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On permutations containing no long arithmetic progressions

by

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Introduction. It has often been noted (e.g., see [1], [4], [5]) that it is possible to arrange n consecutive integers into a sequence $a_1a_2 \ldots a_n$ which contains no subsequence forming an increasing or decreasing 3-term arithmetic progression (A.P.). In other words, if $a_i = c$, $a_j = c + d$, $a_k = c + 2d$ for some positive d, then either $j = \max\{i, j, k\}$ or $j = \min\{i, j, k\}$. In this note we investigate several questions related to this idea. For example, we show that any doubly-infinite permutation $\ldots a_{-2}a_{-1}a_0a_1a_2\ldots$ of all the positive integers must contain an increasing or decreasing (i.e., monotone) 3-term A.P. as a subsequence. On the other hand, we construct a doubly-infinite permutation of the positive integers which contains no monotone 4-term A.P.

Permutations of finite intervals. Let us denote by M(n) the number of permutations $a_1 a_2 \ldots a_n$ of $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\} \equiv [1, n]$ containing no monotone 3-term A.P. To see that M(n) > 0 for all n simply note if $A = a_1 a_2 \ldots a_m$ has no monotone 3-term A.P. then

$$A' = (2A)(2A-1) \equiv (2a_1)(2a_2)\dots(2a_m)(2a_1-1)\dots(2a_m-1)$$

also has no monotone 3-term A.P. (since the first and last terms of a 3-term A.P. must have the same parity!) Of course, if A is a permutation of [1, m] then A' is a permutation of [1, 2m]. Finally, since no monotone A.P.'s are created by *deleting* entries of A, the assertion M(n) > 0 for all n follows immediately. In fact, much more is true.

FACT 1.

(1)
$$M(n) \geqslant 2^{n-1} \quad \text{for} \quad n \geqslant 1.$$

Proof. As we have already noted, if A has no monotone 3-term A.P., then neither do 2A and 2A-1. Thus, if A and A' are 3-term A.P..

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free permutations of [1, m], then (2A)(2A'-1) and (2A'-1)(2A) are 3-term A.P.-free permutations of [1, 2m]. Hence,

$$M(2n) \geqslant 2M(n)^2$$
.

Similarly, we have

$$M(2n+1) \geqslant 2M(n+1)M(n)$$
.

Since M(2) = 2, M(3) = 4 then (1) follows.

H. E. Thomas [6] has independently proved (1) by a somewhat more complicated construction.

In Table 1, we give a list of values of M(n) for $n \leq 20$.

n	M(n)	n	M(n)
1	1	11	2460
2	2	12	6128
3	4	13	12840
4	10	14	29380
5	20	15	74904
6	48	16	212728
7	104	17	368016
8	282	18	659296
9	496	19	1371056
10	1066	20	2937136

By using the fact that M(16) = 212728, it follows from the preceding argument that

$$M(2^t) > \frac{1}{2}(2.248)^{2^t}, \quad t \geqslant 4.$$

In the other direction, we have the following result: FACT 2.

(2)
$$M(2n-1) \leq (n!)^2$$
, $M(2n) \leq (n+1)(n!)^2$.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{M}(t)$ denote the set of permutations of [1,t] containing no monotone 3-term A.P.'s. Any permutation $X \in \mathcal{M}(n+1)$ generates a permutation $X' \in \mathcal{M}(n)$ by just deleting n+1. Consider an element $A = a_1 a_2 \dots a_n \in \mathcal{M}(n)$ to which n+1 can be added somewhere to form an $A' \in \mathcal{M}(n+1)$. If a_i satisfies

$$\left[\frac{n+3}{2}\right] \leqslant a_i \leqslant n,$$

then the three values

$$n+1, a_i, 2a_i-n-1$$

form an arithmetic progression which is not allowed to occur monotonely in A'. Hence, for each a_i satisfying (3), n+1 is prohibited from being placed just to the right (left) of a_i if $2a_i-n-1$ occurs to the left (right) of a_i . Also, if n+1 were prohibited from going to the right of a_i and to the left of a_{i+1} then A could not be extended to an element of $\mathcal{M}(n+1)$.

Hence, each of the $n - \left[\frac{n+3}{2}\right] + 1$ values a_i satisfying (3) rules out at least one of the n+1 possible locations in A for n+1, leaving at most $\left[\frac{n+3}{2}\right]$ places where n+1 might go. This implies

$$M(n+1) \leqslant \left[\frac{n+3}{2}\right]M(n)$$

which, in turn, implies (2).

Permutations of the positive integers. Let $A = a_1 a_2 a_3 \dots$ be a permutation of the set \mathbb{Z}^+ of positive integers. Denote by \mathscr{S}_k the set of those A which contain no monotone k-term A.P.

FACT 3.

$$\mathcal{S}_3 = \emptyset$$
.

Proof. Let $A = a_1 a_2 a_3 ...$ be a permutation of \mathbb{Z}^+ . If *i* denotes the least index for which $a_i > a_1$ then for some i > i,

$$a_j = 2a_i - a_1$$

and so we always have, in fact, an increasing 3-term A.P. in A. \blacksquare Fact 4.

$$\mathscr{S}_{5} \neq \emptyset$$
.

Proof. For $k \ge 0$, define the intervals A_k and B_k as follows:

$$A_k = [a_k+1, a_k+10^k], \quad B_k = [b_k+1, b_k+10^k]$$

where $a_0 = 0$, $b_0 = 1$, and in general,

$$a_k = 2\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} 10^i, \quad b_k = a_k + 10^k.$$

Thus, Z^+ is partitioned into disjoint intervals $A_k, B_k, k \ge 0$. Note that $A_0 = \{1\}$ and

$$|A_k| = |B_k| = 10^k.$$

Let A_k^* and B_k^* denote arbitrary fixed permutations of A_k and B_k , respectively, which contain no monotone 3-term A.P.'s. Finally, let P be the permutation of \mathbb{Z}^+ given by

$$P = B_0^* A_0^* B_1^* A_1^* B_2^* A_2^* \dots B_k^* A_k^* \dots$$



We claim that P contains no monotone 5-term A.P. Suppose the contrary, i.e., suppose $X = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5\}$ with $x_{k+1} - x_k = d > 0$ is a 5-term A.P. occurring monotonely in P. There are several possibilities:

- (i) X is a decreasing subsequence of P. Thus, for some k, $X \subseteq A_k \cup B_k$. But this implies that either x_5 , x_4 , x_3 is a decreasing A.P. in B_k^* or x_3 , x_2 , x_1 is a decreasing A.P. in A_k^* . Since neither of these possibilities can occur, this case is impossible.
 - (ii) X is an increasing subsequence of P.
- (a) Suppose $|X \cap (A_k \cup B_k)| \le 1$ for all k. Let $x_k \in A_{i_k} \cup B_{i_k}$, $1 \le k \le 5$. Thus, $i_1 < i_2 < i_3 < i_4 < i_5$. Since

$$x_5 - x_3 > a_{i_5} - a_{i_4} \geqslant 2 \cdot 10^{i_5}$$

then

$$d = \frac{1}{2}(x_5 - x_3) > 10^{i_5}.$$

Thus,

$$x_2 = x_3 - d < a_{i_4} - 10^{i_5} \le 2(1 + 10 + ... + 10^{i_4}) - 10^{i_4 + 1} < 0$$

which is impossible. Hence, in this case we cannot even have a 4-term A.P.

- (b) Suppose for some k, $|X \cap (A_k \cup B_k)| \ge 2$. Of course, since X is increasing and B_k precedes A_k in P, then X cannot intersect both A_k and B_k . Therefore, by the construction of P (which uses A_k^* and B_k^*), we must have $|X \cap (A_k \cup B_k)| = 2$. There are two possibilities.
 - (a) Suppose $|X \cap B_k| = 2$. If $x_2, x_3 \in B_k$ then $d = x_3 x_2 < 10^k$ and

$$x_1 = x_2 - d > b_k - 10^k = a_k,$$

i.e., $x_1 \in A_k$ which, as we have just noted, is impossible. A similar argument applies if $x_3, x_4 \in B_k$ or $x_4, x_5 \in B_k$. Thus,

$$x_5 = x_2 + 3d < a_{k+1} + 3 \cdot 10^k$$

which implies $x_5 \in A_{k+1}$ and consequently, $x_3, x_4 \in A_{k+1}$ as well, which is impossible.

(β) Suppose $|X \cap A_k| = 2$. If $x_3, x_4 \in A_k$ then $d = x_4 - x_3 < 10^k$ and

$$x_5 = x_4 + d < a_k + 10^k + 10^k = a_{k+1},$$

i.e., $x_5 \in B_k$ which is impossible. The same argument applies if $x_1, x_2 \in A_k$ or $x_2, x_3 \in A_k$. Thus, the only possibility remaining is $x_4, x_5 \in A_k$.

Now, if $x_2 \, \epsilon B_{k-1}$ then we also must have $x_3 \, \epsilon B_{k-1}$ and this is impossible from Case (i). On the other hand, if $x_2 \, \epsilon A_{k-1}$ then $x_3 \, \epsilon A_{k-1}$ and $d = x_3 - x_2 < 10^{k-1}$ which implies

$$x_4 = x_3 + d < x_2 + 10^{k-1}.$$

i.e., $x_4 \in B_{k-1}$, a contradiction. Thus, $x_2 \leqslant a_{k-1}$ and so,

$$d = \frac{1}{2}(x_4 - x_2) > \frac{1}{2}(a_k - a_{k-1}) = 10^{k-1}.$$

Therefore.

$$x_1 = x_2 - d < a_{k-1} - 10^{k-1} < 0$$

which is a contradiction.

This completes the proof that P contains no monotone 5-term A.P. and Fact 4 is proved. \blacksquare

One of the most tantalizing questions still open is whether or not \mathcal{S}_4 is empty; i.e., whether every permutation of \mathbf{Z}^+ must contain monotone 4-term A.P.'s. Current opinions are about evenly divided.

Doubly-infinite permutations of the positive integers. If we are allowed to arrange the positive integers into a *doubly-infinite* sequence ${}_{k}A = \dots a_{-2}a_{-1}a_{0}a_{1}a_{2}\dots$ then, in principle, we have more opportunity to prevent the occurrence of monotone A.P.'s. Denote by \mathscr{D}_{k} the set of those A which contain no monotone k-term A.P. As in the case of \mathscr{S}_{3} , \mathscr{D}_{3} is also empty. This time however, a little more work is required to prove it.

FACT 5.

$$\mathscr{D}_3 = \emptyset$$
.

Proof #1 (J. H. Folkman [2]). Let $A = \dots a_{-2}a_{-1}a_0a_1a_2\dots$ be a doubly-infinite permutation of \mathbb{Z}^+ . For $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, let A(n) denote the *index* of n in A, i.e., A(n) is defined by

$$a_{A(n)}=n$$
.

Suppose A contains no monotone 3-term A. P. Thus, for all a, d > 0,

$$A(a) < A(a+d)$$
 iff $A(a+d) > A(a+2d)$

and

$$A(a) > A(a+d)$$
 iff $A(a+d) < A(a+2d)$.

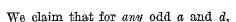
Iterating these relations we obtain

$$(4) \quad A(a) < A(a+d) \quad \text{iff} \quad \begin{cases} A(a+2md) < A(a+d+2md) \text{ and } \\ A(a+(2m+1)d) > A(a+d+(2m+1)d), \\ m = 0, 1, 2, \dots \end{cases}$$

$$(4') \qquad A(a) > A(a+d) \qquad \text{iff} \qquad \begin{cases} A(a+2md) > A(a+d+2md) \text{ and} \\ A(a+(2m+1)d) < A(a+d+(2m+1)d), \\ m = 0, 1, 2, \dots \end{cases}$$

We may assume without loss of generality that A(1) < A(2) (otherwise, reverse the sequence). By (4), we have

(5)
$$A(2m-1) < A(2m), \quad m = 1, 2, ...$$



$$(6) A(a) < A(a+d).$$

For d=1, this is just (5). Assume (6) holds for a fixed odd $d \ge 1$. Let a be odd and let b=a+2d+4. By assumption

$$A(b) < A(b+d)$$
.

(i) Suppose A(b+d) < A(b+d+2). Then A(b) < A(b+d+2) and so

$$A(a) = A(b-2(d+2)) < A(b+d+2-2(d+2)) = A(a+d+2)$$

by (4).

(ii) Suppose A(b+d) > A(b+d+2). Then by (5)

$$A(a+d) = A(b+d-(d+2)\cdot 2) < A(b+d+2-(d+2)\cdot 2) = A(a+d+2).$$

Since A(a) < A(a+d) then A(a) < A(a+d+2).

Thus, in either case, we have A(a) < A(a+d+2). This completes the induction step and (6) is proved. We are now finished, since by (6)

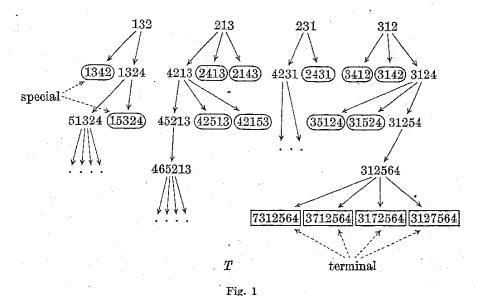
$$A(1) < A(2m)$$
 for all $m > 0$.

Thus, as in the argument that $\mathcal{S}_3 = \emptyset$, if 2r is the first even number to the right of 1 and 2r + 2d is the first even number to the right of 2r which is larger than 2r, then 2r + 4d is to the right of 2r + 2d and 2r, 2r + 2d, 2r + 4d forms an increasing 3-term A.P. in A. This completes Proof #1 of Fact 5.

We sketch another proof of Fact 5 which is conceptually somewhat simpler although it involves some computation.

Proof #2. We form a directed tree T as follows. The vertices of T will be certain permutations $A \in \mathcal{M}(n)$ for various n. T will have 4 root vertices 132, 213, 231 and 312. Suppose A is a vertex of T in which the subblock $B = a_i a_{i+1} \dots a_{i+r}$ spanned by $\{1, 2, 3\}$ contains some other 3-term A.P. (necessarily non-monotone). We call such a vertex special. If $A \in \mathcal{M}(n)$ is a non-special vertex of T and A is a subsequence of $A' \in \mathcal{M}(n+1)$ then A' is also a vertex of T and (A, A') is a directed edge of T. If no such A' exists for A then A is called a terminal vertex of T. We show a portion of T in Fig. 1. The basic fact concerning T is that it is finite. In fact, straightforward computation shows that T contains no vertices $A \in \mathcal{M}(n)$ with n > 17.

To complete the proof, we make the following observation. As we adjoin consecutive integers, starting with $A^* \in \mathcal{M}(3)$, to form a permutation P of \mathbb{Z}^+ , we move in the obvious way along a directed path in the tree. Suppose we reach a special vertex $A = a_1 \dots a_n$. By definition, the block of A spanned by $\{1, 2, 3\}$ contains a subsequence $a_{i_1} a_{i_2} a_{i_3}$ which



is a permutation of $\{a, a+d, a+2d\} \neq \{1, 2, 3\}$. If we restrict our attention from now on to just those integers of the form a+md, $m \geq 0$, then we can move back to the appropriate root of T, i.e., the permutation of $\{1, 2, 3\}$ having the same relative order as $a_{i_1}a_{i_2}a_{i_3}$. Since T is finite then as we form P, we must pass through the roots of T an unbounded number of times. However, this implies that in P some pair of integers in $\{1, 2, 3\}$ must have an unbounded number of integers separating them. This, however, contradicts the definition of a permutation of Z^+ , and the proof is completed.

The additional freedom allowed by doubly-infinite permutations can be used to prevent the occurrence of monotone 4-term A.P.'s.

Fact 6, $\mathcal{D}_4 \neq \emptyset$.

Proof. Define the blocks B_i , i > 0, as follows:

$$B_0 = 1, \quad B_{2i+1} = (2B_{2i})'(2B_{2i}+1)', \quad B_{2i+2} = (2B_{2i+1}+1)'(2B_{2i+1})', \quad i \geqslant 0,$$

where B' denotes the block B written in reverse order. Define the doubly-infinite permutation P of \mathbf{Z}^+ by

$$P = \dots B_4 B_2 B_0 B_1 B_3 \dots$$

= \dots 28, 20, 24, 16, 7, 5, 6, 4, 1, 2, 3, 8, 12, 10, 14, 9, 13, 11, 5, \dots

We claim that $P \in \mathcal{D}_4$.

We first note that for all $i \ge 0$, B_i is a permutation of $[2^i, 2^{i+1}-1]$ containing no monotone 3-term A.P. Suppose now that P contains a monotone 4-term A.P. $X = \{x, y, z, w\}$ with either x > y > z > w or

x < y < z < w, where we have chosen X so that d = |x - y| is minimal. There are several possibilities:

(i) The smallest two elements of X belong to the same block B_i . Then $d < 2^i$ so that the largest two elements of X are in B_{i+1} . Consequently, x, y, z and w all have the same parity. If 2j+1 and 2k+1 are in B_i then 2j and 2k are also in B_i with the same relative order. Hence, we may assume x, y, z, and w are all even. But then

$$\frac{1}{2}X = \left\{\frac{x}{2}, \frac{y}{2}, \frac{z}{2}, \frac{w}{2}\right\}$$

is a monotone 4-term A.P. in P since the smallest two elements of $\frac{1}{2}X$ appear in B_{i-1} in reverse order of their appearance in B_i , the largest two appear in B_i in reverse order of the appearance in B_{i+1} , and the order of B_i and B_{i-1} in P is the reverse of that of B_{i+1} and B_i . However, this contradicts the minimality of d.

- (ii) Suppose y and z occur in the same block B_i . Then the largest element of X occurs in B_{i+1} and the smallest occurs in B_j for some j < i. But this requires B_i to appear between B_{i+1} and B_j in P which is impossible.
- (iii) Suppose the largest two elements of X occur in the same block B_i . The third largest element of X must be at least as large as 2^{i-1} since otherwise, we would have $d < 2^{i-1}$ and consequently, the second largest element of X would be less than 2^i and therefore, not in B_i . Thus, the third largest element of X is in B_{i-1} . Hence, by (i), the smallest element of X is in B_j for some j < i-1. As before, this requires B_{i-1} to appear between B_i and B_i in P which is impossible.
- (iv) Suppose each element of X belongs to a different block B_i of P. Let B_i denote the block containing the largest element of X. Then we may argue as in (ii) and (iii) that the second largest element of X is not contained in B_{i-1} . Consequently $d > 2^{i-1}$ so that the third largest element of X must be negative, a contradiction.

Since the construction of the B_i prohibits the occurrence of 3 elements of X in a single block then we have proved that P has no monotone 4-term A.P.

Concluding remarks. There are a number of questions which we were either unable to resolve or did not have a chance to look at. We mention a few of these.

1. The most natural question remaining is whether or not $\mathcal{S}_4 = \mathcal{O}$, i.e., whether or not every singly-infinite permutation of \mathbf{Z}^+ contains a monotone 4-term A.P. It is not clear at present in which direction the truth lies.

2. The following modular analogue to the finite problem has been studied by M. Nathanson [3]. A subsequence $a_{i_0}, \ldots, a_{i_{t-1}}$ of a permutation $a_1 a_2 \ldots a_n$ of [1, n] is called a monotone A. P. modulo n if for some a and $d \neq 0$,

$$a_{i_k} \equiv a + kd \pmod{n}, \quad 0 \leqslant k < t.$$

Nathanson has shown (see [3]) that:

- (i) If $n \neq 2^r$ then any permutation of [1, n] contains a monotone 3-term A.P. modulo n.
- (ii) If $n = 2^r$ then there is a permutation of [1, n] which contains no monotone 3-term A.P.

On the other hand, it is easily seen that a permutation of [1, n] which contains no monotone 3-term A. P. also contains no monotone 5-term A. P. modulo n. As in the preceding question, the situation for 4-term A. P.'s modulo n is unclear.

3. It is possible to partition Z^+ into three sets, each of which can be permuted so as to have no monotone 3-term A. P. For example, define the partition of Z^+ into consecutive intervals A_k by:

$$A_1 = [1, 100], \quad |A_{k+1}| = [\frac{3}{2}|A_k|], \quad k \geqslant 1.$$

Now, rearrange each A_k into A_k^* containing no monotone 3-term A.P. and define

$$\mathcal{A} = A_1^* A_4^* A_7^* A_{10}^* \dots,$$

$$\mathcal{B} = A_2^* A_5^* A_8^* A_{11}^* \dots,$$

$$\mathcal{C} = A_3^* A_6^* A_9^* A_{12}^* \dots$$

It is easily checked that \mathscr{A} , \mathscr{B} and \mathscr{C} form the desired partition. Whether this can be done for some partition of \mathbf{Z}^+ into two sets is not known.

4. Let \mathscr{A} denote the set of all infinite subsets A of \mathbb{Z}^+ for which there exists a (singly-infinite) permutation of A having no monotone 3-term A. P. What is

$$\sup_{A\in\mathcal{A}} \liminf_{n} \frac{|A\cap[1,\,n]|}{n}?$$

What is

$$\sup_{A\in\mathscr{A}} \limsup_{n} \frac{|A\cap [1, n]|}{n} ?$$

5. The preceding questions could also be asked for Z, the set of all the integers, as well. Only preliminary results are known for this case. For example, using Fact 4, it is easy to construct permutations of Z which have no monotone 7-term A. P.



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