# The representation function for sums of three squares along arithmetic progressions 

By Paul Pollack<br>Department of Mathematics, University of Georgia, Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602, USA<br>(Communicated by Kenji Fukaya, m.J.A., Sept. 12, 2016)


#### Abstract

For positive integers $n$, let $r(n)=\#\left\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbf{Z}^{3}: x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}=n\right\}$. Let $g$ be a positive integer, and let $A \bmod M$ be any congruence class containing a squarefree integer. We show that there are infinitely many squarefree positive integers $n \equiv A \bmod M$ for which $g$ divides $r(n)$. This generalizes a result of Cho.


Key words: Class number; imaginary quadratic field; three squares.

1. Introduction. For each positive integer $n$, let $r(n)$ denote the number of ways of writing $n$ as a sum of three squares, i.e., $r(n)=\#\{(x, y, z) \in$ $\left.\mathbf{Z}^{3}: x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}=n\right\}$. Recently, Cho established the following result concerning values of $r(n)$ divisible by a fixed integer [2, Theorem 2].

Theorem A. Let $g$ be a positive integer.
(a) There are infinitely many squarefree $n \equiv 1$ $\bmod 4$ for which $12 g \mid r(n)$.
(b) If $g$ is odd, then there are infinitely many squarefree $n \equiv 2 \bmod 4$ for which $12 g \mid r(n)$.
(c) If $g$ is odd, then there are infinitely many squarefree $n \equiv 3 \bmod 8$ for which $24 g \mid r(n)$.
In this note, we strengthen Theorem A by proving a divisibility result valid not only for the progressions $1,2 \bmod 4$ and $3 \bmod 8$, but for any progression $A \bmod M$ compatible with the squarefree condition. Moreover, in every case we guarantee divisibility by an arbitrary positive integer $g$.

Theorem 1. Let $g$ be a positive integer. Let $A \bmod M$ be any congruence class containing $a$ squarefree integer. There are infinitely many squarefree $n \equiv A \bmod M$ for which $g \mid r(n)$.

Corollary 2. Let $g$ be a positive integer. Let $A \bmod M$ be a congruence class containing a squarefree integer, and suppose that $A \bmod M$ is not entirely contained in the residue class $7 \bmod 8$. There are infinitely many squarefree $n \equiv A \bmod M$ with $r(n)$ a nonzero multiple of $g$.

Remark 3. It is well-known that the progression $A \bmod M$ contains at least one squarefree

[^0]integer precisely when $\operatorname{gcd}(A, M)$ is squarefree, in which case a positive proportion of the positive integers $n \equiv A \bmod M$ are squarefree. See, for instance, $\S 2$ of Pappalardi's survey [9].

## 2. Proof of Theorem 1 and Corollary 2.

2.1. Sketch. We require two auxiliary results. The first is essentially due to Gauss [4, Art. 291] (cf. [5, Chapter 4]). In what follows, we write $h(d)$ for the class number of the quadratic field $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{d})$.

Proposition 4. Let $n$ be a squarefree integer with $n>3$.
(a) If $n \equiv 1,2 \bmod 4$, then $r(n)=12 h(-n)$.
(b) If $n \equiv 3 \bmod 8$, then $r(n)=24 h(-n)$.
(c) If $n \equiv 7 \bmod 8$, then $r(n)=0$.

At the heart of the proof of Theorem 1 is a divisibility result for class numbers of imaginary quadratic fields (compare with [2, Theorem 1]).

Proposition 5. Let $g$ be a positive integer. Let $A \bmod M$ be a congruence class containing a squarefree integer. There are infinitely many positive squarefree integers $d \equiv A \bmod M$ for which the class group of $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{-d})$ contains an element of order $g$.

Proof of Theorem 1. Suppose $d>3$ is squarefree with $d \equiv A \bmod M$ and with the class group of $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{-d})$ containing an element of order $g$. Then $g$ divides $h(-d)$, which in turn divides $r(d)$ by Proposition 4. By Proposition 5, there are infinitely many of these $d$, and Theorem 1 follows.

Proof of Corollary 2. We claim we can find an arithmetic progression contained in the intersection of the progression $A \bmod M$ and one of the progressions $1,2,3,5,6 \bmod 8$, and containing a
squarefree integer. Keeping in mind Proposition 4, the corollary then follows from Theorem 1.

Let $A_{0}$ be a squarefree integer from the residue class $A \bmod M$. Suppose first that $A_{0} \not \equiv 7 \bmod 8$. In this case $A_{0} \bmod 8 M$ is the desired progression. Suppose now that $A_{0} \equiv 7 \bmod 8$. Then $8 \nmid M$, so that $\operatorname{lcm}[4, M] \equiv 4 \bmod 8$. Then $A_{0}+\operatorname{lcm}[4, M] \equiv$ $3 \bmod 8$ and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(A_{0}+\operatorname{lcm}[4, M], 8 M\right)$ is squarefree. So (keeping in mind Remark 3) the residue class $A_{0}+\operatorname{lcm}[4, M] \bmod 8 M$ has the desired properties.

The remainder of this note is devoted to a proof of Proposition 5.
2.2. Proof of Proposition 5. To construct our imaginary quadratic fields, we employ a lemma appearing in work of Soundararajan [10, Proposition 1] (compare with earlier results of Nagel [8, Sätze IV, V], Humbert [6, Théorème 1], and Ankeny and Chowla [1, Theorem 1]).

Lemma 6. Let $g \geq 3$ be an integer. Suppose $d \geq 63$ is a squarefree integer satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
t^{2} d=m^{g}-n^{2} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $t, m, n$ are positive integers with $\operatorname{gcd}(m, 2 n)=$ 1 and $m^{g}<(d+1)^{2}$. Then the class group of $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{-d})$ contains an element of order $g$.

We will also use the following elementary result concerning $g$ th power residues. Below, we write $\nu_{p}(g)$ for the $p$-adic valuation of the integer $g$.

Lemma 7. Let $g$ be a positive integer. If $p$ is an odd prime, then every integer $n \equiv 1 \bmod p^{\nu_{p}(g)+1}$ is a gth power in the ring $\mathbf{Z}_{p}$ of p-adic integers. The same holds if $p=2$ under the stronger hypothesis that $n \equiv 1 \bmod p^{\nu_{p}(g)+2}$.

Proof. This follows from the fact that the usual binomial expansion for $(1+x)^{1 / g}$ converges $p$-adically for $|x|_{p} \leq p^{-\nu_{p}(g)-1}$ when $p$ is odd, and for $|x|_{p} \leq p^{-\nu_{p}(g)-2}$ when $p=2$ (see, for instance, [3, Corollary 4.2.16, p. 216]).

Proof of Proposition 5. The case $g=1$ is trivial. Suppose $g=2$. By genus theory, $h(-d)$ is odd for a positive squarefree number $d>2$ if and only if $d$ is a prime with $d \equiv 3 \bmod 4$. Since the primes have asymptotic density 0 , it follows that the conclusion of Proposition 5 holds for asymptotically $100 \%$ of squarefree $d \equiv A \bmod M$. Henceforth, we assume that $g \geq 3$. Let $A_{0}$ be a squarefree integer with $A_{0} \equiv A \bmod M$. By replacing $A$ with $A_{0}$ and $M$ by $4 M^{2}$, we can assume that $M$ is even, squarefull, and that no integer congruent to $A \bmod$
$M$ is divisible by the square of a prime dividing $M$. Set

$$
t=2 \prod_{p \mid M} p^{\nu_{p}(g)+1}
$$

We fix an integer $m_{0}$ satisfying

$$
m_{0}^{g} \equiv 1+t^{2} A \bmod M t^{2}
$$

Such an $m_{0}$ exists, since $1+t^{2} A$ is a $g$ th power in $\mathbf{Z}_{p}$ for every prime $p \mid M t^{2}$, by Lemma 7. If $n \equiv 1 \bmod M t^{2}$, and $m \equiv m_{0} \bmod M t^{2}$, then $m^{g}-$ $n^{2} \equiv t^{2} A \bmod M t^{2}$, so that $t^{2} \mid m^{g}-n^{2}$, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
d:=\frac{m^{g}-n^{2}}{t^{2}} \equiv A \bmod M \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now impose further conditions on $m$ and $n$ in order to apply Lemma 6.

Let $x$ be a large real number. Here "large" always means "sufficiently large, in a way that can be made to depend only on the fixed parameters $A$, $M$, and $g$." Note that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(m_{0}, M t^{2}\right)=1$; thus, by the prime number theorem for progressions, we may choose a prime $m \equiv m_{0} \bmod M t^{2}$ with $\frac{1}{2} x<m^{g} \leq$ $x$. With $X:=\sqrt{m^{g} / 2}$, we look for integers $n \in[1, X]$ with $n \equiv 1 \bmod M t^{2}, \operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=1$ and with $d$, as defined in (2), squarefree. For any such $n$,

$$
x>d=\frac{m^{g}-n^{2}}{t^{2}} \geq \frac{1}{2} \frac{m^{g}}{t^{2}}>\frac{1}{4} \frac{x}{t^{2}}
$$

and hence $d$ certainly exceeds 63 for large $x$. Also, for large $x$,

$$
(d+1)^{2}>\frac{1}{16} \frac{x^{2}}{t^{4}}>x \geq m^{g}
$$

Thus, Lemma 6 applies, and each such $n$ gives rise to a squarefree $d \equiv A \bmod M$ with the class group of $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{-d})$ having an element of order $g$.

The number of $n$ as above is at least $\sum_{1}-$ $\sum_{2}-\sum_{3}$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{1}=\sum_{\substack{n \leq X \\
n \equiv 1 \bmod M t^{2}}} 1 \\
& \sum_{2}=\sum_{\substack{n \leq X \\
n \equiv 1 \bmod M t^{2} \\
m \mid n}} 1 \\
& \sum_{3}=\sum_{\substack{n \leq X \\
n \equiv 1 \bmod M t^{2} \\
\operatorname{gcd}(n, m)=1 \\
d \operatorname{not} \operatorname{squarefree}}} 1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Clearly, $\sum_{1} \geq \frac{X}{M t^{2}}-1>0.9 \frac{X}{M t^{2}}$, while $\sum_{2} \leq \frac{X}{M m t^{2}}+$ $1<0.1 \frac{X}{M t^{2}}$ (for large $x$ ). Now suppose $n$ is counted
in $\sum_{3}$, and that the prime $p$ is such that $p^{2} \mid d$. Then $n^{2} \equiv m^{g} \bmod p^{2}$. Since $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=1$, we have $p \nmid m$. Thus, the congruence $n^{2} \equiv m^{g} \bmod p^{2}$ puts $n$ in one of two residue classes modulo $p^{2}$. We also know that $p \nmid M$; indeed, $d \equiv A \bmod M$ and no integer from the residue class $A \bmod M$ is divisible by the square of a prime dividing $M$. Since $n \equiv$ $1 \bmod M t^{2}$ and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(M t^{2}, p^{2}\right)=1$, we see that $n$ is in one of two residue classes modulo $M t^{2} p^{2}$. So for a given $p$, the number of corresponding $n \leq X$ is at most $\frac{2 X}{M t^{2} p^{2}}+1$. Finally, we bound $\sum_{3}$ by summing on possible primes $p$. Note that $p$ is odd (since $M$ is even) and that $p^{2} \leq m^{g} / t^{2}<m^{g} / 2=X^{2}$. Thus,

$$
\sum_{3} \leq \sum_{2<p \leq X}\left(\frac{2 X}{M t^{2} p^{2}}+1\right)<\frac{X}{M t^{2}} \sum_{p>2} \frac{2}{p^{2}}+\pi(X)
$$

Since

$$
\sum_{p>2} \frac{2}{p^{2}}<\frac{2}{9}+2 \sum_{j \geq 5} \frac{1}{j^{2}}<\frac{2}{9}+2 \sum_{j \geq 5} \int_{j-1}^{j} \frac{d t}{t^{2}}<0.73
$$

and $\pi(X)<0.01 \frac{X}{M t^{2}}$ for large $x$ (as the primes have density 0 ), we have $\sum_{3}<\frac{3}{4} \frac{X}{M t^{2}}$. Collecting our estimates, we see that the number of suitable $n$ is bounded below by

$$
0.05 \frac{X}{M t^{2}}>\frac{0.025}{M t^{2}} \cdot x^{1 / 2}
$$

Since distinct $n$ give rise to distinct $d$, this is also a lower bound on the number of $d \leq x$ satisfying the conclusion of Proposition 5. Since this lower bound tends to infinity with $x$, the full collection of $d$ satisfying the conclusion of Proposition 5 must be an infinite set.

Remark 8. We have stated Proposition 5 in a qualitative form, but the result actually established is quantitative. Namely, for fixed $A$, $M$, and $g$, the number of $d \leq x$ satisfying the conclusion of Proposition 5 is $\gg x^{1 / 2}$, for all large $x$. Here (and in the next paragraph) the notation suppresses the dependence of implied constants on $A, M$, and $g$.

Without aiming for the sharpest possible lower bound, we now describe how to do slightly better with little effort. Suppose $g \geq 3$. At the moment where we choose $m$ in the above proof, we can instead consider running the argument for all of the $\asymp x^{1 / g} / \log x$ possible choices of $m$. We find that if $x$ is large, we produce $\gg x^{1 / 2+1 / g} / \log x$ values of $d \leq x$; the only problem is that distinct $m$ may yield the same values of $d$. By an argument of Murty
[7, bottom of p. 235], each pair of distinct $m$ results in an overlap of only $x^{o(1)}$ values of $d$ (as $\left.x \rightarrow \infty\right)$. Hence, the total overlap is accounted for by subtracting a term of size $x^{2 / g+o(1)}$. Since $x^{2 / g+o(1)}$ is of smaller order than $x^{1 / 2+1 / g} / \log x$, we deduce that there are $\gg x^{1 / 2+1 / g} / \log x$ values of $d \leq x$ satisfying the conclusion of Proposition 5.
3. Conclusion. We finish this note by remarking that Proposition 5 yields a short, conceptually simple proof of the following theorem of Yamamoto [12, Theorem 1]:

Theorem 9. Let $g$ be a positive integer. Let $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{k}$ be distinct primes, and for each $1 \leq i \leq k$, let $\epsilon_{i} \in\{-1,0,1\}$. There are infinitely many negative fundamental discriminants $D$ with the class group of $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{D})$ containing an element of order $g$ and with $\left(\frac{D}{p_{i}}\right)=\epsilon_{i}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq k$.

Proof. It is well-known that there are infinitely many fundamental discriminants $D_{0}$ satisfying $\left(\frac{D_{0}}{p_{i}}\right)=\epsilon_{i}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq k$. In fact, a positive proportion of all fundamental discriminants have this property; for rather far-reaching generalizations of these facts, see [11]. Fix any such $D_{0}$. Observe that if $D$ is any fundamental discriminant with $D \equiv D_{0} \bmod 4 \prod_{i=1}^{k} p_{i}$, then $\left(\frac{D}{p_{i}}\right)=\epsilon_{i}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq k$.

Suppose that 4 divides $D_{0}$. Apply Proposition 5 to the progression $-D_{0} / 4 \bmod 4 \prod_{i=1}^{k} p_{i}$, which contains the squarefree integer $-D_{0} / 4$. If $d$ is as in the conclusion of the Proposition, then $-d \equiv$ $D_{0} / 4 \equiv 2,3 \bmod 4$ and so $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{-d})$ has discriminant $D:=-4 d$. Then $D \equiv D_{0} \bmod 4 \prod_{i=1}^{k} p_{i}$. Moreover, $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{D})=\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{-d})$, and the class group has an element of order $g$. This completes the proof of Theorem 9 in the case when $4 \mid D_{0}$.

When $D_{0} \equiv 1 \bmod 4$, we argue analogously, this time applying Proposition 5 to the progression $-D_{0} \bmod 4 \prod_{i=1}^{k} p_{i}$.

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