Molecular graphs and the inverse Wiener index problem

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Abstract

In the drug design process, one wants to construct chemical compounds with certain properties. In order to establish the mathematical basis for the connections between molecular structures and physicochemical properties of chemical compounds, some so-called structure-descriptors or "topological indices" have been put forward. Among them, the Wiener index is one of the most important. A long standing conjecture on the Wiener index ([6], [9]) states that for any positive integer n (except numbers from a given 49 element set), one can find a tree with Wiener index n. We proved this conjecture in [13] and [14]. However, more realistic molecular graphs are trees with degree ≤ 3 and the so-called hexagon type graphs. In this paper, we prove that every sufficiently large integer n is the Wiener index of some caterpillar tree with degree ≤ 3 , and every sufficiently large even integer is the Wiener index of some hexagon type graph.

1 Introduction

The structure of a chemical compound is usually modelled as a polygonal shape, which is often called the *molecular graph* of this compound. It has been found that many properties of a chemical compound are closely related to some topological indices of its molecular graph. Among these topological indices, the *Wiener index* is probably the most important one.

The Wiener index is a distance-based graph invariant, used as one of the structure descriptors for predicting physicochemical properties of organic compounds (often those significant for pharmacology, agriculture, environment-protection, etc.). The Wiener index was introduced by the chemist H. Wiener about 60 years ago to demonstrate correlations between physicochemical properties of organic compounds and the topological structure of their molecular graphs. This concept has been one of the most widely used descriptors in relating a chemical compound's properties to its molecular graph. Therefore, in order to construct a compound with a certain property, one may want to build some structure that has the corresponding Wiener index.

The biochemical community has been using the Wiener index to correlate a compound's molecular graph with experimentally gathered data regarding the compound's characteristics. In the drug design process, one wants to construct chemical compounds with certain properties. The basic idea is to construct chemical compounds from the most common molecules so that the resulting compound has the expected Wiener index. For example, larger aromatic compounds can be made from fused benzene rings as follows (Figure 1):



Fig. 1. Larger aromatic compounds can be made from fused benzene rings.

Compounds with different structures (and different Wiener indices), even with the same chemical formula, can have different properties. For example, cocaine and scopolamine, both with chemical formula $C_{17}H_{21}NO_4$, have different prop-

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erties and different Wiener indices. Hence it is indeed important to study the structure (and thus also the Wiener index) of the molecular graph besides the chemical formula.

From the close relationship between the Wiener index and the chemical properties of a compound, the important *inverse Wiener index problem* [1,6] arises: Given a positive integer n, can we find a structure (graph) with Wiener index n?

Goldman et al. [3] solved the inverse Wiener index problem for general graphs: they showed that for every positive integer n there exists a graph G such that the Wiener index of G is n.

Since the majority of the chemical applications of the Wiener index deal with chemical compounds that have acyclic organic molecules, whose molecular graphs are trees, the inverse Wiener index problem for trees attracts more attention and, actually, most of the prior work on Wiener indices deals with trees [2]. When the graph is restricted to trees, the problem is more complicated. Gutman and Yeh [6] conjectured that, for all but a finite set of integers n, one can find a tree with Wiener index n.

Lepović and Gutman [9] checked the integers up to 1206 and found that the following numbers are not Wiener indices of any trees:

2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 21, 22, 23, 24, 26, 27, 30, 33, 34, 37, 38, 39, 41, 43, 45, 47, 51, 53, 55, 60, 61, 69, 73, 77, 78, 83, 85, 87, 89, 91, 99, 101, 106, 113, 147, 159.

They claimed that the listed were the only "forbidden" integers and posed the following conjecture.

Conjecture 1.1 There are exactly 49 positive integers that are not Wiener indices of trees, namely the numbers listed above.

A recent computational experiment by Ban, Baspamyatnikh and Mustafa [1] shows that every integer $n \in [10^3, 10^8]$ is the Wiener index of some caterpillar tree. Thus, the conjecture is proved if one is able to show that every integer greater than 10^8 is the Wiener index of a tree.

In [13] and [14], we proved that every integer $n > 10^8$ is the Wiener index of some tree. Combined with Ban, Baspamyatnikh and Mustafa's results, we proved that Conjecture 1.1 is indeed true.

However, the molecular graphs of most practical interest have natural restrictions on their degrees corresponding to the valences of the atoms and are typically trees or have hexagonal or pentagonal cycles. ([11] and [5]).

In this paper, we study the inverse Wiener index problem for the following two kinds of structures:

- 1) trees with degree ≤ 3 (Figure 2);
- 2) hexagon type graphs (Figure 3).

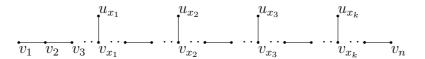


Fig. 2. Caterpillar tree with degree ≤ 3

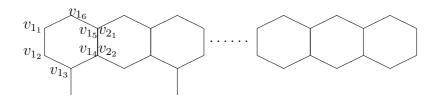


Fig. 3. The hexagon type graph.

We define a family of trees $T = T(n, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$, where

$$V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \cup \{u_{x_1}, \dots, u_{x_k}\},\$$

$$E = \{(v_i, v_{i+1}), 1 \le i \le n-1\} \cup \{(v_{x_i}, u_{x_i}), 1 \le i \le k\},\$$

where n and $x_i, 1 \le i \le k$, are integers such that $1 \le x_1 < x_2 < \ldots < x_k \le n$ (Figure 2).

We also define a family of hexagon type graphs $G = G(n, x_1, x_2, ..., x_k)$, where we have n adjacent hexagons $v_{i_1}v_{i_2}...v_{i_6}$, for i = 1, 2, ..., n. The edges $v_{i_4}v_{i_5}, v_{(i+1)_2}v_{(i+1)_1}$ are indentified for i = 1, 2, ..., n - 1. On the x_j th hexagon there is a pendant edge incident to v_{i_3} , for j = 1, ..., k (Figure 3).

Another popular structure involves pentagons. We note that our proofs can be easily modified to solve the inverse Wiener index problem in that case. For the two kinds of graphs (Figure 2 and Figure 3) to be considered, we shall prove the following results:

Theorem 1.1 Every sufficiently large integer n is the Wiener index of a caterpillar tree with maximum degree ≤ 3 .

Theorem 1.2 Every sufficiently large integer n is the Wiener index of a hexagon type graph.

Remark 1.3 Even though our proofs are not algorithmic, they can be turned into algorithms by merely checking all the possible cases. Unfortunately, the complexity is quite high; the running time for finding a graph from our graph classes with given Wiener index W is pseudo-polynomial in W.

Notation: In the proofs of Theorem 1.2 and Lemma 4.1 (in the appendix), we shall adopt the standard notation \ll and O. For a complex-valued function f(x) and a positive function g(x), $f(x) \ll g(x)$ or f(x) = O(g(x)) means that there is an absolute positive constant c such that $|f(x)| \leq cg(x)$.

2 Preliminaries

For a graph T=(V,E), denote by $d(v_i,v_j)$ the length of the shortest path between two distinct vertices $v_i,v_j\in V$. Define $d_T(v)=\sum_{u\in V}d(v,u)$. The Wiener index W(T) is then defined as

$$W(T) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{v \in V} d_T(v).$$

For $T = T(n, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$, as shown in Figure 2, we have

$$W(T) = \sum_{1 \le i \le j \le n} d(v_i, v_j) + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^k d(v_i, u_{x_j}) + \sum_{1 \le i \le j \le k} d(u_{x_i}, u_{x_j})$$
$$= \frac{n^3 - n}{6} + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^k (1 + |x_j - i|) + \sum_{1 \le i < j \le k} (2 + x_j - x_i),$$

which can be rewritten as

$$\frac{n^3}{6} + \frac{kn^2}{4} + \frac{(6k-1)n}{6} - \frac{k^3 - 12k^2 + 14k}{12} + \sum_{j=1}^{k} \left(x_j + j - 1 - \frac{k+n}{2}\right)^2 \tag{1}$$

after some elementary simplification steps.

For $G = G(n, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$ as shown in Figure 3, we have

$$W(G) = \frac{16n^3 + 36n^2 + 26n + 3}{3} + \sum_{1 \le i < j \le k} (2 + 2(x_j - x_i))$$
$$+ \sum_{i=1}^{k} (4n^2 + 8x_i^2 - 8nx_i + 12n - 8x_i + 7). \tag{2}$$

We note that, from (2), W(G) and k have different parity. Due to this (somewhat annoying) phenomenon, the Wiener indices of our hexagon type graphs with a fixed number of "leaves" comprise at most half of positive integers. To show that every large integer is the Wiener index of such a graph, one should consider at least two different k, with different parities.

Expanding the last sum in (2) and collecting terms, we see that W(G) is equal to

$$\frac{16n^3 + 36n^2 + 26n + 3}{3} + k(4n^2 + 12n + k + 6) + \sum_{i=1}^{k} (8x_i^2 - (8n + 2k - 4i + 10)x_i).$$

Completing squares is not necessary for our proof of Theorem 1.2, but it may make the expression look better. By doing so, we have

$$W(G) = \frac{16n^3 + 36n^2 + 26n + 3}{3} + k\left(2n^2 + 8n + k + 4 - \frac{k^2 - 1}{24}\right) + \frac{1}{8}\sum_{i=1}^{k} (8x_i - 4n - k - 5 + 2i)^2.$$
(3)

3 Proof of Theorem 1.1

We will use formula (1) with some special k and show that all sufficiently large integers can be written as $W(T(n,x_1,\ldots,x_k))$. Due to the restriction $x_i \neq x_j$ (for $1 \leq i < j \leq k$), the well-known Four Square Theorem (k=4) does not directly yield what we want. We thus need to take some larger k, and we find that k=8 is good enough for our purpose. Taking k=8 and n=2s, we can rewrite (1) as

$$W(T(n, x_1, \dots, x_8)) = \frac{4s^3}{3} + 8s^2 + \frac{47s}{3} + 12 + \sum_{j=1}^{8} (x_j + j - 5 - s)^2.$$
 (4)

If we now set $y_j := x_j + j - 5 - s$, we obtain

$$W(T(n, x_1, \dots, x_8)) = \frac{4s^3}{3} + 8s^2 + \frac{47s}{3} + 12 + \sum_{j=1}^8 y_j^2$$
 (5)

subject to the restrictions

$$-3 - s \le y_1 < y_2 < \ldots < y_8 \le 3 + s$$

and without any two consecutive y_j (since no two of the x_j may be equal). Now we need the following lemma, which is a slight modification of Lagrange's famous four-square theorem:

Lemma 3.1 Let N > 103 and $4 \nmid N$. Then N can be written as $a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2 + a_4^2$ with nonnegative integers $a_1 < a_2 < a_3 < a_4$ and $a_2 \ge 2$.

Proof. It is well known (see [7, Theorem 386]) that the number of representations of a positive integer N as the sum of 4 squares (representations which differ only in order or sign counting as different) is

$$r_4(N) = 8 \sum_{\substack{d \mid N \\ 4 \nmid d}} d,$$

while the number of representations of N as the sum of 2 squares is

$$r_2(N) = 4 \prod_{\substack{pr \mid N \\ p \equiv 1 \mod 4}} (r+1)$$

if every prime factor $\equiv 3 \mod 4$ appears with an even power in the factorization of N (and 0 otherwise). The representations violating the first condition correspond to representations of the form $2a^2 + b^2 + c^2$. For each fixed $a \geq 0$ and each representation $b^2 + c^2$ of $N - 2a^2$, we have at most 24 representations of N as a sum of 4 squares (six possible choices for the positions of the two a's, and two additional choices of sign).

The representations violating the second condition correspond to representations of the form $1 + a^2 + b^2$. For each representation $a^2 + b^2$ of N - 1, this gives us at most 24 representations of N as a sum of 4 squares (twelve possible choices for the positions of 0 and 1, and one additional choice of sign).

So the number of representations violating any of the conditions is at most

$$24 \sum_{a < \sqrt{N/2}} r_2(N - 2a^2) + 24r_2(N - 1).$$

Now, for a non-negative integer r, by induction we have

$$r+1 \le \frac{3}{\sqrt{5}} \cdot 5^{r/4}$$
, $r+1 \le \frac{2}{\sqrt[4]{13}} \cdot 13^{r/4}$, and $r+1 \le 2^r \le p^{r/4}$ if $p \ge 17$.

Thus

$$r_2(n) = 4 \prod_{p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}} (r+1) \le 4 \cdot \frac{3}{\sqrt{5}} \cdot \frac{2}{\sqrt[4]{13}} \prod_{p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}} p^{r/4} \le 4 \cdot \frac{3}{\sqrt{5}} \cdot \frac{2}{\sqrt[4]{13}} \cdot n^{1/4}.$$

Therefore, if $4 \nmid N$ and $N \geq 28561 = 13^4$, the number of representations violating one of the conditions is at most

$$24\left(\sqrt{N/2}+2\right) \cdot \frac{24}{\sqrt[4]{325}} N^{1/4} \le 96\sqrt{2}\left(\sqrt{N/2}+2\right) N^{1/4} < 104 N^{3/4} < 8N < r_4(N).$$

So there must be some representation not violating any of the conditions. This proves the lemma for N > 28560, but it turns out that it also holds true for $N \in [104, 28560]$ by explicit testing. \square

Remark 3.2 The condition $4 \nmid N$ may not be skipped – for example, 4^k cannot be represented as a sum of four squares without violating the conditions.

Corollary 3.3 If $4 \nmid N$, N > 103, one can always find integers z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4 such that $N = z_1^2 + \ldots + z_4^2$, $z_1 < \ldots < z_4$ and no two of the z_i are consecutive.

Let $a_1 < a_2 < a_3 < a_4$ satisfy the conditions of the lemma. Choose $z_1 = -a_3$, $z_2 = -a_1$, $z_3 = a_2$ and $z_4 = a_4$. Then,

$$z_1 < -a_2 < z_2 < 1 < z_3 < a_3 < z_4$$

which already proves the claim. \Box

Remark 3.4 Obviously, $z_4 \leq \lfloor \sqrt{N} \rfloor$ and $|z_1| \leq \lfloor \sqrt{N} \rfloor - 1$.

Proposition 3.5 Let $K \ge 15$. Then any integer N in the interval $[4K^2 - 8K + 112, 5K^2 - 16K + 21]$ can be written as $y_1^2 + \dots y_8^2$, where the y_i are integers satisfying

$$-K \le y_1 < y_2 < \ldots < y_8 \le K$$

and no two of them are consecutive.

Proof. Take $y_1 = -K$, $y_7 = K - 2$, $y_8 = K$ and either $y_2 = -K + 2$ or $y_2 = -K + 3$. By the corollary and the subsequent remark, any integer $M \in [104, (K-3)^2 - 1], 4 \nmid M$, can be written as $y_3^2 + \ldots + y_6^2$, where

$$-K = y_1 < y_2 < -K + 4 < y_3 < y_4 < y_5 < y_6 < K - 3 < y_7 < y_8 = K$$

(no two of them being consecutive). Now

$$(-K)^2 + (-K+2)^2 + (K-2)^2 + K^2 = 4K^2 - 8K + 8 \equiv 0 \mod 4$$

and

$$(-K)^2 + (-K+3)^2 + (K-2)^2 + K^2 = 4K^2 - 10K + 13 \equiv 2K + 1 \mod 4.$$

So all integers $\not\equiv 0 \mod 4$ in the interval $[4K^2-8K+112,5K^2-14K+16]$ and all integers $\not\equiv 2K+1 \mod 4$ in the interval $[4K^2-10K+117,5K^2-16K+21]$ can be written in the required way. Since $0\not\equiv 2K+1 \mod 4$, this means that in fact all integers in the interval $[4K^2-8K+112,5K^2-16K+21]$ can be written in the required way, which proves the claim. \Box

Theorem 3.6 All integers ≥ 3856 are Wiener indices of trees of the form $T(n, x_1, ..., x_8)$ $(x_1 < x_2 < ... < x_8)$ and thus Wiener indices of chemical trees.

Proof. By the preceding proposition, any integer in the interval $[4K^2 - 8K + 112, 5K^2 - 16K + 21]$ can be written as $y_1^2 + \ldots + y_8^2$, where the y_i satisfy our requirements and $-K \leq y_1 < \ldots < y_8 \leq K$. If we take the union of these intervals over $21 \leq K \leq s+3$, we see that in fact any integer in the interval $[1708, 5s^2 + 14s + 18]$ can be written as $y_1^2 + \ldots y_8^2$, where the y_i satisfy our requirements and $-3 - s \leq y_1 < \ldots < y_8 \leq s+3$. Short computer calculations show that, for $s \geq 7$, even any integer in the interval $[224, 5s^2 + 14s + 18]$ can always be written that way. But this means that for any $s \geq 7$, all integers in the interval

$$\left[\frac{4s^3}{3} + 8s^2 + \frac{47s}{3} + 236, \frac{4s^3}{3} + 13s^2 + \frac{89s}{3} + 30\right]$$

are Wiener indices of trees of the form $T(n, x_1, ..., x_8)$. Taking the union over all these intervals, we see that all integers ≥ 12567 are contained in an interval of that type. By an additional computer search $(n \leq 40 \text{ will do})$ in the remaining interval, one can get this number down to 3856. \square

Remark 3.7 By checking k = 4, 5, 6, 7 and finally all $n \le 17$, one obtains a list of 250 integers (the largest being 927) that are not Wiener indices of trees of the form $T(n, x_1, ..., x_k)$ with maximal degree ≤ 3 . Further computer search gives a list of 127 integers that are not Wiener indices of trees with maximal degree ≤ 3 - these are 16, 25, 28, 36, 40, 42, 44, 49, 54, 57, 58, 59, 62, 63, 64, 66, 80, 81, 82, 86, 88, 93, 95, 97, 103, 105, 107, 109, 111, 112, 115, 116, 118, 119, 126, 132, 139, 140, 144, 148, 152, 155, 157, 161, 163, 167, 169, 171, 173, 175, 177, 179, 181, 183, 185, 187, 189, 191, 199, 227, 239, 251, 255, 257, 259, 263, 267, 269, 271, 273, 275, 279, 281, 283, 287, 289, 291, 405 and the 49 values that cannot be represented as the Wiener index of any tree. This list reduces to the following values if one considers also trees with maximal degree = 4: 25, 36, 40, 49, 54, 57, 59, 80, 81, 93, 95, 97, 103, 105, 107, 109, 132, 155, 157, 161, 163, 167, 169, 171, 173, 177, 239, 251, 255 and 257.

4 Proof of Theorem 1.2

We are supposed to show that every sufficiently large integer N is the Wiener index of a hexagon type graph. As we have noticed that N and k must have opposite parities, we have to prove the theorem separately in two cases subject to the parity of N. Nevertheless, since the proofs for odd N and even N are almost identical, we shall give a proof of the theorem for odd N only, and a proof for large even N follows the same way. Similar to the proof of Theorem 1.1, we need more variables than expected to guarantee that the side conditions $x_i \neq x_j$ (for $i \neq j \leq k$) are satisfied. For large odd N, we take k = 10 which is large enough for our purpose. (For even N, one can see that, with the same

argument we shall carry out for odd N, it suffices to take k=9 or any larger fixed odd integer.)

Suppose N is a sufficiently large odd integer. Let k = 10, then from (3) we have

$$W(G) = \frac{16}{3}n^3 + 32n^2 + \frac{266}{3}n + \frac{399}{4} + \frac{1}{8}\sum_{i=1}^{10} (8x_i - 4n - 15 + 2i)^2.$$

We thus want to show that

$$N = \frac{16}{3}n^3 + 32n^2 + \frac{266}{3}n + \frac{399}{4} + \frac{1}{8}\sum_{i=1}^{10} (8x_i - 4n - 15 + 2i)^2$$

for certain integers x_i , i = 1, 2, ..., 10 satisfying

$$1 \le x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_9 < x_{10} \le n. \tag{6}$$

Let

$$f(x) = \frac{16}{3}x^3 + 32x^2 + \frac{266}{3}x + \frac{399}{4},$$

and $\alpha(N)$ be the positive real root of $f(x) = N - N^{\frac{1}{3}}$. It is quite easy to see that $\alpha(N) = \left(\frac{3}{16}N\right)^{\frac{1}{3}} - 2 + O(N^{-\frac{1}{3}})$.

Let $n = [\alpha(N)]$. Then we have $n = \left(\frac{3}{16}N\right)^{\frac{1}{3}} + O(1)$, and thus $n < N^{\frac{1}{3}} < 2n$. Also, we have

$$0 \le N - f(n) - N^{\frac{1}{3}} < f(n+1) - f(n) = 16n^2 + 80n + 126.$$
 (7)

We note that $8f(n) \equiv -2 \pmod{16}$. To settle the theorem for large odd N, we thus want to show that, for every integer M satisfying

$$8n \le M \le 8(16n^2 + 82n + 126)$$
 and $M \equiv 10 \pmod{16}$, (8)

we have

$$M = \sum_{i=1}^{10} (8x_i - 4n - 15 + 2i)^2$$

for some x_i (i = 1, 2, ..., 10) satisfying (6).

Let $K = [\sqrt{M}/24]$, and

$$x_i = [n/2] + K + i, \quad i = 6, \dots, 10.$$
 (9)

Since $K \le \sqrt{8(16n^2 + 82n + 126)}/24 < \frac{12}{25}n$, we have

$$n/2 + \sqrt{M}/24 < x_6 < x_7 < x_8 < x_9 < x_{10} \le n.$$
 (10)

It is very easy to check that

$$\sum_{i=6}^{10} (8x_i - 4n - 15 + 2i)^2 \equiv 8n + 13 \pmod{16}$$
 (11)

and, noticing that M is sufficiently large,

$$\frac{5}{9}M < \sum_{i=6}^{10} (8x_i - 4n - 15 + 2i)^2 < \frac{3}{5}M. \tag{12}$$

From (11), (12) and (8), we see that it is sufficient to show that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{5} (8x_i - 4n - 15 + 2i)^2 = L \tag{13}$$

for an integer L satisfying

$$\frac{2}{5}M \le L \le \frac{4}{9}M \text{ and } L \equiv 8n + 13 \pmod{16}$$
 (14)

with

$$1 \le x_1 < x_2 < x_3 < x_4 < x_5 \le n/2 + \sqrt{M/24}. \tag{15}$$

To this end, we make use of the following proposition for which we shall give a proof in the appendix.

Proposition 4.1 Suppose $g_i(y) = a_i y^2 + b_i y + c_i$ (i = 1, ..., 5) are quadratic polynomials of integer coefficients, and $a_i > 0$ for i = 1, ..., 5. d_i and D_i (i = 1, ..., 5) are positive constants satisfying

$$d_i < D_i, i = 1, \dots, 5, \sum_{i=1}^{5} a_i d_i^2 < 1 - \epsilon < 1 + \epsilon < \sum_{i=1}^{5} a_i D_i^2$$

for some constant $\epsilon > 0$. Suppose L is a sufficiently large integer. Let \mathcal{H} be the hypothesis that the congruence

$$g_1(y_1) + g_2(y_2) + \dots + g_5(y_5) \equiv L \pmod{p^{\gamma_p}}$$

is solvable for every prime power p^{γ_p} , where $\gamma_p = \max\{\gamma_{p,1}, \dots, \gamma_{p,5}\}$ with

$$\gamma_{p,j} := \begin{cases} \theta_{p,j} + 2 & \text{if } p = 2\\ \theta_{p,j} + 1 & \text{if } p > 2, \end{cases}$$

and $\theta_{p,j}$ is the highest power of p such that

$$g_j'(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^{\theta_{p,j}}}$$

for all values of x.

If the hypothesis \mathcal{H} is satisfied, then the equation

$$g_1(y_1) + g_2(y_2) + \dots + g_5(y_5) = L$$
 (16)

with $d_i\sqrt{L} < y_i \le D_i\sqrt{L}$ has at least $cL^{\frac{3}{2}}$ integer solutions, where c is a certain positive constant depending only on a_i 's, d_i 's, and D_i 's, $i = 1, \ldots, 5$.

With the aid of Proposition 4.1, we shall show that there exists some integer solution to (13) subject to conditions (14), (15). Let

$$g_i(y) = (8y - 4(n - 2[n/2]) - 15 + 2i)^2, i = 1, \dots, 5.$$

It is clear that $\gamma_p = 1$ for every prime $p \geq 3$. Note that each $\{g_j(y) \pmod p : y = 0, ..., p-1\}$ contains $\frac{p+1}{2}$ residue classes modulo p. Thus, from the Davenport-Chowla Theorem (cf. [12], Lemma 2.14), $\{g_1(y_1) + g_2(y_2) \pmod p : y_1, y_2 = 0, ..., p-1\}$ covers all residue classes modulo p. Thus, for every prime $p \geq 3$,

$$g_1(y_1) + g_2(y_2) + \dots + g_5(y_5) \equiv L \pmod{p^{\gamma_p}}$$

is solvable.

For p = 2, we note that $\theta_{2,j} = 4$ is the largest integer such that

$$2^4 \mid g_i'(y)$$
 for all y .

So, to show that congruence condition for p=2 holds, it thus suffices to show that

$$g_1(y_1) + g_2(y_2) + \dots + g_5(y_5) \equiv L \pmod{2^6}$$
 (17)

is solvable. Expanding the left-hand side of (17), we see that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{5} g(y_i) \equiv 16 \left(\sum_{i=1}^{5} (-1)^i y_i + (n-2[n/2]+1)^2 \right) + 8(n-2[n/2]) + 45 \pmod{64}.$$

It is then easy to check that (17) has a non-trivial solution

$$y_1 = 0$$
, $y_2 = y_3 = 1$, $y_4 = \frac{L - 8(n - 2[n/2]) + 19}{16}$, $y_5 = (n - 2[n/2] + 1)^2$.

Therefore, the hypothesis \mathcal{H} is satisfied. Now, let

$$d_i = \frac{1}{18} + \frac{3^i}{4 \times 10^5}, \quad D_i = \frac{1}{18} + \frac{3^i}{2 \times 10^5}, \quad i = 1, \dots, 5.$$
 (18)

Then we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{5} (8d_i)^2 = 0.9941 \dots < 1, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{5} (8D_i)^2 = 1.0006 \dots > 1.$$

Now all conditions required by Proposition 4.1 are satisfied, thus, for the integer L satisfying (14), the equation (16) has solutions with $d_i\sqrt{L} < y_i \le D_i\sqrt{L}$, $i=1,\ldots,5$. Let $x_i=[n/2]+y_i$ $(i=1,\ldots,5)$, and note that

$$d_i < D_i$$
, $i = 1, ..., 5$, and $D_i + 10^{-6} < d_{i+1}$ $i = 1, ..., 4$,

Lemma 4.1 guarantees a solution for (13) with

$$[n/2] < x_1 < x_2 < x_3 < x_4 < x_5 \le [n/2] + D_5\sqrt{L} < n/2 + \sqrt{M}/24.$$

Theorem 1.2 thus follows. \square

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Appendix

The result of Proposition 4.1 is probably the simplest case of representing large integers as a sum of polynomials of integer coefficients. Surprisingly, this result, though seemingly well known to experts of the Hardy-Littlewood method, could not be found in the literature. We thus give a proof here. The argument is very similar to [8]. While the main result in [8] is on sums of polynomials of higher degrees, most lemmas are given in a general setting. For a shorter proof, we shall make use of various results in [8], though some of them are not necessarily best-possible for quadratic polynomials.

Throughout, ϵ is any sufficiently small positive number, not necessarily the same at all places.

For j = 1, 2, ..., 5, let

$$f_j(\alpha) := \sum_{\substack{d_j \sqrt{L} < y \le D_j \sqrt{L}}} e(g_j(y)\alpha), \text{ where } e(t) = \exp(2\pi i t).$$

Let R(L) be the number of solutions of equation (16) subject to the given

conditions. For an integer n, and any real number δ , we have

$$\int_{\delta}^{1+\delta} e(n\alpha)d\alpha = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n=0\\ 0 & \text{if } n \neq 0, \end{cases}$$
 (19)

which yields

$$R(L) = \int_{\delta}^{1+\delta} f_1(\alpha) f_2(\alpha) \cdots f_5(\alpha) e(-L\alpha) d\alpha$$
 (20)

for any $\delta \in \mathbb{R}$.

As in [8], we let $Q = L^{\frac{1}{3}}$, and $\delta = \frac{Q}{L}$. For integers a,q satisfying $1 \leq a \leq q \leq Q$ and (a,q) = 1, let $\mathfrak{M}(q,a)$ be the set of real numbers α satisfying $|q\alpha - a| < Q/L$. It is clear that $\mathfrak{M}(q,a) \subset [Q/L, 1 + Q/L]$ and that the $\mathfrak{M}(q,a)$ are pairwise disjoint. We define the major arcs \mathfrak{M} as the union of such $\mathfrak{M}(q,a)$ (with $1 \leq a \leq q \leq Q$ and (a,q) = 1), and the minor arcs \mathfrak{m} as $\mathfrak{m} = [Q/L, 1 + Q/L] \backslash \mathfrak{M}$. Then we have

$$R(L) = R_{\mathfrak{M}}(L) + R_{\mathfrak{m}}(L) \tag{21}$$

with the two parts respectively corresponding to the integral of the integrand in (20) on \mathfrak{M} and \mathfrak{m} .

From Weyl's inequality ([12], Lemma 2.4), we know that, when $\alpha \in \mathfrak{m}$, $f_j(\alpha) \ll (L/Q)^{\frac{1}{2}+\epsilon}$. From this, Hölder's inequality, and Hua's Lemma ([12], Lemma 2.5), we have

$$R_{\mathfrak{m}}(L) \ll (L/Q)^{\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon} \int_{\mathfrak{m}} |f_2 f_3 f_4 f_5| d\alpha \ll (L/Q)^{\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon} \prod_{j=2}^{5} \left(\int_0^1 |f_j(\alpha)|^4 d\alpha \right)^{\frac{1}{4}}$$
$$\ll (L/Q)^{\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon} \cdot L^{1 + \epsilon} \ll L^{\frac{3}{2} - \epsilon}. \tag{22}$$

Next we shall approximate $f_j(\alpha)$ on major arcs with some "nicer" functions. Suppose $\alpha = \frac{a}{q} + \beta$, with $1 \le a \le q \le Q$, (a,q) = 1, and $|\beta| < \frac{Q}{qL}$. For $j = 1, 2, \ldots, 5$, let

$$v_j(\beta) := \int_{d_j\sqrt{L}}^{D_j\sqrt{L}} e(\beta a_j t^2) dt = \frac{1}{2} a_j^{-\frac{1}{2}} \int_{a_j d_j^2 L}^{a_j D_j^2 L} t^{-\frac{1}{2}} e(\beta t) dt,$$

and

$$u_j(\beta) := \frac{1}{2} a_j^{-\frac{1}{2}} \sum_{a_j d_j^2 L < m \le a_j D_j^2 L} m^{-\frac{1}{2}} e(\beta m),$$

where a_j is the leading coefficient of $g_j(y)$. It should be noted that, by abelian summation,

$$u_{j}(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} a_{j}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \int_{a_{j}d_{j}^{2}L}^{a_{j}D_{j}^{2}L} t^{-\frac{1}{2}} e(\beta t) d[t]$$

$$= v_{j}(\beta) + O\left(\int_{a_{j}d_{j}^{2}L}^{a_{j}D_{j}^{2}L} \left| -\frac{1}{2} t^{-\frac{3}{2}} e(\beta t) + 2\pi i \beta t^{-\frac{1}{2}} e(\beta t) \right| dt\right)$$

$$= v_{j}(\beta) + O\left(L^{-\frac{1}{2}} + L^{\frac{1}{2}} |\beta|\right). \tag{23}$$

We also let

$$V_j(\alpha) = V_j(\alpha; q, a) = q^{-1} S_j(q, a) u_j(\beta),$$

where $S_i(q, a)$ is the Gaussian sum given by

$$S_j(q, a) = \sum_{x=1}^{q} e\left(\frac{ag_j(x)}{q}\right)$$

which is well-known to be $O(\sqrt{q})$. From (23) and Lemma 5.4 in [8], we know that for $\alpha = \frac{a}{q} + \beta \in \mathfrak{M}$

$$f_j(\alpha) = V_j(\alpha) + O(L^{\frac{1}{3}}). \tag{24}$$

And, from Lemma 2.8 in [12], we have, for $\alpha = \frac{a}{q} + \beta$ with $|\beta| < \frac{1}{2}$,

$$V_j(\alpha) \ll (L/q)^{\frac{1}{2}} (1 + L|\beta|)^{-\frac{1}{2}}.$$
 (25)

This gives

$$R_{\mathfrak{M}}(L) = \sum_{q \leq Q} \sum_{\substack{1 \leq a \leq q \\ (a,g)=1}} \int_{\mathfrak{M}(q,a)} V_1(\alpha) f_2(\alpha) \cdots f_5(\alpha) e(-\alpha L) d\alpha + E,$$

say, where

$$E = \sum_{q,a} \int_{\mathfrak{M}(q,a)} (f_1 - V_1)(f_2 f_3 f_4 f_5) e(-\alpha L) d\alpha$$

$$\ll L^{\frac{1}{3}} \int_0^1 |f_2 f_3 f_4 f_5| d\alpha \ll L^{\frac{1}{3}} L^{1+\epsilon} \ll L^{\frac{3}{2}-\epsilon}$$

by Hölder's inequality and Hua's Lemma. Continuing the same process, (noticing that $V_j(\alpha) \ll |f_j(\alpha)| + L^{\frac{1}{3}}$), we get

$$R_{\mathfrak{M}}(L) = \sum_{\substack{q \leq Q \\ (a,q)=1}} \int_{\mathfrak{M}(q,a)} V_1(\alpha) V_2(\alpha) \cdots V_5(\alpha) e(-\alpha L) d\alpha + O(L^{3/2-\epsilon}). \tag{26}$$

From (25), we have

$$\int_{\mathfrak{M}(q,a)} V_{1}(\alpha) \cdots V_{5}(\alpha) e(-\alpha L) d\alpha - \int_{\frac{a}{q} - \frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{a}{q} + \frac{1}{2}} V_{1}(\alpha) \cdots V_{5}(\alpha) e(-\alpha L) d\alpha
\ll \left(\int_{\frac{Q}{qL}}^{\frac{1}{2}} + \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{Q}{qL}} \right) |V_{1}(a/q + \beta) \cdots V_{5}(a/q + \beta)| d\beta
\ll \left(\frac{L}{q} \right)^{\frac{5}{2}} \int_{\frac{Q}{qL}}^{\frac{1}{2}} (1 + L|\beta|)^{-\frac{5}{2}} d\beta \ll \frac{L^{\frac{3}{2}}}{q^{\frac{5}{2}}} \cdot \left(\frac{Q}{q} \right)^{-\frac{3}{2}} \ll \frac{(L/Q)^{\frac{3}{2}}}{q}.$$

Taking this into (26), we get

$$R_{\mathfrak{M}}(L) = \sum_{q \leq Q} \sum_{\substack{1 \leq a \leq q \\ (a,q)=1}} \int_{\frac{a}{q} - \frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{a}{q} + \frac{1}{2}} V_1(\alpha) V_2(\alpha) \cdots V_5(\alpha) e(-\alpha L) d\alpha + O(L^{3/2 - \epsilon})$$

$$= \mathfrak{S}(L; Q) J(L) + O(L^{\frac{3}{2} - \epsilon}), \tag{27}$$

where

$$\mathfrak{S}(L;Q) = \sum_{q \le Q} q^{-5} \sum_{\substack{1 \le a \le q \\ (a,b) = 1}} \left(\prod_{j=1}^{5} S_j(q,a) \right) e\left(-\frac{aL}{q}\right)$$

is the partial singular series and

$$J(L) = \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} u_1(\beta) \cdots u_5(\beta) e(-\beta L) d\beta$$

is the singular integral. From (19), we see that

$$J(L) = \frac{1}{32} (a_1 \cdots a_5)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \sum_{\substack{a_j d_j^2 L < m_j \le a_j D_j^2 L \\ m_1 + \dots + m_5 = L}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{m_1 \cdots m_5}} \ge c_1 L^{\frac{3}{2}}$$
 (28)

for a positive constant c_1 (depending on a_j 's, d_j 's and D_j 's only).

As to the singular series, from the fact that $S_j(q, a) \ll \sqrt{q}$, we have

$$\mathfrak{S}(L;Q) = \mathfrak{S}(L) + O(Q^{-\frac{1}{2}}),$$

where

$$\mathfrak{S}(L) := \sum_{q=1}^{\infty} q^{-5} \sum_{\substack{1 \le a \le q \\ (a,a)=1}} \left(\prod_{j=1}^{5} S_j(q,a) \right) e\left(-\frac{aL}{q}\right).$$

From the definition of γ in [8] on page 168, the assumption in the proposition, and Lemma 7.9 in [8], we have

$$\mathfrak{S}(L) > D > 0$$

⁶ It is clear that J(L) actually has an asymptotic formula.

for some constant D. This, along with (21), (22), (27) and (28), gives the desired result.

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