

Lecture 17

More on Generating Functions, Two Squares Theorem

Generating Functions - for a sequence $a_0 \dots$ we can define $A(x) = \sum_{a_n \geq 0} a_n x^n$.
Eg - if $\{a_n\}$ satisfies a linear recurrence $= a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 \dots$ then $A(x)$ will be a rational function of x . If we know $A(x)$ then a_n can be obtained as coefficients of x^n in $A(x)$.

1. If $a_n = r^n$ for some fixed r then $A(x) = 1 + rx + r^2 x^2 \dots = \frac{1}{1-rx}$.
2. If $A(x)$ is a generating function for $\{a_n\}$ and $B(x)$ for $\{b_n\}$, and α, β are constants, then $\{\alpha a_n + \beta b_n\}$ has generating function $\alpha A(x) + \beta B(x)$.

$$\sum (\alpha a_n + \beta b_n) x^n = \alpha \sum a_n x^n + \beta \sum b_n x^n$$

3. Shift - if $A(x)$ is generating function for $\{a_n\}$, then $x A(x)$ is generating function for sequence $\{a_{n-1}\}$ (ie., $\{0, a_0, a_1, \dots\}$)
4. Generating function for $\{n a_n\}$ is $x \frac{dA(x)}{dx}$.

$$\begin{aligned} A(x) &= \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n \\ \frac{dA(x)}{dx} &= \sum_{n \geq 0} n a_n x^{n-1} \\ x \frac{dA(x)}{dx} &= \sum_{n \geq 0} n a_n x^n \end{aligned}$$

Eg.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{1-x} &= 1 + x + x^2 \dots \\ \frac{1}{(1-x)^2} &= 1 + 2x + 3x^2 \dots \\ \text{so } \frac{x}{(1-x)^2} &= x + 2x^2 + 3x^3 \dots = \sum n x^n \end{aligned}$$

Eg. Generating function for $\{n^2 a_n\}$ is

$$x \frac{d}{dx} \left(x \frac{d}{dx} A(x) \right) = x \frac{dA}{dx} + x^2 \frac{d^2 A}{dx^2}$$

5.

$$\begin{aligned}
 A(x) &= a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 \dots \\
 B(x) &= b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2 \dots \\
 A(x)B(x) &= (a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 \dots)(b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2 \dots) \\
 &= a_0b_0 + (a_1b_0 + b_1a_0)x + (a_2b_0 + a_1b_1 + a_0b_2)x^2 \dots \\
 &= \text{generating function for } \{c_n\}, \quad c_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k b_{n-k}
 \end{aligned}$$

6. Can be useful, when we want to evaluate partial sums of series (e.g., $\sum_{k \equiv 1 \pmod{7}} a_n$). Useful technique - plug in roots of unity.

Ex. We know the generating function for $\{(\frac{1}{2})^n\}$ is $\frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{2}x}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{ie., } 1 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)x + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 x^2 \dots &= \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{2}x} \\
 \sum_{n \equiv 0 \pmod{4}} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n &= 1 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^4 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^8 \dots \\
 &= \frac{1}{1-\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^4} = \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{16}} = \frac{16}{15}
 \end{aligned}$$

Another way to see it: plug in 4 roots of unity ($z^4 - 1 = 0, z = \pm 1, \pm i$)

$$\begin{aligned}
 1 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3 \dots &= \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{2}} && = 2 \text{ (A)} \\
 1 + \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) + \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^3 \dots &= \frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{2}} && = \frac{2}{3} \text{ (B)} \\
 1 + \left(\frac{1}{2}i\right) + \left(\frac{1}{2}i\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{2}i\right)^3 \dots &= \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{2}i} && = \frac{2}{2-i} \text{ (C)} \\
 1 + \left(-\frac{1}{2}i\right) + \left(-\frac{1}{2}i\right)^2 + \left(-\frac{1}{2}i\right)^3 \dots &= \frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{2}i} && = \frac{2}{2+i} \text{ (D)}
 \end{aligned}$$

Add them, and use the fact that

$$1^n + (-1)^n + (i)^n + (-i)^n = \begin{cases} 0 & n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{4} \\ 4 & n \equiv 0 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
4 \left(1 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^4 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^8 \dots \right) &= 2 + \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{2-i} + \frac{2}{2+i} \\
&= \frac{64}{15} \sum_{n \equiv 0 \pmod{4}} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n \\
&= \frac{16}{15}
\end{aligned}$$

Eg. $n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, $a + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \dots xi$

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{1^2} &= 1 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \dots \\
\frac{1}{i^2} &= 1 + \left(\frac{1}{2}i\right) + \left(\frac{1}{2}i\right)^2 \dots \\
\frac{1}{(-1)^3} &= -1 \left[1 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \dots \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^3 \dots \right]
\end{aligned}$$

If we want to evaluate $\sum_{n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}} \frac{1}{2^n}$ then multiply (A), (B), (C), (D) by 1^{-3} , $(-1)^{-3}$, i^{-3} , $(-i)^{-3}$ and then add.

7. Zeta functions are very much like geometric functions, so many of the same techniques apply (differentiation is trickier).

Eg. To calculate $S = -1 + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{16} \dots$. This is $Z(f, 2)$ when $f(n) = -1$. Two ways of calculating this S .

$$\begin{aligned}
\zeta(2) &= 1 + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{16} \dots \\
&= \frac{\pi^2}{6} \\
\zeta(2) + S &= 2 \left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{36} \dots \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{1^2} + \frac{1}{2^2} \dots \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \zeta(2) \\
S &= \frac{-\pi^2}{12}
\end{aligned}$$

or

$$\begin{aligned}
-S &= 1 - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{16} \dots \\
&= \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^2} - \frac{1}{4^2} - \frac{1}{16^2} \dots\right) \prod_{p \text{ odd}} \left(1 + \frac{1}{p^2} + \frac{1}{p^4} + \dots\right) \\
\zeta(2) &= \frac{\pi^2}{6} \\
&= \sum \frac{1}{n^2} \\
&= \left(1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{4^2} + \frac{1}{16^2} \dots\right) \prod_{p \text{ odd}} \left(1 + \frac{1}{p^2} + \frac{1}{p^4} + \dots\right)
\end{aligned}$$

Only differ at the Euler factor at 2:

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{(-S)}{\frac{\pi^2}{6}} &= \frac{1 - \frac{1}{2^2} - \frac{1}{4^2} \dots}{1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{4^2} \dots} \\
&= \frac{1 - \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{4}}\right)}{\left(-\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{4}}\right)} \\
&= \frac{1}{2}
\end{aligned}$$

so $S = -\frac{\pi^2}{12}$.

Theorem 57 (Two Square Theorem). *A prime p is a sum of two integer squares if and only if $p = 2$ or $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.*

Proof. If $p = 2$ then $2 = 1^2 + 1^2$, so assume p odd from now on. If $p = a^2 + b^2$ then one of a and b must be even and one must be odd, since $\text{odd}^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and $\text{even}^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4} \Rightarrow p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ - ie., condition of being $1 \pmod{4}$ is necessary.

Reduction: Need to show that any prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ is sum of two squares. We'll show by (strong) induction on p - ie., assume every prime $q < p$ which is $1 \pmod{4}$ is a sum of two squares.

Lemma 58. *There's a positive integer $< p$ such that $a^2 + m^2 = mp$.*

Proof. 1 is a quadratic residue mod p so there exists some integer x such that $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ (can assume that $|x| < \frac{p}{2}$ because $0, \pm 1, \pm 2 \dots \pm \frac{p-1}{2}$ is a complete residue system mod p). Therefore $p|x^2 + 1$ and $x^2 + 1 < \frac{p^2}{4} + 1 < p^2$, so $x^2 + 1 = mp$ with $0 < m < p$. \square

Let m be the smallest positive integer such that mp is a sum of 2 integer squares. If $m = 1$ we're done with the induction step. If $m > 1$ we'll get a contradiction by constructing a smaller m . Assume $m > 1$. We have $a^2 + b^2 = mp$, so $|a|, |b| < p$ since $a^2, b^2 \leq a^2 + b^2 = mp, p^2$.

First, (a, b) must be 1. Else if $g = (a, b) > 1$ then $(\frac{a}{g})^2 + (\frac{b}{g})^2$ would be a smaller integer multiple of p . (Note: $g < p$ so dividing by g^2 doesn't cancel p).

Next, m must be odd. If not, then $a^2 + b^2$ is even, so a and b have same parity (in fact, both odd since $(a, b) = 1$). Then

$$\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{a-b}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{2}(a^2 + b^2) = \frac{1}{2}mp = \left(\frac{m}{2}\right)p$$

contradicting minimality of m .

Now let q be an odd prime dividing m , let $m = qn$.

$$a^2 + b^2 = mp = qnp \Rightarrow a^2 + b^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$$

Note that $q \nmid a$ and $q \nmid b$ (otherwise q divides both a and b , contradicting $(a, b) = 1$). So

$$\begin{aligned} (ab^{-1})^2 &\equiv -1 \pmod{q} \\ \Rightarrow q &\equiv 1 \pmod{4} \end{aligned}$$

By induction hypothesis, $q = c^2 + d^2$ is a sum of two squares.

$$\begin{aligned} a^2 &\equiv -b^2 \pmod{q} \\ c^2 &\equiv -d^2 \pmod{q} \\ (ac)^2 &\equiv (bd)^2 \pmod{q} \\ ac &\equiv \pm bd \pmod{q} \end{aligned}$$

Assume wlog that $ac \equiv bd \pmod{q}$ (if $ac \equiv -bd \pmod{q}$, replace c with $-c$ in $q = c^2 + d^2$). We now have

$$\begin{aligned} a^2 + b^2 &= pqn \\ c^2 + d^2 &= q \\ (a^2 + b^2)(c^2 + d^2) &= pq^2n \\ (ac - bd)^2 + (ad + bc)^2 &= pq^2n \quad (\text{"miracle of complex numbers"}) \end{aligned}$$

Now, we know $q|ac - bd$, so also divides $ad + bc$, so $ad + bc \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, since

$$\begin{aligned} (ac - bd)^2 + (ad + bc)^2 &\equiv (a^2 + b^2) \underbrace{(c^2 + d^2)}_q \\ &\equiv 0 \pmod{q} \end{aligned}$$

so

$$\left(\frac{ac - bd}{q}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{ad + bc}{q}\right)^2 = pn$$

So we replaced m by n which is $< m$, resulting in contradiction. (ζ)



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