## Časopis pro pěstování matematiky

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Časopis pro pěstování matematiky, Vol. 101 (1976), No. 4, 360--365
Persistent URL: http://dml.cz/dmlcz/117932

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# ON THE DIOPHANTINE EQUATION $\frac{k}{n}=\frac{a_{1}}{x_{1}}+\frac{a_{2}}{x_{2}}+\frac{a_{3}}{x_{3}}$ 

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(Received July 15, 1975)

Introduction. Given positive integers $k$ and $n$, and nonzero integers $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{r}$; consider the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{k}{n}=\frac{a_{1}}{x_{1}}+\frac{a_{2}}{x_{2}}+\ldots+\frac{a_{r}}{x_{r}} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the $x_{i}$ are positive integers such that $\left(a_{i}, x_{i}\right)=1$. Let ( $1^{\prime}$ ) denote the same equation where the $x_{i}$ can be any nonzero integer. In the special case $a_{1}=a_{2}=\ldots$ $\ldots=a_{r}=1$, the so-called Egyptian or unit fractions, these equations have been extensively studied.

Let $\lambda=\lambda\left(k ; a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{r}\right)$ be the largest integer $n$ for which the equation (1) has no solution. If (1) is unsolvable for infinitely many values of $n$, set $\lambda=\infty$. If (1) is solvable for all positive $n$, set $\lambda=0$. Also, define $\lambda^{\prime}$ similarly with respect to equation $\left(1^{\prime}\right)$. Very little is known about precise values of $\lambda$ and $\lambda^{\prime}$, even in special cases.

In this paper we will consider solutions of equation (1) with particular attention to the cases $r=2$ and 3 . The principal result obtained is a lower bound for $\lambda$ and $\lambda^{\prime}$ when $r=3$, and $k$ is large.

Preliminary Results and the Case $r=2$. If $p$ is a prime, and $p \mid\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{r}\right)$, then (1) is not solvable for $n=p^{s}$ and all $s$ sufficiently large, since $\left(x_{i}, p\right)=1$. Hence, if $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{r}\right) \neq 1, \lambda=\infty$ and so we assume henceforth that $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{r}\right)=1$.

The case $r=1$ is trivial and will not be mentioned again.
The following result gives necessary and sufficient conditions for (1) to be solvable in the case $r=2$.

Theorem 1. The equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{k}{n}=\frac{a_{1}}{x_{1}}+\frac{a_{2}}{x_{2}} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

is solvable in positive integers $x_{1}, x_{2}$ such that $\left(a_{1}, x_{1}\right)=1=\left(a_{2}, x_{2}\right)$, if and
only if there exist positive divisors $d_{1}$ and $d_{2}$ of $n$ such that $a_{1} d_{1}+a_{2} d_{2}=k t$ for some positive integer $t$ such that $\left(a_{1} a_{2}, t\right)=1$, and $\left(n / d_{1}, a_{1}\right)=\left(n / d_{2}, a_{2}\right)=1$.

Proof. If the conditions of the theorem are satisfied, then let $x_{i}=\operatorname{tn} / d_{i}$. We then have

$$
\frac{a_{1}}{x_{1}}+\frac{a_{2}}{x_{2}}=\frac{a_{1} d_{1}}{t n}+\frac{a_{2} d_{2}}{t n}=\frac{k t}{t n}=\frac{k}{n}
$$

and $\left(a_{i}, x_{i}\right)=\left(a_{i}, \operatorname{tn} / d_{i}\right)=1$ by the hypotheses.
Now suppose that (2) is satisfied by $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ such that $\left(a_{1}, x_{1}\right)=\left(a_{2}, x_{2}\right)=1$. Also, assume $(k, n)=1$. Let $d=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right), x_{i}=d X_{i}$ and $t=\left(d, a_{1} X_{2}+a_{2} X_{1}\right)$.

Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{k}{n}=\frac{a_{1} x_{2}+a_{2} x_{1}}{x_{1} x_{2}}=\frac{a_{1} X_{2}+a_{2} X_{1}}{d X_{1} X_{2}}=\frac{\left(a_{1} X_{2}+a_{2} X_{1}\right) / t}{(d / t) X_{1} X_{2}} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right)=1$ and $\left(a_{i}, X_{i}\right)=1,\left(a_{1} X_{2}+a_{2} X_{1}, X_{1} X_{2}\right)=1$. This, together with $\left(\left(a_{1} X_{2}+a_{2} X_{1}\right) / t, d / t\right)=1$, implies that the right hand fraction in (3) is reduced, and so $k=\left(a_{1} X_{2}+a_{2} X_{1}\right) / t$ and $n=(d / t) X_{1} X_{2}$.

Therefore, letting $d_{1}=X_{2}$ and $d_{2}=X_{1}$, we have immediately that $d_{i} \mid n$ and $a_{1} d_{1}+a_{2} d_{2}=k t$. Also, $\left(n / d_{1}, a_{1}\right)=\left(d X_{1} / t, a_{1}\right)=\left(x_{1} / t, a_{1}\right)=1$. Similarly $\left(n / d_{2}, a_{2}\right)=1$. Finally, $\left(a_{i}, x_{i}\right)=1$ which implies $\left(a_{i}, d\right)=1$ and hence $\left(a_{i}, t\right)=1$, which gives us $\left(a_{1} a_{2}, t\right)=1$.

If $(k, n)=b>1$, apply the above argument to $K=k / b$ and $N=n / b$ and then use divisors $D_{i}=b d_{i}$.

We are now ready to consider $\lambda\left(k ; a_{1}, a_{2}\right)$ in more detail. We have already noted that we must have $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=1$. It is also obvious that $\left(k, a_{1} a_{2}\right) \neq 1$ implies $\lambda=\infty$, and so we will also assume $\left(k, a_{1} a_{2}\right)=1$ for the rest of this section. Finally, $\lambda=\infty$ if both $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$ are negative, so without loss of generality $a_{1}>0$.

Theorem 2. Let $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=\left(k, a_{1} a_{2}\right)=1$ and $a_{1}>0$. Then $\lambda\left(k ; a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=\infty$ unless
(i) $k=1$ or 2 and $a_{2} \geqq-1$
or
(ii) $k>2, a_{2}=-1$ and $a_{1} \neq 1$ has the property that all primes dividing $a_{1}$ are $\equiv 1(\bmod k)$.

In these cases $\lambda=0$, except that $\lambda(1 ; 1,-1)=1$ and $\lambda(2 ; 1,-1)=2$.
Proof. Write $n=A_{1} A_{2} m$ where $A_{i}$ is the largest divisor of $n$ containing only primes which divide $a_{i}$. The property mentioned in (ii) above will be called property $P$.

If $a_{2}<-1$, then there is a prime $p$ which divides $a_{2}$. Then by Theorem 1 , equation (2) is not solvable if $n=p^{s}$ for $s$ sufficiently large. The conditions $\left(n / d_{2}, a_{2}\right)=1$ and $\left(\left(a_{1} d_{1}+a_{2} d_{2}\right) / k, a_{1} a_{2}\right)=1$ imply $d_{2}=p^{s}$ and $d_{1}=1$, respectively. Thus $t=\left(a_{1}+a_{2} p^{s}\right) / k<0$ for $s$ sufficiently large. Therefore $\lambda=\infty$ if $a_{2}<-1$.

If $k>2$ and either $a_{1}$ or $a_{2}$ does not have property $P$, let $p$ 丰 $1(\bmod k)$ be a divisor of $a_{1}$. (We may suppose $a_{1}$ is divisible by $p$ and not $a_{2}$ since $a_{2}=-1$ is only remaining case where $a_{2}<0$.) There are now infinitely many values of $s$ for which (2) is not solvable with $n=p^{s}$. Applying Theorem 1, just as above we find $d_{1}=p^{s}$ and $d_{2}=1$, and $k$ does not divide $a_{1} p^{s}+a_{2}$ for infinitely many values of $s$. Thus $\lambda=\infty$ in this case also.

If $k>2, a_{2}>0$ and both $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$ have property $P$, then again $\lambda=\infty$ since (2) is not solvable for all primes $q \equiv 1(\bmod k)$. In applying Theorem 1 we find $a_{1} d_{1}+$ $+a_{2} d_{2} \equiv 1+1 \neq 0(\bmod k)$.
If $k>2, a_{1}=1$ and $a_{2}=-1$ we apply Theorem 1 to $n=p$, a prime $\neq 1(\bmod k)$. Clearly none of the cases for $a_{1} d_{1}+a_{2} d_{2}=d_{1}-d_{2}$ yield a positive integer divisible by $k$. Hence $\lambda=\infty$.

The only remaining case for $k>2$ is $a_{2}=-1$ and $a_{1} \neq 1$ having property $P$. Write $n=A_{1} m$ and apply Theorem 1 with $d_{1}=A_{1}$ and $d_{2}=1$. Then $a_{1} d_{1}+$ $+a_{2} d_{2}=a_{1} A_{1}-1 \equiv 1-1 \equiv 0(\bmod k)$ and $a_{1} A_{1}-1>0$. The other conditions of the theorem are satisfied since $\left(a_{1}, a_{1} A_{1}-1\right)=1,\left(m, a_{1}\right)=1$ and $(n,-1)=1$. Therefore equation (2) is solvable for all $n$, and so $\lambda=0$. The case $k=1$ or 2 , $a_{2}=-1$ and $a_{1}$ any positive integer $>1$ uses exactly the same argument. The special cases $\lambda(1 ; 1,-1)=1$ and $\lambda(2 ; 1,-1)=2$ are easily checked.

The final case is $k=1$ or $2, a_{2}>0$. Write $n=A_{1} A_{2} m$ and apply Theorem 1 with $d_{i}=A_{i}$. Then $a_{1} d_{1}+a_{2} d_{2} \equiv 0(\bmod k)$ and is clearly positive. The other conditions of the theorem are satisfied since $\left(a_{1} A_{1}+a_{2} A_{2}, a_{1} a_{2}\right)=1,\left(A_{2} m, a_{1}\right)=1$ and $\left(A_{1} m, a_{2}\right)=1$.

The following results apply to the case where the $x_{i}$ may be positive or negative, and can be proved similarly.

Theorem 1'. The equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{k}{n}=\frac{a_{1}}{x_{1}}+\frac{a_{2}}{x_{2}} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

is solvable in integers $x_{1}, x_{2}$ such that $\left(a_{1}, x_{1}\right)=1=\left(a_{2}, x_{2}\right)$, if and only if there exist divisors (positive or negative) $d_{1}$ and $d_{2}$ of $n$ such that $a_{1} d_{1}+a_{2} d_{2}=k t$ for some positive integer $t$ such that $\left(a_{1} a_{2}, t\right)=1$ and $\left(n / d_{1}, a_{1}\right)=\left(n / d_{2}, a_{2}\right)=1$.

Theorem 2'. Let $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=\left(k, a_{1} a_{2}\right)=1$, then $\lambda\left(k ; a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=\infty$ unless
(i) $\left|a_{1} a_{2}\right|=1$ and $k=1,2,3,4$ or 6
or
(ii) both $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$ are $\neq \pm 1$ and have the property that all primes dividing $a_{1}$ or $a_{2} \equiv \pm 1(\bmod k)$.

In these cases $\lambda=0$ except that if $\left|a_{1} a_{2}\right|=1, \lambda\left(3 ; a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=\lambda\left(4 ; a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=1$ and $\lambda\left(6 ; a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=2$.

Case (i) in the above theorem was previously mentioned in [6].

The Case $r=3$. The solution of equation (1) with $r=3$ and all of the $a_{i}=1$ has received considerable attention. The finiteness of $\lambda(4 ; 1,1,1), \lambda(5 ; 1,1,1)$, $\lambda(k ; 1,1,1)$ and $\lambda^{\prime}(k ; 1,1,1)$ has been conjectured by Erdös and Strauss, Sierpinski and Schinzel. Although many people have considered the problem, it is not known if $\lambda(k ; 1,1,1)$ is finite for any $k>3$. A fairly complete list of references can be found in [1].

Efforts on the problem for $\lambda^{\prime}$ have been a little more successful as Sierpinsi [5], Sedláček [4], Palamà [3], and Stewart and Webb [6] have established that $\lambda^{\prime}$ is finite for $k<36$.

Although the conjectured values of $\lambda$ for small $k$ are $\operatorname{small}(\lambda(4 ; 1,1,1)=$ $=\lambda(5 ; 1,1,1)=\lambda(6 ; 1,1,1)=1, \lambda(7 ; 1,1,1)=2)$, some numerical evidence obtained by Webb [7] indicates that $\lambda$ increases rapidly with $k$. For example $\lambda(12$; $1,1,1) \geqq 12241$. In a private communication, Erdös noted that $\lambda(k ; 1,1,1)>c k^{1+\varepsilon}$ for $c>0$ and any $\varepsilon<\frac{1}{2}$, and conjectured that $\lambda(k ; 1,1,1)>k^{s}$ for every positive integer $s$ and all $k$ sufficiently large.

In this section we prove this conjecture by establishing a slightly stronger inequality which holds for any $\lambda\left(k ; a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}\right)$ and $\lambda^{\prime}\left(k ; a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}\right)$.

Theorem 3. There is a constant $c>0$ such that

$$
\lambda\left(k ; a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}\right)>\exp (c \log k \log \log k)
$$

for all $k$ sufficiently large.
Proof. Let $E=\exp (c \log k \log \log k)$. We will show that there exist primes $p$ in the interval $E \leqq p \leqq 2 E$ for which the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{k}{p}=\frac{a_{1}}{x_{1}}+\frac{a_{2}}{x_{2}}+\frac{a_{3}}{x_{3}} \quad\left(a_{i}, x_{i}\right)=1 \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

has no solutions in positive $x_{i}$.
Without loss of generality we may suppose that $a_{3} / x_{3}$ is the largest of the three fractions $a_{i} \mid x_{i}$. This implies $k / 3 p \leqq a_{3} / x_{3}$ and so $x_{3} \leqq 6 a_{3} E / k$. Hence, there are at most $O(E / k)$ values of $x_{3}$ for which (5) is solvable for any $E \leqq p \leqq 2 E$.

We now fix $x_{3}$ and bound the number of $p$ for which (5) is solvable with the given $x_{3}$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{k}{p}-\frac{a_{3}}{x_{3}}=\frac{k x_{3}-p a_{3}}{p x_{3}}=\frac{a_{1}}{x_{1}}+\frac{a_{2}}{x_{2}} . \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

We note that $p>k$ and $p>x_{3}$ so $(p, k)=\left(p, x_{3}\right)=1$. Also, $\left(k x_{3}-a_{3} p, p x_{3}\right)=1$.
From (6) we see that $p \mid x_{1} x_{2}$.
Case I. Suppose $p \mid x_{1}$ and $p \mid x_{2}$. Then by Theorem 1 there exist $d_{1}$ and $d_{2}$ which divide $x_{3}$ such that $k x_{3}-p a_{3} \mid a_{1} d_{1}+a_{2} d_{2}$. We know $d_{i} \mid p x_{3}$, but the condition $p \mid x_{i}$ implies $p \nmid d_{i}$. There are $d^{2}\left(x_{3}\right)$ choices for $d_{1}$ and $d_{2}$ and at most $d\left(a_{1} d_{1}+\right.$ $+a_{2} d_{2}$ ) choices for $p$ given a particular $d_{1}$ and $d_{2} .(d(m)$ denotes the number of
divisors of $m$.) Thus, there are at most $d^{2}\left(x_{3}\right) d\left(a_{1} d_{1}+a_{2} d_{2}\right) \ll f^{3}(E)$ values of $p$ for which (6) is solvable, where $f(n)$ is the maximum value of $d(k)$ for all $k \leqq n$.

Case II. Suppose $p$ divides only one of the integers $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$. Say $x_{1}=p y_{1}$ and $\left(x_{2}, p\right)=1$. Then

$$
\frac{k x_{3}-p a_{3}}{p x_{3}}-\frac{a_{1}}{p y_{1}}=\frac{y_{1}\left(k x_{3}-p a_{3}\right)-x_{3} a_{1}}{p x_{3} y_{1}}=\frac{a_{2}}{x_{2}},
$$

which implies $p \mid y_{1} k x_{3}-x_{3} a_{1}$ and so $p \mid y_{1} k-a_{1}$. By Theorem 1, $x_{1}=p x_{3}\left(a_{1} d_{1}+\right.$ $\left.+a_{2} d_{2}\right) / k d_{1}$ where $d_{i} \mid x_{3} p$ which implies $y_{1}<E^{3} / k^{2}$ and so $y_{1} k-a_{1}<E^{3}$. Hence, there are at most $d\left(y_{1} k-a_{1}\right)<f\left(E^{3}\right)$ values of $p$ for which (6) solvable.

Now by [2, Theorem 317] $f(n)=O(\exp (\log n / \log \log n))$, and so both $f^{3}(E)$ and $f\left(E^{3}\right)$ are $O(\exp (3 c \log k))$. Therefore, the total number of primes $p, E \leqq p \leqq 2 E$ for which (5) is solvable, is $O(\exp (3 c \log k) E / k)$. However, there are at least $E / \log ^{2} k$ primes between $E$ and $2 E$, and hence picking $c<1 / 3$ we see that there must be some primes $>E$ for which (5) is unsolvable.

Corollary. There is a constant $c>0$ such that

$$
\lambda^{\prime}\left(k ; a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}\right)>\exp (c \log k \log \log k)
$$

for all $k$ sufficiently large.
Proof. By the above argument, it is clear that there exist primes $p, E \leqq p \leqq 2 E$ such that all eight equations

$$
\frac{k}{p}=\frac{ \pm a_{1}}{x_{1}}+\frac{ \pm a_{2}}{x_{2}}+\frac{ \pm a_{3}}{x_{3}}
$$

are unsolvable.
There are a number of related questions which are still open and require further study. Some obvious examples are:

1. Can the bound on $\lambda\left(k ; a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}\right)$ be improved?
2. Can similar bounds be obtained for $\lambda\left(k ; a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}\right)$ or more generally for $\lambda\left(k ; a_{1}, \ldots, a_{r}\right)$ ? (One result along these lines is that $k=o(\lambda(k)$ ). This is obvious from Lemma 1 of [6].)

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