# ON THE MINIMAL ELEMENTS FOR THE SEQUENCE OF ALL POWERS IN THE LEMOINE-KÁTAI ALGORITHM 

JUKKA PIHKO


#### Abstract

It is proved, with the help of a computer, that for $m=20$ the first $m$ minimal elements for the sequence of all powers in an integer-representing algorithm are given by $y_{i}=i, i=1,2,3, y_{l+1}=\left(y_{i}^{2}+6 y_{i}+1\right) / 4, i=$ $3, \ldots, m-1$. This extends an earlier result of the author (for $m=10$ ).


## 1. Introduction

Let $1=a_{1}<a_{2}<\cdots$ be an infinite strictly increasing sequence of positive integers. Let $n$ be a positive integer. We write

$$
\begin{equation*}
n=a_{(1)}+a_{(2)}+\cdots+a_{(s)} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a_{(1)}$ is the greatest element of the sequence $\leq n, a_{(2)}$ is the greatest element $\leq n-a_{(1)}$, and, generally, $a_{(i)}$ is the greatest element $\leq n-a_{(1)}-$ $a_{(2)}-\cdots-a_{(i-1)}$. This algorithm for additive representation of positive integers was introduced in 1969 by Kátai [2, 3, 4]. Lemoine had earlier considered the special cases $a_{i}=i^{k}, k \geq 2$ [5, 6], and $a_{i}=i(i+1) / 2$ [7]. (See [10, 11, 12, and 13] for further information and note also [1].) The above algorithm is, in turn, a special case of a more general algorithm introduced by Nathanson [9] in 1975.

The following basic definitions and results are taken from [8 and 10]. We denote here the set of positive integers by $\mathbf{N}$.

Let $1=a_{1}<a_{2}<\cdots$ be an infinite strictly increasing sequence of positive integers with the first element equal to 1 . We call it an $A$-sequence and denote by $A$ the sequence itself or sometimes the set consisting of the elements of the sequence. We denote the number $s$ of terms in (1) by $h(n)$. If the set $\{n \in \mathbf{N} \mid h(n)=m\}$ is nonempty for some $m \in \mathbf{N}$, we say that $y_{m}$ exists and define $y_{m}$ to be the smallest element of this set.

Theorem 1 (Lord). Let $y_{k}$ be given $(k \in \mathbf{N})$. Then $y_{k+1}$ exists if and only if there exists a number $n \in \mathbf{N}$ such that $a_{n+1}-a_{n}-1 \geq y_{k}$. Furthermore, if $y_{k+1}$ exists, then $y_{k+1}=y_{k}+a_{m}$, where $m$ is the smallest number in the set $\left\{n \in \mathbf{N} \mid a_{n+1}-a_{n}-1 \geq y_{k}\right\}$.
Proof. See [8; 10, p. 9].
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If $y_{m}$ exists for every $m \in \mathbf{N}$, we say that the $Y$-sequence exists and we denote the sequence $1=y_{1}<y_{2}<\cdots$ by $Y$. The elements $y_{m}$ are also called minimal elements.

Corollary 1. The $Y$-sequence exists if and only if the set $\left\{a_{n+1}-a_{n} \mid n \in \mathbf{N}\right\}$ is not bounded.

If the $A$-sequence is well behaved, then, using Theorem 1 , it may be possible to determine all the elements of the $Y$-sequence (see [10] for many examples). In particular, we have the following result (see [10, p. 20]):
Theorem 2 (Lemoine). Let $a_{i}=i^{2}, i=1,2, \ldots$. The $Y$-sequence is given $b y$

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{1}=1, \quad y_{2}=2, \quad y_{3}=3, \quad y_{i+1}=\frac{y_{i}^{2}+6 y_{i}+1}{4}, \quad i \geq 3 . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consider now the $A$-sequence of all powers, that is, the sequence formed from all integers $s^{k}$, where $s, k \in \mathbf{N}$ and $k \geq 2$. This sequence is not very well behaved, starting as $A: 1,4,8,9,16,25,27,32,36,49,64,81,100,121$, $125,128,144,169,196, \ldots$ Using Corollary 1 , we proved in [10, p. 49] that the $Y$-sequence exists for the $A$-sequence of all powers. Moreover, we established (with the help of a pocket calculator and somewhat to our surprise) the following result:
Theorem 3. Let $m=10$. The first $m$ elements of the $Y$-sequence for the $A$ sequence of all powers are given by

$$
y_{1}=1, \quad y_{2}=2, \quad y_{3}=3, \quad y_{i+1}=\frac{y_{i}^{2}+6 y_{i}+1}{4}, \quad i=3, \ldots, m-1 .
$$

Using the computer, we have now extended Theorem 3 to
Theorem 4. Theorem 3 is true with $m=20$.
Our purpose in this paper is to show how Theorem 4 can be established. In $\S 2$ we explain the method, and in $\S 3$ we illustrate the method by reestablishing Theorem 3. (No numerical details were given in [10].) Finally, in §4, we indicate what kind of calculations are used in the extension of Theorem 3 to Theorem 4. We remark at this point that $y_{20}$ is a number with 26681 digits.

## 2. The method

Let $A: 1=a_{1}<a_{2}<\cdots$ be the $A$-sequence of all powers and let $Y$ : $1=y_{1}<y_{2}<\cdots$ be its $Y$-sequence. Let $Y^{*}: 1=y_{1}^{*}<y_{2}^{*}<\cdots$ be the $Y$-sequence for the $A$-sequence of squares (see Theorem 2). We use Theorem 1 in the following
Definition 1. Let $k_{1}, k_{2}, \ldots$ be the sequence of positive integers defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{i+1}^{*}=y_{i}^{*}+k_{i}^{2}, \quad i=1,2, \ldots \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 5. We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
k_{1}=k_{2}=1, \quad k_{3}=2, \quad k_{i+1}=\frac{k_{i}^{2}}{2}+k_{i}, \quad i \geq 3 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. This follows immediately from (3) and (2).
Definition 2. We let $C(n)=\left\{i \in \mathbf{N} \mid k_{n}^{2}<a_{i}<\left(k_{n}+1\right)^{2}\right\}$.
The following result forms the basis of our method:

Theorem 6. Suppose that we have, for some $n \in \mathbf{N}, n>3, y_{n}=y_{n}^{*}$. Then $y_{n+1}=y_{n+1}^{*}$ if and only if $C(n)=\varnothing$.
Remark. The "if" part of Theorem 6 is from [10, p. 52] (note the slightly different notation). The "only if" part was recently established by Ernst S. Selmer [15] and is published here with his kind permission. The following proof of the "only if" part is actually a somewhat shortened version by the present author of Selmer's original proof.

Proof of Theorem 6. Let $B(n)=\left\{i \in \mathbf{N} \mid k_{n}^{2}<a_{i} \leq y_{n+1}^{*}\right\}$. We have (see [10, p. 51])

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{n+1}=y_{n+1}^{*} \quad \text { if and only if } \quad B(n)=\varnothing \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows easily from (2) and (3) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{n+1}^{*}=\left(k_{n}+1\right)^{2}-2 \text { for } n \geq 3 \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, $B(n) \subset C(n)$ and the "if" part follows from (5).
To prove the "only if" part, we note that using (5) and (6), we only have to prove that, if $n>3$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(k_{n}+1\right)^{2}-1 \notin A \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

But if $\left(k_{n}+1\right)^{2}-1 \in A$, then $\left(k_{n}+1\right)^{2}-1=s^{p}$, where $s \in \mathbf{N}$ and $p$ is an odd prime. Now we use the fact (see [14, p. 197 and p. 206]) that if the Diophantine equation

$$
x^{2}=y^{p}+1
$$

has a solution in natural numbers $x$ and $y$, then $p=3, x=3$, and $y=2$. It follows that $k_{n}=2$ and $n=3$, which contradicts our assumption $n>3$. Therefore, (7) holds, and the proof is completed.

## 3. Proof of Theorem 3

It is easy to see, by means of Theorem 1, that

$$
\begin{gathered}
y_{i}=y_{i}^{*}=i \quad \text { for } i=1,2,3 \\
y_{4}=y_{4}^{*}=7, \quad y_{5}=y_{5}^{*}=23, \quad y_{6}=y_{6}^{*}=167
\end{gathered}
$$

We may therefore start using Theorem 6 with $n=6$. Using Theorem 6, we try to show that between certain consecutive squares there are no elements from the sequence $A$, that is, no higher powers. Obviously, it is enough to show that there are no powers with exponent $p$ for $p$ an odd prime. This we do by finding an integer $x \in \mathbf{N}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{p}<k_{n}^{2} \quad \text { and } \quad(x+1)^{p}>\left(k_{n}+1\right)^{2} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

With $n$ fixed, we use the following notation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
a=k_{n}^{2}-x^{p}, \quad b=(x+1)^{p}-\left(k_{n}+1\right)^{2} . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

For example, with $n=6$, we have, from (4), $k_{6}=84$, and if $p=3$, then $x=19$ satisfies (8), so that $a=84^{2}-19^{3}=197$ and $b=20^{3}-85^{2}=775$.

To prove Theorem 3, we show that $C(n)=\varnothing$ for $n=6,7,8$, and 9. This will be seen from Tables $1,2,3$, and 4 , respectively. There are three things to note in these tables:
$1^{\circ}$. If the same $x$ corresponds to two different primes $p_{1}$ and $p_{2}, p_{1}<p_{2}$, then the same $x$ also corresponds to any prime $p, p_{1}<p<p_{2}$. Therefore, any such prime may be suppressed from the table. For example, in Table 2, $p=19$ is suppressed.
$2^{\circ}$. If, for some prime $p$, we have $x=1$, then we can clearly stop.
$3^{\circ}$. The only interesting thing about the numbers $a$ and $b$ from (9) in this connection is that they are positive. Therefore (except for Table 1), only an approximation is given. (However, their exact values were calculated by the computer to check that they are indeed positive.)

Table 1. Proving that $C(6)=\varnothing$

| $p$ | $x$ | $a$ | $b$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | 19 | 197 | 775 |
| 5 | 5 | 3931 | 551 |
| 7 | 3 | 4869 | 9159 |
| 11 | 2 | 5008 | 169922 |
| 13 | 1 | 7055 | 967 |

Table 2. Proving that $C(7)=\varnothing$

| $p$ | $x$ | $a$ | $b$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | 235 | 68669 | 90487 |
| 5 | 26 | $1.16517 \cdot 10^{6}$ | $1.29514 \cdot 10^{6}$ |
| 7 | 10 | $3.04654 \cdot 10^{6}$ | $6.43340 \cdot 10^{6}$ |
| 11 | 4 | $8.85224 \cdot 10^{6}$ | $3.57744 \cdot 10^{7}$ |
| 13 | 3 | $1.14522 \cdot 10^{7}$ | $5.40551 \cdot 10^{7}$ |
| 17 | 2 | $1.29155 \cdot 10^{7}$ | $1.16086 \cdot 10^{8}$ |
| 23 | 2 | $4.65794 \cdot 10^{6}$ | $9.41301 \cdot 10^{10}$ |
| 29 | 1 | $1.30465 \cdot 10^{7}$ | $5.23817 \cdot 10^{8}$ |

Table 3. Proving that $C(8)=\varnothing$

| $p$ | $x$ | $a$ | $b$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | 34925 | $2.49546 \cdot 10^{8}$ | $3.39677 \cdot 10^{9}$ |
| 5 | 531 | $3.84650 \cdot 10^{11}$ | $1.43472 \cdot 10^{10}$ |
| 7 | 88 | $1.73266 \cdot 10^{12}$ | $1.63111 \cdot 10^{12}$ |
| 11 | 17 | $8.32832 \cdot 10^{12}$ | $2.16682 \cdot 10^{13}$ |
| 13 | 11 | $8.07750 \cdot 10^{12}$ | $6.43930 \cdot 10^{13}$ |
| 17 | 6 | $2.56736 \cdot 10^{13}$ | $1.90030 \cdot 10^{14}$ |
| 19 | 5 | $2.35267 \cdot 10^{13}$ | $5.66760 \cdot 10^{14}$ |
| 23 | 3 | $4.25061 \cdot 10^{13}$ | $2.77685 \cdot 10^{13}$ |
| 29 | 2 | $4.25997 \cdot 10^{13}$ | $2.60301 \cdot 10^{13}$ |
| 43 | 2 | $3.38041 \cdot 10^{13}$ | $3.28257 \cdot 10^{20}$ |
| 47 | 1 | $4.26002 \cdot 10^{13}$ | $9.81373 \cdot 10^{13}$ |

Table 4. Proving that $C(9)=\varnothing$

| $p$ | $x$ | $a$ | $b$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | 768401051 | $1.06232 \cdot 10^{18}$ | $7.08959 \cdot 10^{17}$ |
| 5 | 214463 | $2.05557 \cdot 10^{21}$ | $8.52194 \cdot 10^{21}$ |
| 7 | 6428 | $2.43108 \cdot 10^{23}$ | $2.50925 \cdot 10^{23}$ |
| 11 | 265 | $1.10521 \cdot 10^{24}$ | $1.80400 \cdot 10^{25}$ |
| 13 | 112 | $1.73455 \cdot 10^{25}$ | $3.61063 \cdot 10^{25}$ |
| 17 | 36 | $1.67183 \cdot 10^{26}$ | $2.79309 \cdot 10^{24}$ |
| 19 | 25 | $8.98970 \cdot 10^{25}$ | $3.12772 \cdot 10^{26}$ |
| 23 | 14 | $2.24109 \cdot 10^{26}$ | $6.68579 \cdot 10^{26}$ |
| 29 | 8 | $2.98952 \cdot 10^{26}$ | $4.25643 \cdot 10^{27}$ |
| 31 | 7 | $2.95919 \cdot 10^{26}$ | $9.44983 \cdot 10^{27}$ |
| 37 | 5 | $3.80935 \cdot 10^{26}$ | $6.14329 \cdot 10^{28}$ |
| 41 | 4 | $4.48859 \cdot 10^{26}$ | $4.50210 \cdot 10^{28}$ |
| 43 | 4 | $3.76324 \cdot 10^{26}$ | $1.13641 \cdot 10^{30}$ |
| 47 | 3 | $4.53668 \cdot 10^{26}$ | $1.93533 \cdot 10^{28}$ |
| 53 | 3 | $4.34312 \cdot 10^{26}$ | $8.11292 \cdot 10^{31}$ |
| 59 | 2 | $4.53695 \cdot 10^{26}$ | $1.36767 \cdot 10^{28}$ |
| 83 | 2 | $4.44023 \cdot 10^{26}$ | $3.99084 \cdot 10^{39}$ |
| 89 | 1 | $4.53695 \cdot 10^{26}$ | $1.65275 \cdot 10^{26}$ |

## 4. On the proof of Theorem 4

The proof of Theorem 4, that is, the proof that $C(n)=\varnothing$ for $n=10, \ldots, 19$, is too long to be published in its entirety. To give some idea of the nature of calculations, we show, in Table 5, the beginning and the end of the case $C(19)=\varnothing$. To save space, only approximations for the numbers $x$ are given in the first part of Table 5 . Those who look at Table 5 might like to know that the last prime $p$ there, 88643 , is the 8585 th prime number.

Table 5. Beginning and end of the proof that $C(19)=\varnothing$

| $p$ | $x$ | $a$ | $b$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | $3.46421 \cdot 10^{8893}$ | $3.42990 \cdot 10^{17787}$ | $1.70322 \cdot 10^{17786}$ |
| 5 | $1.32973 \cdot 10^{5336}$ | $6.91975 \cdot 10^{21344}$ | $8.71246 \cdot 10^{21344}$ |
| 7 | $3.28831 \cdot 10^{3811}$ | $8.66010 \cdot 10^{22869}$ | $1.89784 \cdot 10^{22868}$ |
| 11 | $3.24191 \cdot 10^{2425}$ | $8.14941 \cdot 10^{24255}$ | $5.95661 \cdot 10^{24255}$ |
| 13 | $2.26617 \cdot 10^{2052}$ | $1.57522 \cdot 10^{24629}$ | $8.09640 \cdot 10^{24628}$ |
| $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ |
| $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ |
| $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\cdots$ | $\ldots$ |
| 44351 | 3 | $4.15732 \cdot 10^{26680}$ | $9.17646 \cdot 10^{26701}$ |
| 55903 | 3 | $4.15732 \cdot 10^{26680}$ | $9.11371 \cdot 10^{33656}$ |
| 55921 | 2 | $4.15732 \cdot 10^{26680}$ | $8.36502 \cdot 10^{26680}$ |
| 88609 | 2 | $4.15731 \cdot 10^{26680}$ | $1.72687 \cdot 10^{42277}$ |
| 88643 | 1 | $4.15732 \cdot 10^{26680}$ | $1.59145 \cdot 10^{26684}$ |

To eliminate errors, we used different languages (MACSYMA, LISP, Reduce, and Mathematica, all capable of handling integers exactly) as well as different computers (Sun 4/390 and VAX 8650 of the Centre for Scientific Computing and DECstation 3100 of the Physics Computation Unit). Only Mathematica, however, was used in the last two steps $(C(18)=\varnothing$ and $C(19)=\varnothing)$.
Remark. Theorem 4 leaves open the question whether $y_{n}=y_{n}^{*}$ for all $n$ or whether there exists an integer $n$ such that $y_{n} \neq y_{n}^{*}$. We consider the latter case to be more likely.

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Department of Mathematics, University of Helsinki, Hallituskatu 15, SF-00100 Helsinki, Finland

E-mail address: Jukka.Pihko@csc.fi

