Notes for Math 669

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Chapter 1

Introduction to Lattices

1.1 Definition

Definition 1.1.1. A lattice $\Lambda \subset V$ has the following properties:

- 1. $\operatorname{span}(\Lambda) = V$.
- 2. Λ is an additive subgroup.
- 3. Λ is discrete: for any r > 0, let $B_r = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, ||x|| \le r\}$, $\Lambda \cap B_r$ is finite.

1.2 Lattice and Its Basis

Last time: $L \in V$ is a subspace if $L = \operatorname{span}(L \cap \Lambda)$

Theorem 1.2.1. If L is a lattice subspace, $L \neq V$, then $\exists u \in L \setminus \Lambda$ such that $d(u, L) \leq d(x, L)$ for all $x \in L \setminus \Lambda$.

Say $L \in \text{span}\{u_1, \dots, u_m\}$ linearly independent vectors, $\Pi = \{\}$ There is $u \in \Lambda \setminus L$ such that $\text{dist}(u, \Pi) \leq \text{dist}(x, \Pi)$ for all $x \in \Lambda \setminus L$.

Proof. Take $\rho > 0$ large enough. Consider $\Pi_{\rho} = \{y, d(y, \Pi) \leq \rho\}$. It contains points from $\Lambda \setminus L$, choose the one in $\Pi_{\rho} \cap (\Lambda \setminus L)$ closet to Π .

<u>CLAIM</u> $u \in \Lambda \setminus L$ is what we need. Why? Pick any $x \in \Lambda \setminus L$. Let $y \in L$ be the closest to x.

$$dist(x, L) = ||x - y|| = ||(x - w) - (y - w)||.$$

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$$y = \sum_{i=1}^{m} d_i u_i$$

Let $w = \sum_{i=1}^m \lfloor \alpha_i \rfloor u_i \in \Lambda \setminus L, y - w = \sum_{i=1}^m \{\alpha_i\} u_i \in \Pi$.

Theorem 1.2.2. *Every lattice has a basis.*

Proof. By induction on $n = \dim V$.

Base case: for n = 1, we have $V = \mathbb{R}$.

Let u > 0 be the lattice vector closet to 0, among all positive vectors in Λ .

Then u is a basis of Λ . Pick any $v \in \Lambda$. Assume v > 0 WLOG. Then $v = \alpha u$ for $\alpha > 0$. If $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}$ then we are done. If not, consider $w = \alpha u - \lfloor \alpha \rfloor u = \{\alpha\} u$, this is closer to 0 than u, a contradiction.

Induction hypothesis: suppose any lattice of dimension n-1 has a basis.

Induction step: pick a lattice hyperplane H (lattice subspace with $\dim = n-1$). Then $\Lambda_1 = H \cap \Lambda$ has a basis u_1, \ldots, u_{n-1} . Pick u_n such that $u_n \notin H$ and $\operatorname{dist}(u_n, H)$ is the smallest. We claim that $u_1, \ldots, u_{n-1}, u_n$ is a basis of Λ .

Let $u \in \Lambda$, $u = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i u_i$ with $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{R}$. If $\alpha_n = 0$ then $u \in \Lambda_1$, then $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{n-1} \in \mathbb{Z}$. Suppose $\alpha_n \neq 0$. Consider $w = u - \lfloor \alpha_n \rfloor u_n$. $w \in \Lambda$ and $w = \{\alpha_n\} u_n + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \alpha_i u_i$. So

$$dist(w, H) = dist(\{\alpha_n\} u_n, H) = \{\alpha_n\} dist(u_n, H)$$

If $\{\alpha_n\} > 0$ then $0 < \operatorname{dist}(w, H) < \operatorname{dist}(u_n, H)$, a contradiction.

So
$$\{\alpha_n\} = 0 \implies \alpha_n \in \mathbb{Z}$$
. Then $w = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \alpha_i u_i \implies \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{n-1} \in \mathbb{Z}$.

So we have constructed a basis for lattice of dimension n, thus finishing the proof.

This is called A.N.Korkin(e)-Zolotarev(öff) basis.

EXERCISE Suppose $u_1, \dots, u_n \in V$ is a basis of subspace. The integer combinations form a lattice.

EXERCISE Suppose a 2-dimensional lattice. Then there exists a lattice basis u,v such that the angle α between u,v satisfies $\frac{\pi}{3} \leq \alpha \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$.

EXERCISE If Λ is a lattice and L is a lattice subspace. The orthogonal projection $PR: V \to L^{\perp}$. Then $PR(\Lambda) \subset L^{\perp}$ is a lattice.

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Definition 1.2.1. Suppose u_1, \ldots, u_n be a basis of Λ .

$$\Pi = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i u_i : 0 \le \alpha_i < 1, i = 1, \dots, n \right\}$$

is the fundamental parallelepiped of a fundamental parallelepiped of Λ .

Theorem 1.2.3. The volume of a fundamental parallelepiped Π doesn't depend on Π . The volume is called the determinant of Λ . Furthermore, if $B_r = \{x : ||x|| \le r\}$, then

$$\lim_{r \to \infty} = \frac{|B_r \cap \Lambda|}{\operatorname{vol} B_r} = \frac{1}{\det \Lambda}.$$

We start with a lemma:

Lemma 1.2.1. Let Π be a fundamental parallelepiped of $\Lambda \subset V$. Then every vector $x \in V$ is uniquely written as x = u + y where $u \in \Lambda, y \in \Pi$.

Proof. Existence: Π is the fundamental parallelepiped for u_1, \ldots, u_n . If $x = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i u_i$ then $u = \sum_{i=1}^n \lfloor \alpha_i \rfloor u_i$ and $y = \sum_{i=1}^n \{\alpha_i\} u_i$

Uniqueness: suppose $x = u_1 + y_1 = u_2 + y_2$ then $u_1 - u_2 = y_2 - y_1$. Since $u_1 - u_2 \in \Lambda$ we have $y_2 - y_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha_i - \beta_i) \mathbf{u}_i$. We have $(\alpha_i - \beta_i) \in \mathbb{Z}$. Since $-1 < \alpha_i - \beta_i < 1$, it has to be 0.

A geometry interpretation is that we can cover the whole space with fundamental parallelepipeds without overlaps.

Proof of theorem. Let

$$X_r = \bigcup_{u \in B_r \cap \Lambda} (\Pi + u)$$

Then vol $X_r = |B_r \cap \Lambda| \text{ vol } \Pi$.

Say, $\Pi \subset B_a$ for some a > 0. Then $X_r \subset B_{r+a}$. Look at B_{r-a} . It is covered by $\Pi + u : u \in \Lambda$. We should have $||u|| \le r$. Hence $B_{r-a} \subset X_r$.

So we have

$$\left(\frac{r-a}{a}\right)^n = \frac{\operatorname{vol} B_{r-a}}{\operatorname{vol} B_r} \le \frac{\operatorname{vol} X_r}{\operatorname{vol} B_r} \le \frac{\operatorname{vol} B_{r+a}}{B_r} = \left(\frac{r+a}{a}\right)^n$$

This goes to 1 when $r \to \infty$.

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REMARK/EXERCISE The same holds for balls not centered in the origin:

$$B_r(x_0) = \{x : ||x - x_0|| \le r\}.$$

EXERCISE Suppose a lattice $\Lambda \subset V$ and $u \in \Lambda$. The Voronoi (G.F. Voronoi, 1868-1908) region is defined by

$$\Phi_u = \{x \in V : ||x - u|| \le ||x - v||, \forall v \in \Lambda\}.$$

Show that Φ is convex (bounded by at most 2^n affine hyperplanes) and $\operatorname{vol} \Phi = \det \Lambda$.

 $\underline{\mathsf{EXERCISE}}\ (\det \Lambda)(\det \Lambda^*) = 1$

1.3 Sublattice

Definition 1.3.1. Suppose $\Lambda \subset V$ is a lattice, and $\Lambda_0 \subset \Lambda$, $\Lambda_0 \subset V$ is also a lattice. Λ_0 is then called a sublattice of Λ .

Remark. We have rank $\Lambda_0 = \operatorname{rank} \Lambda$.

Example 1.3.1. $D_n \subset \mathbb{Z}^n$.

 Λ is an Abelian group and $\Lambda_0 \subset \Lambda$ is a subgroup. Look at the quotient Λ/Λ_0 and cosets $\{u + \Lambda_0\}$. The index of Λ_0 in $\Lambda/\Lambda/\Lambda_0$ = the number of cosets.

Theorem 1.3.1. 1. Let Π be a fundamental parallelepiped of Λ_0 Then $|\Lambda/\Lambda_0| = |\Pi \cap \Lambda|$.

$$2. \ |\Lambda/\Lambda_0| = \frac{\det \Lambda_0}{\det \Lambda}.$$

Proof. 1. By Lemma 1.2.1, every coset has a unique representation in Π .

2. Let $B_r = \{x : ||x|| \le r\}$. Then

$$\lim_{r \to \infty} = \frac{|B_r \cap \Lambda|}{\operatorname{vol} B_r} = \frac{1}{\det \Lambda}.$$

Let $S \subset \Lambda$ be the set of coset representatives. Then $|S| = |\Lambda/\Lambda_0|$. Then $\Lambda = \bigcup_{u \in S} (u + \Lambda_0)$. Hence

$$\lim_{r\to\infty}\frac{|B_r\cap(u+\Lambda_0)|}{\operatorname{vol} B_r}=\frac{1}{\det\Lambda_0}.\implies\frac{1}{\det\Lambda}=|S|\frac{1}{\Lambda_0}$$

EXERCISE

1. $\det \mathbb{Z}^n = 1$

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- 2. $\det D_n = 2$.
- 3. $\det D_n^+ = 1$. (*n* even)
- 4. $\det A_n = \sqrt{n+1}$. $\det E_8 = 1$, $\det E_7 = \sqrt{2}$, $\det E_6 = \sqrt{3}$.
- 5. If a_1, \ldots, a_n are coprime integers not all 0.

$$\Lambda = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^n : a_1 x_1 + \dots + a_n x_n = 0\} \text{ has } \det \Lambda = \sqrt{a_1^2 + \dots + a_n^2}.$$

Corollary 1.3.1. *If* $u_1, \ldots, u_n \in \Lambda$ *are linearly independent and*

$$\operatorname{vol}\left\{\sum_{i+1}^{n} \alpha_{i} u_{i} : 0 \leq \alpha_{i} < 1\right\} = \det \Lambda$$

then $u-1,\ldots,u_n$ is a basis.

Proof. Look at

$$\Lambda_0 = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n m_i u_i : m_i \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}, |\Lambda/\Lambda_0| = 1 \implies \Lambda = \Lambda_0$$

Counting integer points. Suppose $\Lambda = \mathbb{Z}^n$.

Pick n linearly independent vectors $u_1, \ldots, u_n \in \Lambda$. Consider

$$\Pi = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i u_i : 0 \le \alpha_i < 1 \right\}.$$

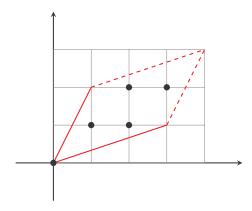
Then

$$|\Pi \cap \mathbb{Z}^n| = ?$$

Suppose $\Lambda_0 = \{\sum_{i=1}^n m_i u_i : m_i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. Then $\det \Lambda_0 = \operatorname{vol} \Pi$.

Suppose n=2, $u_1=(3,1)$, $u_2=(1,2)$. Then $\operatorname{vol}\Pi=5$. We can see that the parallelogram contains 5 integer points.

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The case for n=2 is special.

Theorem 1.3.2 (Pick Formula (G.A. Pick, 1859-1942)). *If* $P \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ *is a convex polygon with integer vertices and non-empty interior. Then*

$$|P \cap \mathbb{Z}^2| = \text{area of } P + \frac{1}{2} |\partial P \cap \mathbb{Z}^2| + 1$$

Proof. Left as exercise. Hint: do it for parallelograms (in any dimension) first, then do it for triangles (special case for n = 2), and then all polygons with integer vertices.

EXERCISE For n=2, linearly independent vectors of $u,v\in\mathbb{Z}^2$ form a basis \iff the triangle with vertices 0,u,v has no other integer points.

EXERCISE For n=3, construct an example of linearly independent $u,v,w\in\mathbb{Z}^3$ such that the tetrahedron with vertices 0,u,v,w has no other integer points but $\{u,v,w\}$ is not a basis of \mathbb{Z}^3 . In fact, you can have $|\mathbb{Z}^n/\Lambda|$ arbitrarily large.

EXERCISE Suppose $u_1, \ldots, u_k \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ are linearly independent vectors and $\Lambda = \mathbb{Z}^n \cap \operatorname{span}(u_1, \ldots, u_k)$. The $\{u_1, \ldots, u_k\}$ is a basis of Λ if and only if the great common divisor

$$\frac{DXERCISE}{\text{span}(u_1, \dots, u_k)}. \text{ The } \{u_1, \dots, u_k\}$$
of all $k \times k$ minors of
$$\begin{bmatrix} u_1^T \\ u_2^T \\ \dots \\ u_k^T \end{bmatrix} \text{ is } 1.$$

Linear algebra (Smith normal form, will not use)

If $\Lambda_0 \subset \Lambda$ is a sublattice, then there is a basis u_1, \ldots, u_n of Λ and a basis v_1, \ldots, v_n of Λ_0 such that $v_i = m_i u_i$ for positive integer m_i and such that m_1 divides m_2 which divides m_3, \ldots

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1.4 Minkowski Theorem

The goal today is to prove Minkowski Theorem (H. Minkowski, 1864-1909) for convex body.

Definition 1.4.1. Suppose V a Euclidean space, then a set $A \subset V$ is convex if $\forall x, y \in A, [x, y] \in A$ where $\{[x, y] = \alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y : 0 \le \alpha \le 1\}$.

Definition 1.4.2. A set A is symmetric if $A = -A = \{-x : x \in A\}$.

Theorem 1.4.1. Suppose $\Lambda \subset V$ a lattice and $A \subset V$ a convex symmetric set with vol $A > 2^{\dim V} \det \Lambda$. Then there is $u \subset \Lambda \setminus \{0\}$ such that $u \in A$.s

 $\underline{2^{\dim V}}$ IS SHARP: Pick $\mathbb{Z}^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, $\det \mathbb{Z}^n = 1$. Let $A = \{-1 < x_i < 1, i = 1, \dots, n\}$ convex and symmetric. Then $\operatorname{vol} A = 2^n$ and $A \cap Z^n = \{0\}$. And from geometric intuition we see that convex and symmetric is needed.

It is a result from Blichfeldt's theorem.

Theorem 1.4.2 (H. F. Blichfeldt, 1873 - 1945). Let measurable $X \subset V$, $\operatorname{vol} X > \det \Lambda$, then there are $x, y \in X$ such that $x - y \in \Lambda \setminus \{0\}$.

<u>INTUITION</u> det Λ describes the volume per lattice point. Consider $\{X+u\}$ the translations of X by lattice points. Some of them must overlap i.e. $(X+u_1)\cap (X+u_2)\neq \emptyset$. Then $x+u_1=y+u_2\implies x-y=u_2-u_1\in \Lambda\setminus\{0\}$.

Proof. Choose a fundamental parallelepiped Π of lattice Λ . Then $\det \Lambda = \operatorname{vol} \Pi$. Then $\{\Pi + u, u \in \Lambda\}$ cover V without overlap. In particular, they cover X.

Let $X_u := ((\Pi + u) \cap X) - u$. $\sum_{u \in \Lambda} \operatorname{vol} X_u = \operatorname{vol} X > \operatorname{vol} \Pi$. And $X_u \subset \Pi$. Then $\exists u_1 \neq u_2 \ s.t. \ X_{u_1} \cap X_{u_2} \neq \emptyset$. Then $\exists x, y \in X \ s.t. \ x - u_1 = y - u_2 \implies x - y = u_1 - u_2 \in \Lambda \setminus \{0\}$.

Proof of Minkowski's Theorem. Let $X=\frac{1}{2}A=\left\{\frac{1}{2}x,x\in A\right\}$. Then $\operatorname{vol} X=2^{-\dim v}\operatorname{vol} A>\det\Lambda$. By Blichfeldt, there are $x,y\in X$ such that $x-y\in\Lambda\setminus\{0\}$. Write

$$u = x - y = \frac{1}{2}(2x) + \frac{1}{2}(-2y)$$

Since *A* is convex and symmetric, $2x, -2y \in A$ and $x - y \in A \implies u \in A$.

EXERCISE Suppose $\Lambda \subset V$ a lattice. Let $X = \{x \in V : ||x|| < ||x - u||, \forall u \in \Lambda \setminus \{0\}\}$. Let A = 2X. Show that A is convex, symmetric, $A = 2^{\dim V} \det \Lambda$ and $A \cap \Lambda = \{0\}$.

Corollary 1.4.1. If, in addition, A is compact, then it is enough to have vol $A \ge 2^{\dim V} \det \Lambda$.

We can apply the proof for $(1 + \varepsilon)A$ and let $\varepsilon \to 0$.

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Corollary 1.4.2. Let $V = \mathbb{R}^n$, and $\|x\|_{\infty} = \max_{i=1,...,n} |x_i|$. Then there is a $u \in \Lambda \setminus \{0\}$ with $\|u\|_{\infty} \leq (\det \Lambda)^{\frac{1}{n}}$.

Consider $A = \left\{ x, |x_i| \le (\det \Lambda)^{\frac{1}{n}} \right\}$.

Corollary 1.4.3. Suppose $\Lambda \subset V$. Then there is $u \subset \Lambda \setminus \{0\}$ with $||u|| \leq \sqrt{\dim V} (\det \Lambda)^{\frac{1}{n}}$.

EXERCISE If $X \subset V$ is measurable and $\operatorname{vol} X > m \det \Lambda$ with $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Then there are $x_1, \ldots, x_{m+1} \in X$ such that $x_i - x_j \in \Lambda$ for all pairs i, j.

If A is convex, symmetric, and $\operatorname{vol} A > m \cdot 2^{\dim V} \det \Lambda$. Then A contains m distinct pairs $\pm u_1, \ldots, \pm u_m$ of nonzero lattice points.

 $\underline{\text{EXERCISE (IMPORTANT)}} \text{ If } X \subset \Lambda \text{ is a set such that } |X| > 2^{\dim V} \text{ then there are distinct } x, y \in X \text{ such that } \frac{x+y}{2} \in \Lambda.$

EXERCISE Suppose $f:V\to\mathbb{R}_+$ is integrable and $\Lambda\subset V$ a lattice. Then there are $z_1,z_2\in V$ such that

$$\sum_{u \in \Lambda} f(u + z_1) \ge \frac{1}{\det \Lambda} \int_V f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x \ge \sum_{u \in \Lambda} f(u + z_2).$$

We need the column of the unit ball in \mathbb{R}^n .

$$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^\infty t^{x-1} e^{-t} \, \mathrm{d}t$$

$$\Gamma(x+1) = x\Gamma(x)$$

$$B = \{x : ||x|| = 1\}, B \subset \mathbb{R}^n, \text{vol } B = \frac{\pi^{n/2}}{\Gamma(\frac{n}{2} + 1)}$$

We start with integral:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi}, \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{-\|x\|^2} dx = (\sqrt{\pi})^n$$

Let $S(r) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : ||x|| = r\}$ and κ be the surface area of S(1).

$$(\sqrt{\pi})^n = \int_0^\infty \left(\int_{S(r)} e^{-\|x\|^2} dx \right) dr$$

$$= \int_0^\infty r^n \kappa e^{-r^2} dr$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty t^{\frac{n-2}{2}} \kappa e^{-t} dt$$

$$= \kappa \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty t^{\frac{n-2}{2}} \kappa e^{-t} dt$$

$$= \kappa \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty t^{\frac{n-2}{2}} \kappa e^{-t} dt$$

So we have $\kappa = \frac{2\left(\sqrt{\pi}\right)^n}{\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)}$.

Then

$$\operatorname{vol} B = \int_0^1 \kappa t^{n-1} \, \mathrm{d} r = \frac{\kappa}{n} = \frac{\pi^{n/2}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2} + 1\right)}.$$

1.5 Applications of Minkowski's Theorem

First application:

Theorem 1.5.1 (Lagrange's four squares theorem (J-L Lagrange, 1736-1813)). If $n \ge 0$ is a non-negative integer, then $n = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + x_4^2$ for some integer x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 .

Proof. Start as Lagrange did: first, prove assuming that n is prime, then there are $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a^2 + b^2 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$.

n=2 is clear. Consider values of $a^2 \pmod n$ for n>2 and $a=0,1,\ldots,\frac{n-1}{2}$. They are all distinct. Otherwise $a_1^2\equiv a_2^2\equiv \pmod n \implies (a_1-a_2)(a_1+a_2)\pmod n$.

Consider values $-1-b^2 \pmod n$ for $b=0,1,\ldots,\frac{n-1}{2}$. They are all different values.

There are a total of n+1 values, so there exists $a^2 \equiv -1-b^2 \pmod n$ by pigeonhole principle.

We introduce one generally useful lemma:

Lemma 1.5.1. Suppose $a_1, \ldots, a_k \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ and m_1, \ldots, m_k positive integers and

$$\Lambda = \{ x \in \mathbb{Z}^n : \langle x, a_i \rangle \equiv 0 \pmod{m_i} \}.$$

Then Λ is a lattice and $\det \Lambda \leq m_1 \cdots m_k$.

Consider their cosets: pick $0 \le b_i \le m_i$, and the coset is

$$\{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n : \langle x, a_i \rangle \equiv b_i \pmod{m_i}\}$$

if the set is non-empty. Then $|\mathbb{Z}^n/\Lambda| = \frac{\det \Lambda}{\det \mathbb{Z}^n}$.

The rest is from Davenport: Suppose a lattice

$$\Lambda = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{Z}^4 : \begin{array}{l} x_1 \equiv ax_3 + bx_4 \\ x_2 \equiv ax_4 - bx_3 \end{array} \right. \pmod{n} \right\}.$$

If $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \in \Lambda$ then

$$x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + x_4^2 \equiv (ax_3 + bx_4)^2 + (ax_4 - bx_3)^2 + x_3^2 + x_4^2 \pmod{n}$$
$$a^2 x_3^2 + b^2 x_4^2 + 2abx_3 x_4 +$$
$$a^2 x_4^2 + b^2 x_3^2 - 2abx_3 x_4 + x_3^2 + x_4^2 \equiv (a^2 + b^2 + 1)x_3^2 + (b^2 + a^2 + 1)x_4^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$$

So we have $x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + x_4^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ for all $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \in \Lambda$. So $\det \Lambda \leq n^2$. Consider the ball B with radius $\sqrt{2n}$. The volume of the ball $\det B = 2n^2\pi^2 \geq 2^4n^2 \geq 2^4 \det \Pi$. So there exists $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \in \Lambda \setminus \{0\}$ such that $x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + x_4^2 < 2n$ and $x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + x_4^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$.

So we conclude that such $x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + x_4^2 = n$.

Now suppose n is not prime, write $n = \prod p_i$ where p_i 's are prime numbers.

$$(x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + x_4^2)(y_1^2 + y_2^2 + y_3^2 + y_4^2) = z_1^2 + z_2^2 + z_3^2 + z_4^2$$

where

$$\begin{cases} z_1 = x_1y_1 - x_2y_2 - x_3y_3 - x_4y_4 \\ z_2 = x_1y_2 + x_2y_1 + x_3y_4 - x_4y_3 \\ z_3 = x_1y_3 + x_2y_4 + x_3y_1 + x_4y_2 \\ z_4 = x_1y_4 - x_2y_3 - x_3y_3 + x_4y_1 \end{cases}$$

Remember through quaternions. $x_1 + ix_2 + jx_3 + kx_4$.

Jacobi's Formula (C.G.J Jacobi, 1804-1851) The number of integer solutions (not necessarily positive) of the equation

$$x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + x_4^2 = n$$

is $8 \cdot \sum_{d|n,4|d} d$.

EXERCISE Deduce the Jacobi's Formula from the identity

$$\left(\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} q^k\right)^4 = 1 + 8\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{q^k}{\left(1 + (-q)^k\right)^2}, \text{ for } |q| < 1.$$

Gauss Circle Problem (C.-F Gauss, 1777, 1855) $B_r = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : ||x|| \le r\}$. As $r \to \infty$, $|B(r) \cap \mathbb{Z}^2| \approx \pi r^2 + O(r^{1/2+\varepsilon})$ for any $\varepsilon > 0$? Best known is $O(r^{0.63})$ for $\varepsilon = 0.13$.

EXERCISE If n is prime, $n \equiv 1 \pmod 4$. Then $n = x_1^2 + x_2^2$ for some $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$.

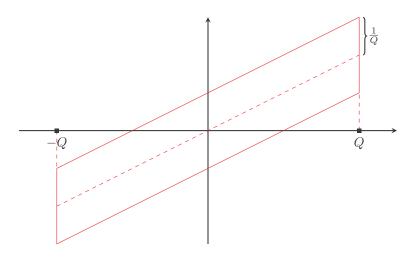
How well can we approximate a real number for rational numbers?

If $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ and $q \ge 1$ is an integer, then for some integer p we have $\left|\alpha - \frac{p}{q}\right| \le \frac{1}{2q}$.

Theorem 1.5.2. For any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ and M > 0, there exists $q \geq M$ and an integer p such that $\left|\alpha - \frac{p}{q}\right| \leq \frac{1}{q^2}$.

It shows that this holds for infinitely many q.

Proof. Assume WLOG that α is irrational. Pick $Q \geq 1$ an integer. Consider the parallelogram in $\mathbb{R}^2: \left\{ |x| \leq Q, |\alpha x - y| \leq \frac{1}{Q} \right\}$.



 Π is convex, symmetric, compact, with area $\Pi=4=2^2$.

By Minkowski, there exists $(q,p)\in\mathbb{Z}^2\setminus\{0\}$, $(q,p)\in\Pi$ such that $|\alpha q-p|\leq\frac{1}{Q},|p|\leq\frac{1}{Q}\Longrightarrow p=0.$ Assume that q>0.

We have $q \leq Q$, and

$$|\alpha q - p| \le \frac{1}{Q} \implies \left|\alpha - \frac{p}{q}\right| \le \frac{1}{Qq} \le \frac{1}{q^2}$$

It remains to show that for any M we can choose $q \geq M$.

Why? α is irrational. Choose Q so large that we cannot have $\left|\alpha - \frac{p}{q}\right| \leq \frac{1}{Q}$ for $q \leq M$.