# Fun With Pythagorean Triples 

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## The Pythagorean Theorem

The Pythagorean Theorem is a basic fact about geometry.

## Theorem

[Pythagorean Theorem] If a right triangle has legs with lengths a and $b$ and hypotenuse with length $c$, then $a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{2}$.

## The Pythagorean Theorem



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## The Pythagorean Theorem

- There are many proofs of the Pythagorean Theorem.
- One book contains 370 proofs-perhaps the most for any theorem.
- (This raises the question of when two proofs should be considered distinct.)
- It is possible for the numbers $a, b$, and $c$ to all be integers.
- Example: $3^{2}+4^{2}=5^{2}$


## Definition

A triple of integers $(a, b, c)$ with $a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{2}$ is called a Pythagorean Triple.

## History

- The Pythagorean Theorem is named for Pythagoras, in ancient Greece.
- Methods for generating such triples have been studied in many cultures, beginning with the Babylonians.
- They were later studied by the ancient Greek, Chinese, and Indian mathematicians.
- An application of Pythagorean triples is in homework problems where the author wants the calculations to work out simply.
- There are some trivial cases
- We see $(0, b, b)$ is a Pythagorean triple, since $0^{2}+b^{2}=b^{2}$.
- If $a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{2}$, then $( \pm a)^{2}+( \pm b)^{2}=( \pm c)^{2}$.
- Hence we typically require that $a, b$, and $c$ be positive integers.
- If $a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{2}$, then $(k a)^{2}+(k b)^{2}=(k c)^{2}$, so $(k a, k b, k c)$ is a Pythagorean triple.
- Thus if $a, b$, and $c$ have a common factor, it can be divided out to obtain a smaller Pythagorean triple.


## Definition

A Pythagorean triple where $a, b$, and $c$ have no common factor is called a primitive Pythagorean triple.

## Finding a Pattern

- The most famous Pythagorean triple is $(3,4,5)$.
- The next most famous Pythagorean triple is $(5,12,13)$.
- Another common Pythagorean triple is $(7,24,25)$.
- Do you see a pattern?
- Start with an odd positive integer.
- Square it, and divide the square into two integers that differ by one.
- This produces a Pythagorean triple.
- Algebraically, for $n=2 k+1$,

$$
\left(n, \frac{n^{2}-1}{2}, \frac{n^{2}+1}{2}\right)
$$

is a Pythagorean triple. This is easily verified.

- Thus $(9,40,41),(11,60,61),(13,84,85),(15,112,113)$, $(17,144,145), \ldots$ are Pythagorean triples.
- I first discovered this pattern (without proof) as a middle-grade student.
- However, not all Pythagorean triples satisfy this pattern!
- Example: $(8,15,17)$.


## A General Solution

- Can we find a general solution that produces all primitive Pythagorean triples?
- A few observations:
- $a$ and $b$ cannot both be even, since then $c$ would be even also.
- An even square equals $0(\bmod 4)$, since $(2 k)^{2}=4 k^{2}$.
- An odd square equals $1(\bmod 4)$, since $(2 k+1)^{2}=4 k^{2}+4 k+1$.
- $a$ and $b$ cannot both be odd, since then $c$ would equal 2 (mod 4).
- Thus let $a$ be even and $b$ be odd, so $c$ must be odd.


## A General Solution

Try some algebra.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{2} \\
& b^{2}=c^{2}-a^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$



Try some algebra.

$$
\begin{gathered}
a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{2} \\
b^{2}=c^{2}-a^{2} \\
b^{2}=(c+a)(c-a) \\
\frac{c+a}{b}=\frac{b}{c-a}
\end{gathered}
$$

## A General Solution

Let $\frac{c+a}{b}=\frac{m}{n}$ (reduced). Then $\frac{c-a}{b}=\frac{n}{m}$.
Adding, we find

so

$$
\frac{c}{b}=\frac{m^{2}+n^{2}}{2 m n}
$$

Similarly, subtracting yields

$$
\frac{a}{b}=\frac{m^{2}-n^{2}}{2 m n}
$$

We would like to equate numerators and denominators. Since the left sides are reduced, we need the right sides reduced. Thus we need $m$ and $n$ to have opposite parity. Note also that if $m$ and $m^{2}+n^{2}$ had a common factor, then so would $m$ and $n$. The other
cases are similar.

## A General Solution

Let $\frac{c+a}{b}=\frac{m}{n}$ (reduced). Then $\frac{c-a}{b}=\frac{n}{m}$.
Adding, we find

$$
2 \frac{c}{b}=\frac{m}{n}+\frac{n}{m}=\frac{m^{2}+n^{2}}{m n}
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We would like to equate numerators and denominators. Since the left sides are reduced, we need the right sides reduced. Thus we need $m$ and $n$ to have opposite parity. Note also that if $m$ and $m^{2}+n^{2}$ had a common factor, then so would $m$ and $n$. The other cases are similar.

Putting this all together, we have

## Theorem

All primitive Pythagorean triples $(a, b, c)$ with $a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{2}$ are given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a=m^{2}-n^{2} \\
& b=2 m n \\
& c=m^{2}+n^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $m>n>0, m$ and $n$ are relatively prime, and $m$ and $n$ have opposite parity.

It is easy to check that this gives a Pythagorean triple, as

$$
a^{2}+b^{2}=\left(m^{2}-n^{2}\right)^{2}+(2 m n)^{2}=\left(m^{2}+n^{2}\right)^{2}=c^{2}
$$

## Pythagorean Triples with Small Lengths



Figure : Source: Wikipedia

## Factors in Pythagorean Triples

What numbers can be factors of $a, b$, and $c$ ?

## Theorem

Exactly one of $a$ and $b$ is divisible by three.

## Proof.

If both were divisible by three, then $c$ would be also.
If neither are divisible by three, then they equal one or two mod 3 .
$(3 k+1)^{2}=9 k^{2}+6 k+1$
$(3 k+2)^{2}=9 k^{2}+12 k+4$
Thus $a^{2}$ and $b^{2}$ both equal $1 \bmod 3$, so $c^{2} \equiv 2 \bmod 3$, which is impossible.

- Exactly one of $a$ and $b$ is divisible by 4 .
- Exactly one of $a, b$, and $c$ is divisible by 5 .


## Numbers in Pythagorean Triples

What numbers can be contained in Pythagorean triples?

## Theorem

An integer $r>1$ is a leg of some primitive Pythagorean triple $\Longleftrightarrow$ $r \neq 2(\bmod 4)$.

## Proof.

$(\Leftarrow)$ Let $r$ be odd. Then $\left(r, \frac{r^{2}-1}{2}, \frac{r^{2}+1}{2}\right)$ is a Pythagorean triple. It is primitive since if $p$ divides $r, p$ does not divide $r+1$ or $r-1$. Let $r=4 k$. Then $\left(4 k^{2}-1,4 k, 4 k^{2}+1\right)$ is a Pythagorean triple which is primitive since if $p$ divides $2 k$, it does not divide $2 k+1$ or $2 k-1$.
$(\Rightarrow)$ Let $r \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$. Then $n$ is even, but not divisible by 4 . Then $r$ is not $a$, so if it is $b$, then $r=2 m n$. But one of $m$ and $n$ are even, so $r$ is not $b$ either.

Thus $6,10,14, \ldots$ are not legs of any primitive Pythagorean triple.

## Fermat's Theorem

To determine whether an integer can be a hypotenuse of a Pythagorean triple, we need another theorem first.

## Theorem

[Fermat's Theorem on the Sums of Squares] The prime $p$ is the sum of two integer squares, $p=a^{2}+b^{2} \Longleftrightarrow p=2$ or $p \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$.

- For example, $2=1+1,5=4+1,13=9+4,17=16+1$, $29=25+4,37=36+1$, and $41=25+16$.
- However, $3,7,11,19,23,31,43, \ldots$ are not sums of two squares.

We need a corollary of this theorem.

## Corollary

Let $n=2^{k} p_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots p_{r}^{a_{r}} q_{1}^{b_{1}} \cdots q_{s}^{b_{s}}$ be a positive integer where the factors are all primes and $p_{i} \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ and $q_{i} \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$. Then $n=A^{2}+B^{2} \Longleftrightarrow$ each $b_{i}$ is even. In this case, $n$ can be represented as a sum of squares in $4\left(a_{1}+1\right) \cdots\left(a_{r}+1\right)$ ways.

- For example, $65=5 \cdot 13=64+1=49+16$. Interchanging and allowing negatives produces the 16 possibilities.
- These results can be proved using Gaussian integers, which we will not examine in this talk.


## Numbers in Pythagorean Triples

## Theorem

An integer $r>1$ is the hypotenuse of some primitive Pythagorean triple $\Longleftrightarrow$ any prime factor $p$ of $r$ satisfies $p \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$.

## Proof.

$(\Leftarrow)$ By Corollary $8, r$ can be expressed as a sum of squares, $r=m^{2}+n^{2}$. The facts that $m>n>0, m$ and $n$ are relatively prime, and $m$ and $n$ have opposite parity can be checked using the proof of Corollary 8.
$(\Rightarrow)$ Assume $p \neq 1(\bmod 4)$. If $p=2$, then $p$ does not divide $n$, since $n$ is odd. If $p=3(\bmod 4)$, then by Corollary $8, p^{2}$ divides $n$. But $\frac{n}{p^{2}}$ can be expressed as a sum of squares the same number of ways, so if $\frac{n}{p^{2}}=m^{2}+n^{2}$, then $n=(p m)^{2}+(p n)^{2}$. Thus the triple is not primitive, so $p$ does not divide $n$.

Thus $65=5 \cdot 13$ is the hypotenuse of $(63,16,65)$, but $11=4 \cdot 2+3$ and $49=7^{2}$ are not the hvpotenuses of anv primitive triple. $\bar{\equiv}$ 킼. बac

## Enumerating Pythagorean Triples

## Theorem

Let $r$ be an integer, $r \neq 2(\bmod 4)$, with $k$ distinct prime factors. Then $r$ is a leg of $2^{k-1}$ different primitive Pythagorean triples.

## Proof.

Let $r$ be even, so 4 divides $n$. Then $r=2 m n$, and one of $m$ and $n$ is even, so 2 divides $m n$. Thus $m n$ has the same number of distinct prime factors as $r$. Now $r=2^{k} p_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots p_{r}^{a_{r}}$. We want all possible factorizations of $\frac{r}{2}$ into $m$ and $n$, which are relatively prime. Thus if $p_{i}$ divides $m$, so does $p_{i}^{a_{i}}$. Since there are $k$ distinct factors, there are $2^{k}$ possibilities. But every possible factorization is counted twice, so there are $2^{k-1}$ ways that $r$ occurs in Pythagorean triples. Let $r$ be odd. Then $r=m^{2}-n^{2}=(m+n)(m-n)$. Thus $m+n$ and $m-n$ are odd. If they had a common odd factor, it would divide their sum $2 m$ and difference $2 n$, a contradiction. Thus we want all possible factorizations of $r$ into two relatively prime factors. As with the even case there are $2^{k-1}$ wavs to do this.

## Enumerating Pythagorean Triples

For example, $60=2^{2} 3 \cdot 5$ is a leg in four triples: $(11,60,61)$, $(91,60,109),(221,60,229)$, and $(899,60,901)$.

## Theorem

Let $r$ be an integer with $k$ distinct prime factors such that any prime factor $p$ of $r$ satisfies $p \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$. Then $r$ is the hypotenuse of $2^{k-1}$ different primitive Pythagorean triples.

Thus $65=5 \cdot 13$ is the hypotenuse of $(63,16,65)$ and $(33,56,65)$.

## Corollary

An integer occurs $r$ times as a leg or hypotenuse of a primitive Pythagorean triple $\Longleftrightarrow r=2^{k-1}$ for some integer $k$.
No number occurs infinitely many times as a leg or hypotenuse of a primitive Pythagorean triple.
For all $N$, there exists $r$ such that $r$ occurs more than $N$ times as a leg or hypotenuse of a primitive Pythagorean triple.

## Enumerating Pythagorean Triples

Furthermore,

## Corollary

The smallest even number to occur as a leg of a primitive Pythagorean triple $2^{k-1}$ times is 2 times the product of the first $k$ distinct primes.
The smallest odd number to occur as a leg of a primitive Pythagorean triple $2^{k-1}$ times is the product of the first $k$ distinct odd primes.
The smallest number to occur as the hypotenuse of a primitive Pythagorean triple $2^{k-1}$ times is the product of the first $k$ distinct primes that are congruent to $1(\bmod 4)$.

## Enumerating Pythagorean Triples

What about non-primitive triples?

## Theorem

The number of ways that an integer $r=2^{j} p_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{a_{k}}$ occurs as a leg of (not-necessarily primitive) Pythagorean triples is

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{1}{2}\left(\Pi\left(2 a_{i}+1\right)-1\right) & \text { rodd } \\
\left(j-\frac{1}{2}\right) \Pi\left(2 a_{i}+1\right)-\frac{1}{2} & \text { reven }
\end{array}\right.
$$

- For example, $15=3 \cdot 5$ is a leg of four triples: $5(3,4,5)$, $3(5,12,13),(15,8,17)$, and $(15,112,113)$.
- For example, $12=2^{2} 3$ is a leg of four triples: $3(3,4,5)$, $4(3,4,5),(5,12,13)$, and $(35,12,37)$.


## Enumerating Pythagorean Triples

## Theorem

The number of ways that an integer $r=2^{j} p_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{a_{k}} q_{1}^{b_{1}} \cdots q_{l}^{b_{1}}$ where the factors are all primes and $p_{i} \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ and $q_{i} \equiv 3$ (mod 4) occurs as the hypotenuse of (not-necessarily primitive) Pythagorean triples is $\frac{1}{2}\left(\Pi\left(2 a_{i}+1\right)-1\right)$.

- For example, $65=5 \cdot 13$ is the hypotenuse of four triples: $13(3,4,5), 5(5,12,13),(63,16,65)$ and $(33,56,65)$.
- The proofs of the previous two theorems analyze the number of ways to distribute the possible factors.


## Triples and Matrices

Consider a Pythagorean triple as a column vector.
Start with $(3,4,5)$ and multiply by the following matrices
$A=\left[\begin{array}{lll}1 & -2 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 & 2 \\ 2 & -2 & 3\end{array}\right], B=\left[\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 3\end{array}\right], C=\left[\begin{array}{lll}-1 & 2 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 2 & 3\end{array}\right]$

These are all primitive Pythagorean triples!

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$\left[\begin{array}{lll}1 & -2 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 & 2 \\ 2 & -2 & 3\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}3 \\ 4 \\ 5\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}5 \\ 12 \\ 13\end{array}\right]$
$\left[\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 3\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}3 \\ 4 \\ 5\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}21 \\ 20 \\ 29\end{array}\right]$
$\left[\begin{array}{lll}-1 & 2 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 2 & 3\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}3 \\ 4 \\ 5\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}15 \\ 8 \\ 17\end{array}\right]$
These are all primitive Pythagorean triples!

## Triples and Matrices

It is possible to generate all primitive Pythagorean triples this way.


## Triples and Matrices

Note that special cases are produced by multiplying by only one of $A, B$, or $C$.

- $(3,4,5) A^{k}:\left(r, \frac{r^{2}-1}{2}, \frac{r^{2}+1}{2}\right), r=2 k+1$
- $(3,4,5) B^{k}: b-a=(-1)^{k}$
- $(3,4,5) C^{k}:\left(4 k^{2}-1,4 k, 4 k^{2}+1\right)$



## Triples and Matrices

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- $(3,4,5) C^{k}:\left(4 k^{2}-1,4 k, 4 k^{2}+1\right)$

To check that a Pythagorean triple is produced by $A$, we see
$\left[\begin{array}{lll}1 & -2 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 & 2 \\ 2 & -2 & 3\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}a \\ b \\ c\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}a-2 b+2 c \\ 2 a-b+2 c \\ 2 a-2 b+3 c\end{array}\right]$
$(a-2 b+2 c)^{2}+(2 a-b+2 c)^{2}$
$=\left(a^{2}+4 b^{2}+4 c^{2}-4 a b+4 a c-8 b c\right)+$
$\left(4 a^{2}+b^{2}+4 c^{2}-4 a b+8 a c-4 b c\right)$
$=5 a^{2}+5 b^{2}+8 c^{2}-8 a b+12 a c-12 b c\left(\right.$ since $\left.a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{2}\right)$
$=4 a^{2}+4 b^{2}+9 c^{2}-8 a b+12 a c-12 b c=(2 a-2 b+3 c)^{2}$
Matrices $B$ and $C$ can be similarly checked.

## Triples and Matrices

- Why is the triple primitive?
- The three matrices are unimodular-that is, they have integer entries and determinant $\pm 1$.
- Thus their inverses are also unimodular.
- Now if $(d, e, f)=A(a, b, c)$, then $(a, b, c)=A^{-1}(d, e, f)$.
- Thus if $d, e$, and $f$ have a common factor, then $a, b$, and $c$ must also.
- To show that each triple is obtained only once, we show that there is only one path back to $(3,4,5)$
- For each triple, only one of the three inverse matrices $A^{-1}$ $B^{-1}$, and $C^{-1}$ yields all positive entries and a smaller hypotenuse.
- By induction, there is only one path from the triple to $(3,4,5)$, and hence the reverse is also true.
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## Generalizations

- There are many generalizations of Pythagorean triples.
- Pythagorean Quadruples: $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}=d^{2}$
- Examples:
- $(1,2,2,3)$, since $1^{2}+2^{2}+2^{2}=3^{2}$
- $(2,3,6,7)$, since $2^{2}+3^{2}+6^{2}=7^{2}$
- These are all given by the formula
$\left(m^{2}+n^{2}-p^{2}-q^{2}\right)^{2}+(2 m q+2 n p)^{2}+(2 n q-2 m p)^{2}=$ $\left(m^{2}+n^{2}+p^{2}+q^{2}\right)^{2}$.
- This can be generalized to Pythagorean n-tuples.


## Heronian Triples

- Heron's formula for the area of a triangle says that $A=\sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)}$.
- A Heronian triangle is one for which $a, b$, and $c$ and $A$ are integers.
- Any Pythagorean triple is a Heronian triple, since $A=\frac{1}{2} a b$, and one of $a$ and $b$ must be even.
- However, there are other examples:
- $(4,13,15)$ with area 24
- $(3,25,26)$ with area 36
- $(7,15,20)$ with area 42
- $(6,25,29)$ with area 60
- Heron's formula requires that $\left(a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}\right)^{2}-2\left(a^{4}+b^{4}+c^{4}\right)$ be a nonzero perfect square divisible by 16 .
- In 1637, Pierre de Fermat asserted Fermat's Last Theorem:


## Theorem

[Fermat's Last Theorem] There are no positive integer solutions $(x, y, z)$ to

$$
x^{n}+y^{n}=z^{n}
$$

for any integer $n>2$.

- Fermat claimed to have proven this theorem, but that the margin of the book he was reading was too small to contain the proof.
- For 358 years no proof was found. Many mathematicians tried to find a proof, whether Fermat's or something else.
- For a long time this was perhaps the most famous unsolved problem in mathematics.
- Many partial results were obtained, and the result was proved for specific values of $n$. However, a full proof remained elusive.
- This quest motivated much of the development of the subject of number theory.
- Finally in 1995, after seven years of work, British mathematician Andrew Wiles announced a proof.
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## Sources:

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- Wikipedia

