## On an extension of a theorem of Schur

by

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**1. Introduction.** A well-known theorem of I. Schur ([3], [4]) states that "If the positive integers less than n!e are partitioned into n classes in any way, then x+y=z can be solved in integers (not necessarily distinct) within one class".

For example, in the case n = 2, the above theorem may be used for  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ . Let us consider the partition  $A_1 = \{1, 2\}$  and  $A_2 = \{3, 4, 5\}$ . It is clear that x + y = z has a solution within  $A_1$ . But such a partition does not give a solution if we restrict to triplets (x, y, z) of pairwise distinct integers. Note that if x + y = z with  $x, y, z \neq 0$ , only x and y may be equal.

Sierpiński [4] has proved that a solution in distinct integers is certain if we replace the upper bound [n!e] by  $2^{[n!e]}$ , and Irving ([1], [2]) improved this result with the bound  $\left[\frac{1}{2}(2n+1)e \cdot n!\right] + 2$  (where, as usual, [x] denotes the greatest integer less than or equal to x).

The purpose of this paper is to prove the following theorem:

THEOREM. Let  $n \ge 2$  be an integer. If the set  $A = \{1, 2, \dots, [n! \cdot ne] + 1\}$  is divided into n classes in any way, then at least one of the classes contains two different numbers and their sum.

**2. Preliminaries.** Let  $n \ge 2$  be an integer. We define the finite sequence  $(\alpha_k)$  for  $k = 1, \ldots, n+1$  by

$$\alpha_k = k + n \cdot (k-1)! \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} \frac{1}{i!},$$

with the convention  $\sum_{i=p}^{q} = 0$  when p > q. In particular  $\alpha_1 = 1$ . Moreover, it is clear that  $\alpha_k \in \mathbb{N}^*$  for each k.

LEMMA 1. We have  $\alpha_{n+1} = [n! \cdot ne] + 1$ .

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*Proof.* We have

$$\alpha_{n+1} = n+1+n \cdot n! \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i!} = 1+n \cdot n! \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{1}{i!},$$

that is,

$$\alpha_{n+1} = 1 + n \cdot n! e - n \cdot n! R_n$$
 with  $R_n = \sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i!}$ .

But

$$R_n = \frac{1}{n!} \left( \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+2)} + \dots \right) < \frac{1}{n!} \left( \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} + \dots \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{n \cdot n!}.$$

Thus  $\alpha_{n+1} < 1 + n \cdot n! e < \alpha_{n+1} + 1$ . Since  $\alpha_{n+1}$  is an integer, we deduce that  $\alpha_{n+1} = [n! \cdot ne] + 1$ .

LEMMA 2. For each  $k \ge 1$ , we have  $\alpha_{k+1} = k(\alpha_k + n - k + 1) + 1$ .

*Proof.* Let  $k \ge 1$ . We have

$$\frac{\alpha_{k+1}-1}{k} = 1 + n \cdot (k-1)! \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \frac{1}{i!} = 1 + n + n \cdot (k-1)! \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} \frac{1}{i!}.$$

Thus  $(\alpha_{k+1} - 1)/k = 1 + n + \alpha_k - k$ . The conclusion follows.

**3. Proof of the Theorem.** Take partition of  $A = \{1, \ldots, \alpha_{n+1}\}$  into n pairwise disjoint classes. For  $E \subset A$  and  $a \in A$ , define  $\Delta_a(E) = \{x - a \mid x \in E \text{ and } x > a\}$ . Then we consider the following algorithm:

(1) Define S to be the set of all the classes of the decomposition.

(2) Choose one of the classes in S with the maximum number of elements. Denote it by  $A_1$ . Set  $S = S - \{A_1\}$ .

(3) Define  $E_1 = A_1, a_1 = \min E_1, F_1 = \Delta_{a_1}(E_1) - \{a_1\}.$ 

(4) If  $F_1 \cap A_1 \neq \emptyset$  then stop. Otherwise, set p = 1 and continue.

(5) Choose an element of S which contains the maximum number of elements from  $F_p$ . Denote it by  $A_{p+1}$ . Set  $S = S - \{A_{p+1}\}$ .

(6) Define

$$E_{p+1} = A_{p+1} \cap F_p, \quad a_{p+1} = \min E_{p+1},$$
$$F_{p+1} = \Delta_{a_{p+1}}(E_{p+1}) - \Big\{ \sum_{i=0}^j a_{p+1-i} \mid j = 0, 1, \dots, p \Big\}.$$

(7) If  $F_{p+1} \cap (\bigcup_{i=1}^{p} A_i) \neq \emptyset$  then stop. Otherwise, continue.

(8) Set p = p + 1. Go to (5).

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CLAIM 1. For each  $p \in \{1, ..., n\}$ , if  $E_p$  is constructed by the algorithm then:

- $E_p$  contains at least  $\alpha_{n-p+1} + p + 1$  elements.
- $F_p$  is constructed, and it contains at least  $\alpha_{n-p+1}$  elements.

*Proof.* By induction on p. For p = 1, from the pigeon-hole principle,  $A_1$  contains at least

$$\frac{\alpha_{n+1}}{n} = \frac{1}{n} + n! \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{1}{i!}$$

elements. Thus,  $E_1 = A_1$  contains at least

$$1 + n! \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{1}{i!} = \alpha_n + 2$$

elements (from Lemma 2). Moreover,  $\alpha_n + 2 \ge 2$ , thus  $a_1$  is well defined. And  $F_1$  is constructed: we form the differences in (3) (which decreases the number of elements by 1), and delete  $a_1$  (if necessary). Thus  $F_1$  contains at least  $\alpha_n$  elements.

Let p be a fixed integer with  $1 \leq p < n$ . Suppose that the conclusion holds for the value p and that  $E_{p+1}$  is constructed by the algorithm. Then, by the induction hypothesis,  $F_p$  contains at least  $\alpha_{n-p+1}$  elements, none of which belongs to  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{p} A_i$  (otherwise the algorithm would have stopped from (7), and  $E_{p+1}$  would not have been constructed). From the pigeon-hole principle and Lemma 2,  $A_{p+1}$  contains at least

$$\frac{\alpha_{n-p+1}}{n-p} = \alpha_{n-p} + p + 1 + \frac{1}{n-p}$$

elements from  $F_p$ . It follows that  $E_{p+1}$  contains at least  $\alpha_{n-p}+p+2$  elements. Moreover,  $\alpha_{n-p}+p+2 \geq 2$ , thus  $a_{p+1}$  is well defined, and  $F_{p+1}$  is constructed: we form the differences and make the deletions (if necessary, and not more than p + 1). Then  $F_{p+1}$  contains at least  $\alpha_{n-p}$  elements, which ends the induction, and completes the proof of the claim.

REMARK. The claim ensures that there will be no problem at step (6) of the algorithm.

CASE 1: The algorithm stops at (4). Then there exists  $b \in F_1 \cap A_1$ . Thus  $b = a_i - a_1$  for some  $a_i \in A_1$ , and  $b \neq a_1$  since  $a_1 \notin F_1$ . Thus  $b + a_1 = a_i$  in  $A_1$ , and the conclusion of the Theorem holds.

CASE 2: The algorithm stops at (7) with p < n. First note that it did not stop before.

CLAIM 2. For each  $k \in \{1, \ldots, p\}$ , the number  $X_k = a_p + a_{p-1} + \ldots + a_k$  belongs to  $E_k$ .

*Proof.* By (descending) induction. For k = p, we directly have  $X_p = a_p \in E_p$ . Let  $k \in \{2, \ldots, p\}$  be fixed. Suppose that  $X_k \in E_k$ . Since  $E_k \subset F_{k-1} \subset \Delta_{a_{k-1}}(E_{k-1})$ , there exists  $x \in E_{k-1}$  such that  $X_k = x - a_{k-1}$ . Thus  $X_{k-1} = X_k + a_{k-1} = x$  belongs to  $E_{k-1}$ . This ends the induction and completes the proof.

Since the algorithm has stopped at (7), there exists  $k \in \{1, \ldots, p\}$  such that  $F_p \cap A_k \neq \emptyset$ . Then  $b = b_{i_1} - a_p \in F_p \cap A_k$  for some  $b_{i_1} \in E_p$ .

If k = p, we have  $b \in F_p$ . Then, by construction,  $b \neq a_p$ . Thus  $b_{i_1} = b + a_p$  in  $A_p$ , and the conclusion of the Theorem holds.

If k < p, then  $b_{i_1} \in E_p \subset F_{p-1}$ . It follows that

 $\begin{array}{ll} b_{i_1}=b_{i_2}-a_{p-1} & \text{for some } b_{i_2}\in E_{p-1}\subset F_{p-2},\\ b_{i_2}=b_{i_3}-a_{p-2} & \text{for some } b_{i_3}\in E_{p-2}\subset F_{p-3},\\ & \dots\\ & b_{i_{p-k}}=b_{i_{p-k+1}}-a_k & \text{for some } b_{i_{p-k+1}}\in E_k\subset A_k.\\\\ \text{Summing, we obtain} \end{array}$ 

$$b = b_{i_{p-k+1}} - \sum_{i=k}^{p} a_i = b_{i_{p-k+1}} - X_k.$$

But, from Claim 2, we have  $X_k \in E_k \subset A_k$ . And, since  $b \in F_p$ , we deduce that  $b \neq X_k$  (see step (6)). It follows that  $b + X_k = b_{i_{p-k+1}}$  in  $A_k$ , and the conclusion of the Theorem holds.

CASE 3: The algorithm does not stop until p=n in (8). Then  $A_n, E_n, F_n$  are constructed by the algorithm. From Claim 1,  $F_n$  contains at least  $\alpha_1 = 1$  elements. Thus  $F_n \neq \emptyset$  and

$$F_n \cap \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = F_n \cap A \neq \emptyset.$$

We deduce that the algorithm stops at (7). The reasoning used in Case 2 may be repeated word for word, and the conclusion of the Theorem holds. Thus the proof is complete.

**4. Remarks.** Following Sierpiński [4], given a natural number k, denote by n(k) the least natural number n with the following property: if the numbers  $1, \ldots, n$  are divided into k classes, then at least one class contains two different numbers together with their sum.

Then according to Walker [6]

$$n(1) = 3, \quad n(2) = 9, \quad n(3) = 24, \quad n(4) = 67, \quad n(5) = 197.$$

Also, see [5], p. 440,

$$n(k) \ge 1 + 315^{(k-1)/5}$$

Thus

$$315^{(k-1)/5} + 1 \le n(k) \le [k! \cdot ke] + 1.$$

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