

On the Number of Integers Representable as the Sum of Two Squares

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(Received Oct. 31, 1969)

§ 1. It has been proved by E. Landau [1] [A] that for $B(x)$, the number of integers not exceeding x and representable as the sum of two squares of integers, we have

$$B(x) \sim b_0 \frac{x}{\sqrt{\log x}}, \quad b_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \prod_r (1 - r^{-2})^{-\frac{1}{2}},$$

as $x \rightarrow \infty$, where r runs through all the primes $\equiv 3 \pmod{4}$.

Recently some authors [2] [3] have investigated certain generalizations of the theorem of Landau, and in the present paper I consider some related problems from a different point of view.

My purpose is to prove the following theorems.

Theorem 1 *If we denote by $C(x)$ the number of integers $\leq x$ with primitive representations. i. e., which are representable as the sum of two squares of coprime natural numbers, then we have as $x \rightarrow \infty$*

$$C(x) \sim \frac{3}{8b_0} \cdot \frac{x}{\sqrt{\log x}},$$

where b_0 is the same constant as Landau's.

Theorem 2 *Let $P(x)$ denote the number of integers $\leq x$ with precisely one* primitive representation. Then we have*

$$P(x) \sim \frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{x}{\log x}.$$

Theorem 3 *If $R(x)$ denotes the number of integers $\leq x$ representable as the sum of two squares of integers in one and only one way,* then we have an asymptotic expansion*

$$R(x) \sim c_1 \frac{x}{\log x} + c_2 \frac{x}{\log^2 x} + \dots$$

* Two representations are regarded here as being equal when they differ only in the order of summands.

Theorem 4. *If we denote by $D(x)$ the number of natural numbers $\leq x$ each of which is not the hypotenuse of any Pythagorean triangle, then*

$$D(x) = \frac{4b_0}{\pi} \cdot \frac{x}{\sqrt{\log x}} + O\left(\frac{x}{(\log x)^{\frac{3}{2}}}\right).$$

§2. Theorem 1 is derived from the following

Lemma 1.* *A natural number n is the sum of two squares of coprime natural numbers if and only if n is divisible neither by 4 nor by a natural number $\equiv 3 \pmod{4}$.*

We know from Lemma 1 that $C(x)$ is the number of integers $\leq x$ such that each of them is the product of primes $\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ only, or the product of 2 and primes $\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

So, if we put

$$c_n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = \text{product of primes } \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \text{ only, or } 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

then we have

$$C(x) = \sum_{n \leq x} c_n + \sum_{n \leq \frac{x}{2}} c_n - 2.$$

Next we define as usual a Dirichlet series

$$f(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_n}{n^s}, \quad s = \sigma + ti,$$

for $\sigma > 1$, which converges absolutely and almost uniformly** in the half-plane. Since c_n is completely multiplicative, we have

$$f(s) = \prod_q (1 - q^{-s})^{-1},$$

where q runs through all the primes $\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

But we know that

$$\zeta(s)L(s, \chi_4) = (1 - 2^{-s})^{-1} \prod_q (1 - q^{-s})^{-2} \prod_r (1 - r^{-2s})^{-1},$$

where $L(s, \chi_4)$ is the Dirichlet's L -function for the nonprincipal character $(\text{mod } 4)$.

Hence we have for $\sigma > 1$,

$$f(s)^2 = (1 - 2^{-s}) \prod_r (1 - r^{-2s}) \zeta(s)L(s, \chi_4).$$

Now it is obvious that we can go farther in quite the same way as that of Landau using the known properties of ζ and L , and we omit the details except

* See [D] p. 362.

** This terminology is that of Saks-Zygmund "Analytic Functions".

the final result

$$\sum_{n \leq x} c_n \sim \frac{1}{4b_0} \cdot \frac{x}{\sqrt{\log x}}.$$

This gives at once Theorem 1.

§ 3. Theorem 2 is an immediate consequence of the following

Lemma 2.* *A natural number n admits precisely one primitive representation if and only if n is one of the numbers*

$$2, p^l, 2p^l,$$

where p is a prime $\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, and l a natural number.

Let $\tilde{P}(x)$ denote the number of natural numbers $\leq x$ of the form p^l where p is any prime $\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and l any natural number. Then we clearly have

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{P}(x) &= \sum_{l \leq \log_5 x} \pi(x^{1/l}; 4, 1) \\ &= \pi(x; 4, 1) + \sum_{2 \leq l \leq \log_5 x} \pi(x^{1/l}; 4, 1) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{x}{\log x} + o\left(\frac{x}{\log x}\right), \end{aligned}$$

from the prime number theorem in an arithmetical progression.

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} P(x) &= 1 + \tilde{P}(x) + \tilde{P}\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) + O(\sqrt{x}) \\ &\sim \frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{x}{\log x}. \end{aligned}$$

§ 4. In this section we shall prove at a time Theorem 3 and Theorem 4. In fact Theorem 4 is a by-product of Theorem 3. We start from

Lemma 3. *A natural number n admits precisely one representation as the sum of two squares of natural numbers if and only if n is one of the numbers*

$$d^2p, 2d^2p, 2d^2, d^2p^2,$$

where d is any natural number which has no prime divisor $\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and p is any prime $\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

Proof : Let $n = a^2 + b^2$, $(a, b) = d$. Then $\frac{n}{d^2} = a'^2 + b'^2$, $(a', b') = 1$. Thus from Lemma 1, we have

* While the case of odd n is only treated in [D] p. 212, the word 'odd' is dropped there. See also [4].

$$n = d^2 \prod_i p_i, \quad 2d^2 \prod_i p_i, \quad 2d^2,$$

where each p is a prime $\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. On the other hand it is known* that the number $\tau(n)$ of the representations of n as the sum of two squares of integers is equal to $4 \prod_i (1 + \alpha_i)$ where the α 's are the exponents on the primes $\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ in the standard factorization of n . From this fact follows our desired result at once.

Proof of Theorem 3 : Clearly it is sufficient to care for $n = d^2 p$ only. Let $\tilde{R}(x)$ denote the number of these n 's not exceeding x , and $D(x)$ the number of all such d 's $\leq x$. Then we obtain

$$\tilde{R}(x) = \sum_{\substack{p \leq x \\ p \equiv 1(4)}} D\left(\sqrt{\frac{x}{p}}\right).$$

If we introduce a Dirichlet series

$$g(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{d_n}{n^s},$$

for $\sigma > 1$ with

$$d_n = \begin{cases} 1 \cdots \cdots \cdots n = d, \\ 0 \cdots \cdots \cdots \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

then it converges absolutely and almost uniformly in the half plane.

From the definition of d_n we derive

$$g(s) = (1 - 2^{-s})^{-1} \prod_r (1 - r^{-s})^{-1},$$

and hence

$$g(s)^2 = (1 - 2^{-s})^{-1} \prod_r (1 - r^{-2s})^{-1} \zeta(s) L(s, \chi_4)^{-1}.$$

We see from the known properties of ζ and L that $g(s)^2$ has a simple pole at $s = 1$, with residue $c_0^2 = (\frac{4}{\sqrt{\pi}} b_0)^2$, and is otherwise holomorphic for $\sigma > 1$.

Furthermore there exists a positive constant c such that in the region Γ , i. e. ,

$$\sigma \geq 1 - \frac{c}{\log^7 |t|} > \frac{1}{2} \quad |t| \geq 3,$$

$$\sigma \geq 1 - \frac{c}{\log^7 3} = \sigma_0 > \frac{1}{2} \quad |t| \leq 3,$$

* See e. g. [D] p. 432.

$g(s)^2$ does not vanish and in the region $\tilde{\Gamma}$ formed from Γ by cutting along the real axis from σ_0 to 1, we have

$$g(s)^2 = O(\log^6 |t|), \tag{1}$$

for $|t| \geq 3$ and s in $\tilde{\Gamma}$.

On the other hand, according to Perron's formula, we have for non-integral x and $a > 1$,

$$\sum_{n \leq x} d_n = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{a-iT}^{a+iT} g(s) \frac{x^s}{s} ds.$$

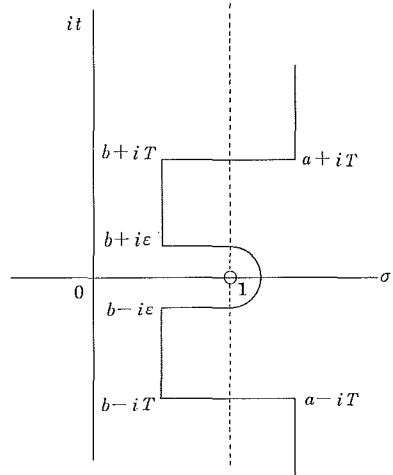
Let $T > 0$ be fixed and consider the contour described in the figure for

$$a = 1 + \frac{c}{\log^7 T},$$

$$b = 1 - \frac{c}{\log^7 T}.$$

Then by Cauchy's theorem

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{a-i\infty}^{a+i\infty} g(s) \frac{x^s}{s} ds \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \left(\int_{a-i\infty}^{a-iT} + \int_{a-iT}^{b-iT} + \int_{b-iT}^{b-i\epsilon} + \int_{cut} + \int_{b+i\epsilon}^{b+iT} + \int_{b+iT}^{a+iT} + \int_{a+iT}^{a+i\infty} \right) \\ & \stackrel{def}{=} \frac{1}{2\pi i} (I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + I_4 + I_5 + I_6 + I_7). \end{aligned}$$



We can estimate these integrals with the help of (1) in the same way as in a proof* of the prime number theorem and obtain

$$\begin{aligned} I_1, I_7 &= O\left(\frac{x^a}{T^{(a-1)}} + \frac{x \log x}{T}\right), \\ I_2, I_6 &= O\left(x^a \frac{\log^3 T}{T}\right), \\ I_3, I_5 &= O(x^b \log^4 T). \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

For I_4 , we have from the property of $g(s)$,

$$I_4 = \int_{cut} g(s) \frac{x^s}{s} ds = 2 \int_{b-i\epsilon}^{1-i\epsilon} g(s) \frac{x^s}{s} ds + \int_{K_\epsilon} g(s) \frac{x^s}{s} ds,$$

where K_ϵ is a semi-circle of radius ϵ drawn around the point 1.

* See e. g. [A] p. 65.

Since $g(s)$, in the neighbourhood of $s=1$, has the expansion

$$g(s) = \frac{c_0}{\sqrt{s-1}} + \alpha_1(s-1)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \alpha_2(s-1)^{\frac{3}{2}} + \dots,$$

where $\sqrt{s-1} > 0$ for $s > 1$, we get by putting $s=1+\varepsilon e^{i\theta}$,

$$\int_{K_\varepsilon} g(s) \frac{x^s}{s} ds = O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}} \cdot \frac{x^{1+\varepsilon}}{1-\varepsilon} \cdot \pi\varepsilon\right) = o(1),$$

as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$. Consequently, letting $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$, we obtain from the property of $g(s)$,

$$I_4 = 2 \int_b^1 g(s) \frac{x^s}{s} ds,$$

by an extended Cauchy Theorem*.

But on the horizontal line from b to 1 we have

$$\frac{g(s)}{s} = \frac{c_0 i}{\sqrt{1-s} (1-(1-s))} + O(\sqrt{1-s}) = \frac{c_0 i}{\sqrt{1-s}} + O(\sqrt{1-s}).$$

Accordingly

$$\begin{aligned} I_4 &= 2c_0 i \int_b^1 \frac{x^s}{\sqrt{1-s}} ds + O\left(\int_b^1 x^s \sqrt{1-s} ds\right) \\ &= 2c_0 i \left(\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) - \int_{(1-b)\log x}^{\infty} e^{-v} v^{\frac{1}{2}} dv \right) + O\left(\frac{x}{(\log x)^{\frac{3}{2}}} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-v} v^{\frac{1}{2}} dv\right) \\ &= 2c_0 \sqrt{\pi} i \frac{x}{\sqrt{\log x}} + O\left(\frac{x}{(\log x)^{\frac{3}{2}}}\right) + O\left(\frac{x^b}{\sqrt{\log x}}\right). \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Choosing $T = x^{a-b}$, it follows from (2) (3) that

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{a-i\infty}^{a+i\infty} g(s) \frac{x^s}{s} ds = \frac{c_0}{\sqrt{\pi}} \cdot \frac{x}{\sqrt{\log x}} + O\left(\frac{x}{(\log x)^{\frac{3}{2}}}\right).$$

Therefore we conclude that

$$D(x) = \frac{4b_0}{\pi} \cdot \frac{x}{\sqrt{\log x}} + O\left(\frac{x}{(\log x)^{\frac{3}{2}}}\right). \quad (4)$$

And in fact this proves Theorem 4 since we have

Lemma 4. ** A natural number n is the hypotenuse of a Pythagorean triangle if and only if n has at least one prime divisor $\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

Now

$$\tilde{R}(x) = \sum_{\substack{p \leq x \\ p=1(4)}} D\left(\sqrt{\frac{x}{p}}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{p \leq x} D\left(\sqrt{\frac{x}{p}}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{p \leq x} \chi_4(p) D\left(\sqrt{\frac{x}{p}}\right) - \frac{1}{2} D\left(\sqrt{\frac{x}{2}}\right) \quad (5)$$

Then we shall employ the following

* See e. g. Ahlfors "Complex Analysis".

** See [D] p. 361.

Lemma 5.* *If $B(x)$ is a function of bounded variation in every finite interval for $x > 0$, and $a(n)$ is defined for all natural number n so that*

- (i) $a(n) = O(1)$, (ii) $\sum_{n \leq x} a(n) = O(x\delta(x))$, $\delta(x) = o(1)$, $x\delta(x) \rightarrow \infty$
- (iii) $B(x) = O(x^\alpha)$, $0 \leq \alpha < 1$,

then

$$\sum_{n \leq x} a(n) B\left(\frac{x}{n}\right) = O(x\delta(x)^{1-\alpha}).$$

Since

$$\sum_{p \leq x} \chi_4(p) = \pi^{(1)}(x) - \pi^{(3)}(x) = O(xe^{-\beta \sqrt{\log x}}),$$

where $\pi^{(1)}(x)$ and $\pi^{(3)}(x)$ denote the number of primes $\leq x$ of the form $4k+1$ and $4k+3$ respectively, and $D(\sqrt{x}) = O\left(\sqrt{\frac{x}{\log x}}\right)$ by (4),

$$\sum_{p \leq x} \chi_4(p) D\left(\sqrt{\frac{x}{p}}\right) = O(xe^{-\frac{\beta}{2} \sqrt{\log x}}),$$

by taking $\delta(x) = e^{-\beta \sqrt{\log x}}$, $B(x) = D(\sqrt{x})$ and $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$ in Lemma 5.

Hence we have

$$\tilde{R}(x) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{p \leq x} D\left(\sqrt{\frac{x}{p}}\right) + O(xe^{-\frac{\beta}{2} \sqrt{\log x}}). \tag{6}$$

On the other hand the following lemma holds.

Lemma 6** *If $F(u, x)$ is a non-negative function of u and x for $2 \leq u \leq x$ such that $F(u, x)/\log u$ is non-increasing when u increases from 2 to x , then we have as $x \rightarrow \infty$,*

$$\sum_{p \leq x} F(p, x) = \{1 + O(e^{-\gamma \sqrt{\log \omega}})\} \int_2^x \frac{F(u, x)}{\log u} du + O(\omega \cdot F(2, x)),$$

where γ is a certain positive numerical constant and $\omega = \omega(x)$ is any function of x such that $x \geq \omega + 2$ for all sufficiently large x and $\omega \rightarrow \infty$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$.

Since $F(u, x) = D\left(\sqrt{\frac{x}{u}}\right)$ satisfies the conditions of Lemma 6,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{p \leq x} D\left(\sqrt{\frac{x}{p}}\right) &= \{1 + O(e^{-r' \sqrt{\log x}})\} \int_2^x \frac{D\left(\sqrt{\frac{x}{u}}\right)}{\log u} du + O\left(\frac{x^{\frac{5}{2}}}{\sqrt{\log x}}\right) \\ &= \{x + O(xe^{-r' \sqrt{\log x}})\} \int_{\frac{x}{2}}^x \frac{D(\sqrt{v})}{v^2} dv + \int_{\frac{x}{2}}^x \frac{du}{\log u} + O\left(\frac{x^{\frac{5}{2}}}{\sqrt{\log x}}\right), \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

* This is a modification of Axer's theorem (cf. [A] p. 113).

** This is merely a variant of the lemma in [B] S. 203.

by taking $\omega = x^{\frac{1}{3}}$.

We shall now show that

$$\int_2^{\frac{x}{2}} \frac{D(\sqrt{v})}{\log \frac{x}{v}} \cdot \frac{dv}{v^2} \sim \beta_1 \frac{1}{\log x}, \quad (8)$$

as $x \rightarrow \infty$, i. e.,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\log x) \int_2^{\frac{x}{2}} \frac{D(\sqrt{v})}{\log \frac{x}{v}} \cdot \frac{dv}{v^2} = \beta_1 < \infty,$$

exists.

Writing $f(x, v) = \frac{D(\sqrt{v}) \log x}{v^2 \log \frac{x}{v}}$, $f(\infty, v) = \frac{D(\sqrt{v})}{v^2}$, we have

$$\int_2^{\frac{x}{2}} f(x, v) dv = \left(\int_2^{\sqrt{x}} + \int_{\sqrt{x}}^{\frac{x}{2}} \right) f(x, v) dv = \int_2^{\sqrt{x}} f(x, v) dv + o\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}\right), \quad (9)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_2^{\sqrt{x}} \{f(x, v) - f(\infty, v)\} dv \right| &= \left| \int_2^{\sqrt{x}} \frac{D(\sqrt{v})}{v^2} \cdot \frac{\log v}{\log x - \log v} dv \right| \\ &= O\left(\frac{1}{\log x} \int_2^{\sqrt{x}} \frac{\sqrt{\log v}}{v^{\frac{3}{2}}} dv\right) = O\left(\frac{1}{\log x}\right). \end{aligned}$$

Consequently

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \int_2^{\sqrt{x}} \{f(x, v) - f(\infty, v)\} dv = 0.$$

But $\int_2^{\infty} \frac{D(\sqrt{v})}{v^2} dv$ clearly exists and is finite. Thus we conclude that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \int_2^{\sqrt{x}} f(x, v) dv = \int_2^{\infty} \frac{D(\sqrt{v})}{v^2} dv = \beta_1 < \infty,$$

which in view of (9) proves (8).

And we can prove that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\log x)^2 \left\{ \int_2^{\frac{x}{2}} \frac{D(\sqrt{v})}{\log \frac{x}{v}} \cdot \frac{dv}{v^2} - \beta_1 \frac{1}{\log x} \right\} = \beta_2 < \infty,$$

exists, i. e.,

$$\int_2^{\frac{x}{2}} \frac{D(\sqrt{v})}{\log \frac{x}{v}} \cdot \frac{dv}{v^2} = \beta_1 \frac{1}{\log x} + \beta_2 \frac{1}{(\log x)^2} + o\left(\frac{1}{(\log x)^2}\right),$$

as $x \rightarrow \infty$, and furthermore for any $m \geq 1$,

$$\int_2^{\frac{x}{2}} \frac{D(\sqrt{v})}{\log \frac{x}{v}} \cdot \frac{dv}{v^2} = \beta_1 \frac{1}{\log x} + \beta_2 \frac{1}{(\log x)^2} + \dots + o\left(\frac{1}{(\log x)^m}\right), \quad (10)$$

by repeating the similar process and argument as above.

Hence from (6) (7) (10) we have an asymptotic expansion

$$\tilde{R}(x) \sim \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \beta'_n \frac{x}{(\log x)^n},$$

in Poincaré's sense.

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} R(x) &= \tilde{R}(x) + \tilde{R}\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) + O(\sqrt{x}) \\ &\sim \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \frac{x}{(\log x)^n}. \end{aligned}$$

This proves Theorem 3.

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