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(851)

On a problem of R. L. Graham

by

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O. Introduction. Let S be a set of distinct positive integers

$$S = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\} \quad \text{where} \quad a_1 < a_2 < \dots < a_n.$$

Then Graham [1] has made the following:

CONJECTURE.

$$\max_{1 \leq i, j \leq n} \frac{a_i}{(a_i, a_j)} \geq n \quad \text{for any } S, \text{ any } n \geq 2.$$

Supposing the conjecture false, we will call any counter example a *good set* for n . If S is good for n , it has been shown that:

- (1) Not all the a_i are square free (Marica and Schönheim [2]).
- (2) a_1 is not a prime (Winterle [3]).
- (3) n is not a prime (Szemerédi [1]).
- (4) $n-1$ is not a prime (Vélez [4]).
- (5) If $p|a_i$ for some i , and p is prime, $p \leq n$ (Vélez [4]).

Vélez also considers in [4] the nature of sets with maximum ratio equal to n .

In this paper we shall show:

THEOREM 1. *If S is good for n , p is a prime, and $p|a_i$ for some i , then*

$$(6) \quad p \leq (n-1)/2.$$

An immediate corollary to this theorem is Vélez' result that $n-1$ is not a prime; it further enables us to show that $n-2$ and $n-3$ must be composite also.**THEOREM 2.** *If p is a prime, and S is good for n , where*

$$(7) \quad n = qp + t, \quad 1 \leq t \leq p,$$

$$(8) \quad p|a_i \quad \text{for some } i,$$

$$(9) \quad n \text{ is sufficiently large depending on } q,$$

then

$$(10) \quad p \leq (n-1)/3 \quad (\text{i.e. } q \geq 3).$$

If $(n-1)/4 < p \leq (n-1)/3$, so $q = 3$, then

$$(11) \quad S = \{6p\} \cup M$$

for some M , where $m \in M$ implies $m \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. If $q \geq 4$ and we define

$$(12) \quad Q = [1, 2, \dots, q], \text{ the l.c.m. of the first } q \text{ natural numbers}$$

and

$$(13) \quad \psi(q) = \sum_{r|Q} \frac{r^2 \varphi(Q/r)}{Q}$$

then either

$$(14) \quad \text{there are } < (2\psi+1)/2 \text{ multiples of } p \text{ in } S$$

or

$$(15) \quad \text{there are } > n - (2\psi+1)/2 \text{ multiples of } p \text{ in } S.$$

Further, if (14) holds, then

$$(16) \quad (a_i, Q) \geq 2 \quad \text{when } p | a_i.$$

THEOREM 3. If $n = p^a$ for p prime, $a \geq 2$, and S is good for n , then

$$(17) \quad S = (p^{a-1}K_{a-1}) \cup (p^{a-2}K_{a-2}) \cup \dots \cup (pK_1) \cup (K_0)$$

where the (not necessarily non-empty) sets K_i are such that

$$k \in K_i \Rightarrow k \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p},$$

$$k, l \in K_i \Rightarrow k \not\equiv l \pmod{p^a},$$

$$k \in K_i, l \in K_j, k \equiv l \pmod{p^a} \Rightarrow k = l.$$

As a corollary to Theorem 3, we can deduce that there are no good S for $n = p^2$, p any prime.

1. Preliminaries. Throughout, the letters $S, S^{-1}, K, K_1, K_2, \dots, L, M$ will denote sets of positive integers; all other letters will denote non-negative integers.

Let $s^* = \text{l.c.m.}[a_1, \dots, a_n]$, and then define

$$S^{-1} = \left\{ \frac{s^*}{a_n}, \dots, \frac{s^*}{a_1} \right\}.$$

LEMMA 1. The ratios of S^{-1} coincide with those of S , and so

$$S \text{ is good for } n \Leftrightarrow S^{-1} \text{ is good for } n.$$

Proof. This result is due to Winterle in [3].

We will assume throughout that

$$(18) \quad \text{h.c.f.}(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 1$$

which is obviously no restriction.

LEMMA 2. Suppose the conjecture is true for $n-1$, and that S is good for n . Then there are at least 2 multiples of $n-1$ in S .

Proof. Since S is good for n ,

$$\frac{a_i}{(a_i, a_j)} \leq n-1, \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq n$$

and equality gives $(n-1) | a_i$. Suppose there are no multiples of $n-1$ in S . Then

$$\frac{a_i}{(a_i, a_j)} \leq n-2, \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq n$$

and so $S \setminus \{a_i\}$ is good for $n-1$, for any $a_i \in S$, a contradiction.

Now suppose there is just one multiple of $n-1$ in S , a_r say. Then

$$\frac{a_r}{(a_r, a_i)} \leq n-1, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n$$

and

$$\frac{a_i}{(a_i, a_j)} \leq n-2, \quad i \neq r, \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq n.$$

Hence $S \setminus \{a_r\}$ is good for $n-1$, a contradiction.

LEMMA 3. Let $K = \{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_a\}$, where the k_i are in ascending order. Suppose there is a t such that

$$(k_i, t) = 1, \quad 1 \leq i \leq a.$$

Then if $k^* = \text{l.c.m.}[k_1, \dots, k_a]$, we have

$$(19) \quad \frac{k^*}{k_1} > t \left(\frac{\alpha}{\varphi(t)} - 1 \right).$$

Proof. It is easy to see that $(k^*, t) = 1$. Also

$$k_i = \frac{k^*}{q_i} \quad \text{for some } q_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, a.$$

We have $1 \leq q_a < q_{a-1} < \dots < q_1$ and

$$(q_i, t) = 1, \quad 1 \leq i \leq a.$$

Suppose $\alpha = \lambda\varphi(t) + \mu$, $1 \leq \mu \leq \varphi(t)$.

Now in any block of t consecutive integers, there can be at most $\varphi(t)$ q 's. Hence

$$q_1 \geq \lambda t + \mu > \lambda t \geq \left(\frac{a}{\varphi(t)} - 1\right)t.$$

Note that $t = 1$ always satisfies the requirements of the lemma, whence

$$(20) \quad \frac{k^*}{k_1} = q_1 > a - 1 \Rightarrow \frac{k^*}{k_1} \geq a.$$

2. Proof of Theorem 1. Suppose S is good for n , and

$$S = (pK) \cup L, \quad \text{where } l \in L \Rightarrow l \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

We suppose $K \neq \emptyset$, whence (18) gives $L \neq \emptyset$. We also suppose (6) does not hold, so $\left[\frac{n-1}{p}\right] = 1$ by (3) and (5). Let $k \in K$, $l \in L$; then

$$\frac{kp}{(kp, l)} = \frac{k}{(k, l)} p \leq n-1 < 2p \Rightarrow \frac{k}{(k, l)} < 2 \Rightarrow k|l \quad \forall k \in K, \forall l \in L.$$

So if k^* is the l.c.m. of the elements of K , we have

$$S = (pK) \cup (k^*M) \quad \text{for some } M.$$

Let $|K| = c$; then $|M| = |L| = n - c$.

Let $m_1 = \max\{m \in M\}$, so $m_1 \geq n - c$.

Let $k_0 = \min\{k \in K\}$; then $k^* \geq ck_0$ by (20).

Now we know that

$$\frac{m_1 k^*}{(m_1 k^*, k_0 p)} \leq n-1$$

and so

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{m_1 k^*}{k_0} &\leq n-1 \\ \Rightarrow (n-c)c &\leq n-1 \\ \Rightarrow c^2 - nc + n-1 &\geq 0 \\ \Rightarrow c &\leq 1 \text{ or } c \geq n-1. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $c = 1$ or $c = n-1$. By Lemma 1, if S is good for n with $c = n-1$, then S^{-1} is good for n with $c = 1$, so it suffices to show that $c = 1$ is impossible. Hence suppose $c = 1$; i.e. $K = \{k_0\}$, $k^* = k_0$. Then $k_0|a_i$ for each i , so from (18) $k_0 = 1$ and $pK = \{p\}$. Also $m_1 \geq n$ since $|M| = n-1$,

$p \leq n-1$ and we cannot have $p \in M$. Then

$$\frac{m_1}{(m_1, p)} = m_1 \geq n$$

a contradiction, so $c = 1$ is impossible.

COROLLARY 1. *The conjecture is true for $n = p+1$, p any prime.*

Proof. We know from [1] that it is true for p , so by Lemma 2, any S that is good for $p+1$ must have at least 2 multiples of p in it, whence $n = p+1$ contradicts (6).

COROLLARY 2. *The conjecture is true for $n = p+2$, p any prime.*

Proof. Suppose S is good for $p+2$. By Theorem 1 there are no multiples of p in S (provided $n-2 > (n-1)/2$, which is implied by $p \geq 3$) so we must have 3 distinct elements $a_i, a_j, a_k \in S$ with $i > j > k$ and $a_i \equiv a_j \pmod{p}$; $a_i = a_j + rp$, say, for some $r > 0$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{a_i}{(a_i, a_j)} &= \frac{a_j + rp}{(a_j + rp, a_j)} = \frac{a_j}{(r, a_j)} + \frac{r}{(r, a_j)} p \\ &\leq p+1 \quad \text{as } S \text{ is good for } p+2. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $r = a_j$, so $a_i = a_j(p+1)$. Then

$$\frac{a_i}{(a_i, a_k)} \geq \frac{a_i}{a_k} = \frac{a_j}{a_k}(p+1) > p+1$$

which provides a contradiction.

COROLLARY 3. *The conjecture is true for $n = p+3$, p any prime.*

Proof. Suppose S is good for $n = p+3$. We may take $n \geq 6$, so $n-3 > (n-1)/2$, and hence there are no multiples of p in S . We consider possible congruent pairs (mod p) in S . Suppose

$$\begin{aligned} a_i &\equiv a_j \pmod{p}, \\ a_i &= a_j + rp, \quad r > 0, \quad \text{say.} \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\frac{a_i}{(a_i, a_j)} = \frac{a_j}{(a_j, r)} + \frac{r}{(a_j, r)} p \leq p+2.$$

So $r|a_j$, and either $a_j = r$ or $a_j = 2r$. Thus either

$$(21) \quad a_i = a_j(p+1) \quad \text{or} \quad a_i = \frac{a_j}{2}(p+2).$$

We see now that there cannot be as many as 3 elements of S in one residue class, for if there were, then by (21) they would be of the form

$$a_r, \frac{a_r}{2}(p+2), a_r(p+1) \quad \text{for some } a_r \in S.$$

But then, writing $a_j = \frac{a_r}{2}(p+2)$ and $a_i = a_r(p+1)$, (21) would not be satisfied.

Case A. Suppose we have $a_i, a_j, a_k, a_l \in S$, $j > l$ and

$$a_i = a_j(p+1), \quad a_k = a_l(p+1).$$

Then

$$\frac{a_i}{(a_i, a_l)} \geq \frac{a_i}{a_l} = \frac{a_j}{a_l}(p+1) > p+1.$$

Hence

$$\frac{a_i}{(a_i, a_l)} = p+2 \quad \text{as } S \text{ is good for } p+3.$$

Thus

$$a_j = \frac{p+2}{p+1} a_l.$$

So there are at most 2 congruent pairs of this type, and if there were 2 such, we would have

$$a_l, \frac{p+2}{p+1} a_l, (p+1)a_l, (p+2)a_l \in S.$$

But then

$$\frac{(p+1)a_l}{\left((p+1)a_l, \left(\frac{p+2}{p+1}\right)a_l\right)} = \frac{(p+1)^2}{((p+1)^2, p+2)} = (p+1)^2 > p+2.$$

Hence we see that there is at most one pair of the first type at (21).

Case B. Suppose we have $a_s, a_t, a_u, a_v \in S$, $t > v$ and

$$a_s = \frac{a_t}{2}(p+2), \quad a_u = \frac{a_v}{2}(p+2).$$

Let $d = (a_s, a_v)$, and so

$$\frac{a_s}{(a_s, a_v)} = \frac{a_t}{2d}(p+2) \leq p+2 \quad \text{as } S \text{ is good for } p+3.$$

Thus

$$d \geq \frac{a_t}{2} > \frac{a_v}{2} \Rightarrow d = a_v, \quad \text{since } d | a_v.$$

Hence

$$(22) \quad 2a_v \geq a_t.$$

Now suppose $2^x || a_v$; i.e. $a_v = 2^x a'_v$, with a'_v odd. Then $2^{x+1} | a_t$ since $a_v | \frac{a_t}{2}(p+2)$, and $p+2$ is odd. This gives

$$(23) \quad d' = \left(\frac{a_v}{2}(p+2), a_t\right) \leq \frac{a_t}{4}.$$

Now

$$\frac{a_u}{(a_u, a_t)} = \frac{a_u}{d'} = \frac{a_v}{2d'}(p+2) \leq p+2 \quad \text{as } S \text{ is good for } p+3.$$

Thus $d' \geq a_v/2$, and so by (23)

$$(24) \quad \frac{a_v}{2} \leq \frac{a_t}{4}.$$

(24) and (22) now give

$$a_t = 2a_v,$$

so we see that there are at most 2 congruent pairs of this type, and if there were 2 such, we would have

$$a_v, 2a_v, \frac{a_v}{2}(p+2), a_v(p+2) \in S.$$

Now there are $p+3$ numbers in S , which occupy $p-1$ residue classes. Thus either one residue class contains at least 3 elements of S , or at least 4 residue classes contain 2 or more elements of S . The argument after (21) rules out the first possibility, and the conclusions of cases A and B do not allow the second. Hence we cannot find an S that is good for $n = p+3$.

Unfortunately it does not seem immediately possible to extend the above ideas to $n = p+h$, $h \geq 4$. Obviously, if this could be done for general $h < p$, Bertrand's postulate would then prove the conjecture.

3. Proof of Theorem 2. We suppose that S is good for $n = qp+t$, $1 \leq t \leq p$, and

$$S = (pK) \cup L.$$



where $K \neq \emptyset$, $L \neq \emptyset$ and $l \in L \Rightarrow l \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Q and $\psi(q)$ are as at (12) and (13), and we define

$$n_1(q) = q^2 + q + 1, \quad \text{so} \quad n \geq n_1(q) \Rightarrow p > q,$$

$$n_2(q) = 2(\psi(q))^2 + 2Q\psi(q) + Q + 1,$$

$n_3(q)$ is such that

$$n \geq n_3(q) \Rightarrow \pi(n) - \pi\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right) + q \geq \frac{2\psi(q)+1}{2}.$$

Then by "sufficiently large depending on q " we shall mean

$$n \geq \max(n_1(q), n_2(q), n_3(q)).$$

Suppose $k \in K$ and $l \in L$; then

$$\frac{kp}{(kp, l)} \leq n-1$$

so

$$(25) \quad \frac{k}{(k, l)} p \leq qp \Rightarrow \frac{k}{(k, l)} \leq q.$$

Let $(k, Q) = y$ and $(k, l) = z$; then

$$\frac{k}{z} \leq q \quad \text{by (25),}$$

so

$$(26) \quad \frac{k}{z} \mid Q = \frac{k}{z} \mid y \Rightarrow \frac{k}{y} \mid z = \frac{k}{y} \mid l.$$

Now for each $r \mid Q$ we define the (possibly empty) set K_r by

$$K_r = \left\{ \frac{k}{r} : k \in K, (k, Q) = r \right\}.$$

Also, put

$$k_r^* = \begin{cases} \text{l.c.m.} \left[\frac{k}{r} \in K_r \right] & \text{if } K_r \neq \emptyset, \\ 1 & \text{if } K_r = \emptyset \end{cases}$$

and

$$k^* = \text{l.c.m.} [k_1^*, \dots, k_Q^*].$$

Then (26) tells us that $k^* \mid l$ for each $l \in L$, and so we have

$$S = (pK) \cup (k^*M) \quad \text{for some } M.$$

Let $|K| = c$; then $|L| = |M| = n - c$;

Let $m_1 = \max(m \in M)$, so $m_1 \geq n - c$;

Let $k_r^{(0)} = \min(k \in K_r)$.

Now $k \in K_r$ implies $(k, Q/r) = 1$, and so by Lemma 3,

$$\frac{k^*}{k_r^{(0)}} \geq \frac{k_r^*}{k_r^{(0)}} > \frac{Q}{r} \left(\frac{|K_r|}{\varphi(Q/r)} - 1 \right).$$

We know that S is good for n , and so

$$\frac{m_1 k^*}{(m_1 k^*, r k_r^{(0)} p)} \leq n - 1 \quad (\text{when } K_r \neq \emptyset)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{m_1 \frac{k^*}{k_r^{(0)}}}{\left(m_1 \frac{k^*}{k_r^{(0)}}, r \right)} \leq n - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{m_1 k^*}{r k_r^{(0)}} \leq n - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{(n-c) \frac{Q}{r} \left(\frac{|K_r|}{\varphi(Q/r)} - 1 \right)}{r} < n - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow |K_r| < \varphi \left(\frac{Q}{r} \right) \left[\frac{(r^2 + Q)n - (r^2 + cQ)}{Q(n-c)} \right].$$

Now clearly

$$\sum_{r \mid Q} |K_r| = c,$$

hence

$$(27) \quad c < \sum_{r \mid Q} \varphi \left(\frac{Q}{r} \right) \left[\frac{(r^2 + Q)n - (r^2 + cQ)}{Q(n-c)} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow nc - c^2 < (n-c) \sum_{r \mid Q} \varphi \left(\frac{Q}{r} \right) + (n-1) \sum_{r \mid Q} \frac{r^2 \varphi(Q/r)}{Q}$$

$$\Rightarrow nc - c^2 < (n-c)Q + (n-1)\psi(q)$$

$$\Rightarrow c^2 - c(n+Q) + n(Q + \psi(q)) - \psi(q) > 0.$$

Note that $n \geq n_2(q)$ implies

$$(n+Q)^2 - 4(n(Q + \psi(q)) - \psi(q)) \geq (n - (Q + 2\psi(q) + 1))^2$$

and so $n \geq n_2(q)$ must imply

$$(28) \quad \begin{aligned} c < Q + \psi(q) + \frac{1}{2} < \frac{n}{2} \quad \text{or} \\ c > n - \left(\frac{2\psi(q) + 1}{2} \right) > \frac{n}{2} \end{aligned}$$

by locating the roots of the expression on the left-hand side of (27). Suppose

$$\frac{2\psi(q) + 1}{2} \leq c < Q + \frac{2\psi(q) + 1}{2},$$

then S^{-1} would contain $c' = n - c$ multiples of p , and c' could not satisfy either of the inequalities at (28). Hence we see

$$(29(i)) \quad c < \frac{2\psi(q) + 1}{2} \quad \text{or}$$

$$(29(ii)) \quad c > n - \frac{2\psi(q) + 1}{2}.$$

This proves (14) and (15).

Now $|M| = n - c$; also $m \in M$ implies $m \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, and, by Theorem 1, $m \in M$ implies $m \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p'}$ where p' is any prime greater than $(n-1)/2$. Hence we see that

$$n \geq n_3(q) \Rightarrow m_1 \geq n \quad \text{if} \quad c < (2\psi(q) + 1)/2.$$

Now suppose $K_r \neq \emptyset$, $k_r \in K_r$. Then

$$(30) \quad \begin{aligned} \frac{m_1 k^*}{(m_1 k^*, r k_r p)} \leq (n-1) &\Rightarrow \frac{n k^*}{r k_r} \leq n-1 \Rightarrow \frac{k^*}{k_r} \leq r-1 \\ &\Rightarrow |K_r| \leq r-1 \quad \text{by (20)}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $|K_1| = 0$, so $K_1 = \emptyset$, and (16) is proved. Note that $|K_r| \leq r-1$ gives

$$(31) \quad c \leq \sum_{n \in Q} (r-1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} c \leq \sigma(Q) - d(Q) & \text{if (29(i)) holds or} \\ c \geq n - (\sigma(Q) - d(Q)) & \text{if (29(ii)) holds} \end{cases}$$

by considering S^{-1} in the latter case.

To prove (10) we need to show $q = 2$ is impossible. If $q = 2$ then $Q = 2$, $\psi(2) = \frac{5}{2}$, so

$$n_1(2) = 7, \quad n_2(2) = \frac{51}{2}, \quad n_3(2) = 2.$$

Thus the result will be valid for all $n \geq 26$. We suppose that

$$S = (pK) \cup (k^*M)$$

is good for $n = 2p + t$ ($1 \leq t \leq p$), so

$$K = K_1 \cup (2K_2).$$

By (31), we see that, if $n \geq 26$, $|K| = 1$ or $n-1$; as in Theorem 1 it is sufficient to show $|K| = 1$ is impossible. In this case, by (16), we know $K_1 = \emptyset$, and so $K = \{2k\}$ for some number k , and $k^* = k$. By (18), we must have $k = 1$, and

$$S = \{2p\} \cup M.$$

Clearly $1 \notin S$, so $2 \notin S$ by (2). But then it is easy to see that

$$(S \setminus \{2p\}) \cup \{2\}$$

will form a good set for n , also contradicting (2). Thus we see $q = 2$ is impossible.

To prove (11) we need to show $q = 3$ is possible only in the stated case

$$S = \{6p\} \cup M.$$

We assume S is good for $n = 3p + t$ ($1 \leq t \leq p$), and

$$S = (pK) \cup (k^*M)$$

where $K = K_1 \cup (2K_2) \cup (3K_3) \cup (6K_6) \neq \emptyset$.

We take n large enough to be able to assume, by considering S^{-1} if necessary, that

$$|K| < \frac{2\psi(3) + 1}{2} = 9\frac{2}{3} \quad \text{and} \quad K_1 = \emptyset.$$

We consider possible elements of K , remembering, as at (30), that

$$|K_r| \leq r-1.$$

Case A: $K_2 \neq \emptyset$. By (30), we have $|K_2| = 1$ and so $K_2 = \{k_2\}$ for some k_2 . In fact, by the statement preceding (30), we see $k^* = k_2$. Hence $(k^*, 3) = 1$ by definition of K_2 .

Subcase A(i): $K_3 \neq \emptyset$. Now $k_3 \in K_3 \Rightarrow \left(k_3, \frac{6}{3} \right) = 1$ so k_3 and consequently k_3^* are odd. By (30),

$$2 \geq \frac{k_3^*}{k_3} \geq \frac{k_3}{k_3}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{k_3^*}{k_3} = 1 \quad \text{since } k_3^* \text{ is odd,}$$

$$\Rightarrow K_3 = \{k_3\} \quad \text{where either } k_3 = k_2 \text{ or } 2k_3 = k_2.$$

Suppose $K_6 = \emptyset$. If $k_2 = k_3$, then $k_2 | a_i$ for each i , and so $k_2 = 1$. Thus $2p, 3p \in S$, and so $(S \setminus \{2p\}) \cup \{2\}$ would also be good for n , contradicting (2).

If $k_2 = 2k_3$, then similarly, $k_3 = 1$ and so $3p, 4p \in S$. Now $k^* = 2$ and so $a_i \in k^*M$ implies $2 | a_i$. Also, $a_i \geq n$ implies $3 | a_i$, since $a_i / (a_i, 3p) \leq n - 1$. Together we see this gives $a_n > 3n$, and so $a_n / (a_n, 3p) > n$, providing a contradiction.

Thus suppose $K_6 \neq \emptyset$. We must have a $k_6 \in K_6$ such that

(i) If $k_3 = k_2$, then $k_2 \nmid 6k_6$;

(ii) If $2k_3 = k_2$, then $k_3 \nmid 6k_6$;

or the argument above would apply again, since then in each case $k_3 = 1$, and in (i), $k_6 | k_2$ implies $k_6 = 1$. Now we know that $k^*/k_6 = k_2/k_6 \leq 5$; also k_3 is odd and $(k_2, 3) = 1$, so in each case we must have $k_2/5 \in K_6$. Then:

if $k_3 = k_2$: $k_2/5 = 1$ by (18), and so $10p, 15p, 6p \in S$ and $k^* = 5$. Since $6p \in S$, and $3p < n \leq 4p$, we must have $(m, 6) \geq 2$ for each $m \in M$. Now $|K| \leq 4$, so $|M| \geq n - 4$ and hence $M_1 = \max\{m \in M\}$ must be at least $6(n-7)/4$ (by similar reasoning to Lemma 3). Then

$$\frac{5m_1}{(5m_1, 6p)} \geq \frac{5m_1}{6} > n - 1 \quad \text{whenever } n \geq 32,$$

which is true by (9).

Thus we have $2k_3 = k_2$: Then $k_2/10 = 1$ by (18), and $20p, 15p$ and $12p \in S$. We get a similar contradiction to the above by considering $12p$.

Thus we must have $K_3 = \emptyset$.

Subcase A(ii): $K_3 = \emptyset$, $K_6 \neq \emptyset$. Now necessarily k_2 is odd, or we have $2 | a_i$ for each i . Thus the only possible elements of K_6 are k_2 or $k_2/5$.

If $k_2/5 \notin K_6$ then $k_2 = 1$ by (18), $S = \{2p, 6p\} \cup M$ and $(S \setminus \{2p\}) \cup \{2\}$ is good for n , contradicting (2).

Hence $k_2/5 \in K_6$, and so $k_2 = 5$ by (18). But then $6p \in S$ and $k^* = 5$, giving a contradiction as above. Thus $K_6 = \emptyset$.

Subcase A(iii): $k_3 = k_6 = \emptyset$. Then $k_2 = 1$ by (18), so $S = \{2p\} \cup M$ contradicting (2) as above.

Thus $K_2 = \emptyset$.

Case B: $K_3 \neq \emptyset$. By (30),

$$2 \geq \frac{k^*}{k_3} \geq \frac{k_3^*}{k_3} \quad \text{for all } k_3 \in K_3.$$

Hence $K_3 = \{k_3\}$ and either $k^* = k_3$ or $k^* = 2k_3$ (since $(k_3, 2) = 1$).

Subcase B(i): $k_3 \neq \emptyset$. Now $3 | 3$ and $3 | 6$, so necessarily $3 \nmid k^*$ by (18); also k_3 is odd.

If $k_3 = k^*$: Possible elements of K_6 are k_3 or $k_3/5$, and we obtain a contradiction as in A(ii) above.

If $2k_3 = k^*$: Possible elements of K_6 are $2k_3$, $2k_3/2$ or $2k_3/5$. If $2k_3/5 \notin K_6$, then $k_3 = 1$, $k^* = 2$ and $3p \in S$, giving a contradiction as in A(i). If $2k_3/5 \in K_6$, then $k_3 = 5$ by (18). Then $k^* = 5$ and $12p \in S$, giving a contradiction as in A(i).

Thus $K_6 = \emptyset$.

Subcase B(ii): $K_6 = \emptyset$, $K_3 = \{k_3\}$. Then $k^* = k_3$ so $k_3 = 1$, which would mean that $(S \setminus \{3p\}) \cup \{3\}$ would be good for n , contradicting (2).

Hence we must have:

Case C: $K_1 = K_2 = K_3 = \emptyset$. We must have $(k^*, 6) = 1$ by (18), so possible elements of K_6 are k^* , $k^*/5$. If $k^*/5 \in K_6$, then $k^* = 5$ and $6p \in S$, providing a contradiction as before. Thus we must have $K_6 = \{k^*\}$, $k^* = 1$, and so

$$S = \{6p\} \cup M, \quad m \in M \Rightarrow m \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

[Note that $n_1(3) = 13$, $n_2(3) = 285 \frac{1}{18}$ and $n_3(3)$ is such that $n \geq n_3(3)$

implies $\pi(n) - \pi\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right) \geq 7$. Evaluation of $n_3(3)$ would give the range of validity of (11).]

4. Proof of Theorem 3. We suppose S is good for $n = p^a$, $a \geq 2$. Suppose there is an a_i in S with $a_i \equiv 0 \pmod{p^a}$; $a_i = Ip^a$ say. By (18) there is an a_j such that $a_j \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, so

$$\frac{a_i}{(a_i, a_j)} = \frac{I}{(I, a_j)} p^a \geq p^a.$$

Hence there cannot be such an a_i , and so

$$S = (p^{a-1}K_{a-1}) \cup (p^{a-2}K_{a-2}) \cup \dots \cup (pK_1) \cup (K_0)$$

for some (possibly empty) sets K_i , where $k \in K_i \Rightarrow k \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, $i = 0, 1, \dots, a-1$.

Suppose $k \in K_i$, $l \in K_i$ and $k \equiv l \pmod{p^a}$, so

$$k = l + rp^a \quad \text{with } r > 0, \text{ say.}$$

Then

$$\frac{p^i k}{(p^i k, p^i l)} = \frac{k}{(k, l)} = \frac{l}{(r, l)} + \frac{r}{(r, l)} p^a > p^a.$$

Thus we cannot have $k \equiv l \pmod{p^a}$.

Suppose $k \in K_i$, $l \in K_j$, $i \neq j$ and $k \equiv l \pmod{p^n}$, so

$$k = l + rp^n \quad \text{with} \quad r \geq 0, \text{ say.}$$

Then

$$\frac{p^i k}{(p^i k, p^j l)} \geq \frac{k}{(k, l)}.$$

If $r \neq 0$, then as above this is greater than p^n . Hence we must have $r = 0$, so $k = l$.

COROLLARY. *The conjecture is true for $n = p^2$, p any prime.*

Proof. Suppose S is good for p^2 , so

$$S = pK_1 \cup K_0.$$

Within K_1 and K_0 , all numbers are distinct $\pmod{p^2}$, and are not divisible by p . Thus there are $p^2 - p$ residue classes in which to place p^2 numbers. There are at most 2 in any one class, and so there must be at least p congruent pairs, lying in different sets. By Theorem 3, they are in fact equal, so we can find

$$L = \{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_p\} \quad \text{with} \quad \lambda_i \in K_0, \lambda_i \in K_1.$$

Take any $\lambda_i \in L$, $\lambda_j \in L$. Then $p\lambda_i \in S$, $\lambda_j \in S$ so

$$\frac{p\lambda_i}{(p\lambda_i, \lambda_j)} < p^2 \Rightarrow \frac{\lambda_i}{(\lambda_i, \lambda_j)} < p.$$

Similarly $\frac{\lambda_j}{(\lambda_i, \lambda_j)} < p$, as $p\lambda_j \in S$, $\lambda_i \in S$; and so L is good for p , contradicting (3).

5. Remark. Suppose n is such that there exists a good S for n . We know that n is not of the form p , $p+1$, $p+2$, $p+3$ or p^2 for any prime p : The first few such n are 27, 28, 35, 36, 51, 52, ... Using Lemma 2 and (10), we see that if $n \geq 26$ and $n = 2p+1$, and the conjecture has been proven true for $n = 2p$, then we can deduce it true for n : Thus the conjecture is true for $n = 27 = 2 \cdot 13 + 1$ and $n = 35 = 2 \cdot 17 + 1$, as for each of these, $n-1$ is of the form $p'+3$ for a prime p' . Similarly, using (11) and sufficiently high n , we can deal with $n = 3p+1$ if the result is known for $n-1$. So, in general, the conjecture is true for:

$$(a) \quad n = 2p+1 = p'+4, \quad p, p' \text{ prime,}$$

and

$$(b) \quad n = 3p+1 = (2p'+1)+1 = (p''+4)+1, \quad p, p', p'' \text{ prime,}$$

and n sufficiently large.

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