

ON A CERTAIN TYPE OF PRIMITIVE REPRESENTATIONS  
OF RATIONAL INTEGERS AS SUM OF SQUARES  
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Introduction.

It is well known that a positive integer not of the form  $4^a(8m+7)$  can be expressed as a sum of three integer squares. Dirichlet (cf. [1]) proved that a positive integer admits a *primitive* representation as a sum of three squares if and only if it is not of the form  $8m+7$  or  $4m$ .

An interesting problem is to consider integers  $n$  which admit a representation as a sum of three squares with one summand prime to  $n$ . Of course, such a representation is *primitive*. This type of representations appears in the resolution of some Galois embedding problems (cf. [3]).

Obviously if  $n$  admits a *primitive* representation as a sum of two squares, (i.e. if  $4 \nmid n$  and no  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  divides  $n$ ), then each summand is prime to  $n$ . Hence, the problem makes only sense for the integers which admit a *primitive* representation as a sum of three *positive* squares. These integers were characterized by A. Schinzel ([2]).

We have checked with a computer that for every Schinzel integer  $\leq 10000$ , there exists at least one representation as a sum of

three positive squares with a summand prime to  $n$ .

In the present paper, we show that for some Schinzel integers, each *primitive* representation as a sum of three *positive* squares has at least one summand prime to  $n$  (Th. 1).

Moreover, we show (Th. 2) that given a prime number  $p > 2$ , its powers always have a representation as a sum of  $p$  squares prime to  $p$ . This statement for  $p=3$  was first made by E. Catalan (cf. [1]).

We recall that a representation of a positive integer  $n$  as a sum of three squares  $n = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ;  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$ , is said to be *primitive* if  $(x, y, z) = 1$ .

Definition. We say that an integer  $n$  is a Schinzel integer if it admits a *primitive* representation  $n = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$  with  $xyz \neq 0$ .

As it is proved in [2], an integer  $n$  is a Schinzel integer if and only if it satisfies the following two conditions:

- 1)  $n \not\equiv 0, 4, 7 \pmod{8}$
- 2)  $n$  has a prime factor  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  or  $n$  is not a "numerous idoneus" in the sense of Euler.

Theorem 1. If  $n$  is a Schinzel integer, and  $n$  has, at most, two distinct prime factors congruent to 1 or 2 (mod. 4), then every *primitive* representation of  $n$  as a sum of three *positive* squares has, at least, one summand prime to  $n$ .

The proof of the above theorem follows immediately from the

Lemma 1. If  $n = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$  is a primitive representation of  $n$  as a sum of three positive squares and  $p$  is a prime factor of  $n$  which divides one of the summands, then  $p \equiv 1$  or  $2 \pmod{4}$ .

Proof. Under these conditions  $-1$  is a square  $\pmod{p}$ .

Another consequence of this lemma is the following:

Corollary 1. If  $n = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$  is a primitive representation of  $n$  as a sum of three positive squares and every prime  $p$  which divides  $n$  is congruent to  $3 \pmod{4}$ , then  $(x, n) = (y, n) = (z, n) = 1$ .

Remark.

Theorem 1 is not true for an arbitrary  $n$ , for example,  $870 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 29$  is a Schinzel integer which admits the primitive representation:  $870 = 2^2 + 5^2 + 29^2$ .

Let us now consider the problem of representations of the powers of an odd prime  $p$  as a sum of  $p$  squares.

Theorem 2. Every power of a prime  $p \neq 2$  can be represented as a sum of  $p$  squares prime to  $p$ .

Proof. Let  $p$  be an odd prime and  $A = p-1$ . Since the norm  $N$  in  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-A})$  is multiplicative, we obtain in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-A}]$  the identity:

$$(x_1^2 + Ay_1^2)(x_2^2 + Ay_2^2) = (x_1x_2 + Ay_1y_2)^2 + A(x_1y_2 - x_2y_1)^2.$$

So we have,  $(x_1^2 + Ay_1^2)^n = x_n^2 + Ay_n^2$ . From this we get the following recursive formulae:

$$x_n = x_{n-1}x_1 \pm Ay_{n-1}y_1,$$

$$y_n = x_{n-1}y_1 \mp y_{n-1}x_1$$

Clearly,  $p \mid N(x_1 + \sqrt{-A} y_1)$  for  $x_1 = y_1 = 1$ , hence  $p^n \mid x_n^2 + Ay_n^2$ , where  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  are given by the above formulae.

Thus, every power of  $p > 2$  can be written as a sum of  $p$  squares, being  $p-1$  of them equal. One can easily see by induction that if  $x_{n-1}$  and  $y_{n-1}$  are prime to  $p$ , then  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  can be chosen to be so.

The values of  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  can be explicitly given, in fact:

$$x_n = \frac{(x_1 + y_1 \sqrt{-A})^n + (x_1 - y_1 \sqrt{-A})^n}{2}, \quad y_n = \frac{(x_1 + y_1 \sqrt{-A})^n - (x_1 - y_1 \sqrt{-A})^n}{2\sqrt{-A}},$$

with  $x_n, y_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .

We give now another proof of theorem 2. This new proof yields various representations of  $p^s$  as sum of squares prime to  $p$ . In particular, we can get different representations from the one obtained in the first proof. Let us consider the bilinear form:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{Z}^k \times \mathbb{Z}^k &\longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} \\ (a, b) &\longmapsto a \cdot b = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i b_i, \end{aligned}$$

with  $a=(a_1, \dots, a_k)$ ,  $b=(b_1, \dots, b_k)$ . Let  $q(a)=a \cdot a = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2$ , be the associated quadratic form; then the equation  $q(Xa+Yb) = q(a)^2 \cdot q(b)$  has at least two integer solutions given by  $(x_1, y_1) = (0, q(a))$  and  $(x_2, y_2) = (-2ab, q(a))$ .

Proposition 1. *If an integer is a sum of k squares, then so are its powers.*

Proof. Let

$$n = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i^2, \quad a_i \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad i=1, \dots, k.$$

We show by induction, that  $n^t$  is a sum of k squares, for every  $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .

We now distinguish two cases:

i) Let t be even,  $t=2s$ ,  $s \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . From the identity:

$$\left( \sum_{i=1}^k a_i^2 \right)^2 = (-a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_k^2)^2 + (2a_1 a_2)^2 + \dots + (2a_1 a_k)^2, \quad (1)$$

we deduce that  $n^t$  is a sum of k squares, because  $n^t = (n^s)^2$  and, by induction,  $n^s$  is of this type.

ii) Let t be odd,  $t=2s+1$ ,  $s \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . It follows that

$$\left( \sum_{i=1}^k a_i^2 \right)^2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^k b_i^2 \right) = \sum_{i=1}^k c_i^2,$$

with  $c_i = q(a)b_i - (2ab)a_i$ ,  $i=1, 2, \dots, k$ . From this identity we get that  $n^t$  is sum of k squares, because  $n^t = (n^s)^2 n$ .

*Second proof of theorem 2.* If  $p$  is an odd prime, then  $p$  admits the obvious representation as a sum of  $p$  squares  $p = b_1^2 + \dots + b_p^2$  given by  $b_1 = \dots = b_p = 1$ . Then from proposition 1 we obtain that every power of  $p$  is a sum of  $p$  squares. Let us see that they can be chosen to be prime to  $p$ . As before, we distinguish two cases:

i) Let  $t=2s$ ,  $s \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . If by induction  $a_1, \dots, a_p$  are nonzero in  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , so are  $2a_j$  for  $j=2, \dots, p$ . Since  $p > 2$ , the rest follows immediately from (1).

ii) Let  $t=2s+1$ ,  $s \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . We have  $p^t = (p^s)^2 p$ , where  $p^s = a_1^2 + \dots + a_p^2$ ,  $(a_i, p) = 1$ ,  $i=1, 2, \dots, p$  (by induction), and  $p = b_1^2 + \dots + b_p^2$ ,  $b_1 = \dots = b_p = 1$ . By proposition 1 we have

$$p^t = \sum_{i=1}^p c_i^2, \quad c_i = q(a)b_i - (2ab)a_i, \quad i=1, \dots, p.$$

As  $-2ab = -2(a_1^2 + \dots + a_p^2)$ , we can always suppose that  $-2ab \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Since  $p^s \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , we get  $c_i \equiv (-2ab)a_i \pmod{p}$ , hence, the integers  $c_i$ ,  $(i=1, \dots, p)$ , are also prime to  $p$ .

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