# ON THE WEAKLY PRIME-ADDITIVE NUMBERS WITH LENGTH 4 

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#### Abstract

In 1992, Erdős and Hegyvári showed that for any prime $p$, there exist infinitely many length 3 weakly prime-additive numbers divisible by $p$. In 2018, Fang and Chen showed that for any positive integer $m$, there exist infinitely many length 3 weakly prime-additive numbers divisible by $m$ if and only if 8 does not divide $m$. Assuming the existence of a prime in certain arithmetic progressions with prescribed primitive root, which is true under the Generalized Riemann Hypothesis (GRH), we show that for any positive integer $m$, there exist infinitely many length 4 weakly prime-additive numbers divisible by $m$. We also present another related result analogous to the length 3 case shown by Fang and Chen.


## 1. Introduction

A number $n$ with at least 2 distinct prime divisors is called prime-additive if $n=\sum_{p \mid n} p^{a_{p}}$ for some $a_{p}>0$. If additionally, $p^{a_{p}}<n \leq p^{a_{p}+1}$ for all $p \mid n$, then $n$ is called strongly prime-additive. In 1992, Erdős and Hegyvári [2] stated a few examples and conjectured that there are infinitely many strongly prime-additive numbers. However, this problem was and is still far from being solved. For example, not even the infinitude of prime-additive numbers is known. Therefore they introduced the following weaker version of prime-additive numbers.

Definition 1. A positive integer $n$ is said to be weakly prime-additive if $n$ has at least 2 distinct prime divisors, and there exists distinct prime divisors $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{t}$ of $n$ and positive integers $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{t}$ such that $n=p_{1}^{a_{1}}+\cdots+p_{t}^{a_{t}}$. The minimal value of such $t$ is defined to be the length of $n$, denoted as $\kappa_{n}$.

Note that if $n$ is a weakly prime-additive number, then $\kappa_{n} \geq 3$. So we call a weakly prime-additive number with length 3 a shortest weakly prime-additive number.

Erdős and Hegyvári [2] showed that for any prime $p$, there exist infinitely many weakly prime-additive numbers divisible by $p$. In fact, they showed that these weakly prime-additive numbers can be taken to be shortest weakly prime-additive in their proof. They also showed that the number of shortest weakly prime-additive numbers up to some integer $N$ is at least $c(\log N)^{3}$ for a sufficiently small constant $c>0$.

In 2018, Fang and Chen [3] showed that for any positive integer $m$, there exist infinitely many shortest weakly prime-additive numbers divisible by $m$ if any only if 8 does not divide $m$. This is Theorem 5 stated in this paper. They also showed that for any positive integer $m$, there exist infinitely many weakly prime-additive numbers with length $\kappa_{n} \leq 5$ that are divisible by $m$. In the same paper, Fang and Chen posted four open problems. The first one inquires whether, for any positive integer $m$, there are infinitely many weakly prime-additive numbers $n$ with $m \mid n$ and $\kappa_{n}=4$. In Theorem 1 of this paper, we confirm this is true, assuming the existence of a prime in certain arithmetic progressions with prescribed primitive root (see assumption (*) on p.2). This assumption is known to hold under the Generalized Riemann Hypothesis (GRH).

Finally, it was also shown in [3] that for any distinct primes $p, q$, there exists a prime $r$ and infinitely many $a, b, c$ such that $p q r \mid p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}$. In Theorem 2, we extend this result analogously to four distinct primes, subject to mild congruence conditions, assuming the same assumption as mentioned above.

## 2. Main Results

Assumption $(*)$. Let $1 \leq a \leq f$ be positive integers with $(a, f)=1$ and $4 \mid f$. Let $g$ be an odd prime dividing $f$ such that $\left(\frac{g}{a}\right)=-1$ with $(\vdots)$ being the Kronecker symbol. Then there exists a prime $p$ such that $p \equiv a(\bmod f)$ and $g$ is a primitive root of $p$.

It is known that $(*)$ is a consequence of the Generalized Riemann Hypothesis (GRH), see Corollary 1 in the next section for details. Under the assumption $(*)$, we have the following.

Theorem 1. Assume (*). For any positive integer m, there exist infinitely many weakly prime-additive numbers $n$ with $m \mid n$ and $\kappa_{n}=4$.

Note that if a positive integer $n$ can be expressed in the form of $n=p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}+s^{d}$ for some distinct primes $p, q, r, s$, and positive integers $a, b, c, d$ such that $p, q, r, s \mid n$, then $p, q, r, s$ are all odd primes. We have the following theorem as a partial converse.

Theorem 2. Assume (*). For any distinct odd primes $p, q, r$ with one of them $\equiv 3$ or $5(\bmod 8)$, there exist infinitely many prime $s$ and infinitely many positive
integers $a, b, c, d$ such that

$$
\operatorname{pqrs} \mid p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}+s^{d} .
$$

This is analogous to Theorem 1.4 in [3], which says that for any given distinct primes $p, q$, there exists a prime $r>\max \{p, q\}$ and infinitely many triples $(a, b, c)$ of positive integers such that $p q r \mid p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}$.

## 3. Preliminaries

Lemma 1 ([4, Thm 72]). (The Fermat-Euler Theorem) Let a, $n$ be coprime positive integers. Then

$$
a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1(\bmod n)
$$

where $\phi$ is the Euler totient function.
We will use the Kronecker Symbol ( $\vdots$ ), which is a generalization of the Legendre symbol. Precisely, this is defined as follows. Let $a, b$ be integers. If $b=0$ or $b= \pm 1$, we define

$$
\left(\frac{a}{0}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
1 & \text { if } a= \pm 1 \\
0 & \text { otherwise }
\end{array} \quad \text { and } \quad\left(\frac{a}{ \pm 1}\right)= \begin{cases} \pm 1 & \text { if } a<0 \\
1 & \text { if } a \geq 0\end{cases}\right.
$$

For the remaining cases, let $b= \pm p_{1}^{e_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{e_{k}}$ be the prime factorization of $b$. We then define

$$
\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)=\left(\frac{a}{ \pm 1}\right) \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(\frac{a}{p_{k}}\right)^{e_{k}}
$$

where for any prime $p$,

$$
\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } a \text { is a quadratic residue modulo } p \text { and } a \neq 0(\bmod p) \\ -1 & \text { if } a \text { is a quadratic nonresidue modulo } p \\ 0 & \text { if } a \equiv 0(\bmod p)\end{cases}
$$

is the Legendre symbol.
Whenever we write $\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)$ for some integers $a, b$, it refers to the Kronecker symbol. We will need the following properties of the Kroncecker symbol. See, for example, [1, p. 289-290] for a proof.
Lemma 2. Let $a, b, c$ be any nonzero integers, and $p, q$ be any odd primes. Let $a^{\prime}$, $b^{\prime}$ be the odd part of $a$ and $b$, respectively. Then we have:

$$
\text { 1. }\left(\frac{a b}{c}\right)=\left(\frac{a}{c}\right)\left(\frac{b}{c}\right) \text { unless } c=-1 \text {; }
$$

2. $\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)=(-1)^{\frac{a^{\prime}-1}{2} \frac{b^{\prime}-1}{2}}\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)$;
3. $\left(\frac{-2}{p}\right)= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } p \equiv 1,3(\bmod 8) \\ -1 & \text { if } p \equiv 5,7(\bmod 8) ;\end{cases}$
4. $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \equiv a^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(\bmod p)$;
5. $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)=\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)$ unless $p \equiv q \equiv 3(\bmod 4) ;$
6. If $p \equiv q \equiv 3(\bmod 4),\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)=-\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)$.

On primes in arithmetic progressions, we have the celebrated Dirichlet's theorem. See, for example, [1, Chapter 1] for a proof.

Theorem 3. (Dirichlet's Theorem) If $a, d$ are coprime positive integers, then there are infinitely many primes $p$ such that $p \equiv a(\bmod d)$.

Under GRH, we have the following generalization.
Theorem 4 ([5, Thm 1.3]). Let $1 \leq a \leq f$ be positive integers with $(a, f)=1$. Let $g$ be an integer that is not equal to -1 or a square, and let $h \geq 1$ be the largest integer such that $g$ is an hth power. Write $g=g_{1} g_{2}^{2}$ with $g_{1}$ square free, and $g_{1}, g_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}$. Let

$$
\beta=\frac{g_{1}}{\left(g_{1}, f\right)} \text { and } \gamma_{1}= \begin{cases}(-1)^{\frac{\beta-1}{2}}\left(f, g_{1}\right) & \text { if } \beta \text { is odd } ; \\ 1 & \text { otherwise } .\end{cases}
$$

Let $\pi_{g}(x ; f, a)$ be the number of primes $p \leq x$ such that $p \equiv a(\bmod f)$ and $g$ is a primitive root $(\bmod p)$. Then, assuming GRH, we have

$$
\pi_{g}(x ; f, a)=\delta(a, f, g) \frac{x}{\log x}+O_{f, g}\left(\frac{x \log \log x}{\log ^{2} x}\right)
$$

where

$$
\delta(a, f, g)=\frac{A(a, f, h)}{\phi(f)}\left(1-\left(\frac{\gamma_{1}}{a}\right) \frac{\mu(|\beta|)}{\prod_{\substack{p|\beta \\ p| h}}(p-1) \prod_{\substack{p \nmid \beta \\ p \nmid}}\left(p^{2}-p-1\right)}\right)
$$

if one of the following holds:

- $g_{1} \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$,
- $g_{1} \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ and $8 \mid f$
- $g_{1} \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ and $4 \mid f$.

Otherwise, we have

$$
\delta(a, f, g)=\frac{A(a, f, h)}{\phi(f)} .
$$

Here $\mu$ is the Möbius function, $(\vdots)$ is the Kronecker symbol, and

$$
A(a, f, h)=\prod_{p \mid(a-1, f)}\left(1-\frac{1}{p}\right) \prod_{\substack{p \nmid f \\ p \mid h}}\left(1-\frac{1}{p-1}\right) \prod_{\substack{p \nmid f \\ p \nmid h}}\left(1-\frac{1}{p(p-1)}\right)
$$

if $(a-1, f, h)=1$, and $A(a, f, h)=0$ otherwise.
Corollary 1. Assume GRH. Let $a, f, g$ be as above and $\left(\frac{g}{a}\right)=-1$. There exists $a$ prime $p$ such that $p \equiv a(\bmod f)$ and $g$ is a primitive root of $p$. In other words, assumption (*) holds true under GRH.

Proof. This corresponds to a special case of Theorem 4, with our specific conditions on $a, f, g, \beta=h=1, \gamma_{1}=g$. Notice that

$$
\delta(a, f, g)=\frac{2}{\phi(f)} \prod_{p \mid(a-1, f)}\left(1-\frac{1}{p}\right) \prod_{p \nmid f}\left(1-\frac{1}{p(p-1)}\right)>0 .
$$

Remark 1. This shows that our result also follows from GRH, which is a much stronger assumption than ( $*$ ).

Theorem 5 ([3, Cor 1.1]). For any positive integer $m$, there exist infinitely many shortest weakly prime-additive numbers $n$ with $m \mid n$ if and only if 8 does not divide $m$.

## 4. Proof of Theorem 1

We first prove the following weaker version of Theorem 1.
Theorem 6. Assume (*). For any positive integer m, there exist infinitely many weakly prime-additive numbers $n$ with $m \mid n$ and $\kappa_{n} \leq 4$.

Proof. Let $m$ be a positive integer. Write $m=2^{k} m_{1}$ with $\left(m_{1}, 2\right)=1$ and $k \geq 0 \in$ $\mathbb{Z}$. Without loss of generality, we assume $k \geq 3$. In fact, if the theorem holds when $m$ is replaced by $2^{\max \{3, k\}} m$, then the theorem holds for $m$. We will construct a family of distinct primes $p, q, r, s$ and positive integers $a, b, c$ such that each of $m, p, q, r, s$ divides $n$, where $n:=p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}+s$.

Let $p$ be an odd prime such that $(p, m)=1$. By the Chinese Remainder Theorem and Theorem 3, there exists an odd prime $q$ such that

$$
q \equiv 1\left(\bmod 2^{k} p\right) \text { and } q \equiv-1\left(\bmod m_{1}\right)
$$

Similarly, we can use the same two theorems to conclude that there exists an odd prime $r$ such that

$$
r \equiv 3\left(\bmod 2^{k}\right) \text { and } r \equiv 1\left(\bmod p q m_{1}\right)
$$

Applying the Chinese Remainder Theorem again, there exists a unique integer $s_{0}$ such that $1 \leq s_{0} \leq p q r m$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
s_{0} & \equiv-5\left(\bmod 2^{k}\right) \\
s_{0} & \equiv-1\left(\bmod m_{1}\right) \\
s_{0} & \equiv-2(\bmod p q r)
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $\left(s_{0}\right.$, pqrm $)=1$.
Since $k \geq 3$, we have $r \equiv 3\left(\bmod 2^{k}\right)$ and $s_{0} \equiv-5\left(\bmod 2^{k}\right)$. This implies that $r \equiv 3(\bmod 8)$ and $s_{0} \equiv 3(\bmod 8)$. Using Lemma 2 , we observe that

$$
\left(\frac{r}{s_{0}}\right)=\left(\frac{s_{0}}{r}\right)(-1)^{\frac{s_{0}-1}{2} \frac{r-1}{2}}=-\left(\frac{s_{0}}{r}\right)=-\left(\frac{-2}{r}\right)=-1 .
$$

Here we used $s_{0} \equiv-2(\bmod r)$ as $s_{0} \equiv-2(\bmod p q r)$. Therefore, applying Corollary 1 with $a=s_{0}, f=p q r m$ and $g=r$, there exists an odd prime $s$ such that $s \equiv s_{0}(\bmod p q r m)$, and $r$ is a primitive root of $s$. Consequently, $s$ satisfies all the previously mentioned congruence relations satisfied by $s_{0}$. Furthermore, there exists a positive integer $c_{0}$ such that

$$
r^{c_{0}} \equiv-2(\bmod s)
$$

Note that by construction, $p, q, r, s$ are all distinct odd primes.
Now for any positive integer $c^{\prime}$, take

$$
c=(p-1)(q-1)(r-1) \phi(m) c^{\prime}+c_{0} .
$$

For any positive odd integer $b^{\prime}$, take

$$
b=\frac{1}{4}(r-1)(s-1) b^{\prime}
$$

Since $r \equiv 3\left(\bmod 2^{k}\right)$ and $s \equiv-5\left(\bmod 2^{k}\right)$, we have $r, s \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, ensuring that $b$ is odd. For any positive integer $a^{\prime}$, take

$$
a=(q-1)(r-1)(s-1) \phi(m) a^{\prime}
$$

where $\phi$ is the Euler totient function. Finally, let

$$
n=p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}+s
$$

Note that we have the following congruence conditions:

1. As $q \equiv r \equiv 1(\bmod p), s \equiv-2(\bmod p)$, we have

$$
n \equiv p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}+s \equiv 0+1+1-2 \equiv 0(\bmod p)
$$

2. Since $q-1 \mid a$, Lemma 1 implies that $p^{a} \equiv 1 \bmod q$. Hence we have

$$
n \equiv p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}+s \equiv 1+0+1-2 \equiv 0(\bmod q)
$$

3. Similarly, $p^{a} \equiv 1(\bmod r)$ as $r-1 \mid a$. Since $q \equiv 1\left(\bmod 2^{k} p\right)$, we have $q \equiv 1(\bmod 8)$. Applying Lemma 2 with $r \equiv 3(\bmod 8)$ and $r \equiv 1(\bmod q)$,

$$
q^{b} \equiv\left(q^{\frac{1}{2}(r-1)}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}(s-1) b^{\prime}} \equiv\left(\frac{q}{r}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}(s-1) b^{\prime}} \equiv\binom{r}{q} \equiv\left(\frac{1}{q}\right) \equiv 1(\bmod r)
$$

So we have

$$
n \equiv p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}+s \equiv 1+1+0-2 \equiv 0(\bmod r)
$$

4. Similarly, $p^{a} \equiv q^{b} \equiv 1(\bmod s)$. As $r^{c} \equiv-2(\bmod s)$, we have

$$
n \equiv p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}+s \equiv 1+1-2+0 \equiv 0(\bmod s)
$$

5. As $\phi(m) \mid a$, Lemma 1 gives us $p^{a} \equiv 1(\bmod m)$. Since $b$ is odd and $q \equiv$ $-1\left(\bmod m_{1}\right)$, we get $q^{b} \equiv-1\left(\bmod m_{1}\right)$. Together with $r \equiv 1\left(\bmod m_{1}\right)$ and $s \equiv-1\left(\bmod m_{1}\right)$, we have

$$
n \equiv p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}+s \equiv 1-1+1-1 \equiv 0\left(\bmod m_{1}\right)
$$

6. Since $p^{a} \equiv 1(\bmod m), q \equiv 1\left(\bmod 2^{k}\right), r \equiv 3\left(\bmod 2^{k}\right)$ and $s \equiv-5\left(\bmod 2^{k}\right)$, we have

$$
n \equiv p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}+s \equiv 1+1+3-5 \equiv 0\left(\bmod 2^{k}\right)
$$

As a result, $n=p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}+s$ is weakly prime additive and is divisible by $m$. Since $a^{\prime}, c^{\prime}$ can be any positive integers, $b^{\prime}$ can be any positive odd integer and $p$ can be any arbitrary odd prime that is coprime to $m$, we have constructed infinitely many weakly prime-additive $n$ with length at most 4 .

Remark 2. In the above construction, $s$ can be raised to any $d$-th power for any positive integer $d \equiv 1(\bmod \phi(p q r m))$.

Together with Theorem 5, we can now prove Theorem 1.
Proof of Theorem 1. Let $m$ be a positive integer. By Theorem 6, there exist infinitely many weakly prime-additive numbers with length $\leq 4$ such that they are divisible by 8 m . Since $8 \mid 8 \mathrm{~m}$, Theorem 5 implies that these numbers cannot be shortest weakly prime-additive, and hence they are all weakly prime-additive numbers with length 4.

## 5. Proof of Theorem 2

Let $p, q, r$ be distinct odd primes, with one of them, WLOG say $r$, satisfying $r \equiv 3$ or $5(\bmod 8)$. Let $k$ be the positive integer such that $\frac{(p-1)(q-1)}{2^{k}}$ is odd. We denote this value as $A=\frac{(p-1)(q-1)}{2^{k}}$ and set $f=8 A p q r$. By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, there exists a unique integer $s_{0}$ such that $1 \leq s_{0} \leq f$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& s_{0} \equiv 3(\bmod 8) \\
& s_{0} \equiv-2(\bmod A p q r)
\end{aligned}
$$

Using Lemma 2 and the condition that $r \equiv 3$ or $5(\bmod 8)$, we have

$$
\left(\frac{r}{s_{0}}\right)=(-1)^{\frac{r-1}{2} \frac{s_{0}-1}{2}}\left(\frac{s_{0}}{r}\right)=(-1)^{\frac{r-1}{2}}\left(\frac{-2}{r}\right)=-1 .
$$

Applying Theorem 3 with the above $a, f$, and $g=r$, there exists an odd prime $s$ such that
$s \equiv s_{0}(\bmod 8 A p q r)$ and $r$ is a primitive root of $s$. In other words, $r$ generates $(\mathbb{Z} /(s \mathbb{Z}))^{*}$ and hence there exists $0<c_{0}<s-1$ such that

$$
r^{c_{0}} \equiv-2(\bmod s)
$$

Since $s \equiv 3(\bmod 8)$, we have $\left(\frac{-2}{s}\right)=1$, implying that $c_{0}$ must be even.
Now by the Chinese Remainder Theorem, take any positive integer $c$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
c & \equiv c_{0}\left(\bmod \frac{s-1}{2}\right) \\
c & \equiv 0(\bmod (p-1)(q-1)) .
\end{aligned}
$$

This is feasible because $s \equiv 3(\bmod 8)$ and $s \equiv-2(\bmod A)$, ensuring that $\left(\frac{s-1}{2},(p-\right.$ $1)(q-1))=1$. Since $c_{0}$ is even and $\frac{s-1}{2}$ is odd, this makes $c \equiv c_{0}(\bmod s-1)$. Thus, we obtain $r^{c} \equiv-2(\bmod s)$ and $r^{c} \equiv 1(\bmod p q)$.

Finally, for any positive integers $a, b, d$ such that $(q-1)(r-1)(s-1) \mid a,(p-$ $1)(r-1)(s-1) \mid b, d \equiv 1(\bmod (p-1)(q-1)(r-1))$, we have the following:

$$
\begin{aligned}
p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}+s^{d} \equiv 0+1+1-2 \equiv 0(\bmod p) \\
p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}+s^{d} \equiv 1+0+1-2 \equiv 0(\bmod q) \\
p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}+s^{d} \equiv 1+1+0-2 \equiv 0(\bmod r) \\
p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}+s^{d} \equiv 1+1-2+0 \equiv 0(\bmod s)
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, for any positive integers $a, b, c, d$ as above, we have

$$
\operatorname{pqrs} \mid p^{a}+q^{b}+r^{c}+s^{d} .
$$

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