# A NOTE ON THE NUMBER OF EGYPTIAN FRACTIONS 

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#### Abstract

Improving an estimate of Croot, Dobbs, Friedlander, Hetzel, and Pappalardi, we show that for all $k \geqslant 2$, the number of integers $1 \leqslant a \leqslant n$, such that the equation $a / n=1 / m_{1}+\cdots+1 / m_{k}$ has a solution in positive integers $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k}$ is bounded above by $n^{1-1 / 2^{k-2}+o(1)}$ as $n$ goes to infinity.


## 1. The Result

For a positive integer $k$, let $A_{k}(n)$ be the number of integers $a, 1 \leqslant a \leqslant n$ for which $a / n$ has a $k$-term Egyptian fraction representation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{a}{n}=\frac{1}{m_{1}}+\cdots+\frac{1}{m_{k}} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the $m_{i}$ are positive integers with $m_{1} \leqslant \cdots \leqslant m_{k}$. Decompositions of the form (1), often with the $m_{i}$ 's required to be distinct, have been extensively studied in number theory. See Bloom and Elsholtz [1] for a recent survey of the subject and Guy [3, Section D11] for a comprehensive collection of open problems.

Croot, Dobbs, Friedlander, Hetzel, and Pappalardi [2] proved that for any $k \geqslant 2$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
A_{k}(n) \leqslant n^{\alpha_{k}+o(1)} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$, where $\alpha_{k}=1-2 /\left(3^{k-2}+1\right)$. In particular, (2) shows that $A_{2}(n)=n^{o(1)}$. Improving upon their strategy, we get the following bounds.

Theorem 1. For every $k \geqslant 2$, we have $A_{k}(n) \leqslant n^{\beta_{k}+o(1)}$, where $\beta_{k}=1-1 / 2^{k-2}$.

Proof. We apply induction on $k$. The case $k=2$ follows from (2), so assume $k \geqslant 3$. Set $\gamma_{i}=2^{i-1} / 2^{k-2}$ and $\beta_{k}=1-1 / 2^{k-2}$. For $1 \leqslant j \leqslant k-2$, we say that a $k$-tuple $\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k}\right)$ with $m_{1} \leqslant \cdots \leqslant m_{k}$ is of type $j$ if $m_{j} \geqslant n^{\gamma_{j}}$ and $m_{i}<n^{\gamma_{i}}$ for $1 \leqslant i<j$. In addition, we say that such a $k$-tuple is of type $k-1$ if $m_{i}<n^{\gamma_{i}}$ for all $1 \leqslant i \leqslant k-2$, with no restrictions being placed on $m_{k-1}$ or $m_{k}$. It follows from these definitions that any $k$-tuple $\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k}\right)$ is of type $j$ for some $1 \leqslant j \leqslant k-1$.

We now show that the number of solutions to (1) of any given type is at most $n^{\beta_{k}+o(1)}$, as this implies the theorem. Note that type 1 solutions satisfy

$$
\frac{a}{n}=\frac{1}{m_{1}}+\cdots+\frac{1}{m_{k}} \leqslant \frac{k}{m_{1}} \leqslant k n^{-\gamma_{1}}
$$

Thus, $a \leqslant k n^{1-\gamma_{1}}=k n^{\beta_{k}}$. That is, there are no more than $k n^{\beta_{k}}$ solutions of type 1 .
For the type $j$ solutions, $2 \leqslant j \leqslant k-2$, we have

$$
0 \leqslant \frac{a}{n}-\frac{1}{m_{1}}-\cdots-\frac{1}{m_{j-1}}=\frac{1}{m_{j}}+\cdots+\frac{1}{m_{k}} \leqslant \frac{k-j+1}{m_{j}} \leqslant k n^{-\gamma_{j}}
$$

Therefore,

$$
0 \leqslant a-\frac{n}{m_{1}}-\cdots-\frac{n}{m_{j-1}} \leqslant k n^{1-\gamma_{j}}
$$

thus there are at most $k n^{1-\gamma_{j}}$ possible values of $a$ given any $\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{j-1}\right)$. Consequently, the number of solutions of (1) of type $j$ is at most

$$
k n^{1-\gamma_{j}} m_{1} \cdots m_{j-1} \leqslant k n^{1+\gamma_{1}+\cdots+\gamma_{j-1}-\gamma_{j}}=k n^{\beta_{k}} .
$$

The solutions of type $k-1$ are handled more efficiently via binary Egyptian fractions. Note that

$$
0 \leqslant \frac{a}{n}-\frac{1}{m_{1}}-\cdots-\frac{1}{m_{k-2}}=\frac{1}{m_{k-1}}+\frac{1}{m_{k}}
$$

Hence, writing $a^{\prime}=a m_{1} \cdots m_{k-2}-n m_{1} \cdots m_{k-2}\left(1 / m_{1}+\cdots+1 / m_{k-2}\right)$, we see that $a^{\prime}$ is an integer satisfying $0 \leqslant a^{\prime} \leqslant n m_{1} \cdots m_{k-2}$ and

$$
\frac{a^{\prime}}{n m_{1} \cdots m_{k-2}}=\frac{1}{m_{k-1}}+\frac{1}{m_{k}}
$$

Therefore, given $\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k-2}\right)$, there are at most $A_{2}\left(n m_{1} \cdots m_{k-2}\right)$ possible values of $a$ that can satisfy (1). In total, the number of possible values of $a$ is bounded by

$$
\sum_{\substack{m_{i} \leqslant n^{\gamma_{i}} \\ 1 \leqslant i \leqslant k-2}} A_{2}\left(n m_{1} \cdots m_{k-2}\right) \leqslant n^{\gamma_{1}+\cdots+\gamma_{k-2}+o(1)}=n^{\beta_{k}+o(1)},
$$

where we used again that $A_{2}(n)=n^{o(1)}$ from (2), so

$$
A_{2}\left(n m_{1} \cdots m_{k-2}\right)=\left(n m_{1} \cdots m_{k-2}\right)^{o(1)}=n^{o(1)}
$$

We get an improved exponent of $n$ in the upper bound of $A_{k}(n)$ for all $k \geqslant 4$. To illustrate the change, the first exponents in (2) are $\alpha_{2}=0, \alpha_{3}=1 / 2, \alpha_{4}=4 / 5$, $\alpha_{5}=13 / 14$ and $\alpha_{6}=79 / 81$, whereas the new exponents are $\beta_{2}=0, \beta_{3}=1 / 2$, $\beta_{4}=3 / 4, \beta_{5}=7 / 8$ and $\beta_{6}=15 / 16$.

It is still expected, however, that $A_{k}(n)=n^{o(1)}$ for all $k \geqslant 2$. Nonetheless, even the weaker statement that $\sum_{n \leqslant x} A_{k}(n)=x^{1+o(1)}$ remains unproven for $k \geqslant 3$.

Using our argument, if one shows that $A_{k}(n)=n^{o(1)}$ holds for some fixed $k$, we get that $A_{k+\ell}(n) \leqslant n^{1-1 / 2^{\ell}+o(1)}$ for all $\ell \geqslant 1$. In fact, any improvement on the exponent in $A_{k}(n) \leqslant n^{\beta_{k}+o(1)}$ can be propagated to an improvement on $A_{k+\ell}(n)$.

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## References

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