.121221222... Is Not Quadratic

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ABSTRACT

In this note, we show that if b > 1 is an integer, $f(X) \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ is an integer valued quadratic polynomial and K > 0 is any constant, then the *b*-adic number

$$\sum_{n\geq 0}\frac{a_n}{b^{f(n)}},$$

where $a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $1 \leq |a_n| \leq K$ for all $n \geq 0$, is neither rational nor quadratic.

Key words: irrationality, applications of sieve methods.

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Introduction

There are many studies dealing with criteria to decide, from their base b expansions, the irrationality or transcendence of real numbers. For example, it is an easy application of Ridout's Theorem in Diophantine approximations that a number of the form

$$\sum_{n>0} \frac{a_n}{b^{u_n}}$$

is transcendental whenever b > 1 is an integer, a_n are integers which are bounded, $(u_n)_{n\geq 0}$ is a sequence of positive integers with $\liminf_n u_{n+1}/u_n > 1$ and $a_n \neq 0$ for

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infinitely many n. A stronger result appears in [2], where it is shown that if $(u_n)_{n\geq 0}$ is a sequence of positive integers such that the estimate

$$#\{n \le x : u_n < x\} < cx^{\delta} \tag{1}$$

holds for large enough values of x, where c is some constant, then

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} \frac{1}{2^{u_n}} \tag{2}$$

cannot be algebraic of degree smaller than $1/\delta$. In particular, if estimate (1) holds for a sequence of δ tending to zero, then the number shown at (2) is transcendental. While the above result is too weak to allow one to decide if

$$z = \sum_{n \ge 0} \frac{1}{2^{n^2}}$$

is quadratic or not, in [2] it is shown that most binary digits of z^2 are 0 and therefore z is not quadratic (the stronger assertion that z is fact transcendental follows from known results about about the transcendence of values of theta functions at algebraic arguments, as is shown in [3,5]). In this note, we generalize the above result in two ways: by replacing n^2 with any quadratic polynomial which is integer valued, and by allowing arbitrary coefficients subject to the restriction that they are bounded and nonzero.

In what follows, for a positive integer n we write $\tau(n)$ for the number of divisors of n. For a real number x > 1 we write $\log x$ for the natural logarithm of x. We use p to denote a prime number. We use the Vinogradov symbols \gg and \ll , as well as the Landau symbols O, o, and \asymp , with their regular meanings. Recall that $A \ll B$, $B \gg A$, and A = O(B) are all equivalent and mean that $|A| \leq c|B|$ holds with some positive constant c, and that $A \asymp B$ means that both $A \ll B$ and $B \ll A$ hold. Finally, A = o(B) means that the ratio A/B tends to zero. All implied constants may depend on the given data.

1. The main result

Our main result is the following:

Theorem 1.1. Let b > 1 be an integer, f(X) be an integer valued quadratic polynomial with positive leading term and K > 1 be any real number. Then the number

$$z = \sum_{n \ge 0} \frac{a_n}{b^{f(n)}} \tag{3}$$

is not algebraic of degree ≤ 2 provided that $a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ is such that $1 \leq |a_n| \leq K$ holds for all positive integers n.

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Since the number which appears in the title of this article is

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$$\frac{2}{9} - \sum_{k>0} \frac{1}{10^{k(k+3)/2+1}}$$

we get that this number is not rational or quadratic. We point out that it is not known whether this number is transcendental. (See also [1] where a base 3 variant of this number appears.) We also mention that Duverney [4] proved that if $q \ge 2$ is an integer, then

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} \frac{1}{q^{n(n+1)/2}}$$

is neither rational nor quadratic, which is a particular instance of our Theorem 1.1.

2. The proof

The proof of our Theorem 1.1 uses some elements from [7], although it is somewhat easier.

We begin by simplifying the problem. Replacing n by $n + n_0$ where n_0 is any fixed positive integer, we may assume that $a_n \neq 0$ for all $n \geq n_0$. Multiplying z by $b^{f(0)}$, we may assume that f(0) = 0. Let

$$Uz^2 + Vz + W = 0 \tag{4}$$

be an equation with integer coefficients U, V, W, not all zero. Let us prove that $U \neq 0$. Indeed, if U = 0, then $V \neq 0$ because otherwise U = V = W = 0. Replacing z by Vz+W (which can be done by replacing a_0 by Va_0+W , a_n by Va_n for all n > 0 and K by K(|V| + |W|)), it follows that it suffices to show that $z \neq 0$. However, if z = 0, we then get the equation

$$\frac{A_n}{b^{f(n)}} = -\frac{a_{n+1}}{b^{f(n+1)}} - \sum_{m \ge n+2} \frac{a_m}{b^{f(m)}},\tag{5}$$

where A_n is an integer. Since f(n+1) - f(n) is a linear polynomial with positive leading term which is integer valued, it follows that $f(n+1) - f(n) \ge n + c$ where c is a constant. Equation (5) now shows that

$$|A_n| \ll \frac{1}{b^{f(n+1)-f(n)}} \ll \frac{1}{b^n}$$

which for large n implies that $A_n = 0$. Using again equation (5) we deduce that

$$\frac{a_{n+1}}{b^{f(n+1)}} = -\sum_{m \geq n+2} \frac{a_m}{b^{f(m)}},$$

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which, by the same argument as above, leads to

$$|a_{n+1}| \ll \frac{1}{b^{f(n+2)-f(n+1)}} \ll \frac{1}{b^n},$$

which is impossible for large n because $|a_{n+1}| \ge 1$.

We may therefore assume that $U \neq 0$. The above equation (4) is equivalent to

$$(Uz + V)^2 + (4UW - V^2) = 0.$$

By replacing z by Uz + V (which can be done by replacing a_0 by $Ua_0 + V$, a_n by Ua_n for all n > 0 and K by K(|U| + |V|)), it follows that it suffices to show that $z^2 \notin \mathbb{Z}$. Let $d = \gcd\{f(n) \mid n \ge 0\}$. By replacing f(x) by f(x)/d and b by b^d , it follows that we may assume that d = 1. Since d = 1 and f(0) = 0, it follows that we may write f(X) = aX(X+1)/2 + bX, where $a = f(2) - f(1) \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}, b = 2f(1) - f(2) \in \mathbb{Z}, a$ and b are coprime if a is odd and a/2 and b are coprime if a is even. The relation $z^2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ is equivalent to

$$\sum_{n\geq 0} \frac{c_n}{b^n} \in \mathbb{Z},\tag{6}$$

where

$$c_n := \sum_{\substack{(u,v)\\f(u)+f(v)=n}} a_u a_v.$$

We observe that n = f(u) + f(v) if and only if

$$4an + (a+2b)^{2} = (au + av + a + 2b)^{2} + (au - av)^{2}.$$

Thus, if we denote by $r_2(n)$ the number of ways of writing n as a sum of two squares of integers, we have $c_n \ll r_2(4an + (a + 2b)^2)$. Furthermore, it is known that if

$$n = \prod_{i=1}^{k} p_i^{\alpha_i}$$

is the prime factorization of n, then $r_2(n) = 0$ if there exists $j \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$ such that $p_j \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ and α_j is odd, and

$$r_2(n) \le \{ (u,v) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 : u^2 + v^2 = n \} = 4 \prod_{\substack{1 \le i \le k \\ p_i \equiv 1 \pmod{4}}} (\alpha_i + 1) \le \tau(n),$$

otherwise. In particular, $c_n \ll \tau (4an + (a + 2b)^2)$. We shall prove the theorem only when a is odd, and we will indicate how to adapt the proof when a is even. Our strategy will be to prove that Theorem 1.1 is a consequence of the following lemma.

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Lemma 2.1. For a positive real number x we write $t(x) := \log x$, $m(x) := \lfloor t(x)^{1/3} \rfloor$ and $s(x) := \lfloor t^2(x) \rfloor$. There exists an infinite set \mathcal{A} of positive integers n such that the following properties hold.

- (i) $1 \le |c_n| \ll 1$,
- (ii) $c_{n\pm i} = 0$ for all i = 1, ..., m(n),
- (iii) $\tau(4a(n+i) + (a+2b)^2) < \exp(t(n)^{1/4})$ for all $i = 1, \dots, s(n)$.

Let us start by showing that, as claimed, in case a is odd Theorem 1.1 is a consequence of this lemma. Suppose, hence, Lemma 2.1 proved. For $n \in \mathcal{A}$ write equation (6) as

$$\sum_{m < n} \frac{c_m}{b^m} \in -\sum_{m \ge n} \frac{c_m}{b^m} + \mathbb{Z}.$$

By condition (ii) of Lemma 2.1, the above equation leads to an equation of the form

$$\frac{B_n}{b^{n-m(n)}} = \frac{c_n}{b^n} + \sum_{n+m(n) \le m \le n+s(n)} \frac{c_m}{b^m} + \sum_{m > n+s(n)} \frac{c_m}{b}$$

where B_n is an integer. Clearly, by condition (iii) of Lemma 2.1, we have

$$\sum_{\substack{n+m(n) \le m \le n+s(n)}} \frac{c_m}{b^m} \ll \sum_{\substack{n+m(n) \le m \le n+s(n)}} \frac{\tau (4am + (a+2b)^2)}{b^m} \\ \ll \frac{s(n) \exp(t(n)^{1/4})}{b^{n+m(n)}} < \frac{1}{b^{n+\frac{m(n)}{2}}},$$

where the last inequality above holds for large n. Once m is large, we have that $\tau(4am + (a + 2b)^2) < m$; hence,

$$\sum_{m>n+s(n)} \frac{c_m}{b^m} \ll \sum_{m>n+s(n)} \frac{\tau(4am + (a+2b)^2)}{b^m} < \sum_{m>n+s(n)} \frac{m}{b^m} \ll \frac{n}{b^{n+s(n)}} < \frac{1}{b^{n+\frac{m(n)}{2}}},$$

where the last inequality holds for large values of n. Thus, for large $n \in \mathcal{A}$, we have

$$\frac{B_n}{b^{n-m(n)}} = \frac{c_n}{b^n} + O\left(\frac{1}{b^{n+\frac{m(n)}{2}}}\right).$$
(7)

Using the fact that $|c_n| \ll 1$ (see (i) of Lemma 2.1), the above relation shows that

$$|B_n| \ll \frac{1}{b^{m(n)}},$$

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and since B_n is an integer, it follows that $B_n = 0$ for large n. This together with equation (7) leads to

$$c_n = O\left(\frac{1}{b^{m(n)/2}}\right),$$

which is impossible for large n because by (i) of Lemma 2.1 we have that c_n is a nonzero integer.

It remains to prove Lemma 2.1.

Proof of Lemma 2.1. Let $g(X,Y) \in \mathbb{Q}[X,Y]$ be the quadratic polynomial given by $g(X,Y) = (2aX + 2b)^2 + a^2(2Y + 1)^2$. We recall the following result from [6].

Theorem 2.2. Let $P(X,Y) \in \mathbb{Z}[X,Y]$ be a polynomial of degree two of the form

$$P(X,Y) = AX^2 + BXY + CY^2 + DX + EY + F$$

with gcd(A, B, C, D, E, F) = 1, irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[X, Y]$, which represents arbitrarily large odd numbers and depends essentially on two variables. Then

(i)

$$\frac{x}{\log x} \ll \sum_{\substack{p \le x \\ p = P(r,s)}} 1,$$

if $\Delta = AF^2 - BEF + CE^2 + (B^2 - 4AC)G = 0$ or $\Delta_1 = B^2 - 4AC$ is a perfect square,

(ii)

$$\frac{x}{(\log x)^{3/2}} \asymp \sum_{\substack{p \le x\\ p = P(r,s)}} 1,$$

otherwise.

One checks now immediately that

$$g(X,Y) = (4a^2)X^2 + (4a^2)Y^2 + (8ab)X + (4a^2)Y + (4b^2 + a^2)$$

satisfies all the conditions (i) of the above Theorem 2.2. Let

$$\mathcal{C}(x) := \{ p > x : p \text{ prime}, \quad p = g(r, s) \text{ for some } r, s \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \}.$$

It then follows that for large enough x, we have $\#\mathcal{C}(x) \gg x/\log x$. Of the primes in $\mathcal{C}(x)$, only a subset $\mathcal{C}_1(x)$ of cardinality $O(x^{1/2})$ satisfies that $|r-s| \leq n_0 + 1 + 2|b/a|$ and $2r \leq 1 + 2|b/a|$. Thus, we may look only at the primes $p \in \mathcal{C}(x) \setminus \mathcal{C}_1(x)$. Such primes satisfy the conditions $|r-s| > n_0 + 1 + 2|b/a|$ and 2r > 1 + 2|b/a|.

If we restrict our attention to such primes, we see that the integer r - s takes the same sign in a subset $C_2(x)$ of them with $\#C_2(x) \gg x/\log x$. We will assume

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that r > s, for the case r < s can be dealt with in a similar way. Setting u = r + sand v = r - s - 1, we note that both u and v are positive integers greater than n_0 , au + av + a + 2b = 2ar + 2b and au - av = a(2s + 1). Thus, $p = g(r, s) = (au + av + a + 2b)^2 + (au - av)^2$. Therefore, if we set $n(p) = (p - (a + 2b)^2)/4a$ for the primes $p \in C_2(x)$, we have that n(p) = f(u) + f(v). We now show that for most primes in $C_2(x)$, the two pairs (u, v) and (v, u) with u and v constructed as above are the only ones such that n(p) = f(u) + f(v).

Since p is prime, it follows that the only integer solutions (α, β) of the equation $p = \alpha^2 + \beta^2$ are $(\alpha, \beta) = (\pm \lambda, \pm \nu)$, where $\lambda = 2ar + 2b$ and $\mu = a(2s + 1)$. We may hence assume that $au_1 + av_1 + a + 2b = \varepsilon_1\lambda$ and $au_1 - av_1 = \varepsilon_2\mu$, where $\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2 \in {\pm 1}$. When $(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2) \in {(1, 1), (1, -1)}$, we get $(u_1, v_1) = (u, v)$ and (v, u), respectively, which are already accounted for. When $(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2) = (-1, -1)$, we get $au_1 + av_1 + a + 2b = -2ar - 2b$, therefore $u_1 + v_1 = -2r - 1 - 2b/a$, which is impossible because the right hand side of this equation is negative and the left hand side of it is positive, while when $(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2) = (-1, 1)$, we get $u_1 = s - r - 2b/a$, which is again negative because r - s is positive and > 2b/a. Thus, for the primes $p \in C_2(x)$, the corresponding numbers n(p) satisfy that $c_{n(p)} = 2a_ua_v$, and since both u and v are larger than n_0 , it follows that $c_{n(p)}$ fulfills (i) of Lemma 2.1. We now show that most of the numbers n(p) constructed from the primes $p \in C_2(x)$ fulfill both (ii) and (iii) of Lemma 2.1 when x is large.

For (ii), it suffices to show that $p \pm 4ai$ is not a sum of two squares for $i = 1, \ldots, \lfloor t(x)^{1/3} \rfloor$. Fix a number *i*. If $p \pm 4ai$ is a sum of two squares, then it either is coprime to all primes $q > t^2(x)$ which are congruent to 3 modulo 4, or it is divisible by the square of one such prime.

For every prime number q let

$$\rho(q) = \begin{cases} 2, & \text{if } t^2(x) < q < x \quad \text{and} \quad q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}, \\ 1, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

By Brun's Sieve, the number N_i of primes $p \in C_2(x)$ such that p+4ai is free of primes $q > t^2(x)$ which are congruent to 3 modulo 4 is

$$N_i \ll x \prod_{q < x} \left(1 - \frac{\rho(q)}{q} \right) \ll \frac{x \log \log x}{(\log x)^{3/2}},$$

and the same is true for p-4ai. On the other hand, the number N'_i of primes $p \in C_2(x)$ such that $p + 4ai < x + 4a \log x < 2x$ is a multiple of q^2 for some $q > t^2(x)$, certainly does not exceed

$$N'_{i} \le \sum_{q > t^{2}(x)} \frac{2x}{q^{2}} \ll \frac{x}{t^{2}(x)} < \frac{x \log \log x}{(\log x)^{3/2}},$$

and the same is true for p - 4ai. If we let *i* vary from 1 to $\lfloor t(x)^{1/3} \rfloor$, we get that the number *M* of primes $p \in C_2(x)$ such that n(p) does not satisfy condition (ii) of

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Lemma 2.1, verifies

$$M \le 2 \sum_{i \le t(x)^{1/3}} (N_i + N'_i) \ll \frac{xt(x)^{1/3} \log \log x}{(\log x)^{3/2}} = \frac{x \log \log x}{(\log x)^{7/6}}.$$

Since $\#C_2(x) \gg x/\log x$, we get that for most of the primes $p \in C_2(x)$, the number n(p) satisfies (ii) of Lemma 2.1. Finally, we will take care of condition (iii) of Lemma 2.1. Since $\#C_2(x) \gg x/\log x$ and there are $O(x/\log^2 x)$ primes $p \le x/\log x$, we may assume that every prime p in $C_2(x)$ satisfies $p > x/\log x$. When $p \in C_2(x)$, we have that the inequality

$$\sqrt{x} < \frac{x}{\log x} < p + 4ai < x + 4at^2(x) < 2x$$

holds for all $i \leq t^2(x)$. Fix a value for *i*. Since

$$\sum_{n<2x} \tau(n) = O(x\log x)$$

it follows that only $O(x \log x \exp(-(0.5 \log x)^{1/4}))$ primes p < x can exist such that

$$\tau(p+4ai) > \exp\left((\log(p+4ai))^{1/4}\right) > \exp((0.5\log x)^{1/4}) \tag{8}$$

holds. Summing over i, we get that only $O(x(\log x)^3 \exp(-(0.5 \log x)^{1/4}))$ primes p < x can exist such that inequality (8) holds for some positive integer $i \le t^2(x)$. Since this last function is $o(x/\log x)$, and our set $C_2(x)$ of primes satisfies $\#C_2(x) \gg x/\log x$, it follows that for most of the primes $p \in C_2(x)$, the number n(p) satisfies both conditions (ii) and (iii) of Lemma 2.1. Putting n(p) in \mathcal{A} for such primes $p \le x$ and letting x tend to infinity, we complete the proof of the lemma.

We end with some indications about how to proceed in the case in which a is even. The proof in such case is similar to the one we have just described for a odd. Only the polynomial g(X, Y) is different. For example, when a/2 and b are of different parities, then n = f(u) + f(v) if and only if $an + (a/2+b)^2 = (a(u+v+1)/2+b)^2 + (a(u-v)/2)^2$. We may then take $g(X,Y) = (aX+b)^2 + (a(2Y+1)/2)^2$, and setting u = r + s and v = r - s - 1, one checks easily that ar + b = a(u + v + 1)/2 + b and a(u - v)/2 = a(2s+1)/2. Hence, $an + (a/2+b)^2 = (a(u+v+1)/2+b)^2 + (a(u-v)/2)^2$ whenever $an + (a/2+b)^2 = g(r,s)$. Finally, when a/2 and b are both odd, we then have $an/2 + ((a+2b)/4)^2 = (au/2 + (a+2b)/4)^2 + (av/2 + (a+2b)/4)^2$ and we may take $g(X,Y) = (aX/2 + (a+2b)/4)^2 + (aY/2 + (a+2b)/4)^2$. In both cases above, one checks that condition (i) from the statement of Theorem 2.2 is fulfilled and so the previous argument extends in these cases as well.

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3. Remarks

It can be seen that the number shown at (3) is irrational under the weaker condition that $a_n \neq 0$ for infinitely many n. It is probably true that the number shown at (3) is not quadratic under this weaker condition either, but we could not find a proof of this fact. It can also be seen that the present proof of Theorem 1.1 shows that our result remains also valid if instead of a_n remaining bounded we impose the condition that a_n does not grow too fast with respect to n. (For example, the conclusion of Theorem 1.1 remains true when $|a_n|$ stays smaller than a fixed power of $\log n$.) Our proof also shows that

$$\sum_{n \text{ perfect power}} \frac{a_n}{b^n}$$

where a_n satisfy the hypothesis from the statement of Theorem 1.1 is not algebraic of degree at most 2. (For this, note that if x is large, then there are at most $O(x^{5/6})$ positive integers n < x which are a sum of two perfect powers but not a sum of two squares.) A similar method can be used to show that

$$\sum_{n \text{ powerful}} \frac{a_n}{b^n}$$

where a_n satisfy again the hypothesis from the statement of Theorem 1.1 is not algebraic of degree at most 2, but we shall provide the details of such an argument with a different occasion.

More generally, one can ask if it is true that given a polynomial $f(X) \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ which is integer valued and of degree $d \geq 3$ then

$$z = \sum_{n \ge 0} \frac{a_n}{b^{f(n)}}$$

is not algebraic of degree smaller than d whenever $|a_n| \leq K$ assuming either $a_n \neq 0$ for all n or just for infinitely many of them. We do not know how to deal with such problems.

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