

ON ADDITIVE h -BASES FOR n

BY

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A set $A: 0 = a_1 < a_2 < \dots < a_k$ of real numbers is called an h -basis for n if each of $1, 2, \dots, n$ can be represented as the sum of h elements of A , repetitions being allowed. We denote by $k_h(n)$ the smallest number of elements that can be used to form an h -basis for n . In the following we assume that A is a minimal h -basis for n , that is, that $k = k_h(n)$.

An upper estimate for $k_h(n)$ was found by Rohrbach [4]. He showed by constructing particular bases that, for $h \geq 2$,

$$(1) \quad k_h(n) < hn^{1/h}.$$

The case $h = 1$ is trivial. On the other hand, since we can form $\binom{k+h-1}{h}$ h -combinations with repetition of the k elements of our basis, and therefore that many sums, we have

$$(2) \quad \binom{k+h-1}{h} \geq n.$$

Using $(k+h-1)^h/h! \geq \binom{k+h-1}{h}$ we obtain from (2)

$$(3) \quad \frac{k^h}{h!}(1+\varepsilon) > n$$

for n sufficiently large. Improvements have been made only on the lower estimate and only in the case $h = 2$, when (2) becomes $(k^2+k)/2 > n$. Rohrbach conjectured, in this case, that $k^2 \sim 4n$, and proved

$$(4) \quad \frac{k^2}{2}(1-.0016) > n$$

for n sufficiently large. Ostmann ([2], p. 179) remarks that this result "bereits umfangreiche Betrachtungen erfordert". Then Moser [1], using a simpler argument, proved

$$\frac{k^2}{2}(1-.0194) > n,$$

and by a refinement of this argument Riddell [3] proved

$$\frac{k^2}{2}(1-.0269) > n.$$

For $h > 2$, Stöhr [5] remarks that presumably one can use Rohrbach's method to sharpen the lower estimate for k , and goes on to say "Jedoch werden die diesbezüglichen Rechnungen umfangreich und unübersichtlich". In this note we prove the following theorem by an argument related to that of [1]:

THEOREM. *Let $h \geq 3$; then for every ε , $0 < \varepsilon < 1$, and n sufficiently large,*

$$(5) \quad \frac{k^h}{h!} \left(1 - \left(\frac{(1-\varepsilon)\cos\frac{\pi}{h}}{2 + \cos\frac{\pi}{h}} \right)^h \right) > n.$$

We remark that (5) is sharper than (3) for $h \geq 2$. The following argument does not give (5) if $h = 2$, but for $h = 2$, (5) follows from (4).

Proceeding to the proof of (5) we consider the generating function

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^k x^{a_j}$$

and let

$$(6) \quad g(x) = \frac{f^h(x)}{h!} + f^{h-2}(x)f(x^2).$$

The coefficient of x^j in $g(x)$ will be greater than or equal to the number of representations of j as the sum of h summands from A with order not taken into account. We now define $\delta(f)$ by

$$(7) \quad g(x) = x + x^2 + \dots + x^n + \sum_{j=0}^{ha_k} \delta(j)x^j.$$

Since A is an h -basis for n it follows that $\delta(j) \geq 0$ for all j . For $x = 1$ (7) yields

$$(8) \quad \frac{k^h}{h!} + k^{h-1} = n + \sum \delta(j).$$

(8) implies $k^h/h! + k^{h-1} \geq n$, and while not as sharp as (2), this also implies (3). We obtain the improvement (5) by showing that $\sum \delta(j)$ is large.

Since $x + x^2 + \dots + x^n$ is zero for $x = e^{2\pi i/n}$, we have from (7),

$$g(e^{2\pi i/n}) = \sum \delta(j)e^{2\pi ij/n}.$$

Hence,

$$(9) \quad \sum \delta(j) \geq |g(e^{2\pi i/n})| \geq \frac{1}{h!} |f(e^{2\pi i/n})|^h - |f^{h-2}(e^{2\pi i/n})f(e^{4\pi i/n})| \geq \frac{1}{h!} |f(e^{2\pi i/n})|^h - k^{h-1}.$$

(by the triangle inequality)

We find a lower estimate for the right hand side of (9) by considering for each a_j the vector from the origin to the point $e^{2\pi i a_j/n}$ on the unit circle. The sum of the projections of the k vectors associated with A onto the line from the origin to $f(e^{2\pi i/n})$ is of course $|f(e^{2\pi i/n})|$ and greater than or equal to the sum of the projections of these vectors onto any other line. We let p be the number of elements of A exceeding n/h , and consider the sum of the projections of our k vectors onto the line $\theta = \pi/h$. Noting that the amplitude of the vector associated with a_j is $2\pi a_j/n$, we see that $k-p$ vectors have amplitude θ in the interval $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi/h$ and each contributes at least $\cos\pi/h$ to this sum, while the remaining p vectors each contributes at least -1 . Hence, $|f(e^{2\pi i/n})| \geq (k-p)\cos\pi/h - p$, and from (9) we obtain

$$(10) \quad \sum \delta(j) \geq \frac{(k\cos\pi/h - p(1 + \cos\pi/h))^h}{h!} - k^{h-1}.$$

If p is small we shall use (10). On the other hand, since the sums formed using the p a 's which exceed n/h are all greater than n , it follows from (6) and (7) that

$$(11) \quad \sum \delta(j) \geq \frac{p^h}{h!} + p^{h-1} \geq \frac{p^h}{h!}.$$

We let $\alpha = (\cos\pi/h)/(2 + \cos\pi/h)$ and consider the two cases (i) $p < ka$ and (ii) $p \geq ka$. In case (i), (10) yields.

$$(12) \quad \sum \delta(j) \geq \frac{k^h \alpha^h}{h!} - k^{h-1},$$

while in case (ii), (12) follows from (11). Hence, from (8) and (12) we obtain

$$(13) \quad \frac{k^h}{h!} (1 - \alpha^h) + 2k^{h-1} \geq n;$$

and the theorem follows.

Rohrbach considered also restricted 2-bases for n , that is, bases in which no element exceeds $[(n+1)/2]$. For such bases he proved that for

n sufficiently large,

$$\frac{k^2}{2}(1-.0692) > n,$$

and Riddell [3] proved

$$\frac{k^2}{2}(1-.1329) > n.$$

If we define a restricted h -basis for n to be an h -basis for n in which no element exceeds n/h , then we have

$$(14) \quad \frac{k^h}{h!} \left(1 - \left((1-\varepsilon) \cos \frac{\pi}{h} \right)^h \right) > n$$

for n sufficiently large. This follows directly from (8) and (10) with $p = 0$.

Notice that Rohrbach himself considered only bases composed of integers. Then we require $[(n+h-1)/h]$ here instead of n/h . Formula (14) still follows, but not simply by putting $p = 0$ in (10).

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SOLUTION D'UN PROBLÈME DE K. ZARANKIEWICZ SUR LES SUITES DE PUISSANCES CONSÉCUTIVES DE NOMBRES IRRATIONNELS

(DÉDIÉ À LA MÉMOIRE DE K. ZARANKIEWICZ)

PAR

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K. Zarankiewicz a posé le problème: existe-il un nombre irrationnel q tel qu'on puisse extraire de la suite q, q^2, \dots quatre termes formant une progression arithmétique? (cf. [2], p. 44, P 115).

La réponse négative à ce problème (même quand on admet q complexe, les quatre termes correspondants étant distincts) est une conséquence immédiate du théorème 2, qui va suivre.

En appliquant la méthode ingénieuse de W. Ljunggren [1], le théorème suivant sera d'abord établi:

THÉORÈME 1. *Les nombres n et m étant des entiers tels que $n > m > 0$ et $n \neq 2m$, le polynôme*

$$g(x) = \frac{x^n - 2x^m + 1}{x^{(n,m)} - 1}$$

est irréductible, à l'exception des cas $n = 7k$, $m = 2k$ et $n = 7k$, $m = 5k$, dans lesquels $g(x)$ est un produit de deux facteurs irréductibles, à savoir

$$(x^{3k} + x^{2k} - 1)(x^{3k} + x^k + 1) \quad \text{et} \quad (x^{3k} + x^{2k} + 1)(x^{3k} - x^k - 1)$$

respectivement.

LEMME. *Soit*

$$1) \quad f(x) = x^n - 2x^m + 1 = \varphi_r(x) \psi_s(x) \quad \text{où} \quad r + s = n,$$

$\varphi_r(x)$ et $\psi_s(x)$ étant des polynômes normés de degré r et s respectivement, et aux coefficients entiers. Soit en outre

$$\langle 7k, 2k \rangle \neq \langle n, m \rangle \neq \langle 7k, 5k \rangle.$$

Alors au moins l'un des deux facteurs de (1) est un polynôme réciproque.