## Chapter 8

## Sums of nine positive cubes via the circle method

The object of the next 4 lectures is to prove that each large enough positive integer $n$ is the sum of 9 positive integer cubes. The number of all possible representations will be denoted by

$$
\begin{equation*}
R(n):=\#\left\{\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{9}\right) \in \mathbb{N}^{9}: x_{1}^{3}+\cdots+x_{9}^{3}=n\right\} \tag{8.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\mathbb{N}=\{1,2, \ldots\}$. We need to show that there exists $n_{0} \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$
n \geqslant n_{0} \Rightarrow R(n)>0
$$

The exact value of $n_{0}$ shall not concern us, since a finite computation can provide a list of all integers $9 \leqslant n<n_{0}$ such that $R(n)=0$. It is important to note that we will prove the following much stronger statement.

Theorem 8.1. There exists a positive real constant $c$ such that

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow+\infty} \frac{R(n)}{n^{2}}=c
$$

The constant $c$ has an explicit value which will be given later in this course. Note that the fact that $c>0$ guarantees that $R(n)$ remains positive for $n$ large enough.

### 8.0.1 Heuristics behind Theorem 8.1

Before we embark on the details of the proof let us give some heuristics on why the growth of the number of representations should behave like $n^{2}$. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
N:=\left[n^{\frac{1}{3}}\right] . \tag{8.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Each integer $x_{i}$ in (8.1) satisfies $x_{i}^{3} \leqslant n$, hence it lies in the interval $[1, N]$, which has approximately $n^{\frac{1}{3}}$ integers. Therefore there are approximately $\left(n^{\frac{1}{3}}\right)^{9}=n^{3}$ choices for the integers $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{9}$ in (8.1). For those choices the polynomial

$$
x_{1}^{3}+\cdots+x_{9}^{3}
$$

takes values between 1 and $n$. If it were true that each such value can be taken with equal probability then the probability that it takes the value $n$ would be $\frac{1}{n}$. Therefore the number of representations $R(n)$ should be approximately the product of all available values (that is $n^{3}$ ) multiplied by this probability (that is $\frac{1}{n}$ ). This explains why $R(n)$ grows to infinity at a rate of $c n^{2}$, for some positive constant $c$. The method of proof will therefore have to convert the heuristics about the random behavior of the integer values of $x_{1}^{3}+\cdots+x_{9}^{3}$ into a legitimate argument. This method was discovered almost a century ago by Hardy, Ramanujan and Littlewood. It is known as the circle method. It can be used for a large variety of problems and is of central importance in modern research; we choose to apply it for proving only Theorem 8.1 for matters of illustration.

## Literature:

Davenport, H. : Analytic methods for Diophantine equations and Diophantine inequalities, Cambridge Mathematical Library, 2005.
Vaughan, R. C. : The Hardy-Littlewood method, Cambridge University Press, 1997.

### 8.1 Setting up the circle method

We will use the notation

$$
\mathrm{e}(z):=\mathrm{e}^{2 \pi i z}, z \in \mathbb{R},
$$

throughout our lectures. The fact that $\mathrm{e}^{2 \pi i}=1$ shows that this function is periodic with period 1 , meaning that $\mathrm{e}(z+1)=\mathrm{e}(z)$. Furthermore, for a non-zero real $h$ the
expression

$$
\int_{0}^{1} \mathrm{e}(\alpha h) \mathrm{d} \alpha
$$

vanishes, because the anti-derivative of $\mathrm{e}(\alpha h)$ is $\frac{\mathrm{e}(\alpha h)}{h}$. Hence the integral equals 1 if $h=0$ and is otherwise equal to 0 . Using this with $h=x_{1}^{3}+\cdots+x_{9}^{3}-n$ shows that $R(n)$ equals

$$
\sum_{\substack{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{9} \in \mathbb{N} \\ 1 \leqslant x_{i} \leqslant N}} \int_{0}^{1} \mathrm{e}\left(\alpha\left(x_{1}^{3}+\cdots+x_{9}^{3}-n\right)\right) \mathrm{d} \alpha=\int_{0}^{1} \prod_{i=1}^{9}\left(\sum_{\substack{x_{i} \in \mathbb{N} \\ 1 \leqslant x_{i} \leqslant N}} \mathrm{e}\left(\alpha x_{i}^{3}\right)\right) \mathrm{e}(-\alpha n) \mathrm{d} \alpha .
$$

Letting for any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(\alpha):=\mathrm{e}\left(\alpha \cdot 1^{3}\right)+\mathrm{e}\left(\alpha \cdot 2^{3}\right)+\cdots+\mathrm{e}\left(\alpha N^{3}\right)=\sum_{m=1}^{N} \mathrm{e}\left(\alpha m^{3}\right) \tag{8.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where as always $N=\left[n^{1 / 3}\right]$, we have proved that

$$
R(n)=\int_{0}^{1} f(\alpha)^{9} \mathrm{e}(-\alpha n) \mathrm{d} \alpha
$$

Note that the function $f(\alpha)$ also has period 1, therefore we could replace the interval of integration $[0,1]$ by any interval $\mathcal{U}$ of length 1 . It will be convenient to use the interval

$$
\mathcal{U}:=\left[\frac{1}{n^{1-\frac{1}{300}}}, 1+\frac{1}{n^{1-\frac{1}{300}}}\right],
$$

thus leading to

$$
\begin{equation*}
R(n)=\int_{\mathcal{U}} f(\alpha)^{9} \mathrm{e}(-\alpha n) \mathrm{d} \alpha \tag{8.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

This identity is the starting point of the circle method. Its name comes from the fact that the function of $n$ given by $\mathrm{e}(-\alpha n), \alpha \in[0,1]$, takes values in the unit circle of the complex numbers.

### 8.1.1 Major and minor arcs

One way to think of $f(\alpha)$ is to consider what happens if one had the simpler function

$$
f_{1}(\alpha):=\mathrm{e}(\alpha \cdot 1)+\mathrm{e}(\alpha \cdot 2)+\cdots+\mathrm{e}(\alpha N)=\sum_{m=1}^{N} \mathrm{e}(\alpha m)
$$

If $\alpha$ is an integer then this function equals $N$ and otherwise it has the value

$$
\mathrm{e}(\alpha) \frac{\mathrm{e}(\alpha N)-1}{\mathrm{e}(\alpha)-1}=\frac{\mathrm{e}(\alpha(N+1))-\mathrm{e}(\alpha)}{\mathrm{e}(\alpha)-1}
$$

Observe that the denominator is a continuous function, hence it becomes almost zero when $\alpha$ is almost an integer. This means that $f_{1}$ takes larger values when $\alpha$ is close to being an integer. A similar phenomenon persists for the slightly more complicated function $f(\alpha)$, only this time the function $f(\alpha)$ takes larger values when $\alpha$ is close to a rational with small denominator, e.g. $\frac{1}{1}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{4}$, etc. This fact is not obvious but it will become clear in the next lectures. With this in mind we observe that the main contribution in the definite integral (8.4) will come when $\alpha$ is close to some $\frac{a}{q}$ for coprime positive integers $a$ and $q$. We denote one such interval as follows,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{M}(a, q):=\left\{\alpha \in \mathcal{U}:\left|\alpha-\frac{a}{q}\right| \leqslant \frac{1}{n^{1-\frac{1}{300}}}\right\}, a, q \in \mathbb{N}: \operatorname{gcd}(a, q)=1 . \tag{8.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

These intervals are usually called major arcs; when $\alpha \in \mathfrak{M}(a, q)$ the function $\mathrm{e}(\alpha)$ takes values in an arc of the unit circle of the complex plane. We can now introduce the union of all major arcs around rationals with small denominator,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{M}:=\bigcup_{1 \leqslant q \leqslant n^{1 / 300}} \bigcup_{\substack{1 \leqslant a \leqslant q-1 \\ \operatorname{gcd}(a, q)=1}} \mathfrak{M}(a, q) . \tag{8.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

What remains of the interval $\mathcal{U}$ will be called minor arcs and will be denoted by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{m}:=\mathcal{U} \backslash \mathfrak{M} \tag{8.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Observe that two different major arcs in (8.6) have empty intersection. Indeed, for $a / q \neq a^{\prime} / q^{\prime}$ the integer $a q^{\prime}-a^{\prime} q$ is not zero, hence $\left|a q^{\prime}-a^{\prime} q\right| \geqslant 1$. This means that

$$
\left|\frac{a}{q}-\frac{a^{\prime}}{q^{\prime}}\right|=\frac{\left|a q^{\prime}-a^{\prime} q\right|}{q q^{\prime}} \geqslant \frac{1}{q q^{\prime}} \geqslant \frac{1}{n^{\frac{2}{300}}}>\frac{4}{n^{1-\frac{1}{300}}},
$$

where in the last inequality we used that $n$ is sufficiently large. Hence the distance of the centres of the intervals $\mathfrak{M}(a, q)$ and $\mathfrak{M}\left(a^{\prime}, q^{\prime}\right)$ is greater than the sum of their lengths, therefore they are disjoint.

By (8.4) we have therefore proved the important identity

$$
\begin{equation*}
R(n)=\int_{\mathfrak{M}} f(\alpha)^{9} \mathrm{e}(-\alpha n) \mathrm{d} \alpha+\int_{\mathfrak{m}} f(\alpha)^{9} \mathrm{e}(-\alpha n) \mathrm{d} \alpha \tag{8.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

We will show that the integral over the major arcs $\mathfrak{M}$ will make a contribution of size $n^{2}$, while the contribution from the minor arcs $\mathfrak{m}$ will be significantly smaller. Therefore the integral over the major arcs should be thought of as a main term and the integral over the minor arcs as the error term. Specifically, we shall prove in the next lectures that there exists a positive constant $c>0$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{n \rightarrow+\infty} \frac{\int_{\mathfrak{M}} f(\alpha)^{9} \mathrm{e}(-\alpha n) \mathrm{d} \alpha}{n^{2}}=c \tag{8.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{n \rightarrow+\infty} \frac{\int_{\mathfrak{m}} f(\alpha)^{9} \mathrm{e}(-\alpha n) \mathrm{d} \alpha}{n^{2}}=0 \tag{8.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

These two limit statements are clearly sufficient for the validity of Theorem 8.1.

### 8.2 Weyl's inequality

Note that for each $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ we have $|\mathrm{e}(\beta)|=1$ and hence for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ we see that the triangle inequality yields

$$
|f(\alpha)|=\left|\sum_{m=1}^{N} \mathrm{e}\left(\alpha m^{3}\right)\right| \leqslant \sum_{m=1}^{N}\left|\mathrm{e}\left(\alpha m^{3}\right)\right|=N \leqslant n^{\frac{1}{3}} .
$$

This is the trivial bound for $|f(\alpha)|$ and in order to prove (8.10) we will need to find a better bound whenever $\alpha$ is not close to a rational number. For such $\alpha$ the function $\mathrm{e}\left(\alpha m^{3}\right)$ oscillates around the unit circle quite often, therefore we expect some cancellation among the values $\mathrm{e}\left(\alpha m^{3}\right)$ for $m=1, \ldots, N$.

Before stating the precise lemma, due to Weyl, let us prepare its proof. For any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ we have
$|f(\alpha)|^{2}=f(\alpha) \overline{f(\alpha)}=\left(\sum_{m_{1}=1}^{N} \mathrm{e}\left(\alpha m_{1}^{3}\right)\right) \overline{\left(\sum_{m_{2}=1}^{N} \mathrm{e}\left(\alpha m_{2}^{3}\right)\right)}=\sum_{m_{2}=1}^{N}\left(\sum_{m_{1}=1}^{N} \mathrm{e}\left(\alpha\left(m_{1}^{3}-m_{2}^{3}\right)\right)\right)$.
In the inner sum we make the change of variables $m_{1} \mapsto h_{1}$ given by $m_{1}=h_{1}+m_{2}$. The condition $1 \leqslant m_{1} \leqslant N$ is equivalent to $1-m_{2} \leqslant h_{1} \leqslant N-m_{2}$, therefore we arrive at the expression

$$
\sum_{m_{2}=1}^{N} \sum_{h_{1}=1-m_{2}}^{N-m_{2}} \mathrm{e}\left(\alpha\left(\left(h_{1}+m_{2}\right)^{3}-m_{2}^{3}\right)\right) .
$$

Note that the variable $h_{1}$ takes values in the interval $[1-N, N-1]$ and that

$$
\left(h_{1}+m_{2}\right)^{3}-m_{2}^{3}=h_{1}^{3}+3 h_{1}\left(h_{1} m_{2}+m_{2}^{2}\right) .
$$

Inverting the order of summation in the last sum we produce the equality

$$
|f(\alpha)|^{2}=\sum_{\left|h_{1}\right|<N} \mathrm{e}\left(\alpha h_{1}^{3}\right) \sum_{m_{2} \in[1, N] \cap\left[1-h_{1}, N-h_{1}\right]} \mathrm{e}\left(\alpha 3 h_{1}\left(h_{1} m_{2}+m_{2}^{2}\right)\right)
$$

and the triangle inequality shows that

$$
|f(\alpha)|^{2} \leqslant \sum_{\left|h_{1}\right|<N}\left|S_{h_{1}}\right|
$$

where we define

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{h}:=\sum_{m_{2} \in[1, N] \cap[1-h, N-h]} \mathrm{e}\left(3 \alpha h\left(h m_{2}+m_{2}^{2}\right)\right) . \tag{8.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore we have $|f(\alpha)|^{4} \leqslant\left(\sum_{\left|h_{1}\right|<N}\left|S_{h_{1}}\right|\right)^{2}$ and we can combine this with the following special form of Cauchy's inequality ${ }^{1}$

$$
\left(\sum_{\left|h_{1}\right|<N}\left|S_{h_{1}}\right|\right)^{2}=\left(\sum_{\left|h_{1}\right|<N} 1 \cdot\left|S_{h_{1}}\right|\right)^{2} \leqslant\left(\sum_{\left|h_{1}\right|<N} 1^{2}\right)\left(\sum_{\left|h_{1}\right|<N}\left|S_{h_{1}}\right|^{2}\right) \leqslant 2 N\left(\sum_{\left|h_{1}\right|<N}\left|S_{h_{1}}\right|^{2}\right)
$$

to obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
|f(\alpha)|^{4} \leqslant 2 N \sum_{\left|h_{1}\right|<N}\left|S_{h_{1}}\right|^{2} . \tag{8.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

This is called a differencing process owing to the fact that the sum $f(\alpha)$ involves the cubic polynomial $x_{1}^{3}$ but the sum $S_{h_{1}}$ involves the quadratic polynomial $m_{2}^{2}+h_{1} m_{2}$.

We perform this process once more to obtain linear polynomials, which are easier to handle. We have

$$
\left|S_{h_{1}}\right|^{2}=\sum_{m_{2}, m_{3} \in[1, N] \cap\left[1-h_{1}, N-h_{1}\right]} \mathrm{e}\left(3 \alpha h_{1}\left(h_{1} m_{2}+m_{2}^{2}-h_{1} m_{3}-m_{3}^{2}\right)\right)
$$

[^0]and the change of variables $m_{2} \mapsto h_{2}$, where $m_{2}=m_{3}+h_{2}$ makes the last sum equal to
$$
\sum_{\left|h_{2}\right|<N} \mathrm{e}\left(3 \alpha h_{1}^{2} h_{2}+3 \alpha h_{1} h_{2}^{2}\right) \sum_{m_{3} \in \mathcal{I}} \mathrm{e}\left(6 \alpha h_{1} h_{2} m_{3}\right),
$$
where $\mathcal{I} \subset[1, N]$ is the intersection of 4 intervals, namely,
$$
\mathcal{I}:=[1, N] \cap\left[1-h_{1}, N-h_{1}\right] \cap\left[1-h_{2}, N-h_{2}\right] \cap\left[1-h_{1}-h_{2}, N-h_{1}-h_{2}\right] .
$$

By the triangle inequality we get

$$
\left|S_{h_{1}}\right|^{2} \leqslant \sum_{\left|h_{2}\right|<N}\left|\sum_{m_{3} \in \mathcal{I}} \mathrm{e}\left(6 \alpha h_{1} h_{2} m_{3}\right)\right|
$$

which, when combined with (8.12), yields

$$
|f(\alpha)|^{4} \leqslant 2 N \sum_{\left|h_{1}\right|<N} \sum_{\left|h_{2}\right|<N}\left|\sum_{m_{3} \in \mathcal{I}} \mathrm{e}\left(6 \alpha h_{1} h_{2} m_{3}\right)\right|
$$

If $h_{1}=0$ then each term in the sum equals 1 and the fact that $\mathcal{I} \subset[1, N]$ shows that the contribution to $|f(\alpha)|^{4}$ is $\leqslant(2 N)^{2} N$, while the same holds for the contribution of $h_{2}$ with $h_{2}=0$. We have thus obtained

$$
|f(\alpha)|^{4} \leqslant 8 N^{3}+2 N \sum_{0<\left|h_{1}\right|<N} \sum_{0<\left|h_{2}\right|<N}\left|\sum_{m_{3} \in \mathcal{I}} \mathrm{e}\left(6 \alpha h_{1} h_{2} m_{3}\right)\right| .
$$

For each $h_{1}, h_{2}$ in the last sum, the integer $h=6\left|h_{1} h_{2}\right|$ satisfies $0 \leqslant h \leqslant 6 N^{2}$ and furthermore there are at most $4 \tau\left(\frac{h}{6}\right) \leqslant 4 \tau(h)$ such decompositions, where $\tau(k)$ denotes the number of positive divisors of $k$. This leads to the bound

$$
|f(\alpha)|^{4} \leqslant 8 N^{3}+8 N \sum_{0<|h|<6 N^{2}} \tau(h)\left|\sum_{m \in \mathcal{I}} \mathrm{e}(h m \alpha)\right|
$$

We will prove in the exercises that for each $\epsilon>0$ one has $\tau(h)=O_{\epsilon}\left(h^{\epsilon}\right)$, hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
|f(\alpha)|^{4} \ll_{\epsilon} N^{3}+N^{1+\epsilon} \sum_{0<h<6 N^{2}}\left|\sum_{m \in \mathcal{I}} \mathrm{e}(h m \alpha)\right| \tag{8.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

where we used that the sum over $m$ is of the same modulus when $h$ is replaced by $-h$.

Lemma 8.2. For a real number $\theta$ let $\|\theta\|$ denote the distance to the nearest integer. Then for each $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ we have

$$
\left|\sum_{m \in \mathcal{I}} \mathrm{e}(\theta m)\right| \ll \min \left\{N, \frac{1}{\|\theta\|}\right\} .
$$

Proof. The periodicity of $\mathrm{e}(z)$ allows us to assume that $\theta$ is a real number in $\left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right]$, hence $\|\theta\|=|\theta|$. Observe that the set $\mathcal{I} \subset[1, N]$ is the intersection of 4 closed intervals contained in $[1, N]$, hence it is a closed interval, say $[a, b]$, contained in $[1, N]$. Therefore it is sufficient to prove the bound in our lemma for any sum $\sum_{m \in[a, b]} \mathrm{e}(\theta m)$ where $a, b$ are integers with $1 \leqslant a \leqslant b \leqslant N$. If $\theta=0$ then

$$
\left|\sum_{m \in[a, b]} \mathrm{e}(\theta m)\right| \leqslant N
$$

and our bound is valid. If $\theta$ is not an integer then

$$
\left|\sum_{m \in[a, b]} \mathrm{e}(\theta m)\right|=\left|\mathrm{e}(a \theta) \sum_{m \in[0, b-a]} \mathrm{e}(\theta m)\right|=\left|\frac{\mathrm{e}(\theta(b-a+1))-1}{\mathrm{e}(\theta)-1}\right| \leqslant \frac{2}{|\mathrm{e}(\theta)-1|}
$$

and the inequality

$$
|\mathrm{e}(\theta)-1|=|\mathrm{e}(\theta / 2)||\mathrm{e}(\theta / 2)-\mathrm{e}(-\theta / 2)|=2|\sin (\pi \theta)| \gg|\theta|,
$$

valid in the interval $|\theta|<\frac{1}{2}$, concludes our proof.
Combining this lemma with (8.13) provides the bound

$$
\begin{equation*}
|f(\alpha)|^{4}<_{\epsilon} N^{3}+N^{1+\epsilon} \sum_{0<h<6 N^{2}} \min \left\{N, \frac{1}{\|\alpha h\|}\right\} \tag{8.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 8.3 (Weyl's inequality). Assume that there are coprime positive integers a, $q$ with $n^{\frac{1}{300}} \leqslant q \leqslant n^{1-\frac{1}{300}}$ such that the real number $\alpha$ satisfies

$$
\left|\alpha-\frac{a}{q}\right| \leqslant \frac{1}{q^{2}} .
$$

Then we have

$$
|f(\alpha)| \ll_{\epsilon} n^{\frac{1}{3}-\frac{1}{2000}} .
$$

Let us comment that if $q$ is closer to 1 than in the statement above then $\alpha$ is relatively closer to an integer, thus each term e $\left(\alpha m^{3}\right)$ in the definition (8.3) of $f(\alpha)$ may be close to 1 . This means that $f(\alpha)$ could take a value close to $N \asymp n^{\frac{1}{3}}$ and then the conclusion of the lemma would not be valid.

Proof. In light of (8.2) and (8.14) it is sufficient to prove that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{0<h<6 N^{2}} \min \left\{N, \frac{1}{\|\alpha h\|}\right\} \ll n^{1-\frac{1}{400}} \tag{8.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

We may now partition the sum over $h$ into blocks of $q$ consecutive integers; the number of such blocks is at most

$$
\frac{6 N^{2}}{q}+1
$$

The sum over any of these blocks will be

$$
\sum_{m=0}^{q-1} \min \left\{N, \frac{1}{\left\|\alpha\left(h_{1}+m\right)\right\|}\right\}
$$

where $h_{1}$ is the least integer of the block. The inequality $m \leqslant q$ shows that

$$
\alpha\left(h_{1}+m\right)=\alpha h_{1}+\frac{a m}{q}+O\left(\frac{m}{q^{2}}\right)=\alpha h_{1}+\frac{a m}{q}+O\left(\frac{1}{q}\right) .
$$

The coprimality of $a$ and $q$ guarantees that as $m$ ranges through the interval $[0, q-1]$ the integer $a m$ will assume each value $(\bmod q)$ once. We can make the substitution $r \equiv a m(\bmod q)$ to bound the last sum by

$$
\sum_{r=0}^{q-1} \min \left\{N, \frac{1}{\|(r+b) / q+O(1 / q)\|}\right\}
$$

where $b$ is the integer closest to $\alpha q h_{1}$, i.e. is independent of $r$. If the least residue of $r+b(\bmod q)$, which we call $s$, satisfies $s=O(1)$ then

$$
\left\|\frac{s}{q}+O\left(\frac{1}{q}\right)\right\|=O\left(\frac{1}{q}\right)
$$

in which case we bound the minimum by $N$. In all other cases we will have

$$
\left\|\frac{s}{q}+O\left(\frac{1}{q}\right)\right\| \gg \frac{s}{q} .
$$

Therefore the sum over $m$ is

$$
\ll N+\sum_{s=1}^{q-1} \frac{q}{s} \ll N+q \log q
$$

where we have used $\sum_{s=1}^{q-1} \frac{1}{s} \leqslant 1+\log q$. Recalling the number of blocks we can bound the sum in (8.14) by

$$
\ll\left(\frac{N^{2}}{q}+1\right)(N+q \log q) \ll \frac{N^{3}}{q}+N^{2} \log q+N+q \log q .
$$

The inequalities $N \leqslant n^{\frac{1}{3}}$ and $n^{\frac{1}{300}} \leqslant q \leqslant n^{1-\frac{1}{300}}$ allow us to bound this by

$$
\ll n^{1-\frac{1}{300}} \log n,
$$

which proves (8.15).


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The general Cauchy's inequality is $\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} x_{i} y_{i}\right)^{2} \leqslant\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} x_{i}^{2}\right)\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} y_{i}^{2}\right)$ for $x_{i}, y_{i} \in \mathbb{R}$.

