W^{2}$ must coincide modulo 4 , and so all of $X, Y, Z, W$ are even or all are odd. If $2 n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$, then exactly two of $X, Y, Z, W$ are odd. In either case, we can pair $X, Y, Z, W$ as desired.

Jameson completes his proof by also showing the "3-removal lemma", viz.
$3 n$ is a sum of four squares $\Longrightarrow n$ is a sum of four squares.
This result has been known for more than 250 years; the simple and short proof Jameson gives appears already in a July 26, 1749 letter from Euler to Goldbach [3, pp. 1000-1006]. In fact, the corresponding $p$-removal lemma is proved in Euler's letter for each of $p=2,3,5$, and 7 .

Unfortunately (in the opinion of the author) the proof of the 3-removal lemma rests on the triplication identity
$3\left(x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}+w^{2}\right)=(y+z+w)^{2}+(z-w+x)^{2}+(w-y+x)^{2}+(y-z+x)^{2}$, which cannot be considered obvious to mathematical mortals. ${ }^{2}$ This is our primary motivation for staking out a different path.

## 3. A way around 3-removal.

We now restrict attention to odd squarefree $m$. Rather than show $m$ is representable directly, we will aim at proving the representability of $2 m$; we know from Lemma 3 that the two are in fact equivalent.

The essential new idea is to use a wee bit more about the arithmetic of $\mathbb{Z}[i]$. This facilitates application of Thus's lemma with $\mu=(1+i) m$ rather than the more obvious choice $\mu=2 \mathrm{~m}$. We need the following two facts:

[^1](i) The integer multiples of $1+i$ are exactly the even integers.
(ii) $1+i$ is a unit multiple of its complex conjugate.

Both (i) and (ii) are straightforward to check. Indeed, let $r$ be an integer. Then $\frac{r}{1+i}=\frac{r}{2}-\frac{r}{2} i$, and this belongs to $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ precisely when $r$ is even. This proves (i). The proof of (ii) is easier: $1+i=i(1-i)$, and $i$ is a unit as $i^{4}=1$.

The following result now replaces Proposition 2.
Proposition 4. Let $m$ be an odd, squarefree integer. Then at least one of $2 m$ and $4 m$ is a sum of four squares.

Proof. By Lemma 1, we may select $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ with $N \alpha \equiv-1(\bmod 2 m)$. By Thue's lemma, there are $\beta, \gamma \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$, not both 0 , with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha \beta \equiv \gamma \quad(\bmod (1+i) m) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|\beta\|,\|\gamma\| \leq 2^{1 / 4} m^{1 / 2} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Applying complex conjugation to (6) shows that $\bar{\alpha} \bar{\beta} \equiv \bar{\gamma}(\bmod (1-i) m)$. Since $1+i$ and $1-i$ differ by a unit (fact (ii)), this last congruence is equivalent to the same congruence modulo $(1+i) m$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{\alpha} \bar{\beta} \equiv \bar{\gamma} \quad(\bmod (1+i) m) . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $N \alpha \equiv-1(\bmod 2 m)$, and 2 is a multiple of $1+i$, we have

$$
N \alpha \equiv-1 \quad(\bmod (1+i) m)
$$

Multiplying (6) and (8) and rearranging yields

$$
N \beta+N \gamma \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod (1+i) m)
$$

The left-hand side is a sum of four squares of integers, not all of which are zero, and so is a positive integer. It follows (keeping fact (i) in mind) that $N \beta+N \gamma$ is a multiple of both 2 and $m$, and so a multiple of $2 m$. The inequalities (7) imply that

$$
N \beta+N \gamma \leq 4 \cdot\left(2^{1 / 4} m^{1 / 2}\right)^{2}=2 m \cdot 2 \sqrt{2} .
$$

Since $2 \sqrt{2}=2.828 \ldots<3$, either $N \beta+N \gamma=2 m$ or $4 m$.
The advantage of Proposition 4 over Proposition 2 is that 2 and 4 are both powers of 2 ! So whichever case of Proposition 4 we find ourselves in, (the backward direction of) Lemma 3 implies the representability of $m$ of as a sum of four squares. We assumed $m$ was odd and squarefree, but another application of Lemma 3 (the forward direction this time) shows that all squarefree $m$ are representable. As explained above, the four-square theorem follows.

Concluding remarks.
(i) The deepest fact used in our argument is that $N \mu=\# \mathbb{Z}[i] /(\mu)$ for all nonzero Gaussian integers $\mu$. For our application this is only needed when $\mu=(1+i) m$, where $m$ is an odd integer. In fact, all we really use is that $N \mu$ is an upper bound on $\# \mathbb{Z}[i] /(\mu)$ for these $\mu$. As we now explain, this much has a simple proof. Since $N((1+i) m)=2 m^{2}$, it suffices to show the following.

Claim: Every Gaussian integer is congruent, modulo $(1+i) m$, to $a+b i$ for some integers $a$ and $b$ with $0 \leq a<2 m$ and $0 \leq b<m$.

To see this, note that given any Gaussian integer, subtracting a suitable integer multiple of $(1+i) m$ will force the imaginary component into the interval $[0, m)$ without changing the congruence class modulo $(1+i) m$. We may then subtract a multiple of $2 m=(1+i) m \cdot(1-i)$ to place the real component in $[0,2 m)$.
(ii) Jameson recognizes the desirability of avoiding the 3 -removal lemma and, in the same paper [4], gives an intriguing alternative argument serving this purpose. Bringing in an asymptotic estimate for the number of lattice points within a 4-dimensional ball, Jameson shows (essentially) that the conclusion (1) of Thue's lemma can be replaced with

$$
N \beta+N \gamma \leq\left(\frac{4 \sqrt{2}}{\pi}+\epsilon\right) \sqrt{N \mu}
$$

for any $\epsilon>0$ and all $\mu$ with $N \mu$ sufficiently large in terms of $\epsilon$. Since $4 \sqrt{2} / \pi<2$, one deduces from the proof of Proposition 2 that all large squarefree $m$ are sums of four squares. Explicit estimates imply that $m>764$ is large enough; of course, smaller $m$ can be checked on a pocket computer (read: smartphone). ${ }^{3}$ This argument is quite similar in spirit to the well-known proof of Lagrange's theorem based on Minkowski's geometry of numbers (see, e.g., [2]).

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[^2]
[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Recall that $m$ is said to be squarefree when it is a product of distinct prime numbers.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ This identity seems most naturally explained in terms of quaternions. (Of course, the same holds for Euler's more general identity expressing a product of two sums of four squares as a sum of four squares, which we have taken pains to avoid here.)

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ The details are arranged somewhat differently in [4]. For instance, the version of the argument presented there still relies on the 2-removal lemma (but requires less mopping up of small cases).

