DISCRETE FRACTIONAL INTEGRALS, LATTICE POINTS ON SHORT ARCS, AND DIOPHANTINE APPROXIMATION

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ABSTRACT. Recently in joint work with E. Sert, we proved sharp boundedness results on discrete fractional integral operators along binary quadratic forms. Present work vastly enhances the scope of those results by extending boundedness to bivariate quadratic polynomials. We achieve this in part by establishing connections to problems on concentration of lattice points on short arcs of conics, whence we study discrete fractional integrals and lattice point concentration from a unified perspective via tools of sieving and diophantine approximation, and prove theorems that are of interest to researchers in both subjects.

1. Introduction

Let $f : \mathbb{Z}^l \to \mathbb{C}$ be a function and $P : \mathbb{Z}^{k+l} \to \mathbb{Z}^l$ be a polynomial with integer coefficients. Let $\mathbb{Z}_k^l = \mathbb{Z}^k - \{0\}$, and $0 < \lambda \leq 1$. We call

$$I_{\lambda,P}f(n) = \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}_k^l} \frac{f(P(m,n))}{|m|^{\lambda k}}$$

a discrete fractional integral operator, and $P(m,n)$ the phase polynomial. When $P(m,n) = n - m$ the range of boundedness of these operators is the same as that of their continuous counterparts, and is given by Hardy-Littlewood-Sobolev inequality. But when $P(m,n)$ contains higher order terms the two cases differ significantly. This phenomenon has generated immense interest in the last thirty years, see [21] for an account.

To investigate this phenomenon the most natural case to consider is the translation invariant case $P(m,n) = n - Q(m)$. Another case that has a similar flavor is the quasi-translation invariant case

$$J_{\lambda}f(n, n') = \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}_k^l} \frac{f(n - m, n' - Q(m,n))}{|m|^{\lambda k}},$$

where $f : \mathbb{Z}^{k+l} \to \mathbb{C}$, $Q : \mathbb{Z}^{k+k} \to \mathbb{Z}^l$. These two cases owing to applicability of Fourier analysis are relatively accessible, and have been studied intensely from this point of view for three decades, for a summary of the results see [21] [27]. The translation invariant case has also been studied from an alternative point of view by Oberlin [19] that uses arithmetic, and in particular representation of integers as sums of squares, rather than Fourier analysis. But up until the recent work of...
the author with E. Sert [27], no work existed on operators with neither translation invariant nor quasi-translation invariant phase polynomials. In that work using arithmetic extensively, we proved first instances of such results. We start the discussion of results of this article by giving a brief summary of that work. To this end we introduce the relevant notation

Let \( P : \mathbb{Z}^2 \to \mathbb{Z} \) be a bivariate quadratic polynomial of integral coefficients, that is

\[
P(m,n) = am^2 + bmn + cn^2 + dm + en + f, \quad a, b, c, d, e, f, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}
\]

with at least one of \( a, b, c \) nonzero. We call \( \Delta(P) := b^2 - 4ac \) the discriminant of the polynomial, and we also define the quantities \( \alpha(P) := 2cd - be, \quad \beta(P) := 2ae - bd \).

When the polynomial \( P \) is clear from the context we will just write \( \Delta, \alpha, \beta \). If \( d = e = f = 0 \), the polynomial is called an integral binary quadratic form. Henceforth we will exclusively concentrate on such polynomials and forms, and indeed use the terms polynomial and form to refer to them. Unless explicitly stated otherwise, the letter \( P \) will stand for such polynomials, and \( q \) for such forms. For a given polynomial \( P \) the letter \( Q \) will denote the corresponding form obtained by setting \( d, e, f = 0 \). We reserve the letter \( k \) for integer values \( P(m,n) \) takes on integer inputs \( m, n \). The pair \((m,n)\) is called a representation of \( k \) by the polynomial if \( P(m,n) = k \). When we want to consider our polynomials on real numbers we will prefer writing \( P(x,y) \). For a set \( E \), we let \( \#E \) denote its cardinality, and \(|E|\) its Lebesgue measure.

For a form \( q \), if \( \Delta < 0 \), which implies \( ac > 0 \), the form is called definite as it is nonnegative or nonpositive on all real entries. This is clear by the identity

\[
q(x,y) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2 = a \left[ (x + \frac{b}{2a}y)^2 - \frac{\Delta y^2}{4a^2} \right].
\]

If \( a, c > 0 \), being always nonnegative, the form is called positive definite whereas if \( a, c < 0 \), it is called negative definite analogously. When \( \Delta > 0 \) the form is called indefinite.

In recent joint work with E. Sert [27], we proved that with \( q(m,n) \) an integral binary quadratic form with negative or positive nonsquare discriminant, \( I_{\lambda,q} \) is a bounded operator on \( l^p(\mathbb{Z}) \), \( 1 \leq p < \infty \) for \( \lambda > 1 - p^{-1} \). Such forms are of course neither translation invariant nor quasi translation invariant. We further showed that for \( p = 1 \) the denominator \( |m|^{\lambda} \) cannot be replaced by \( \log^p(1 + |m|) \), and for \( 1 < p < \infty \) we cannot take \( \lambda = 1 - p^{-1} \). The main framework set out in that article to prove these results will be in use in this work as well, and we present it below in order to make discussion of results and ideas of both articles possible. Further familiarity with that article is not necessary, but could be helpful.

In our framework the \( p = 1 \) emerges as the guiding case, we therefore focus our discussion on it. The cases \( p > 1 \) follow from the same arguments applied after the Hölder inequality. Let \( P \) be an arbitrary bivariate quadratic polynomial of integral coefficients. We have

\[
\|I_{\lambda,f}\|_{l^1(\mathbb{Z})} = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \left| \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \frac{f(P(m,n))}{|m|^\lambda} \right| \leq \sum_{(m,n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \times \mathbb{Z}} \frac{|f(P(m,n))|}{|m|^\lambda}.
\]
We define for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ the sets $A_k := \{(m, n) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} : P(m, n) = k\}$ that form a partition of $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore

$$\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} |f(k)| \left[ \sum_{(m, n) \in A_k} \frac{1}{|m|^\lambda} \right].$$

As $f \in l^1(\mathbb{Z})$, showing that

$$\sum_{(m, n) \in A_k} \frac{1}{|m|^\lambda}$$

is bounded by a constant $C$ independent of $k$ would yield $\|\mathcal{I}_\lambda f\|_{l^1(\mathbb{Z})} \leq C\|f\|_{l^1(\mathbb{Z})}$. Thus our framework reduces the problem to understanding the quantity (2), and this is related to the number and distribution of representations of $k$ by the phase polynomial.

Binary quadratic forms are the simplest bivariate quadratic polynomials, and further, representations by the latter can be investigated by transforming them into the former by simple algebraic operations. Therefore it is most reasonable to initiate the study of bivariate quadratic phase polynomials with binary quadratic forms. Behavior of a quadratic form mostly depend on the sign of its discriminant, and whether this discriminant is a full square, so we classify these forms accordingly.

The negative discriminant and the positive nonsquare discriminant cases comprise the content of our work [27].

In the negative discriminant case we have at most $C_{\Delta, k^\varepsilon}$ representations $(m, n)$ for an integer $k$, and of these only 4 can have $|m| \leq |k|^{1/4} / \sqrt{\Delta}$, so (2) is bounded for any $\lambda > 0$. For the positive nonsquare discriminant case, we have infinitely many such representations, but these are generated from powers of a fixed matrix, which after an appropriate partition into $C_{\Delta, k^\varepsilon}$ subsets, allows us to demonstrate that members of each subset grow exponentially. So we can treat this case as if there are at most $C_{\Delta, k^\varepsilon}$ representations. Also, again only 4 representations can have $|m| \leq |k|^{1/4} / \sqrt{\Delta}$. Combining these we bound (2) for any $\lambda > 0$.

If the form has a positive square discriminant, it factorizes into two distinct linear terms of integer coefficients, and thus 0 have representations the first entries of which form an arithmetic progression. For example, letting $g(m, n) = m^2 - n^2$, we see that $(m, m)$ represents 0 for any integer $m$. So bounding (2) is not possible even with $\lambda = 1$, and nontrivial estimates are not possible for $l^1(\mathbb{Z})$. But we must also notice that 0 is the only number with this type of behavior, and any nonzero integer $k$ have only finitely many representations arising from its divisors. As the number of divisors is bounded by $C_k k^\varepsilon$, if we can isolate the representations of 0, and make sure for the representations $(m, n)$ of nonzero $k$ that the values $|m|$ are away from 0, we may have boundedness results for $l^p(\mathbb{Z})$, $p > 1$, by bringing the exponent $p$ into the summation (1). With these observations we prove our first theorem.

**Theorem 1.** Let $f \in l^p(\mathbb{Z})$ where $1 < p < \infty$. Let $g$ be an integral binary quadratic form with positive square discriminant $\Delta = \delta^2$, $\delta > 0$, and $a, c \neq 0$. Then the operator (1) satisfies

$$\|\mathcal{I}_\lambda f\|_p \leq C_{\lambda, p, \Delta} \|f\|_p$$

for $\lambda > \max\{1 - p^{-1}, p^{-1}\}$. 

Here the condition $a \neq 0$ is clearly necessary, for otherwise for a function $f$ nonzero at the origin the sum in (1) becomes infinite when $n = 0$. On the other hand it may be possible to obtain the same estimates as in this theorem with $c = 0$, but this requires new ideas. For in this case solutions of $am^2 + bmn = k$, $k \neq 0$ lie on hyperbolas for which the $y$-axis is an asymptote. To see clearly how this leads to difficulties, take $k$ to be the product of first $j$ primes, and $a = b = 1$. Then the quantity (2) cannot be less than the sum of inverses of first $j$ primes, and hence not bounded by a constant independent of $k$. So 0 is not the only problematic value in this case. We find investigation of this case to be very worthwhile, as it may lead to new connections to arithmetic. We may conduct such an investigation in a future article.

Our second theorem represents a vast generalization of our work on binary quadratic forms to bivariate quadratic polynomials. The main idea is to use algebraic operations to reduce representation by a polynomial $P$ to representation by the corresponding form $Q$, and then use a decomposition and estimates obtained in [27] on sums of type (2).

**Theorem 2.** Let $f \in l^p(\mathbb{Z})$ where $1 \leq p < \infty$. Let $P$ be an integral bivariate quadratic polynomial with nonzero discriminant. Let $\Gamma := \Delta^{-1}Q(e, -d) + f$. Then the operator (1) satisfies

\[
\|I_\lambda f\|_p \leq C_{\lambda, p, \Delta, \alpha}\|f\|_p
\]

for $\lambda > 1 - p^{-1}$ if $\Delta$ is negative or positive nonsquare, and for

\[
\lambda > \begin{cases} 
1 - p^{-1} & \text{if } \{(m, n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 : P(m, n) = \Gamma\} = \emptyset \\
\max\{p^{-1}, 1 - p^{-1}\} & \text{else}
\end{cases}
\]

if $\Delta$ is a positive square.

Thus remarkably there are polynomials of positive square discriminant that satisfy estimates much better than those satisfied by forms of positive square discriminant, in particular they have estimates for $p = 1$. Indeed the part of the theorem regarding polynomials of positive square discriminant will be made more clear by expressing the solvability of $P(m, n) = \Gamma$ in terms of coefficients of $P$. As this requires yet more notation we defer it to section 3.

The generalization has one weak point, which is that now our constants, in addition to $\lambda, p, \Delta$, depend on $\alpha$. This is an issue related to a cycle of very difficult conjectures in number theory regarding the concentration of lattice points on short arcs of conics. Here we state the conjectures most relevant to us. For other conjectures in this circle and relations between them as well as their connections to other outstanding problems in analysis such as sum-product sets, exponential sums, squares in arithmetic progressions see [12, 13]. For results on extensions of these conjectures to higher dimensions, which turn out to be more tractable as with many other problems regarding lattice points on surfaces, and their applications to the eigenfunctions of the Laplacian on torii see [5, 6].

**Conjecture 1.** Let $N \in \mathbb{N}$ and $0 < \eta < 1/2$. Then the set

\[
\{(m, n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 : m^2 + n^2 = N, \ |n| < N^\eta\}
\]

has cardinality bounded by a constant $C_\eta$ independent of $N$.  

This is clear for \( \eta \leq 1/4 \), but beyond this only logarithmic improvements for \( N \) a square plus a much smaller square are known by the work of Chan [8, 9]. There is also a simple argument due to Bourgain and Rudnick, see [6], yielding the conjecture with the possible exception of a sparse set of \( N \). Below we delve deeper into this conjecture, but now to show its relation to Theorem 2 we explicitly compute for the phase polynomials \( P_j(m, n) = m^2 + n^2 + 2jm \) and \( f \) the point mass at 0

\[
\|I_{1,P_j}f\|_1 = \sum_{(m,n)\in\mathbb{Z}^2 \times \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{|m|^\lambda} = \sum_{(m,n)\in\mathbb{Z}^2 \times \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{|m|^\lambda} = \sum_{(m,n)\in\mathbb{Z}^2 \times \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{|m-j|^\lambda}.
\]

For the polynomials \( P_j \) the value \( \alpha = 2cd - be = 4j \) obviously depends on \( j \) but the discriminant \( \Delta = 4 \) is independent of it. Therefore we are required to bound the last sum above independently of \( j \) in order to obtain estimates independent of \( j \) for \( \|I_{\lambda,P_j}f\|_1 \). The main contribution to that sum comes from \((m,n)\) with \( m \) close to \( j \), and these are exactly the points with \( |n| \) small. Therefore Conjecture 1 for any \( \eta > 1/4 \) immediately implies the boundedness of that sum independent of \( j \) for any \( \lambda \). So we may view this problem as a weaker form of Conjecture 1: while Conjecture 1 claims that lattice points \((m,n)\) with \( |n| \) small are finite, our problem requires such points to be merely sparse.

Applying the large sieve via quadratic residues and the prime number theorem in arithmetic progressions, we solve this problem for \( \lambda > 1/2 \). Indeed we consider not just circles but a rather general class of conics that suffices to handle all polynomials of negative or positive nonsquare discriminant case.

**Theorem 3.** Let \( a \) be an integer such that \(-a\) is a nonsquare, and \( \lambda > 1/2 \). Let \( \tau \in \mathbb{Z} \). Then the sum

\[
(4) \sum_{(m,n)\in\mathbb{Z}^2 \times \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{|m-\tau|^\lambda}
\]

is bounded by a constant independent of \( N, \tau \).

Applying this result immediately yields

**Theorem 4.** Let \( f \in l^p(\mathbb{Z}) \) where \( 1 \leq p < \infty \). Let \( P \) be an integral bivariate quadratic polynomial with negative or positive nonsquare discriminant. Then for \( \lambda > 1 - (2p)^{-1} \) the operator (1) satisfies

\[
\|I_{\lambda}f\|_p \leq C_{\lambda,p,\Delta} \|f\|_p.
\]

For a similar result on polynomials of positive square discriminant we would need to cover the case \(-a\) a square, but unfortunately our method does not extend there. Such a result would constitute a weaker version of a well known analogue of Conjecture 1 posed by I. Ruzsa.

**Conjecture 2.** Let \( N \in \mathbb{N} \) and \( 0 < \eta < 1/2 \). Then the set

\[
\{(m,n)\in\mathbb{Z}^2 : mn = N, |n-N^{1/2}| < N^\eta\}
\]

has cardinality bounded by a constant \( C_{\eta} \) independent of \( N \).
This conjecture too is trivial for $\eta \leq 1/4$, and is not known for any larger $\eta$. There is logarithmic improvement by Chan in [8, 9] for $N$ a square minus a much smaller square, and an on average version of the question was studied in [13].

These theorems establish a very strong connection between discrete fractional integrals and concentration of lattice point on short arcs of conics. This latter topic is connected to diophantine approximation, as can be seen from the works [5, 8, 9, 28]. Diophantine approximation is deeply interrelated with the existence and boundedness of solutions of certain diophantine equations, such as Pell and Thue equations. Algebraic numbers lack good rational approximation, and this fact is encapsulated by the two main theorems of diophantine approximation, that is Roth’s theorem [23], and Schmidt’s theorem [24]. These theorems are sharp but ineffective, and over the last 50 years tremendous effort has been spent on proving effective versions of these theorems, and using them to study questions regarding simultaneous Pell equations and diophantine $m$-tuples. For a starting point to this literature we recommend the articles [10, 22]. Despite the vast literature we are still far from strong effective results.

Our next theorem and its proof highlight the connections between lattice point problems and diophantine approximation most clearly. Specifically we will use Schmidt’s theorem on simultaneous approximation [24] to obtain a finiteness result for lattice points on circles.

**Theorem 5.** Let $0 < h_1 < h_2 < \ldots < h_l$ be integers with $l \geq 5$, and let

$$S := \{ N \in \mathbb{N} : N = R^2 + r, \ R \in \mathbb{N}, \ |r| \leq R^{1/2} - \rho \}$$

where $0 < \rho \leq 1/2$ and $2\rho(l - 1) > 1$. Then the subset $S' \subseteq S$ of all $N$ such that for each $1 \leq i \leq l$, there exist $n_i \in \mathbb{N}$ with $(R - h_i)^2 + n_i^2 = N$ is finite.

This theorem does not lead to any new results on Conjecture 1 for any values of $N$, but its proof makes it plain that this is because Schmidt’s theorem is ineffective, which forces us to fix $h_i$ beforehand. If we knew the constant of that theorem, and if it were of appropriate size, we would obtain Conjecture 1 for some $\eta > 1/4$ for values in $S$ with some $\rho$. On the other hand, it can be viewed as progress towards the study of patterns of lattice points on conics. This study can be conducted on the plane, or via projections on the axes. Within this latter framework, in the particular case of circles, we can rigorously formulate the problem as follows. Let $0 < h_1 < h_2 < \ldots < h_l$ be fixed integers. Consider the set of $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for each $0 \leq i \leq l$ we have lattice points $(m_i, n_i)$ of nonnegative coordinates satisfying $m_i^2 + n_i^2 = N$ and $m_0 - m_i = h_i$. We would like to know whether this set is finite. For $l$ large this would follow from a well known conjecture, known, see [12], to be equivalent to Conjecture 1.

**Conjecture 3.** On the circle centered at the origin with radius $\sqrt{N}$, $N \in \mathbb{N}$, an arc of length $N^\eta$, $\eta < 1/2$ can contain at most $C_\eta$ lattice points, independent of $N$.

This is known for $\eta < 1/4$ by the work of Cilleruelo and Cordoba [11]. An arc containing all of $(m_i, n_i)$, $0 \leq i \leq l$ has a length not exceeding $3h_lN^{1/4}$. Therefore if this conjecture holds for any $\eta > 1/4$ with $C_\eta \leq l$, this pattern cannot occur infinitely often. Even the result of Cilleruelo and Cordoba is sufficient to see that to repeat infinitely often these patterns must lie close to the right end of the interval $[0, \sqrt{N}]$, for the arclength requirement can only be satisfied there. Lastly it is known
that certain patterns do repeat infinitely often, e.g. $0 < 1 < 2$ with lattice points $(4j^3 - 1, 2j^2 + 2j), (4j^3, 2j^2 + 1), (4j^3 + 1, 2j^2 - 2j)$.

The proof of Theorem 5 relies on obtaining simultaneous Pell equations, as does Chan \cite{3 4}, but we view them as hyperbolas with asymptotes of algebraic slope. Points on hyperbolas yield a very good simultaneous approximation to these algebraic slopes and this reveals an immediate opportunity to apply Schmidt’s theorem. Chan on the other hand applies Turk’s effective bounds on solutions of simultaneous Pell equations. We remark that the ideas used to prove Theorem 5 can also be used to connect the lattice point problems to uniform distribution modulo 1, an area itself very closely connected to diophantine approximation. For the very good rational approximation yielded by hyperbolas also violates uniform distribution. But as the results so obtained are weaker than Theorem 5 we will not state them. We further remark that in order to bound the number of squares in arithmetic progressions the articles \cite{3 4} rely on obtaining equations of elliptic curves by eliminating variables, much like we do for Theorem 5. It may be possible to use the methods there in conjunction with our methods to obtain results similar to Theorem 3 for $N$ a full square and $\lambda > 1/2$. But as this result would be weaker than Theorem 3 we will not explore this possibility here.

Our last theorem builds upon Chan’s ideas to improve his theorems. We do this via a simpler but more efficient way of dealing with the exceptions to applicability of effective results on the size of solutions of simultaneous Pell equations. Also instead of Turk’s result, we apply a recent theorem of Bugeaud \cite{7} that improves via a simpler but more efficient way of dealing with the exceptions to applicability

**Theorem 6.** Let $\kappa = 1/2 - \varepsilon$ where $0 < \varepsilon < 10^{-2}$, and

$$E := \{N \in \mathbb{N} : N = R^2 + r, \ R \in \mathbb{N}, \ |r| \leq 16\varepsilon^{2 \log^\kappa N}\}.$$ $$F := \{N \in \mathbb{N} : N = R^2 + r, \ R \in \mathbb{N}, \ |r| \leq 4\varepsilon^{2 \log^\kappa N}\}.$$  

Let $N$ be large enough, for example $\log N \geq K^{\varepsilon^{-3}}$, where $K := \max\{C, 3\}$ and $C$ is the absolute constant that appears in Bugeaud’s theorem. For lattice points on circles when $N \in E$ we have

$$\#\{(m, n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 : m^2 + n^2 = N, \ |n| \leq 6N^{1/4} \log^{\kappa/4} N\} \leq 20.$$  

For lattice points on hyperbolas when $N \in E$ we have

$$\#\{(m, n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 : m^2 - n^2 = N, \ |n| \leq 6N^{1/4} \log^{\kappa/4} N\} \leq 20.$$  

For divisors of $N \in F$ we have

$$\#\{(m, n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 : mn = N, \ |n - N^{1/2}| \leq 2N^{1/4} \log^{\kappa/4} N\} \leq 10.$$  

As is clear to the careful reader we have excluded zero discriminant bivariate quadratic polynomials from our analysis. This case seems to have three different boundedness ranges. For polynomials reducible to squares of linear polynomials by completion of squares, the boundedness range is given by the Hardy-Littlewood-Sobolev theorem. For polynomials reducible to the case $n - m^2$, the exponents of this particular polynomial, obtained as a result of such works as \cite{116 15 19 25 24} are valid. The remaining polynomials are reducible to the case $m + n^2$, and for these we are able to attain the sharp exponents. As adding all these to this article would make it somewhat cumbersome, they will be presented in a future work.

We remark that for $p = \infty$ only trivial estimates, that is estimates with $\lambda > 1$, exist, therefore we do not consider this case. Also we do not prove off-diagonal
estimates as no significant extension of those that immediately follow from our diagonal estimates is possible. To observe this let $P(m, n) = m^2 + n^2$ and consider the $(p, q), p \neq q$ estimate

$$\| I_\lambda f \|_q \leq C_{\lambda, p, q} \| f \|_p.$$ 

It is not possible, by raising $\lambda$ if necessary, to prove an estimate with $p > q$. We see this by just taking for positive and small $\varepsilon$

$$f(k) = \begin{cases} j^{-p-1-\varepsilon} & \text{if } k = j^2 + 1, \ j \in \mathbb{N} \\ 0 & \text{else,} \end{cases}$$

and calculating

$$\| I_\lambda f \|_q^q = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \left[ \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{f(m^2 + n^2)}{|m|^\lambda} \right]^q \geq \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} f^q(1 + n^2) \geq \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} n^{-(p-1+\varepsilon)q} = \infty.$$ 

On the other hand, estimates with $p < q$, with the same $\lambda$, obviously follow from the case $p = q$. So here the only interesting question is whether we can lower $\lambda$ as we raise $q$. This is not possible either, if we estimate the same example in a different way:

$$\| I_\lambda f \|_q^q = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \left[ \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{f(m^2 + n^2)}{|m|^\lambda} \right]^q \geq \left[ \sum_{m \in \mathbb{N}} f(m^2 + 1) \right]^q \geq \left[ \sum_{m \in \mathbb{N}} m^{-(p-1+\lambda-\varepsilon)} \right]^q,$$

which means $\lambda \geq 1 - p^{-1}$, i.e. essentially the same condition as in the $p = q$ case. Hence focusing on diagonal estimates is not restrictive at all.

The contents of the rest of the article is as follows. The next section presents, after exhibiting arithmetic and analytic properties of quadratic forms of nonzero square discriminant in preparation, the proof of Theorem 1. In section 3 we reduce representation of an integer by a polynomial via translation and dilation to representation by the corresponding form, and use this to prove Theorem 2. In section 4, after we review the large sieve, prime number theorem in arithmetic progressions, and quadratic reciprocity we prove Theorem 3. Inserting this into the proof of Theorem 2 gives Theorem 4. The last section first proves Theorem 5 after reviewing Schmidt’s theorem and a result of Besicovitch needed to implement it. Then we describe Bugeaud’s recent theorem and use it to prove Theorem 6, after which we describe how our Theorem 6 relates to Chan’s work.

## 2. Binary Quadratic Forms of Positive Square Discriminant

The aim of this section is to prove Theorem 1. As briefly discussed in the introduction, the proof rests on three ingredients: that the cardinality of $A_k, k \neq 0$ is small, that for $(m, n) \in A_k, k \neq 0$ the value $|m|$ is distant from 0, and that we must isolate the representations of 0. The first two will be achieved before the proof proper, whereas the last will be carried out at the beginning of the proof. We now investigate our form using algebra and arithmetic to obtain the first ingredient. Then we will use geometry and analysis to obtain the second. With the first two ingredients at hand, we will be ready for presenting the proof of Theorem 1.

The key property of forms of positive square discriminant is that they factor into two distinct linear factors of integer coefficients. Our form is $q(m, n) = \ldots$
am^2 + bmn + cn^2 with \( a, c \neq 0 \), and \( \Delta = \delta^2 \) with \( \delta \in \mathbb{N} \). As can immediately be verified by multiplication

\[
(8) \quad am^2 + bmn + cn^2 = a(m + \frac{b - \delta}{2a}n)(m + \frac{b + \delta}{2a}n).
\]

As \((b + \delta) + (b - \delta) = 2b\), they must be of the same parity, and as \((b - \delta)(b + \delta) = 4ac\) they are both even. Thus \((b \pm \delta)/2\) are integers, and we define the integers

\[
\begin{align*}
a_1 &:= \text{gcd}\left(\frac{b - \delta}{2}, a\right), \\
a_2 &:= \frac{a}{a_1}, \\
c_1 &:= \frac{b - \delta}{2a_1}.
\end{align*}
\]

Since \(\text{gcd}(a_2, c_1) = 1\), and

\[
c_1 \frac{b + \delta}{2} = a_2 c,
\]

\(a_2\) divides \((b + \delta)/2\), and we define \(c_2\) to be the result of this division. Hence we have \(c = c_1c_2\), and the factorization in (8) becomes

\[
(9) \quad = a_1a_2(m + \frac{c_1}{a_2}n)(m + \frac{c_2}{a_1}n) = (a_2m + c_1n)(a_1m + c_2n).
\]

From here it is easy to deduce information regarding representations. Let \(g_1 := \text{gcd}(a_2, c_1)\) and \(g_2 := \text{gcd}(a_1, c_2)\). The representations of \(0\) are \(j(c_1/g_1, -a_2/g_1), j \in \mathbb{Z}\) and \(j(c_2/g_2, -a_1/g_2), j \in \mathbb{Z}\). As for \(k \neq 0\), the map \((m, n) \mapsto (a_2m + c_1n, a_1m + c_2n)\) on \(A_k\) is an injective mapping into the set of elements \((u, k/u)\) where \(u \in \mathbb{Z}_*\) divides \(k\). Hence the cardinality of \(A_k\) cannot exceed the number of divisors of \(k\), and as is well known, this is bounded by \(C\varepsilon k^\varepsilon\) for every \(\varepsilon > 0\).

From analytic and geometric points of view our forms are very much like forms of positive nonsquare discriminant. We investigate the set \(\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : q(x, y) = z\}\) for every \(z \in \mathbb{R}\). We assume that for our form \(c > 0\), the case \(c < 0\) immediately follows. For \(z = 0\) the factorization above gives two distinct lines

\[
(10) \quad a_2x + c_1y = 0, \quad a_1x + c_2y = 0,
\]

and as the coefficients are nonzero these lines are neither vertical nor horizontal. When \(z > 0\), the set is a hyperbola centered at the origin with the lines in (10) as asymptotes. The graphs of

\[
(11) \quad y = f_1(x) = \frac{-bx + \sqrt{\Delta x^2 + 4cz}}{2c}, \quad y = f_2(x) = \frac{-bx - \sqrt{\Delta x^2 + 4cz}}{2c},
\]

give the two components of the hyperbola, with \(f_1\) lying above both asymptotes and \(f_2\) lying below both of them. With \(z < 0\) we obtain the conjugate of the hyperbola we would have for \(-z\). Its two components lie between the asymptotes, and points \((x, y)\) on it satisfy \(x^2 \geq -4cz/\Delta\).

**Lemma 1.** Let \(q(x, y) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2\) be an integral binary quadratic form with \(a, c \neq 0\), and \(\Delta = \delta^2\) for a natural number \(\delta\). Let \(k \neq 0\) be an integer. Then \(q(x, y) = k\) has at most \(4\) solutions \((x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2\) satisfying \(|x| \leq |k|^{1/4}/\delta\).

**Proof.** We assume \(c > 0\) as the case \(c < 0\) follows from this by considering \(-q\) and \(-k\). If \(k < 0\), as we remarked any solution to \(q(x, y) = k\) satisfies \(x^2 \geq -4ck/\Delta\), that is, there are no solutions of the type asked for in the lemma. So it remains to consider positive integers \(k\).
The solutions we are looking for lie on the graphs of the functions $f_1, f_2$ in (11). As these graphs are disjoint any of these solutions can lie on only one of these graphs. The lines

$$l_1(x) = -\frac{b}{2c}x + \sqrt{\frac{k}{c}}, \quad l_2(x) = -\frac{b}{2c}x - \sqrt{\frac{k}{c}}$$

are respectively tangent to $f_1, f_2$ at $x = 0$. We will prove that $f_1, f_2$ stay very close to these lines for $|x| \leq |k|^{1/4}/\delta$. The differences $|f_i(x) - l_i(x)|$, $i = 1, 2$ for such $x$ are bounded by

$$\frac{\sqrt{\Delta x^2 + 4ck}}{2c} - \sqrt{\frac{k}{c}} = \frac{\Delta x^2}{4c^2} + \frac{k}{c} \cdot \left(\left(\frac{\Delta x^2}{4c^2} + \frac{k}{c}\right)^{1/2} - \left(\frac{k}{c}\right)^{1/2}\right)^{-1} \leq \frac{1}{8c^3/2}.$$ 

Therefore our solutions satisfying $y = f_i(x)$ lie inside the set $S_i := \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : |y - l_i(x)| \leq 1/8c^{3/2}\}$ for $i = 1, 2$. These two sets are clearly disjoint.

Yet, if $(m, n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$, then $2cn + bm = j \in \mathbb{Z}$, which means

$$n = -\frac{b}{2c}m + \frac{j}{2c}.$$

Therefore every element $(m, n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ lies on exactly one of the collection of parallel lines

$$\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : y = -\frac{b}{2c}x + \frac{j}{2c}\right\}.$$ 

But the sets $S_1, S_2$ each can contain at most one line from this collection. As a line can intersect $q(x, y) = k$ at most twice, we have at most 4 solutions.

We are now ready to present the proof of Theorem 1. After removing the representations of 0, we will apply the Hölder inequality to reduce to a sum of the type (2). Then mobilizing what we uncovered from our investigations in this section, we will obtain the desired conclusion.

**Proof.** We start with separating the representations of 0 and applying the Hölder inequality

$$\|Z_{\mathcal{A}} f\|_p^p \leq \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \left[ \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}_* \atop q(m,n)=0} \frac{|f(0)|}{|m|^\lambda} + \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}_* \atop q(m,n) \neq 0} \frac{|f(q(m,n))|}{|m|^\lambda} \right]^p$$

$$\leq 2^{p-1}|f(0)|^p \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \left[ \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}_* \atop q(m,n)=0} \frac{1}{|m|^\lambda} \right]^p + 2^{p-1} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \left[ \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}_* \atop q(m,n) \neq 0} \frac{|f(q(m,n))|}{|m|^\lambda} \right]^p.$$ 

We will handle the first sum now. As we assumed $a, c \neq 0$, there can be at most two solutions $(m, n) \in \mathbb{Z}_* \times \mathbb{Z}$ to $q(m, n) = 0$ when one of the entries is fixed, therefore
applying the Hölder inequality, the sum is bounded by
\[ 2^{p-1} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \frac{1}{|m|^{\lambda p}} \leq 2^{p-1} \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{|m|^{\lambda p}} \leq 2^p \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \frac{1}{|m|^{\lambda p}} \leq C_{\lambda, p}. \]

We turn to the second sum. Let \( p' \) denote the dual exponent of \( p \), and \( \lambda' := \lambda - (1 - p^{-1}) \). Then applying the Hölder inequality the second sum is bounded by
\[ \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \left[ \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \frac{|f(q(m, n))|^p}{|m|^{(\lambda'/2)p'}} \right] \left[ \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \frac{1}{|m|^{(\lambda - \lambda'/2)p'}} \right]^{p-1}. \]
Since \( (\lambda - \lambda'/2)p' > 1 \), this in turn is bounded by
\[ C_{\lambda, p} \sum_{(m, n) \in \mathbb{Z}^* \times \mathbb{Z}} \frac{|f(q(m, n))|^p}{|m|^{\lambda p/2}} = C_{\lambda, p} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}^*} |f(k)|^p \sum_{(m, n) \in A_k} \frac{1}{|m|^{\lambda p/2}}. \]

Thus we need to bound the inner sum. By Lemma 1 we have at most 4 solutions in \( A_k \) with \(|m| \leq |k|^{1/4}/\delta \), and the cardinality of \( A_k \) is bounded by \( C_{\epsilon} |k|^\epsilon \). Choosing \( \epsilon = \lambda' p/10 \), we conclude the proof with
\[ \sum_{(m, n) \in A_k} \frac{1}{|m|^{\lambda p/2}} \leq 4 + C_{\lambda, p} |d^{\lambda p/2}| |k|^{\lambda p/10 - \lambda' p/8} \leq C_{\lambda, p, \Delta}. \]

\[ \square \]

3. Extension to Polynomials

In this section we prove Theorem 2. We rely on algebraic operations to reduce to the case of binary quadratic forms, and once there use the bounds in [27] for sums of the type (2). We will also clearly observe where and how the dependence on \( \alpha \) arises. Thus once we prove Theorem 3 in the next section, Theorem 4 will easily follow.

Before the proof proper, we demonstrate the reduction idea for any polynomial \( P \) of nonzero discriminant. Let \( Q \) be the corresponding form. Let \( m = u + r, \) \( n = v + s \).

Then we have
\[ P(m, n) = P(u + r, v + s) = a[u^2 + 2ur + r^2] + b[uv + us + vr + rs] \]
\[ + c[v^2 + 2vs + s^2] + d[u + r] + e[v + s] + f \]
\[ = Q(u, v) + u[2ar + bs + d] + v[2cs + br + e] + P(r, s). \]

So to annihilate the first order terms we need
\[ \begin{bmatrix} 2a & b \\ b & 2c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r \\ s \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -d \\ -e \end{bmatrix}. \]
As the discriminant is nonzero, the unique solution pair is \( r = \alpha/\Delta, \) \( s = \beta/\Delta \). We also observe that
\[ P(r, s) = \frac{1}{2}[r(2ar + bs + d) + s(2cs + br + e) + dr + es] + f = \frac{dr + es}{2} + f = \Gamma \]
Then \( P(m, n) = k \) if and only if \( Q(m - \alpha/\Delta, n - \beta/\Delta) = k - \Gamma \). To deploy the theory of representation of integers by quadratic forms we multiply both sides by \( \Delta^2 \), and turn the variables of this last equality into integers. Let \( m' := \Delta m - \alpha \)
and \( n' := \Delta n - \beta \), and also \( k' = \Delta^2 (k - \Gamma) \). The map \((m, n, k) \mapsto (m', n', k')\) clearly is injective. Thus \( P(m, n) = k \) if and only if \( Q(m', n') = k' \).

**Proof.** We start with polynomials of negative or positive nonsquare discriminant, and first investigate \( p = 1 \) case. The general case will follow from similar arguments after applying the Hölder inequality. As made clear in the introduction we are to bound (2) uniformly in \( p \) and first investigate

\[
\text{We start with polynomials of negative or positive nonsquare discriminant,}
\]

\[
\text{Proof. For 1 < p < \infty the Hölder inequality, and a decomposion via the sets \( A_k \) gives}
\]

\[
\|I_\lambda f\|^p_{L^p(\mathbb{Z})} \leq C_{\lambda, p} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \left[ \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}_*} \frac{|f(P(m, n))|^p}{|m|^{\lambda p/2}} \right] \leq C_{\lambda, p} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} |f(k)|^p \sum_{(m, n) \in A_k} \frac{1}{|m|^{\lambda p/2}}.
\]

We have seen that the inner sum is bounded by a constant depending on \( \lambda, p, \Delta, \alpha \). This concludes the case of negative or positive nonsquare discriminant.

When the discriminant is a positive square, we start with removal of some terms from the sum.

\[
\|I_\lambda f\|^p_{L^p(\mathbb{Z})} \leq \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \left[ \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}_*, P(m, n) = \Gamma} \frac{|f(P(m, n))|^p}{|m|^{\lambda p/2}} \right] + \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}, P(m, n) \neq \Gamma} \frac{1}{|m|^{\lambda p/2}} + 2^{p-1} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}, P(m, n) \neq \Gamma} \frac{1}{|m|^{\lambda p/2}}.
\]

We first handle the second sum, which, as will be seen, is bounded whenever \( \lambda > 1 - p^{-1} \). We apply the Hölder inequality, and then decompose

\[
\leq C_{\lambda, p} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \left[ \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}_*, P(m, n) = \Gamma} \frac{|f(P(m, n))|^p}{|m|^{\lambda p/2}} \right] \leq C_{\lambda, p} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{\Gamma\}} |f(k)|^p \sum_{(m, n) \in A_k} \frac{1}{|m|^{\lambda p/2}}.
\]
It remains to bound the inner sum. It satisfies
\[
\sum_{Q(m,n)=k'} \frac{|\Delta|^{\lambda p/2}}{|m+a\lambda|^{\lambda p/2}} \leq \sum_{Q(m,n)=k' \backslash |m|>2|\alpha|} \frac{|2\Delta|^{\lambda p/2}}{|m|^{\lambda p/2}} + \sum_{Q(m,n)=k' \backslash |m| \leq 2|\alpha|} \frac{|\Delta|^{\lambda p/2}}{|m+a\lambda|^{\lambda p/2}} 
\]
\[
\leq |2\Delta|^{\lambda p/2} \sum_{(m,n) \in A_{q,k'}} \frac{1}{|m|^{\lambda p/2}} + 8|\alpha||\Delta|^{\lambda p/2}.
\]

The condition \( k \neq \Gamma \) ensures \( k' \neq 0 \), we can therefore use (12) to conclude that this is bounded by a constant depending on \( \lambda, p, \Delta, \alpha \).

To evaluate the first sum we recall from our exploration above
\[
\{(m,n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 : P(m,n) = \Gamma \} = \{(m,n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 : Q(m - \alpha/\Delta, n - \beta/\Delta) = 0 \}.
\]
If we define
\[
\gamma_1 = \frac{a_2 \alpha + c_1 \beta}{\Delta}, \quad \gamma_2 = \frac{a_1 \alpha + c_2 \beta}{\Delta},
\]
and recall the factorization of \( Q \) achieved in section 2
\[
= \{(m,n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 : a_2 m + c_1 n = \gamma_1 \} \cup \{(m,n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 : a_1 m + c_2 n = \gamma_2 \}.
\]
Here it becomes clear that \( P(m,n) = \Gamma \) is solvable in integers if and only if at least one of \( \gamma_1 \), \( \gamma_2 \) is an integer, in which case it has infinitely many solutions equally spaced on a line. Once we have a solution it is immediate that \( \Gamma \) and therefore \( Q(e,-d)/\Delta \) is an integer. We remark that the converse is not true, that is \( Q(e,-d)/\Delta \in \mathbb{Z} \) does not imply that \( P(m,n) = \Gamma \) is solvable. This can be seen from the example \( P(m,n) = 4m^2 - 4n^2 - 4n \) for which \( \Gamma = Q(e,-d)/\Delta = 1 \), but clearly \( P(m,n) = 1 \) is not solvable.

Hence if \( \gamma_i/g_i , i = 1, 2 \) are both nonintegers the first sum contributes zero, and \( \lambda > 1 - p^{-1} \) is a sufficient condition. If at least one of \( \gamma_i/g_i , i = 1, 2 \) is an integer, then we further assume \( \lambda > p^{-1} \), and treat the first sum as follows
\[
\leq 2^{p-1} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}, P(m,n)=\Gamma} \frac{1}{|m|^{\lambda p}} \leq 2^{p-1} \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}, P(m,n)=\Gamma} \frac{1}{|m|^{\lambda p}} \leq 2^p \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{|m|^{\lambda p}} \leq C_{\lambda,p}.
\]

It remains to prove the case \( p = 1 \) and \( P(m,n) = \Gamma \) not solvable, but this follows immediately from the arguments already expounded.

\[\square\]

4. Uniform estimates

In this section we will prove Theorem 3, and as an application of it obtain Theorem 4. Our main tool in this will be the large sieve, which we describe concisely. It arises from orthogonality estimates on additive characters, and was first proposed by Linnik [13], to be greatly developed by subsequent work, see [17] for details. Let \( \mathcal{M} \) be a finite set of integers contained in an interval of length \( M \geq 1 \), and \( \mathcal{P} \) be a set of primes. For each \( p \in \mathcal{P} \) let \( \Omega_p \subset \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \) be a set of residue classes with cardinality less than \( p \). We define
\[
H := \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P} \cap [1,Q]} \frac{\#\Omega_p}{p - \#\Omega_p}.
\]
The large sieve gives the estimate
\[ \# \{ m \in \mathcal{M} : m \pmod{p} \notin \Omega_p \text{ for all } p \in \mathcal{P} \} \leq \frac{M + Q^2}{H}. \]

It is very reasonable and common to choose \( Q = \sqrt{M} \), and we will do so as well.

In order to implement the large sieve we will need the prime number theorem in arithmetic progressions. The number of primes \( p \leq x \) is denoted by \( \pi(x) \), and the number of primes \( p \leq x \) with \( p \equiv a \pmod{q} \) is denoted by \( \pi(x; q, a) \). We note that as \( \gcd(q, a) \) must divide \( p \), unless \( \gcd(q, a) = 1 \) only primes that may satisfy \( p \equiv a \pmod{q} \) are the prime factors of \( q \). So all other primes reside in \( \phi(q) \) residue classes given by \( a \) prime to \( q \). Here \( \phi(q) \) is the Euler totient function. The prime number theorem is
\[ \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\pi(x)}{x / \log x} = 1. \]

The prime number theorem in arithmetic progressions elaborates on this result by showing that these primes are distributed equally among the \( \phi(q) \) equivalence classes.
\[ \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\pi(x; q, a)}{x / \log x} = \frac{1}{\phi(q)}. \]

This theorem guarantees the existence of a constant \( C_{q, a} \) such that for \( x \) not less than this constant \( \pi(x; q, a) \geq x/(2\phi(q)) \log x \). Defining \( C_q = \max_a C_{q, a} \), for \( x \) not less than this constant we have this inequality uniformly in \( a \).

We will make extensive use of the theory of quadratic residues as we apply the large sieve. We therefore briefly state the essentials of this theory. For a complete treatment see [14]. An integer \( m \) prime to an integer \( n \geq 2 \) is a quadratic residue of \( n \) if \( x^2 \equiv m \pmod{n} \) is soluble, otherwise it is a quadratic nonresidue of \( n \). Henceforth we concentrate mostly on quadratic residues of odd primes \( p \), and use the terms residue and nonresidue to mean quadratic residue and quadratic nonresidue. As \( x^2 \equiv (p-x)^2 \pmod{p} \), there are at most \( (p-1)/2 \) residues, but as a degree \( r \) congruence in prime modulus has at most \( r \) solutions, there must be exactly \( (p-1)/2 \) residues, and thus \( (p-1)/2 \) nonresidues as well. We define Legendre’s symbol \( (m/p) \) for \( m \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p} \) to be equal to 1 if \( m \) is a residue, and to -1 if it is a nonresidue. We observe that as \( x^2 \equiv m \pmod{p} \) and \( y^2 \equiv n \pmod{p} \) imply \( (xy)^2 \equiv mn \pmod{p} \), the product of two residues is a residue, and as \( x \to mx \) is an automorphism of the group \( \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \), the product of a residue with a nonresidue must be a nonresidue. Finally, this last argument, implemented with automorphisms induced by nonresidues implies that the product of two nonresidues is a residue. Thus Legendre’s symbol satisfies \( (mn/p) = (m/p)(n/p) \).

Jacobi’s symbol extends Legendre’s symbol to nonprime moduli. For \( n \) any odd positive number, and \( m \) an integer prime to \( n \) we define \( (m|1) = 1 \) for \( n = 1 \), and \( (m|n) = (m|p_1)(m|p_2) \ldots (m|p_l) \) for \( n = p_1p_2\ldots p_l \) with \( p_i, 1 \leq i \leq l \) being odd primes not necessarily distinct. When \( m \) is a residue of \( n \) it is a residue of each prime factor of \( p \), therefore \( (m|n) = 1 \). But the converse is not true, as when an even number of \( (m|p_i) \) are negative we immediately have \( (m|n) = 1 \). The fundamental result of the theory of quadratic residues is the quadratic reciprocity law, and with Jacobi’s symbol at hand we can state a general version of it. For positive, odd, relatively prime integers \( m, n \), we have
\[ (m|n)(n|m) = (-1)^{(m-1)(n-1)/4}. \]
We also note the particular cases \((2|n) = (-1)^{(n^2-1)/8}\) and \((-1|n) = (-1)^{(n-1)/2}\) of Jacobi’s symbol that will be of use below.

We will face, in the course of proof of Theorem 3, two fundamental issues regarding quadratic residues. The first of these is to know which odd primes \(p\) make a fixed integer \(m\) a quadratic nonresidue. This concerns the multiplicative structure of residues, which, as we already have caught a glimpse of, is rather rich. We will exploit this via Chinese remainder theorem that we recall now. Let \(m_1, m_2, \ldots, m_i\) be positive integers any two of which are relatively prime, and let \(m\) be their product. Then \(x + m\mathbb{Z} \mapsto (x + m_1\mathbb{Z}, x + m_2\mathbb{Z}, \ldots, x + m_i\mathbb{Z})\) is a ring isomorphism from \(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}\) to \(\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/m_2\mathbb{Z} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}/m_i\mathbb{Z}\). Therefore this map is also a group isomorphism between multiplicative groups \((\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^*\) and \((\mathbb{Z}/m_1\mathbb{Z})^* \times \cdots \times (\mathbb{Z}/m_i\mathbb{Z})^*\).

A perfect square is always a residue. A number cannot be a residue or nonresidue for its prime factors. Hence, for a fixed nonsquare integer \(m\) we are looking for odd primes \(p\) that yield \((m|p) = -1\). Letting \(m = (-1)^i|m|\) with \(i\) being zero or one, \((m|p) = (-1)^i(|m|/p)\). Writing \(|m| = st^2\) with \(s\) squarefree we obtain \((|m|/p) = (s/p)\), and letting \(s = 2^j\) with \(j\) zero or one, and \(r\) odd, \((s/p) = (2/p)(r/p)\). Now applying quadratic reciprocity

\[
(m/p) = (-1)^{(p-1)/2}(-1)^i(2/p)^j(p/r) = (-1)^{(p-1)/2} + 2^{2j-1} + (-1)^{(p-1)/2}(p/r)
\]

We first investigate the exponent of \(-1\). We only need to know its value in modulus 2. As \(p\) is an odd prime, it is congruent to one of \(p_0 = 1, 3, 5, 7\) in modulus 8. As \(r\) is odd, it is congruent to one of \(r_0 = 1, 3\) in modulus 4. Thus in modulus 2 the exponent of \(-1\) is congruent to

\[
i + j - r_0 - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}.
\]

We calculate this for all 8 possibilities of \((i, j, r_0)\) in modulus 2 to obtain

1. for \((0, 0, 1), (1, 0, 3)\), zero for all four values of \(p_0\),

2. for the remaining six triples, zero for two values of \(p_0\), and one for the other two values.

It remains to compute \((p/r)\). When \(r = 1\) this is by definition 1. We note that when this happens \((i, j, r_0)\) cannot be the triples considered in 1, for \((0, 0, 1)\) together with \(r = 1\) would mean that \(m\) is a perfect square, and \((1, 0, 3)\) is inconsistent with \(r = 1\). Hence for \(r = 1\) we can conclude that \((m/p) = 1\) for \(p\) in two equivalence classes of 8, and \((m/p) = -1\) for \(p\) in the other two equivalence classes.

We now assume \(r > 1\), in which case it can be factorized into distinct odd primes \(r = r_1r_2\cdots r_l\). As \(\gcd(p, r) = 1\), there are \(\phi(r)\) equivalence classes of modulus \(r\), and \(\phi(r_i) = r_i - 1\) classes of modulus \(r_i\), to which \(p\) may belong. Since Euler’s totient function is multiplicative \(\phi(r) = \phi(r_1)\phi(r_2)\cdots\phi(r_l)\). The definition of Jacobi’s symbol gives \((p/r) = (p/r_1)(p/r_2)\cdots(p/r_l)\). If we fix the value of one factor \((p/r_i)\) as plus or minus one there are \((r_i - 1)/2\) equivalence classes of modulus \(r_i\) to which \(p\) may belong. So if the value of every factor is fixed, by Chinese remainder theorem, there are \(2^{l-1}\phi(r)\) equivalence class of modulus \(r\) to which \(p\) may belong. For \((p/r)\) to be one, an even number of factors should be fixed as \(-1\), this gives rise to

\[
\left(\frac{l}{0}\right) + \left(\frac{l}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{l}{4}\right) + \cdots + \left(\frac{l}{2^{|l/2|}}\right) = 2^{l-1}
\]

choices, and thus to \(2^{l-1}\phi(r)\) equivalence classes of \(r\). For \((p/r)\) to be \(-1\) we again have \(2^{l-1}\phi(r)\) classes.
Thus we conclude via Chinese remainder theorem that in modulus $8r$ for $p$ in $2\phi(r)$ equivalence classes $(m|p) = 1$, and for $p$ in $2\phi(r)$ equivalence classes $(m|p) = -1$. This conclusion combined with the prime number theorem in arithmetic progressions means that essentially half of all primes make a nonsquare $m$ a quadratic residue, and half make it a quadratic nonresidue.

The second issue regarding quadratic residues we need to understand concerns their additive structure. Specifically, if the set of quadratic nonresidues of a prime $(p)$ be an integer relatively prime to $p$. Let $s$ be an integer relatively prime to $p$. Then the set $N_p + s \cap N_p$ has cardinality

1. $k - 1$ if $p = 4k - 1$,
2a. $k$ if $p = 4k + 1$ and $s \not\equiv N_p$,
2b. $k - 1$ if $p = 4k + 1$ and $s \in N_p$,

Thus we conclude that for any $p$ the set in question has cardinality at least $(p-5)/4$.

We are now ready to prove Theorem 3. We first estimate the density of $m$ that satisfy $am^2 + n^2 = N$ within an interval, and then using dyadic decomposition apply this to bound the sum \( M \). To obtain the density result we apply the large sieve by showing that for primes $p$ comprising a sufficiently large set chosen via the theory of quadratic residues, there are roughly $p/2$ equivalence classes elements of which cannot be in the set of $m$ mentioned above.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{M}_{\tau} := (\tau - M, \tau + M) \cap \mathbb{Z}$ for an arbitrary integer $\tau$. We want to estimate the cardinality of the set

$$E_{\tau} := \{ m \in \mathcal{M}_{\tau} : am^2 + n^2 = N \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{Z} \}.$$ 

As we have $n^2 = N - am^2$, for $m$ to be in $E_{\tau}$ the term $N - am^2$ must not be a quadratic nonresidue in any modulus. Let $\mathcal{P}$ be the set of primes greater than 5 for which $(-a|p) = -1$. For these primes we will establish the existence of equivalence classes $\Omega_p$ elements $m$ of which $N - am^2$ nonresidue in modulus $p$. We have two cases depending on whether $p$ divides $N$.

First assume $p$ does divide $N$. Then $N - am^2 \equiv -am^2 \pmod{p}$. As $-a$ is a nonresidue and $m^2$ is a residue unless $m \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, their product is a nonresidue unless $m \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Therefore $\Omega_p$ contains every equivalence class except 0.

Now assume $p$ does not divide $N$. As the set $\{ -am^2 \pmod{p} : m \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p} \}$ gives the set of nonresidues of $p$, the set $\{ N - am^2 \pmod{p} : m \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p} \}$ represents shifting of these by a number prime to $p$. Therefore it contains at least $(p-5)/4$ nonresidues, for each of which we have two incongruent values of $m$. So $\Omega_p$ contains at least $(p-5)/2$ equivalence classes.

The set $E_{\tau}$ is contained in $\{ m \in \mathcal{M}_{\tau} : m \pmod{p} \not\in \Omega_p \text{ for all } p \in \mathcal{P} \}$, and the cardinality of this set can be estimated by applying the large sieve. We consider the elements of $\mathcal{P}$ bounded by $\sqrt{2M}$. Letting $r$ be the odd part of squarefree part of $|a|$, our exposition of quadratic residues makes it clear that $\mathcal{P}$ is the set of primes that reside in $2\phi(r)$ equivalence classes of $8r$, exceed 5, and does not divide $-a$. So, for $M \geq K_a := [8(3 + 2 \log |a|)]^4 + C_{8r}^2$, we can estimate

$$\#\mathcal{P} \cap [1, \sqrt{2M}] \geq \frac{\sqrt{2M}}{4 \log \sqrt{2M}} - (3 + 2 \log |a|) \geq \frac{\sqrt{2M}}{8 \log \sqrt{2M}} \geq \frac{\sqrt{M}}{4 \log M}.$$
We easily calculate $H \geq 6^{-1} \# \mathcal{P} \cap [1, \sqrt{2M}]$. Therefore

$$\# \{ m \in \mathcal{M}_\tau : m \pmod{p} \notin \Omega_p \text{ for all } p \in \mathcal{P} \} \leq \frac{4M}{H} \leq 10^2 \sqrt{M} \log M.$$  

As seen clearly this bound is independent of $\tau, N$.

With this result at hand we can proceed to (4). Consider a decomposition of $Z - \{ \tau \}$ into dyadic subsets $D_j := \{ m \in Z : 2^{j-1} \leq |m - \tau| < 2^j \}$ for $j \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $j_0$ be such that $2^{j_0-1} \leq K_a < 2^{j_0}$. With these we can write

$$\sum_{(m,n) \in Z - \{ \tau \} \times Z} \frac{1}{|m - \tau|^\lambda} = \sum_{j=1}^{j_0} \sum_{(m,n) \in D_j \times Z} \frac{1}{|m - \tau|^\lambda} + \sum_{j > j_0} \sum_{(m,n) \in D_j \times Z} \frac{1}{|m - \tau|^\lambda} \leq 8K_a + 200 \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\psi_{j/2} \log 2^j}{2\lambda(j-1)},$$

and this is bounded by a constant depending only on $a, \lambda$.

Theorem 4 concerns polynomials of negative or positive nonsquare discriminant, and by completing squares representation by these can be connected to representation by diagonal forms. Indeed, if $q(x, y) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$ represents $k$ with $(m, n)$, then multiplying both sides by $4c$

$$am^2 + bmn + cn^2 = k \implies -\Delta m^2 + (bm + 2cn)^2 = 4ck.$$  

So the form $q'(x, y) = -\Delta(q)x^2 + y^2$ represents $4ck$ with $(m, n) \mapsto (m, bm + 2cn)$ is injective. The proof of Theorem 4 is similar to the proof of Theorem 2, but employs this connection to apply Theorem 3, instead of decomposition arguments and bounds from the work [27].

Proof. We first consider $p = 1$ case, which we reduced to bounding (2). As usual $Q$ denotes the form corresponding to the polynomial $P$. Let $Q'(x, y) = -\Delta(P)x^2 + y^2$. Combining (14) with the relation we just described about representation by $Q$ and $Q'$ we obtain

$$\sum_{(m,n) \in A_k} \frac{1}{|m|^\lambda} \leq \sum_{Q(m,n) = k'} \frac{\psi_{\lambda(m + a)}'}{m + a}|^\lambda \leq \sum_{Q'(m,n) = 4ck'} \frac{\psi_{\lambda(m + a)}'}{m + a}|^\lambda.$$  

By Theorem 3 this last sum is bounded by a constant that depends only on $\lambda, \Delta$ when $\lambda > 1/2$.

When $p > 1$, let $\lambda'' = \lambda - (1 - (2p)^{-1})$. By the Hölder inequality we have

$$\|I_\lambda f\|_{P(Z)}^p \leq \sum_{n \in Z} \left[ \sum_{m \in Z} |f(P(m,n))|^p \right]^{1/(p-1)} \left[ \sum_{m \in Z} \frac{1}{|m|^{(\lambda''+\lambda'/2)|j|/2}} \right]^{p-1}.$$  

The second sum is clearly finite, and depend only on $\lambda, p$. As for the first sum, we again perform a decomposition using the sets $A_k$,

$$\leq C_{\lambda, p} \sum_{k \in Z} |f(k)|^p \sum_{(m,n) \in A_k} \frac{1}{|m|^{(1+\lambda''p)/2}}.$$  

As $(1 + \lambda''p)/2$ exceeds $1/2$, the inner sum depends only on $\lambda, p, \Delta$. This concludes the proof.
5. LATTICE POINTS AND DIOPHANTINE APPROXIMATION

In this section we explore lattice points on conics via their connections to diophantine approximation. We first prove Theorem 5. In its proof our main tool is Schmidt’s theorem on simultaneous diophantine approximation [24] which we now recall. Let $\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_l$ be real algebraic numbers such that $1, \theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_l$ are linearly independent over the rationals. Then for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there are only finitely many positive integers $q$ with

$$q^{1+\varepsilon} \|q\theta_1\| \|q\theta_2\| \cdots \|q\theta_l\| < 1,$$

where $\| \cdot \|$ is the distance to the nearest integer. In order to fulfill the hypothesis of the theorem we will appeal to the well known fact, due to Besicovitch [2], that the set of square roots of squarefree natural numbers is linearly independent over the rationals.

To prove Theorem 5 we obtain lattice points on hyperbolas with asymptotes of irrational algebraic slopes. This part of the proof is very similar to Chan’s works [8, 9], although he views these hyperbolas as simultaneous Pell equations. Then lattice points yield very close rational approximation of slopes of asymptotes, and this contradicts Schmidt’s theorem.

**Proof.** Suppose $N \in S'$ with $N = R^2 + r$ and $R^{\text{sec}} \geq h_i^{1001}$ where we define $\varepsilon := 4^{-1} \min\{1, 2\rho(l-1)-1\}$. Then $(R-h_i)^2 + n_i^2 = N$ is equivalent to $2Rh_i = h_i^2 + n_i^2 - r$, and this equation implies $Rh_i < n_i^2 < 3Rh_i$, and again from it for $i < j$ we obtain the equations

$$h_i(h_j^2 + n_j^2 - r) = 2Rh_ih_j = h_j(h_i^2 + n_i^2 - r).$$

We rearrange these as

$$h_i n_j^2 - h_j n_i^2 = (h_i - h_j)(h_ih_j + r),$$

and let $h_{ij}$ denote the right hand side in this equation. We have $|h_{ij}| \leq 2h_j^3R^{1/2-\rho} < \sqrt{R}$.

The equations (16) provide lattice points on the hyperbolas $h_ix^2 - h_yy^2 = h_{ij}$, and the slopes of asymptotes of these hyperbolas are given by $\pm \sqrt{h_i/h_j}$. The hyperbolas are given by the graphs of the functions $y = \pm \sqrt{(h_i x^2 - h_{ij})/h_j}$, and with these we estimate the distance between the hyperbolas and their asymptotes at the points supplied by (16).

$$\|\sqrt{h_i/h_j}n_j\| \leq |n_i - \sqrt{h_i/h_j}n_j| = |\sqrt{(h_i n_j^2 - h_{ij})/h_j} - \sqrt{h_i/h_j}n_j|$$

$$= |h_{ij}/h_j| \cdot \left|\sqrt{(h_i n_j^2 - h_{ij})/h_j} + \sqrt{h_i/h_j}n_j\right|^{-1}$$

$$\leq |h_{ij}/h_j| \cdot \left[\sqrt{h_i/h_j}n_j\right]^{-1},$$

which is bounded by $2h_j^2 R^{-\rho}$. When $|r| \leq h_j^2$ this bound improves to $2h_j^2 R^{-1/2}$.

We have three cases depending on $r$. The first is when $r \neq -h_ih_j$ for any $i \neq j$. We show that the linear independence hypothesis in Schmidt’s theorem is fulfilled. Let $c_i$ be rational coefficients and consider a linear combination

$$c_1\sqrt{h_1/h_i} + c_2\sqrt{h_2/h_i} + \cdots + c_{l-1}\sqrt{h_{l-1}/h_i} + c_l = 0.$$
Multiplying both sides by $\sqrt{h_i}$, and then writing $h_i = s_i t_i^2$ with $s_i$ squarefree we obtain
\[ c_1 t_1 \sqrt{s_1} + c_2 t_2 \sqrt{s_2} + \cdots + c_{l-1} t_{l-1} \sqrt{s_{l-1}} + c_l t_l \sqrt{s_l} = 0. \]
By Besicovitch’s result this implies that all $c_i$ are zero unless $s_i = s_j$ for some $i < j$. But this is not possible, as it would imply from (10)
\[ s_i |(t_i n_j)^2 - (t_j n_i)^2| = |(h_i - h_j)(h_i h_j + r)| < \sqrt{R}, \]
where $r \neq -h_i h_j$ means $t_i n_j \neq t_j n_i$, and thus the left hand side is at least $2\sqrt{R}$. Hence we established the independence of $1, \sqrt{h_1/h_i}, \ldots, \sqrt{h_{l-1}/h_l}$ over the rationals. As we have
\[ n_i^{l-1} \prod_{i=1}^{l-1} \| \sqrt{h_i/h_i n_i} \| \leq (3h_l R)^{l-1} (2h_l^2 R^{-\rho})^{l-1} \leq h_l^{\rho} R^{-\rho(l-1)+\frac{l-1}{2}} \leq R^{\rho(\frac{4}{3} - \frac{1}{2})}, \]
when Schmidt’s theorem is applied to $\sqrt{h_i/h_i}$, $1 \leq i \leq l - 1$ with the value of $\varepsilon$ fixed at the beginning, this $n_i$ is one of the finite number of exceptions.

The second case is $r = -h_i h_j$ for some $i < j$ and $r < -h_l^2 l/2$. We observe that $r \neq -h_i h_j$ if $1 \leq i < j \leq 3$. This, as in the first case, ensures that $1, \sqrt{h_1/h_3}, \sqrt{h_2/h_3}$ are linearly independent over the rationals. Further
\[ n_3^{l+2} \prod_{i=1}^{l+2} \| \sqrt{h_i/h_3 n_3} \| \leq (3h_l R)^{l+2} (2h_l^2 R^{-1/2})^{l+2} \leq h_l^9 R^{-3/8} \leq R^{-1/4}. \]
Thus when Schmidt’s theorem is applied to $\sqrt{h_i/h_3}$, $i = 1, 2$ with the value of $\varepsilon$ fixed at the beginning, this $n_3$ is one of the finite number of exceptions.

The third case is $r = -h_i h_j$ for some $i < j$ and $r \geq -h_l^2 l/2$. When we apply the arguments of the second case to $h_{l-2}, h_{l-1}, h_i$, we observe $n_i$ to be an exception.

Infiniteness of $S'$ would yield infinitely many $N \in S'$ with $R \geq h_l^{10l}$ in one of the three cases above. From these $N$ using $Rh_i < n_i^2 < 3Rh_i$ we can extract infinitely many exceptions, violating Schmidt’s theorem. Hence $S'$ must be finite.

We remark that, as the proof reveals, if we remove $h_i h_j$, $i < j$ from the set at the outset we can drop the condition $l \geq 5$. In particular if we take $S$ to be the set of squares $l = 3$ is sufficient. We also remark that methods of this proof should yield a similar result for the hyperbola $x^2 - y^2$. Lastly, observe that ineffectiveness of Schmidt’s theorem forces us to fix $h_i$, $1 \leq i \leq l$ beforehand, and this precludes any progress towards the Conjecture 1. Fielding effective results in diophantine approximation we next make some progress in this direction.

We state the effective result we will use in the proof of Theorem 6 below. This result is recently obtained by Bugeaud [7], and it improves upon the work of Turk [28], employed by Chan in his work. Let $a, b$ be positive integers such that none of $a, b, ab$ is a full square, and let $u, v$ be nonzero integers. Then, there exists an effectively computable, absolute real number $C$ such that all solutions in positive integers $x, y, z$ of the equations
\[ x^2 - ay^2 = u, \qquad z^2 - by^2 = v \]
 satisfy
\[ \max\{x, y, z\} \leq \left( \max\{|u|, |v|, 2\} \right)^{C \sqrt{ab} \log a \log b}. \]
Having stated this result we are ready to prove Theorem 6. As in the proof of Theorem 5 we obtain simultaneous Pell equations, and we apply Bugeaud’s theorem after verifying that these equations fulfill its hypotheses. Our proof differs from Chan’s in that we carry out this verification in a simpler and more efficient way.

**Proof.** We start with (13). Let \(N\) be large as described in the theorem. Suppose for this \(N\) the set in question contains more than 20 elements, this means there are five positive integers \(\sqrt{r} < n_1 < n_2 < \ldots < n_5\) with \((m_i, n_i)\), \(m_i > 0\) in the set. We let \(m_i = R - h_i\), and note that \(0 < h_1 < h_2 < \ldots < h_5\). From \((R - h_i)^2 + n_i^2 = R^2 + r\) we obtain the relations \(h_i \leq 72 \log r^2 N\) and \(Rh_i < n_i^2 < 3Rh_i\), and for \(i < j\) the equation

\[
\frac{h_i}{h_j} - h_j = (h_i - h_j)(h_i h_j + r) = h_{ij},
\]

with \(|h_{ij}| \leq 25h^2 h_{ij}^2 \log^N N < \sqrt{R}\). We let \(h_i = s_i t_i\), with \(s_i\) squarefree.

We have two cases, the first being \(r < -h_3^2\). In this case we consider the equations

\[
h_1 n_1^2 - h_3 n_2^2 = h_{13}, \quad h_2 n_2^2 - h_3 n_3^2 = h_{23}.
\]

Multiplying both with \(-h_3\) we obtain

\[
(h_3 n_1)^2 - h_1 h_3 n_3^2 = -h_3 h_{13}, \quad (h_3 n_2)^2 - h_2 h_3 n_3^2 = -h_3 h_{23},
\]

and observe that with

\[
(x, y, z) = (h_3 n_1, n_3, h_3 n_2), \quad (a, b, u, v) = (h_1 h_3, h_2 h_3, -h_3 h_{13}, -h_3 h_{23})
\]

this is a system of equations to which Bugeaud’s theorem can be applied if we can verify the conditions on \(a, b, u, v\). Clearly our condition \(r < -h_3^2\) implies \(h_{ij}, 1 \leq i < j \leq 3\) are nonzero, and thus \(u, v\) are nonzero. Also observe that if one of \(a, b, ab\) is a full square, then \(s_i = s_j\) for some \(1 \leq i < j \leq 3\). Then the equation (17) implies

\[
s_i(t_i n_j)^2 - (t_j n_i)^2 = |h_{ij}| < \sqrt{R}.
\]

As \(h_{ij}\) are nonzero, \(t_i n_j \neq t_j n_i\), and this means the leftmost term is at least \(2\sqrt{R}\), leading to a contradiction. We therefore fulfilled the hypothesis of Bugeaud’s theorem, on applying which

\[
\max\{h_3 n_1, n_3, h_3 n_2\} \leq \left(\max\{|h_3 h_{13}|, |h_3 h_{23}|, 2\}\right)^{\log h_2 \log h_3 \log h_2 h_3}
\]

\[
\leq \left(e^{4 \log^2 N} (72)^2 C \log^N N \log^2 \log N\right)
\]

\[
\leq e^{26 \log^2 N} \log^2 \log N.
\]

Since the leftmost term is greater than \((N/2)^{1/4}\), this is a contradiction.

The second case is \(r \geq -h_3^2\), and in this case the same argument with \(h_3, h_4, h_5\) instead of \(h_1, h_2, h_3\) yields the contradiction we are looking for. Therefore the assumption that the set contains more than 20 elements is wrong.

The hyperbolic case (6) follows if we repeat the same arguments almost verbatim.

As for (7) we consider the injective map \(T(m, n) = T(m, n) = (m + n, -m + n)\) from \(\mathbb{Z}^2\) to itself. The condition \(|n - \sqrt{N}| \leq 2N^{1/4} \log^{k/4} N\) implies \(|m - \sqrt{N}| \leq 4N^{1/4} \log^{k/4} N\). Combining these gives \(|v| \leq 6N^{1/4} \log^{k/4} N\), which means \(T\) maps the set in (7) into the set

\[
\{(u, v) : u^2 - v^2 = 4N, \quad |v| \leq 5(4N)^{1/4} \log^{k/4} 4N\}.
\]
As $4N \in E$, the cardinality of this set is at most $20$ by (i). Thus there are at most 5 positive values of $u$, and to each of these correspond two values of $v$, which yield at most 10 pairs in (ii). 

The hypothesis imposed by Chan [9] in his theorem on divisors is of the following form: Let $N$ be a sufficiently large integer that can be factored as $(M-a)(M+b)$ for integers $0 \leq a \leq b \leq e^{\log^c N}$. We would like to illustrate the reduction of his result under this condition to a subcase of our (iii). For such $N$ if we let $R = 2M + b - a$ we obtain $4N = R^2 - (a+b)^2$, and thus observe that $4N$ is of the form $R^2 + r$ with $|r| \leq 4e^{2\log^c N}$. If $n$ is a divisor of $N$ with $|n - N^{1/2}| \leq N^{1/4} \log^{\kappa/4} N$, then $2n$ is a divisor of $4N$ with $|2n - (4N)^{1/2}| \leq 2N^{1/4} \log^{\kappa/4} N$. Therefore (iii) applies to $4N$ to give at most 10 divisors $n$ of $N$.

Overall Theorem 6 improves upon Chan’s work in three respects. It reduces the cardinality of the set of lattice points from 36 and 18 for the circle and divisor cases respectively to 20 and 10. It enlarges the set of possible values $N$ can take from points of the form $R^2 \pm b^2$ to $R^2 + r$. Finally by sharper computation and using Bugeaud’s work the value of $\kappa$ is improved from $\kappa = 2/7$ to $\kappa < 1/2$.

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