ON A NONINTEGRALITY CONJECTURE

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Abstract. It is conjectured that the sum

$$S_r(n)=\sum_{k=1}^{n}\frac{k}{k+r}\binom{n}{k}$$

for positive integers r, n is never integral. This has been shown for $r \le 22$. In this note we study the problem in the "n aspect" showing that the set of n such that $S_r(n) \in \mathbb{Z}$ for some $r \ge 1$ has asymptotic density 0. Our principal tools are some deep results on the distribution of primes in short intervals.

1. Introduction

For positive integers r, n let

$$S_r(n)=\sum_{k=1}^{n}\frac{k}{k+r}\binom{n}{k}.$$

Motivated by some cases with small r, López-Aguayo [4] asked if $S_r(n)$ is ever an integer, showing for $r \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ that $S_r(n)$ is not integral for all n. In [5] it was conjectured that $S_r(n)$ is never integral, and they proved the conjecture for $r \le 6$. In [3] it was proved for $r \le 22$. Also in [3], using a deep theorem of Montgomery and Vaughan [6], it was shown for a fixed r that the set of n such that $S_r(n) \in \mathbb{Z}$ has upper density bounded by $O_k(1/r^k)$ for any $k \ge 1$. In fact, this density is 0, as we shall show. Actually we prove a stronger result. Let

$$\mathcal{S} := \{n : S_r(n) \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ for some } r \ge 1\}.$$

Theorem 1. *The set $\mathcal{S}$ has zero density as a subset of the integers.*

It follows from our argument that if we put $\mathcal{S}(x) = \mathcal{S} \cap [1, x]$ then $\#\mathcal{S}(x) = O_A(x/(\log x)^A)$ for every fixed A. In particular, taking $A = 2$, we see that the reciprocal sum of $\mathcal{S}$ is finite.

2. The proof

We let x be large and $n \in \mathcal{S} \cap [x/2, x)$. Thus, $S_r(n) \in \mathbb{Z}$ for some $r \ge 1$. Let

$$S(r,n) := \sum_{k=0}^{n}\frac{r}{k+r}\binom{n}{k},$$

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so that $S(r,n) + S_r(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} = 2^n \in \mathbb{Z}$, so that $S(r,n) \in \mathbb{Z}$. It is shown in [5] that

$$S(r,n) = \sum_{j=1}^{r} (-1)^{r-j} r \binom{r-1}{j-1} \frac{2^{n+j}-1}{n+j}. \tag{1}$$

Lemma 1. *If there is a prime $p > n$ that divides one of $1+r, 2+r, \ldots, n+r$, then $S_r(n)$ is not integral.*

Proof. Write p as $k_0 + r$, where $1 \le k_0 \le n$. Since $p > n$, we have that p does not divide any other $k+r$ for $1 \le k \le n$. So the term $(k_0/(k_0+r))\binom{n}{k_0}$ in the definition of $S_r(n)$, in reduced form, has a factor p in the denominator, and no other terms $(k/(k+r))\binom{n}{k}$ have this property. We deduce that $S_r(n)$ is nonintegral, completing the proof. $\square$

We distinguish various cases.

Case 1. $r \ge n$.

By Sylvester's theorem, one of the integers $1+r, 2+r, \ldots, n+r$ is divisible by a prime $p > n$. It follows from Lemma 1 that $S_r(n)$ is nonintegral. From now on, we assume that $n > r$.

Case 2. $n > r > (x/2)^{1/10}$.

By a result of Jia (see [2]) for every fixed $\varepsilon > 0$, the interval $[n+1, n+n^{1/20+\varepsilon}]$ contains a prime number p for almost all n, with the number of exceptional values of $n \le x$ being $\ll_{\epsilon,A} x/(\log x)^A$ for every fixed $A > 0$. If $r > (x/2)^{1/10} \ge (n/2)^{1/10}$, then $r > n^{1/11}$ holds for all $x > x_0$. If n is not exceptional in the sense of Jia's theorem, then the interval $[n, n+r]$ contains the interval $[n+1, n+n^{1/11}]$ and hence a prime $p > n > r$, so $S_r(n)$ cannot be an integer by Lemma 1. Hence, n must be exceptional in the sense of Jia's theorem and the set of such n has counting function $O_A(x/(\log x)^A)$ for any fixed $A > 0$.

Case 3. $y \le r \le (x/2)^{1/10}$, where $y := x^{1/\log\log x}$.

This is the most interesting part. We prove the following lemma. For an odd prime p we write $\ell_2(p)$ for the order of 2 modulo p.

Lemma 2. *There exists r_0 such that if $r > r_0$, then the interval $I = [r, r+r^{0.61}]$ contains 6 primes $p_1, \ldots, p_6$ such that each $\ell_2(p_i) > r^{0.3}$ for $1 \le i \le 6$ and each $\gcd(p_i - 1, p_j - 1) < r^{0.001}$ for $1 \le i < j \le 6$.*

Proof. Let $\pi(I)$ be the number of primes in I. From Baker, Harman, and Pintz [1] we have for large r that

$$\pi(I) \gg r^{0.61}/\log r.$$

(Actually, this follows from earlier results, but [1] holds the record currently for primes in short intervals.) Let $\mathcal{Q}$ be the subset of primes $p \in I$ such that $\ell_2(p) \le r^{0.3}$. By a classical argument, $\#\mathcal{Q} \ll r^{0.6}/\log r$. Indeed,

$$r^{\#\mathcal{Q}} \le \prod_{p \in \mathcal{Q}} p \le \prod_{t \le r^{0.3}} (2^t - 1) < 2^{\sum_{t \le r^{0.3}} t} < 2^{r^{0.6}},$$

from which we deduce the desired upper bound on $\#\mathcal{Q}$. Since

$$r^{0.6}/\log r = o(r^{0.61}/\log r) = o(\pi(I)), \qquad \text{as} \qquad r \to \infty,$$

we deduce that most primes p in I have $\ell_2(p) \geq r^{0.3}$. Let $\mathcal{P}$ denote this set of primes in I, so that $\#\mathcal{P} \gg r^{0.61}/\log r$. For any positive integer d the number of pairs of primes p, q in $\mathcal{P}$ with $d \mid p-1$ and $d \mid q-1$ is $\ll r^{2\times 0.61}/d^2$ even ignoring the primality condition. Summing over $d \geq r^{0.001}$ we see that the number of pairs $p, q \in \mathcal{P}$ with $\gcd(p-1, q-1) \geq r^{0.001}$ is $\ll r^{2\times 0.61-0.001}$, so that most pairs of primes $p, q \in \mathcal{P}$ have $\gcd(p-1, q-1) < r^{0.001}$. In fact, the number of 6-tuples of primes $p_1, \ldots, p_6 \in \mathcal{P}$ with some $\gcd(p_i - 1, p_j - 1) \geq r^{0.001}$ is $\ll r^{6\times 0.61-0.001}$, so we may deduce that most 6-tuples of primes in $\mathcal{P}$ satisfy the gcd condition of the lemma. Of course "6" may be replaced with any fixed positive integer, only affecting the choice of r_0. □

Let $\{p_1, \ldots, p_6\}$ be the 6 primes in I which exist for $x > x_0$ (such that $y > r_0$). Either there are 4 of these primes such that the interval $[n+1, n+r]$ contains a multiple of each, or there are 3 of these primes which do not have multiples in $[n+1, n+r]$. Take the case of 4 of the primes having a multiple in $[n+1, n+r]$ and without essential loss of generality, say they are p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4. They determine integers j_1, j_2, j_3, j_4 with $1 \leq j_i \leq r$ and $p_i \mid n + j_i$. However, there is another restriction on n caused by $S(r, n)$ being integral. We have each $\ell_2(p_i) \mid n + j_i$, since otherwise the j_i term in (1) in reduced form contains a factor of p_i in the denominator, a property not shared with any other term. This would imply that $S(r, n)$ is nonintegral, a contradiction. Thus, we have $\ell_2(p_i) \mid n + j_i$ as claimed for $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$. We conclude that n is in a residue class modulo

$$M := \operatorname{lcm}\{p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4, \ell_2(p_1), \ell_2(p_2), \ell_2(p_3), \ell_2(p_4)\}.$$

Now p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4 are distinct primes in $[r+1, r+r^{0.61}]$, and each $\ell_2(p_i)$, since it divides $p_i - 1$, has all prime factors $\leq r$, so is coprime to the other p_j's. Moreover, each $\ell_2(p_i) > r^{0.3}$ and being a divisor of $p_i - 1$, each $\gcd(\ell_2(p_i), \ell_2(p_j)) \leq r^{0.001}$. Thus,

$$M > r^4 r^{1.2} r^{-0.006} = r^{5.194}.$$

Further, $M \ll r^8 < x$. Thus, the number of n in this residue class is $\ll x/M < x/r^{5.194}$. Summing over the different possibilities for j_1, j_2, j_3, j_4, our count is $\ll x/r^{1.194}$. Now summing over $r > y$, we have that the number of n in this case is $\ll x/y^{0.194}$.

We also must consider the possibility that 3 of our 6 primes do not divide any $n + j$ with $1 \leq j \leq r$. Again without essential loss of generality, assume they are p_1, p_2, p_3. Since each is in $[r+1, r+r^{0.61}]$, it follows that each p_i corners n in a set of $O(r^{0.61})$ residue classes mod p_i. With the Chinese Remainder Theorem, such n's are in a set of $O(r^{1.83})$ residues classes modulo $p_1p_2p_3$. Note that the modulus is small, at most $O(r^3) = o(x)$. Thus, the number of such n is at most

$$O\left(\frac{r^{1.83}x}{p_1p_2p_3}\right) = O\left(\frac{x}{r^{1.17}}\right).$$

Varying the 3 primes in $\binom{6}{3} = 20$ ways multiplies the above count by a constant factor. Summing on $r > y$ we deduce that the number of n in $(x/2, x]$ is $\ll x/y^{0.17}$. With our above estimate, this puts the count in Case 3 at $O(x/y^{0.17}) = o(x)$ as $x \to \infty$.

Case 4. *We assume that* $r \in (22, y]$.

Here, we do the "regular" thing, where we distinguish between smooth numbers and numbers with a large prime factor. Let $P(m)$ denote the largest prime factor of m. If $P(n+1) \le y$, this puts n in a set of size $x/(\log x)^{(1+o(1))\log\log\log x}$ as $x \to \infty$, by standard estimates for smooth numbers. So, assume that $p = P(n+1) > y$. Since $r \le y$, it follows that p does not divide any other $n+j$ with $j \le r$, so that (1) and $S(r,n)$ integral imply that $\ell_2(p) \mid n+1$.

The number of primes $2 < q \le t$ with $\ell_2(q) \le q^{0.3}$ is by the argument in the previous case at most $t^{0.6}$. By a partial summation argument, the number of $n \in (x/2, x]$ with $n+1$ divisible by such a prime $q > y$ is $O(x/y^{0.4})$. So, assume that $\ell_2(p) > p^{0.3}$. The number of integers $n \in (x/2, x]$ with $n+1$ divisible by $p\ell_2(p)$ is $\le x/(p\ell_2(p)) \le x/p^{1.3}$. Summing on $p > y$ our count is $\ll x/y^{0.3}$.

Putting together everything, we get that $\#\mathcal{S}(x)$ is $O_A(x/(\log x)^A)$ for every fixed $A > 0$. This completes the proof of the theorem.

Remarks. Note that assuming Cramér's conjecture that for some constant c and for large x there is a prime in $[x, x+c(\log x)^2]$, the estimate in Case 2 is eliminated. By then optimizing the choice of y, our final count for $\mathcal{S}(x)$ would be of the shape $O(x/\exp(c\sqrt{\log x \log\log x}))$ for some $c > 0$. The hardest cases to try and do better seem to be $r = O(1)$.

Let $s_r(m)$ be the largest r-smooth divisor of m and let $M_r(n) = \min\{s_r(n+j) : 1 \le j \le r\}$. It follows from [3, Proposition 3.1] that if $M_r(n) \le \log_2 r$, then $S_r(n)$ is nonintegral. Unfortunately, as discussed in [3, Remark 2], it is not always the case that $M_r(n) \le \log_2 r$. Nevertheless, it seems interesting to get estimates for $M(r) := \max\{M_r(n) : n > 0\}$.

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