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ABSTRACT



On stronger conjectures that imply the Erdős–Moser conjecture

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1. Introduction

Let k and m be positive integers throughout this paper. Define

$$S_k(m) = 1^k + 2^k + \dots + (m-1)^k$$
.

Conjecture 1 (Erdős-Moser). The Diophantine equation

$$S_k(m) = m^k \tag{1}$$

The Erdős-Moser conjecture states that the Diophantine equation

 $S_k(m) = m^k$, where $S_k(m) = 1^k + 2^k + \dots + (m-1)^k$, has no solution

for positive integers k and m with $k \ge 2$. We show that stronger

conjectures about consecutive values of the function S_k , that seem

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to be more naturally, imply the Erdős-Moser conjecture.

has only the trivial solution (k, m) = (1, 3) for positive integers k, m.

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In 1953 Moser [7] showed that if a solution of (1) exists for $k \ge 2$, then k must be even and $m > 10^{10^6}$. Recently, this bound has been greatly increased to $m > 10^{10^9}$ by Gallot, Moree, and Zudilin [2]. So it is widely believed that non-trivial solutions do not exist. Comparing S_k with the integral $\int x^k dx$, see [2], one gets an easy estimate that

$$k < m < 2k. \tag{2}$$

A general result of the author [5, Prop. 8.5, p. 436] states that

$$m^{r+1} | S_k(m) \iff m^r | B_k$$
 (3)

for r = 1, 2 and even k, where B_k denotes the k-th Bernoulli number. Thus a non-trivial solution (k, m) of (1) has the property that m^2 must divide the numerator of B_k for $k \ge 4$; this result concerning (1) was also shown in [6] in a different form.

Because the Erdős–Moser equation is very special, one can consider properties of consecutive values of the function S_k in general. This leads to two stronger conjectures, described in the next sections, that imply the conjecture of Erdős–Moser.

2. Preliminaries

We use the following notation. We write $p^r || m$ when $p^r |m$ but $p^{r+1} \nmid m$, i.e., $r = \operatorname{ord}_p m$ where p always denotes a prime. Next we recall some properties of the Bernoulli numbers and the function S_k . The Bernoulli numbers B_n are defined by

$$\frac{z}{e^z-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_n \frac{z^n}{n!}, \quad |z| < 2\pi$$

These numbers are rational where $B_n = 0$ for odd n > 1 and $(-1)^{\frac{n}{2}+1}B_n > 0$ for even n > 0. A table of the Bernoulli numbers up to index 20 is given in [5, p. 437]. The denominator of B_n for even n is described by the von Staudt–Clausen theorem, see [4, p. 233], that

$$\operatorname{denom}(B_n) = \prod_{p-1|n} p.$$
(4)

The function S_k is closely related to the Bernoulli numbers and is given by the well-known formula, cf. [4, p. 234]:

$$S_k(m) = \sum_{\nu=0}^k \binom{k}{\nu} B_{k-\nu} \frac{m^{\nu+1}}{\nu+1}.$$
 (5)

3. Stronger conjecture - Part I

The strictly increasing function S_k is a polynomial of degree k + 1 as a result of (5). One may not expect that consecutive values of S_k have highly common prime factors, such that $S_k(m + 1)/S_k(m)$ is an integer for sufficiently large m.

Conjecture 2. *Let* k, m *be positive integers with* $m \ge 3$. *Then*

$$\frac{S_k(m+1)}{S_k(m)} \in \mathbb{N} \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad (k,m) \in \{(1,3), (3,3)\}.$$
(6)

Note that we have to require $m \ge 3$, since $S_k(1) = 0$ and $S_k(2) = 1$ for all $k \ge 1$. Due to the well-known identity $S_1(m)^2 = S_3(m)$, a solution for k = 1 implies a solution for k = 3. Hereby we have the only known solutions

$$\frac{1+2+3}{1+2} = 2 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1^3+2^3+3^3}{1^3+2^3} = 4 \tag{7}$$

based on some computer search. Since $S_k(m+1)/S_k(m) \to 1$ as $m \to \infty$, it is clear that we can only have a finite number of solutions for a fixed k. By $S_k(m+1) = S_k(m) + m^k$, one easily observes that (6) is equivalent to

$$aS_k(m) = m^k \iff (a, k, m) \in \{(1, 1, 3), (3, 3, 3)\},\$$

where a is a positive integer. This gives a generalization of (1).

Proposition 1. Conjecture 2 implies Conjecture 1.

Proof. Eq. (1) can be rewritten as $2S_k(m) = S_k(m+1)$ after adding $S_k(m)$ on both sides. Conjecture 2 states that $S_k(m+1)/S_k(m)$ is not a positive integer except for the cases (k, m) = (1, 3) and (k, m) = (3, 3) as given in (7). This implies Conjecture 1, which predicts $S_k(m+1)/S_k(m) \neq 2$ for $k \ge 2$. \Box

4. Stronger conjecture – Part II

The connection between the function S_k and the Bernoulli numbers leads to the following theorem, which we will prove later. In the following we always write $B_k = N_k/D_k$ in lowest terms with $D_k > 0$ for even k. For now we write (a, b) for gcd(a, b).

Theorem 1. Let k, m be positive integers with even k. Define

$$g_k(m) = \frac{(S_k(m), S_k(m+1))}{m}$$

Then

$$\min_{m \ge 1} g_k(m) = \frac{1}{D_k} \quad and \quad \max_{m \ge 1} g_k(m) \ge |N_k|.$$

Generally

$$g_k(m) = 1 \iff (D_k N_k, m) = 1$$

and special values are given by

$$g_k(D_k) = \frac{1}{D_k}, \quad g_k(|N_k|) = |N_k|, \quad and \quad g_k(D_k|N_k|) = |B_k|.$$

More generally,

$$g_k(m) = |N_k|, \text{ if } (D_k, m) = 1 \text{ and } |N_k| \mid m$$

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In particular if N_k is square-free, then

$$g_k(m) = \frac{(N_k, m)}{(D_k, m)}$$
 and $\max_{m \ge 1} g_k(m) = |N_k|.$

Remark 1. It is well known that $|N_k| = 1$ exactly for $k \in \{2, 4, 6, 8\}$. Known indices k, where $|N_k|$ is prime, are recorded as sequence A092132 in [8]: 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 36, 42. Sequence A090997 in [8] gives the indices k, where N_k is not square-free: 50, 98, 150, 196, 228, By this, all N_k are square-free for $2 \le k \le 48$.

Since $S_k(m + 1) = S_k(m) + m^k$, we have

$$\left(S_k(m), S_k(m+1)\right) = \left(S_k(m), m^k\right),\tag{8}$$

giving a connection with (1). The function g_k heavily depends on the Bernoulli number B_k . For $2 \le k \le 48$ and some higher indices k we even have

$$\min_{m \ge 1} g_k(m) \cdot \max_{m \ge 1} g_k(m) = |B_k|$$

The problem is to find an accurate upper bound of g_k to solve (1). This relation is demonstrated by Theorem 2 below and we raise the following conjecture based on Theorem 1 and some computations.

Conjecture 3. The function g_k has an upper bound as given in Theorem 2.

Theorem 2. Let *k*, *m*, *r* be positive integers with even $k \ge 10$. If

$$\max_{m \ge 1} g_k(m) < |N_k| \log^r |N_k| \quad \text{for } k \ge C_r$$

and (1) has no solution for $k < C_r$, where C_r is an effectively computable constant, then Conjecture 1 is true. In particular, one can choose $C_r = 10$ for r = 1, ..., 6.

Proof. Considering Theorem 1 and (8), a possible solution of (1) must trivially satisfy

$$m^{k} = (S_{k}(m), m^{k}) = mg_{k}(m).$$
 (9)

For k = 2, 4, 6, 8 there is no solution of (1), since $|N_k| = 1$. Now let $k \ge 10$. Using the relation of B_k to the Riemann zeta function by Euler's formula, cf. [4, p. 231], we have

$$|B_k| = 2\zeta(k) \frac{k!}{(2\pi)^k}$$

Since $\zeta(s) \to 1$ monotonically as $s \to \infty$ and $\zeta(2) = \pi^2/6$, we obtain

$$|N_k| < \frac{\pi^2}{3} \frac{k!}{(2\pi)^k} D_k < \frac{2\pi^2}{3} \frac{k!}{\pi^k},$$

using the fact that $D_k | 2(2^k - 1)$, see [1]. Stirling's series of the Gamma function, cf. [3, p. 481], states that $k! < \sqrt{2\pi k} k^k e^{-k+1/12k}$. Since $e^{1/12k} < \frac{11}{10}$, we deduce that

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$$|N_k| < \eta k^{\frac{3}{2}} \left(\frac{k}{e\pi}\right)^{k-1}$$
 with $\eta = \frac{11}{15} \frac{\pi}{e} \sqrt{2\pi} \approx 2.12.$

Further we conclude that $\log |N_k| < k \log(k/\pi)$. Finally, we achieve that

$$|N_k|\log^r |N_k| < f_r(k) \left(\frac{k}{e\pi}\right)^{k-1} \tag{10}$$

with

$$f_r(k) = \eta k^{\frac{3}{2}+r} \log^r(k/\pi).$$

For a fixed *r* we have $\sqrt[k-1]{f_r(k)} \to 1$ as $k \to \infty$. Define

$$I(r) = \min\{n \ge 10: \sqrt[k-1]{f_r(k)} < e\pi \text{ for all } k \ge n\},\$$

which is an increasing function depending on r. A short computation shows that I(r) = 10 for r = 1, ..., 6. We set $C_r = I(r)$. Consequently (10) turns into

$$\sqrt[k-1]{|N_k| \log^r |N_k|} < k \quad \text{for } k \ge C_r.$$
(11)

Now, we assume that (1) has no solution for $k < C_r$ and that

$$\max_{m \ge 1} g_k(m) < |N_k| \log^r |N_k| \quad \text{for } k \ge C_r.$$
(12)

According to (9), (11), and (12), we then achieve that m < k for $k \ge C_r$, which contradicts (2). Thus there is no solution of (1) for all $k \ge 2$ implying Conjecture 1. \Box

To prove Theorem 1, we shall need some preparations and a refinement of (3).

Theorem 3. Let *k*, *m* be positive integers where *k* is even and $m \ge 2$. Then

$$S_k(m) \equiv B_k m \pmod{m}, \quad \text{if } k \ge 2,$$

$$S_k(m) \equiv B_k m \pmod{m^2}, \quad \text{if } k \ge 4 \text{ and } (D_k, m) = 1,$$

$$S_k(m) \equiv B_k m \pmod{m^3}, \quad \text{if } k \ge 6 \text{ and } m \mid N_k.$$

More precisely for $p^r || m$:

$$S_k(m) \equiv B_k m \pmod{p^{2r}}, \quad \text{if } k \ge 4 \text{ and } p \nmid D_k,$$
$$S_k(m) \equiv B_k m \pmod{p^{3r}}, \quad \text{if } k \ge 6 \text{ and } p \mid N_k.$$

Proof. This follows by exploiting the proof of [5, Prop. 8.5, pp. 436–437]. □

Lemma 1. Let a, b be positive integers. The sequence $\{(a, b^{\nu})\}_{\nu \ge 1}$ is increasing and eventually constant. If $(a, b^r) = (a, b^{r+1})$ for some $r \ge 1$, then $\{(a, b^{\nu})\}_{\nu \ge r}$ is constant. Especially if $\operatorname{ord}_p a \le \operatorname{sord}_p b$, then $\operatorname{ord}_p(a, b^{\nu}) = \operatorname{ord}_p a$ for $\nu \ge s$.

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Proof. If (a, b) = 1, then $(a, b^{\nu}) = 1$ for $\nu \ge 1$. Assume that (a, b) > 1. For each $p \mid (a, b)$, we have $\operatorname{ord}_p(a, b^{\nu}) = \min\{\operatorname{ord}_p a, \nu \operatorname{ord}_p b\}$, which is increasing and bounded as $\nu \to \infty$. It follows that if $\operatorname{ord}_p a \le \operatorname{sord}_p b$, then $\operatorname{ord}_p(a, b^{\nu}) = \operatorname{ord}_p a$ for $\nu \ge s$. Considering all primes $p \mid (a, b)$, we deduce that $(a, b^r) = (a, b^{r+1})$ for some $r \ge 1$ implies that (a, b^{ν}) is constant for $\nu \ge r$. \Box

Proposition 2. Let *k*, *m* be positive integers with even *k*. Then

$$(S_k(m), m) = \frac{m}{(D_k, m)}$$
 and $\min_{m \ge 1} g_k(m) = \frac{1}{D_k}$

Proof. Let m > 1, since the case m = 1 is trivial. By Theorem 3 we have

$$S_k(m) \equiv \frac{N_k}{D_k}m \pmod{m}.$$

For each prime power $p^{e_p} || m$, we then infer that $p^{e_p} | S_k(m)$, if $p \nmid D_k$; otherwise $p^{e_p-1} || S_k(m)$, since D_k is square-free due to (4). This gives the first equation above. Using Lemma 1 and (8), we deduce the relation

$$g_k(m) = \frac{(S_k(m), m^k)}{m} \ge \frac{(S_k(m), m)}{m} = \frac{1}{(D_k, m)}$$

If $m = D_k$, then we even have that $(S_k(m), m^{\nu}) = 1$ for $\nu \ge 1$, giving the minimum with $g_k(m) = 1/D_k$. \Box

Proposition 3. Let k, m be positive integers with even k. Then

$$\frac{(S_k(m), m^2)}{m} = \frac{(N_k, m)}{(D_k, m)}.$$

Proof. The case k = 2 follows by (5), $B_2 = \frac{1}{6}$, and ((m-1)(2m-1), m) = 1. Now let $k \ge 4$, $m \ge 2$, and assume that $(D_k, m) = 1$. Applying Theorem 3 for this case we then have

$$S_k(m) \equiv \frac{N_k}{D_k} m \pmod{m^2}.$$
(13)

Thus we deduce that $(S_k(m), m^2) = m(N_k, m)$. Now let *m* be arbitrary. Using Proposition 2 we obtain the relation

$$\left(S_k(m), m^2\right) = c_{k,m}\left(S_k(m), m\right) = c_{k,m}\frac{m}{(D_k, m)}$$

with some integer $c_{k,m} \ge 1$. Since $(N_k, D_k) = 1$, those factors of (N_k, m) can only give a contribution to the factor $c_{k,m}$; while other factors of m are reduced by (D_k, m) . To be more precise, consider a prime p where $p^r || m$: If $p | D_k$, then $\operatorname{ord}_p(S_k(m), m^v) = r - 1$ for $v \ge 1$ by Proposition 2 and Lemma 1. Otherwise $p \nmid D_k$ and (13) remains valid (mod p^{2r}) by Theorem 3. Hence $c_{k,m} = (N_k, m)$, which yields the result. \Box

Proposition 4. Let k, m be positive integers with even k. Then

$$\frac{(S_k(m), m^3)}{m} = \frac{(N_k, m^2)}{(D_k, m)}.$$

Proof. The cases k = 2, 4, 6, 8 are compatible with Proposition 3, since $|N_k| = 1$. Now let $k \ge 10$, $m \ge 2$, and assume that $m | N_k$. Using Theorem 3 we have for this case that

$$S_k(m) \equiv \frac{N_k}{D_k} m \pmod{m^3}.$$
 (14)

This shows that $(S_k(m), m^3) = m(N_k, m^2)$. Now let *m* be arbitrary. With Proposition 3 we obtain the relation

$$(S_k(m), m^3) = d_{k,m}(S_k(m), m^2) = d_{k,m}m\frac{(N_k, m)}{(D_k, m)}$$

with some integer $d_{k,m} \ge 1$. Consider a prime *p* where $p^r || m$: If $p \nmid N_k$, then

$$\operatorname{ord}_p(S_k(m), m^{\nu}) \leq r, \quad \nu \geq 1,$$

using Propositions 2 and 3 and Lemma 1. Thus p gives no contribution to $d_{k,m}$. If $p | N_k$, then (13) and (14) remain valid (mod p^{2r}) and (mod p^{3r}) by Theorem 3, respectively. So a power of p gives a contribution to $d_{k,m}$. Counting the prime powers, which fulfill both (13) and (14), we then finally deduce that $d_{k,m} = (N_k, m^2)/(N_k, m)$. \Box

Corollary 1. *Let k*, *m be positive integers with even k. Then*

$$\left(S_k(m), m^k\right) = e_{k,m}\left(S_k(m), m^3\right),$$

where $e_{k,m}$ is a positive integer with the property that $p \mid e_{k,m}$ implies that $p \mid N_k$.

Proof. As in the proof of Proposition 4, we can use the same arguments. A prime *p* with $p \nmid N_k$ cannot give a contribution to $e_{k,m}$ anymore. \Box

Proof of Theorem 1. The minimum of g_k is shown by Proposition 2. As a consequence of Proposition 4 and Corollary 1, it follows for arbitrary m that $g_k(m) = 1$ if and only if $(D_k N_k, m) = 1$. Combining Propositions 2–4 we have achieved that

$$(S_k(m), m^{\nu}) = m \frac{(N_k, m^{\nu-1})}{(D_k, m)}, \quad \nu = 1, 2, 3.$$
 (15)

The values of $g_k(m)$ for $m = D_k$, $|N_k|$, $D_k|N_k|$ follow easily by (15) using Lemma 1, since $(S_k(m), m^{\nu})$ is constant for $\nu \ge 2$ in these cases. If $(D_k, m) = 1$ and $|N_k| \mid m$, then $g_k(m) = |N_k|$ by the same arguments, which implies that

$$\max_{m \ge 1} g_k(m) \ge |N_k|. \tag{16}$$

It remains the case where N_k is square-free. By (15) and Lemma 1 we conclude that $(S_k(m), m^{\nu})$ is constant for $\nu \ge 2$ for arbitrary m. Thus $g_k(m) = (N_k, m)/(D_k, m)$ in this case. Consequently (16) holds with equality. \Box

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