

## SUMS OF THE FORM $1/x_1^k + \cdots + 1/x_n^k$ MODULO A PRIME

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### Abstract

Using a sum-product result due to Bourgain, Katz, and Tao, we show that for every  $0 < \epsilon \leq 1$ , and every integer  $k \geq 1$ , there exists an integer  $N = N(\epsilon, k)$ , such that for every prime  $p$  and every residue class  $a \pmod{p}$ , there exist positive integers  $x_1, \dots, x_N \leq p^\epsilon$  satisfying

$$a \equiv \frac{1}{x_1^k} + \cdots + \frac{1}{x_N^k} \pmod{p}.$$

### I. Introduction

In the monograph [2], among the many questions asked by Erdős and Graham was the following: Is it true that for every  $0 < \epsilon \leq 1$  there exists a number  $N$  such that for every prime number  $p$ , every residue class  $a \pmod{p}$  can be expressed as  $a \equiv 1/x_1 + \cdots + 1/x_N \pmod{p}$ , where  $x_1, \dots, x_k$  are positive integers  $\leq p^\epsilon$ ? This question was answered in the affirmative by Shparlinski [6] using a result due to Karatsuba [5] (actually, a simplified version of Karatsuba's result, due to Friedlander and Iwaniec [3]).

A natural question that one can ask, and which Shparlinski recently posed to me, was whether this result can be extended to reciprocal powers. Unfortunately, in this case, the methods of Karatsuba do not give a bound on  $N$  (at least not using an obvious modification of his argument). Fortunately, there is a powerful result due to Bourgain, Katz, and Tao [1] which can be used to bound certain exponential sums, and which can be used to solve our problem:

**Theorem 1 (Bourgain, Katz, Tao)** *Let  $A$  be a subset of a finite field  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ . If  $p^\delta < |A| < p^{1-\delta}$  for some  $\delta > 0$ , then  $|A + A| + |A \cdot A| \geq c|A|^{1+\theta}$ , where  $\theta = \theta(\delta) > 0$  and  $c = c(\delta) > 0$ .*

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Using this result, we prove the following theorem, which is just a restatement of the problem posed by Shparlinski:

**Theorem 2** *For every  $0 < \epsilon \leq 1$ , and every integer  $k \geq 1$ , there exists an integer  $N = N(\epsilon, k)$  such that for every prime  $p \geq 2$ , and every integer  $0 \leq a \leq p - 1$ , there exist integers  $x_1, \dots, x_N$  such that  $1 \leq x_i \leq p^\epsilon$ , and*

$$a \equiv \frac{1}{x_1^k} + \dots + \frac{1}{x_N^k} \pmod{p}.$$

**Comments.** A more general theorem can perhaps be proved here, as was suggested to me by Shparlinski in an email. Basically, suppose  $S = S(p) \subseteq \{1, \dots, p - 1\}$  is an infinite sequence of sets, indexed by primes  $p$  satisfying the following two conditions

1. The sets  $S(p)$  are multiplicative in the sense that  $1 \in S$ , and if  $s, t \in S$  satisfy  $st \leq p - 1$ , then  $st \in S$ ; and,

2. There exists an absolute constant  $0 < \theta \leq 1$  so that for every  $0 < \epsilon \leq 1$ , and  $p$  sufficiently large, the set  $S(p)$  contains at least  $p^{\epsilon\theta}$  elements  $\leq p^\epsilon$ .

Then, there exists an integer  $J = J(\epsilon) \geq 1$  such that for every sufficiently large prime  $p$ , and for every residue class  $r \pmod{p}$ , there exist integers  $x_1, \dots, x_J \in S(p)$ , all of size at most  $p^\epsilon$ , such that

$$r \equiv \frac{1}{x_1} + \dots + \frac{1}{x_J} \pmod{p},$$

An example of a set  $S = S(p)$  satisfying the properties above, is the set of positive integers  $\leq p - 1$  having no prime divisors greater than  $\log^2 p$ . It is well known that the number of elements in this multiplicative set up to  $p^\epsilon$  is at least  $p^{\epsilon/2+o(1)}$  (see, for example, [4])

## II. Proof of Theorem 2

First, we note that it suffices to prove the result only for sufficiently large primes  $p$ , as we may enlarge  $N = N(\epsilon, k)$  as needed so that the theorem holds for all prime  $p < p_0$ , for some  $p_0$ . We also may assume  $0 < \epsilon < \epsilon_0(k)$ , for any function  $\epsilon_0(k)$  that we might happen to need, since if the conclusion of the theorem holds for these smaller values of  $\epsilon$ , then it holds for any larger value of  $\epsilon$ . In fact, we will use  $\epsilon_0(k) = 1/5k$  in the proof of our theorem.

Let  $0 < \beta < 1/5k$  be some parameter, to be chosen later, and let  $u$  be the largest integer less than  $\beta^{-1}/(2k)$ , and consider the set

$$S = \left\{ \frac{1}{p_1^k} + \dots + \frac{1}{p_u^k} \pmod{p} : 2 \leq p_1 < \dots < p_u \leq p^\beta, p_i \text{ prime} \right\},$$

which will be non-empty for  $p$  sufficiently large. We claim that

$$|S| > \frac{p^{1/(2k)-\beta}}{u! \log^u p} \tag{1}$$

for  $p$  sufficiently large, which would follow from the prime number theorem if we had that all the sums in  $S$  were distinct modulo  $p$ . To see that they are, suppose that we had

$$\frac{1}{p_1^k} + \dots + \frac{1}{p_u^k} \equiv \frac{1}{q_1^k} + \dots + \frac{1}{q_u^k} \pmod{p},$$

where the left and right side of the congruence are elements of  $S$ , where the  $p_1, \dots, p_k$  and  $q_1, \dots, q_k$  are increasing sequences. Multiplying through by  $(p_1 \cdots p_u q_1 \cdots q_u)^k$  on both sides and moving terms to one side of the congruence, we get that

$$\sum_{j=1}^u \left( (q_1 \cdots q_u)^k \prod_{\substack{i=1 \\ i \neq j}}^u p_i^k - (p_1 \cdots p_u)^k \prod_{\substack{i=1 \\ i \neq j}}^u q_i^k \right) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}. \tag{2}$$

Since all the terms in the sum are smaller than  $p^{(2u-1)k\beta} < p/u$  (for  $p$  sufficiently large), we deduce that if (2) holds, then

$$\sum_{j=1}^u \left( (q_1 \cdots q_u)^k \prod_{\substack{i=1 \\ i \neq j}}^u p_i^k - (p_1 \cdots p_u)^k \prod_{\substack{i=1 \\ i \neq j}}^u q_i^k \right) = 0;$$

and so,

$$\frac{1}{p_1^k} + \dots + \frac{1}{p_u^k} = \frac{1}{q_1^k} + \dots + \frac{1}{q_u^k}.$$

It is obvious then that the  $p_i = q_i$ , and (1) now follows.

Let  $S_0 = S$ , and consider the sequence of subsets of  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ , which we denote by  $S_1, S_2, \dots$ , where

$$S_{i+1} = \begin{cases} S_i + S_i, & \text{if } |S_i + S_i| > |S_i S_i|; \text{ and} \\ S_i S_i, & \text{if } |S_i + S_i| \leq |S_i S_i|. \end{cases}$$

We continue constructing this sequence until we reach the set  $S_n$  satisfying

$$|S_n| > p^{2/3}. \tag{3}$$

Using Theorem 1 we can produce a non-trivial upper bound on the size of  $n$  for  $\beta < 1/5k$ : Let  $\delta = 1/4k$ , and let  $c = c(\delta)$ ,  $\theta = \theta(\delta)$  be as in Theorem 1. Then, for  $p$  sufficiently large, we will have

$$p^\delta < |S_0| = |S| < p^{1-\delta},$$

and the same inequality will hold for  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_{n-1}$ . Now, applying Theorem 1, we deduce that

$$|S_{i+1}| > c|S_i|^{1+\theta};$$

and so,

$$|S_1| > c|S_0|^{1+\theta}, \text{ and for } j = 2, \dots, n, |S_j| > c^{1+(1+\theta)^{j-1}}|S_0|^{(1+\theta)^j}.$$

From this inequality and (3), we deduce that

$$\left(\frac{1}{2k} - \beta\right) (1 + \theta)^n + o(1) > \frac{2}{3},$$

where the  $o(1)$  tends to 0 as  $p$  tends to infinity; and so, since  $\beta < 1/5k$ , our sequence  $S_0, S_1, \dots, S_n$  finishes with

$$n < \frac{\log(3k)}{\log(1 + \theta)} + 1$$

for  $p$  sufficiently large.

Now, every element of  $S_0$  is a sum of at most  $u$  terms; each element of  $S_1$  is a sum of at most  $u^2$  terms; and, by an induction argument, each element of  $S_n$  is a sum of at most  $u^{2^n}$  terms. Also, each element of  $S_n$  is a sum of terms of the form  $1/q_1^k \cdots q_{2^n}^k$ , where  $q_1 \cdots q_{2^n} \leq p^{2^n \beta}$ .

Now, let  $\beta = \epsilon/2^{n+1}$ . If  $\epsilon < 1/5k$ , then this value of  $\beta < 1/5k$  (recall we said that  $\epsilon$  is allowed to be bounded from above by a function of  $k$ ). Let  $h$

$$h = u^{2^{\lceil \frac{\log(3k)}{\log(1+\theta)} \rceil}},$$

and define

$$T = \left\{ \frac{1}{q_1^k} + \cdots + \frac{1}{q_h^k} \pmod{p} : 2 \leq q_1, \dots, q_h \leq p^{\epsilon/2} \right\}$$

Here,  $q_1, \dots, q_h$  are not restricted to being prime numbers. Since  $|T| \geq |S_n|$ , we have that  $|T| > p^{2/3}$  for  $p$  sufficiently large.

Now we use the following simple lemma, which has appeared in many works before, and uses a standard bilinear exponential sums technique:

**Lemma 1** *Suppose that  $T \subseteq \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  satisfies  $|T| > p^{1/2+\beta}$ . Then, every residue class modulo  $p$  contains an integer of the form  $x_1 + \cdots + x_J$ , where the  $x_1, \dots, x_J$  are all of the form  $t_1 t_2$ , where  $t_1, t_2 \in T$ , and where  $J = \lfloor 2(1 + 2\beta)/\beta \rfloor + 1$ .*

**Proof of the Lemma.** First, we consider the exponential sums

$$h(a) = \sum_{t \in T} e\left(\frac{at}{p}\right),$$

and

$$f(a) = \sum_{t_1, t_2 \in T} e\left(\frac{at_1 t_2}{p}\right).$$

We have from Parseval's identity and the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality that for  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(a)| &\leq \sum_{t_1 \in T} \left| \sum_{t_2 \in T} e\left(\frac{at_1 t_2}{p}\right) \right| \\ &\leq \left( \sum_{t_1 \in T} 1 \right)^{1/2} \left( \sum_{t_2 \in T} |h(at_2)|^2 \right)^{1/2} \\ &= p^{1/2}|T| \leq |f(0)|^{(1+\beta)/(1+2\beta)}. \end{aligned}$$

Now, if we let  $J$  be the least integer greater than

$$2 \left( 1 - \frac{1+\beta}{1+2\beta} \right)^{-1} = \frac{2(1+2\beta)}{\beta},$$

then we have that for  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(a)|^J &< |f(0)|^{J(1+\beta)/(1+2\beta)} < |f(0)|^J |f(0)|^{-J\beta/(1+2\beta)} \\ &\leq |f(0)|^{J-2} \leq \frac{|f(0)|^J}{p}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, given an integer  $r$ , the number

$$\begin{aligned} &\#(x_1, \dots, x_J : x_i = t_1 t_2; t_1, t_2 \in T; \text{ and } x_1 + \dots + x_J \equiv r \pmod{p}) \\ &= \frac{1}{p} \sum_{a=0}^{p-1} f(a)^J e(-ar/p) \geq \frac{f(0)}{p} - \frac{1}{p} \sum_{1 \leq a \leq p-1} |f(a)|^J \\ &\geq \frac{f(0)}{p} - \frac{(p-1)f(0)}{p^2} > 0. \end{aligned}$$

This proves the lemma. □

From this lemma, we deduce that for every residue class  $r$  modulo  $p$ , there exist integers  $t_1, \dots, t_{16}$ , such that

$$r \equiv t_1 t_2 + t_3 t_4 + \dots + t_{15} t_{16} \pmod{p},$$

where  $t_1, \dots, t_{16} \in T$ . This sum can be expressed as a sum of at most  $16h^2$  terms of the form  $1/(qq')^k$ , where  $q, q' < p^{\epsilon/2}$ . This then proves the theorem, since  $h$  depends only on  $k$  and  $\epsilon$ .

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