On sets whose subsets have integer mean

Enrique Treviño



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Enrique Treviño (Lake Forest College) On sets whose subsets have integer mean

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Consider the following problem that appeared as problem 2 in the 31st Mexican Mathematical Olympiad held in November 2017:

A set with *n* distinct positive integers is said to be *balanced* if the mean of any *k* numbers in the set is an integer, for any $1 \le k \le n$. Find the largest possible sum of the elements of a balanced set with all numbers in the set less than or equal to 2017.

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Sketch of solution

- Consider a balanced set with *n* elements. Say $S = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}.$
- Let k ≤ n − 1. Note that by fixing any k − 1 terms, the k-th term has to be of the same congruence modulo k for any other number. Therefore, they are all congruent modulo k.
- Since $a_i \equiv a_j \mod k$ for all pairs i, j and all $k \le n 1$, then all the numbers are congruent modulo $M = \operatorname{lcm}\{1, 2, \dots, n 1\}$.
- Note that if n ≥ 8, then a balanced set consists of elements congruent to lcm{1,2,...,7} = 420. Since we can't have 8 positive integers ≤ 2017 congruent to each other modulo 420, then we need to consider balanced sets with at most 7 elements.
- $S = \{2017, 2017 60, \dots, 2017 6 \cdot 60\}$ is the balanced set with 7 elements of maximal sum (12859). If you have 6 elements or less the sum is at most $6 \cdot 2017 < 12859$.

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Consider the same problem but with numbers \leq 3000 instead of \leq 2017. What happens?

- Since 420 · 7 ≤ 3000, we can fit an 8-element balanced set, namely {3000, 3000 - 420, ..., 3000 - 7 · 3000}. The sum of the elements of this set is 12240.
- The 7-element balanced set {3000, 3000 − 60, ..., 3000 − 6 ⋅ 60} has sum 19740.
- The 7-element balanced set has a higher sum than the 8-element balanced set!

- For a positive integer *N*, let *M*(*N*) be the size of the largest balanced set all of whose elements are ≤ *N*.
- Let S(N) be the size of the set with maximal sum among balanced sets all of whose elements are ≤ N.

For what *N* is M(N) = S(N)?

For example M(2017) = S(2017), yet $M(3000) \neq S(3000)$.

Using a computer, we can verify that if $N \le 1000000$, then M(N) = S(N) for

 $1 \le N \le 18$ $31 \le N \le 48$ $85 \le N \le 300$ $571 \le N \le 2940$ $18481 \le N \le 22680$ $54181 \le N \le 304920$

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Pattern

Consider 18, 48, 300, 2940, 22680, 304920. Let

$$L(n) = \operatorname{lcm}\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}.$$

Then

$$18 = 3L(3)$$

$$48 = 4L(4)$$

$$300 = 5L(5)$$

$$2940 = 7L(7)$$

$$22680 = 9L(9)$$

$$304920 = 11L(11)$$

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Theorem

Let p be prime. Them M(pL(p)) = S(pL(p)). Furthermore, $M(pL(p) + 1) \neq S(pL(p) + 1)$.

Theorem

If m is not a prime power, then $M(mL(m)) \neq S(mL(m))$.

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- To prove M(pL(p)) = S(pL(p)) and $M(pL(p) + 1) \neq S(pL(p) + 1)$ the key is that L(p) = pL(p - 1).
- To prove that $M(mL(m)) \neq S(mL(m))$ for *m* not a prime power. The key is that a balanced set with *p* elements where *p* is a prime close to *m* will have a higher sum than a balanced set with more elements as long as *p* is close enough to *m*.
- For non-prime powers close enough is at least larger than m/2. This happens due to Bertrand's postulate.

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Towards stronger statements

Bertrand's postulate is not the best analytic number theory can do in terms of primes close to *m*. Here's a recent theorem of Dudek (2016):

Theorem

For $m \ge e^{e^{33.3}}$, there exists a prime p such that $m^3 \le p < m^3 + 3m^2$. In particular, there is a prime p such that

$$m^3 .$$

We can prove a slight variant:

Lemma

For all $m \ge 10^{10^{15}}$ there is a prime p such that

$$m^3 - \frac{1}{3}m^2 .$$

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Theorem

For $m \ge 10^{10^{15}}$ of the form q^k for a prime q and an exponent $k \ge 3$, then $M(mL(m)) \ne S(mL(m))$.

Using results from Carneiro, Milinovich, and Soundararajan (2019) on large prime gaps assuming the Generalized Riemann Hypothesis (GRH), we can prove

Theorem

Assuming GRH, if $m = q^k$ for a prime q and exponent $k \ge 3$, then $M(mL(m)) \ne S(mL(m))$.

Conjecture

$$S(mL(m)) = M(mL(m))$$

if and only if m is prime or $m \in \{4, 9, 121\}$.

The evidence for the conjecture:

- If *m* is prime, S(mL(m)) = M(mL(m))
- If *m* is not a prime power, $S(mL(m)) \neq M(mL(m))$.
- If *m* is a large enough prime power with exponent at least 3, S(*mL*(*m*)) ≠ *M*(*mL*(*m*)). (Using GRH, we can remove "large enough")
- The evidence that no other prime squares work is that we've checked up to 1000 and Cramer's heuristics imply it for large enough p².

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- Let A be the set of all N for which S(N) = M(N).
- Let A(x) be the set of all $N \le x$ for which S(N) = M(N).

Does
$$\lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{A(x)}{x}$$
 exist?

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The upper density of a set of natural numbers A is

$$\delta^+ = \limsup_{x \to \infty} \frac{A(x)}{x}$$

The lower density is

$$\delta^- = \liminf_{x \to \infty} \frac{A(x)}{x}.$$

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Theorem

 $\delta^+ = \mathbf{1}.$ $\delta^- = \mathbf{0}.$

Therefore $\lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{A(x)}{x}$ does not exist.

What was needed for these proofs?

For δ⁺ the idea is as follows. Fix an integer k. If p > q are consecutive primes with no prime powers in between and p − q ≥ k. Then there is a large interval that contains elements of A(pL(p)). In fact this interval is of size at least (1 − 1/2k) A(pL(p)) for large enough p. Therefore

$$\delta^+ \ge 1 - \frac{1}{2k}.$$

 By the Prime Number Theorem, the average distance between two primes grows logarithmically, so for any fixed integer *k*, there are infinitely many primes *q* satisfying that the next prime *p* is at least *k* numbers away. Therefore, we can let *k* → ∞ to conclude δ⁺ = 1.

- For δ^- the idea is as follows. If p > q are consecutive primes with no prime powers in between and $p q \le k$. Then there is a large interval that contains elements not in A(pL(p)/(2k)). In fact this interval is essentially the size of A(pL(p)/(2k)) for large enough p.
- By recent achievements in primes in small gaps by Zhang, Maynard, Tao, and the Polymath group, we know there are infinitely many primes p > q with $p - q \le 246$. Therefore we can take k = 246 and confirm that $\delta^- = 0$.

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Thank you

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