

# EXPONENTIAL SERIES AND COMBINATORIAL PROBLEMS

VASILE POP

Technical University of Cluj-Napoca, Faculty of Automation and Computer Science, 400114,

Cluj-Napoca, Romania

**Abstract.** In this paper we analyze two problems of combinatorial geometry, colouring problems, that, by the solving method have a tight connection with the series  $e = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!}$ .

Particular cases of these problems have been proposed at the International Mathematical Olympiads, editions V and XX.

**Keywords:** combinatorial geometry, colouring problems.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Surprisingly, some colouring and number problems (combinatorial geometry), which in particular forms have been given at International Olympiads, are connected with the series

$$e = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \quad \text{and} \quad e^{-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!}.$$

The connection between the problems that we will present and the number  $e$  is based on the recurrence relationships satisfied by the partial sums sequences

$$e_n = 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \dots + \frac{1}{n!}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}$$

and by the sequences  $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ ,  $(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  defined by

$$a_n = n!e_n \quad \text{and} \quad b_n = 1 + a_n = 1 + n!e_n, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

$$(R1): e_n = e_{n-1} + \frac{1}{n!}, \quad n \geq 1, \quad e_0 = 1$$

$$(R2): a_n = na_{n-1} + 1, \quad n \geq 1, \quad a_0 = 1$$

$$(R3): b_n = 1 + (n(b_{n-1} - 1) + 1), \quad n \geq 1, \quad b_0 = 2.$$

**Remark 1.1.** The sequence  $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  can be defined by its general term:

$$a_n = [n! \cdot e], \quad n \geq 1.$$

We have:

$$\begin{aligned} n! \cdot e &= n! \left( 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \dots + \frac{1}{n!} + \frac{1}{(n+1)!} + \frac{1}{(n+2)!} + \dots \right) \\ &= n! \left( 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \dots + \frac{1}{n!} \right) + n! \left( \frac{1}{(n+1)!} + \frac{1}{(n+2)!} + \dots \right) \\ &= a_n + \varepsilon_n, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon_n &= \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+2)} + \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+2)(n+3)} + \dots \\ &= \frac{1}{n+1} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n+2} + \frac{1}{(n+2)(n+3)} + \dots \right) \\ &< \frac{1}{n+1} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n+2} + \frac{1}{(n+2)^2} + \dots \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n+2)^k} = \frac{1}{n+1} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{n+2}} = \frac{n+2}{(n+1)^2} < 1, \text{ for } n \geq 1.$$

Since  $a_n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $\varepsilon_n \in (0, 1)$ , we have:  $[n! \cdot e] = a_n$  and  $\{n!e\} = \varepsilon_n$  (we denoted  $[x]$  the integer part of the number  $x$  and  $\{x\}$  the fractionary part of  $x$ ).

## 2. COLOURINGS WITH MONOCHROMATIC TRIANGLES

At the V-th O.I.M. edition in Moscow, the following problem was given:

Consider 17 points in the plane, each 3 of them non-collinear. Each segment that joins two points is coloured in one of the colours: red, yellow and blue. Prove that at least one monochromatic triangle is formed (having the sides of the same colour). Following the argument made in solving the problem, this can be generalized like this:

**Problem 2.1.** For each natural number  $n \geq 1$ , consider a set  $B_n$  of

$$b_n = 1 + n! \left( 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \dots + \frac{1}{n!} \right)$$

points in plane, each three non-collinear. The segments that join two points are coloured each with one of the  $n$  given colours. Prove that in any colouring there exist a monochromatic triangles.

*Solution.* The sequence  $(b_n)$  satisfies the recurrence relation (R2) and  $b_1 = 3$ , relation that we use to prove our statement, by mathematical induction, with respect to  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ . For  $n = 1$  we have in plane  $b_1 = 3$  points (a triangle) and we colour the sides with one colour (the triangle is monochromatic). Assume the statement true for  $n - 1$  and prove it for  $n$ . We fix one of the given points  $A_1 \in B_n$ . It is joined with the other  $b_n - 1$  points by segments of  $n$  colours.

Since

$$\frac{b_n - 1}{n} = \frac{n(b_{n-1} - 1) + 1}{n} > b_{n-1} - 1,$$

it follows that from the  $b_n - 1$  segments, at least  $b_{n-1}$  have the same colour  $C_n$ . We have to analyze two situations:

1. If one of the segments that join two of the  $b_{n-1}$  points, for example  $[A_2A_3]$  has the colour  $C_n$  then the triangle  $A_1A_2A_3$  has the sides of the same colour  $C_n$ .
2. If none of these segments is of colour  $C_n$ , we keep only these  $b_{n-1}$  points, which form a set  $B_{n-1}$  in which each segment that joins two points is coloured with one of the colours  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_{n-1}$  and so the problem is reduced to the induction hypothesis.  $\square$

One can notice that the sequence  $(b_n)$  increases very fast and that it is determined in the problem only due to the argument (that we made). In a natural way, the following equivalent problems appear:

**Open problem 2.2.** Is the number  $b_n$  the smallest number with the property that in each  $n$ -colours colouring of the segments that join the points of the set  $B_n$  with  $|B_n| = b_n$ , at least a monochromatic triangle is formed?

**Open problem 2.3.** Which is the maximum number of points  $x_n$  that can be considered in plane (each three non-collinear) for which there exists a colouring of the segments between them, with  $n$  colours, such that no monochromatic triangle is formed?

We believe that the problems 2.2 and 2.3 will stay (as many problems of combinatorial geometry) open for a long time.

From the general case we have the evaluations

$$2^n \leq x_n \leq a_n, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

The first inequality is obtained by constructing a graph with  $2^n$  vertices, inductively, which does not contain one-colour triangles. For  $n = 1$  we take 2 points that are joined by a segment of colour  $C_1$ . For  $n$  we consider two groups, each of  $2^{n-1}$  points, joined in each group by segments of the colours  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_{n-1}$  such that no monochromatic triangles are formed. The segments that join the vertices from two groups are all coloured with the colour  $C_n$ . The second inequality follows from problem 2.1, since  $x_n < b_n = a_n + 1$ , so  $x_n \leq a_n$ .

For the case  $n = 1$  it is obvious that  $x_1 = a_1 = 2$ .

For the case  $n = 2$  we have  $x_2 = a_2 = 5$  (the sides of the pentagon are coloured with the colour  $C_1$  and the diagonals with colour  $C_2$ ).

For the case  $n = 3$  we will show, using an extremely ingenious nonelementary and difficult construction that  $x_3 = a_3 = 16 = b_3 - 1$ .

More precisely, we will show that the diagonals and the sides of a regular polygon with 16 vertices can be coloured with three colours such that no monochromatic triangle is formed. Consider a set  $V = \{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5\}$  with 5 elements (the vertices of a regular pentagon) and  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}_0 \cup \mathcal{P}_2 \cup \mathcal{P}_4$  the set of subsets of  $V$  which contain 0, 2 or 4 elements. We have  $\mathcal{P}_0 = \emptyset$ ,  $\mathcal{P}_2 = \mathcal{L} \cup \mathcal{D}$ , where  $\mathcal{L} = \{\{v_1, v_2\}, \{v_2, v_3\}, \{v_3, v_4\}, \{v_4, v_5\}, \{v_5, v_1\}\}$  (the sides)

$\mathcal{D} = \{\{v_1, v_3\}, \{v_2, v_4\}, \{v_3, v_5\}, \{v_4, v_1\}, \{v_5, v_2\}\}$  (the diagonals). The set  $\mathcal{P}$  has  $1 + 5 + 5 + 5$  elements, and the pair  $(\mathcal{P}, \Delta)$  is a subgroup of the group  $(\mathcal{P}(V), \Delta)$ , where the operation " $\Delta$ " is the symmetric difference  $A \Delta B = (A \cup B) \setminus (A \cap B)$ . The essential properties (for us) of the group  $(\mathcal{P}, \Delta)$  are:

1.  $X \Delta X = \emptyset, X \in \mathcal{P}$
2.  $X \neq Y \Rightarrow X \Delta Y \neq \emptyset, X, Y \in \mathcal{P}$
3.  $(X \Delta Y) \Delta (Y \Delta Z) = X \Delta Z, X, Y, Z \in \mathcal{P}$

from which follow:

- 1'.  $X, Y \in \mathcal{L} \Rightarrow X \Delta Y \notin \mathcal{L}$
- 2'.  $X, Y \in \mathcal{D} \Rightarrow X \Delta Y \notin \mathcal{D}$
- 3'.  $X, Y \in \mathcal{P}_4 \Rightarrow X \Delta Y \notin \mathcal{P}_4$ .

We consider now a bijective function from the set of the vertices of the polygon with 16 vertices to  $\mathcal{P}$ ,  $f: \{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_{16}\} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}$  and we colour each segment  $[A_i A_j]$ ,  $1 \leq i < j \leq 16$  with the colour  $C[A_i, A_j] \in \{C_1, C_2, C_3\}$  like this:

$$\begin{aligned} C[A_i A_j] &= C_1 & \text{if } f(A_i) \Delta f(A_j) \in \mathcal{L} \\ C[A_i A_j] &= C_2 & \text{if } f(A_i) \Delta f(A_j) \in \mathcal{D} \\ C[A_i A_j] &= C_3 & \text{if } f(A_i) \Delta f(A_j) \in \mathcal{P}_4 \end{aligned}$$

For an arbitrary triangle  $A_i A_j A_k$ , if  $C[A_i A_j] = C[A_j A_k] = C$  then from the relations 1, 2, 3, 1', 2', 3' it follows  $C[A_i A_k] \neq C$  so the triangle  $A_i A_j A_k$  is not a monochromatic triangle.

**Remark 2.4.** The problems solved in paragraph 2 are known in combinatorics and graph theory as Ramsey type problems. If  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  are positive integers and  $n \geq 2$  then there exists minimal positive integer  $N = R_n(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$  with the property such that for every colouring with  $n$  colours  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n$  of the edges of complete graph  $K_N$ , there exists  $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$  and a complete subgraph with  $a_i$  vertices and all edges of  $C_i$  colour.  $R_n(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$  is called Ramsey number of parameters  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ . In a problem given to OIM - Moscow 1976, the assertion is  $R_3(3, 3, 3) \leq 17$ . The problem 2.1 gives the next evaluation  $R_n(3, 3, \dots, 3) \leq b_n$ , and in the last problem it was proved that  $R_3(3, 3, 3) = 17 = b_3$ . In colouring problems, with two colours, one denotes with  $R(m, n)$

the minimum number of vertices of a complete graph with the edges coloured with two colours  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ , and for every colouring there exists a complete subgraph with  $m$  vertices and all edges of colour  $C_1$  or a complete subgraph with  $n$  vertices and all edges of colour  $C_2$ .

### 3. THE EQUATION $x + y = z$ ON PARTITIONS OF A SET

At the XX-th O.I.M. edition, Bucharest 1978, the following problem was given [2, 5]:

At a congress are participating 1978 mathematicians from 6 countries, registered on a list from 1 to 1978. Prove that there exist three of the order numbers  $x, y, z \in \{1, 2, \dots, 1978\}$  of some mathematicians from the same country, such that  $x + y = z$ .

Following the reasoning made in the solution of this problem, we can formulate the following generalization:

**Problem 3.1.** The natural numbers from 1 to

$$a_n = n! \left( 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \dots + \frac{1}{n!} \right)$$

are partitioned in  $n$  sets. Show that the equation  $x + y = z$  has a solution in at least one of the sets of the partition.

*Solution.* From the recurrence relationship (R3), since  $\frac{a_n}{n} > a_{n-1}$ , it follows that at least  $a_{n-1} + 1$  numbers are in the same set  $A_1$  of the partition. Let them be  $k_1 < k_2 < \dots < k_{a_{n-1}+1}$ . We consider the differences  $k_2 - k_1 < k_3 - k_1 < \dots < k_{a_{n-1}+1} - k_1$ . If one of these numbers, for example  $k_i - k_1$ , is from  $A_1$  then we denote  $x = k_1$ ,  $y = k_i - k_1$ ,  $z = k_i$  and  $x + y = z$  with  $x, y, z \in A_1$ . If the  $a_{n-1}$  differences are from  $A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n$  then at least  $a_{n-2} + 1$  are from the same set  $A_2$ .

Let them be  $u_1 < u_2 < \dots < u_{a_{n-2}+1}$  and we consider the differences  $u_2 - u_1 < u_3 - u_1 < \dots < u_{a_{n-2}+1} - u_1$ . We notice that the differences are of the form  $u_i - u_1 = (k_p - k_1) - (k_q - k_1) = k_p - k_q$ . If one of these is in  $A_1$  we have a solution of the equation  $x + y = z$  in  $A_1$ , and if one of the differences is in  $A_2$  we have a solution in the set  $A_2$ . If not, we remain with  $a_{n-2}$  differences distributed in  $(n-2)$  sets and we continue the induction.

**Remark.** For  $n = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$  we get  $a_1 = 2$ ,  $a_2 = 5$ ,  $a_3 = 16$ ,  $a_4 = 65$  and  $a_5 = 1957 < 1978$ .

We can formulate problems similar to 2.2 and 2.3.

**Open problem 3.2.** Which is the minimum number  $y_n$  such that any partition of the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, y_n\}$  in  $n$  sets has the property that the equation  $x + y = z$  has a solution in one of the sets of the partition?

**Open problem 3.3.** Which is the maximum number  $z_n$  with the property that the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, z_n\}$  can be partitioned in  $n$  sets  $A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n$  such that, if  $x, y \in A_i$ , then  $x + y \notin A_i$ ,  $i = \overline{1, n}$ ?

It can be proved that  $y_1 = a_1$ ,  $y_2 = a_2$ ,  $y_3 = a_3$  and  $z_1 = a_1 - 1$ ,  $z_2 = a_2 - 1$ ,  $z_3 = a_3 - 1$ , and for the general case, the problems remain open.

#### 4. THE SOLVING OF THE EQUATION $x + y = z$ WITH MONOCHROMATIC TRIANGLES

Although problems 2.1 and 3.1 seem essentially different, the connection between the numbers  $a_n$  and  $b_n$ ,  $b_n = 1 + a_n$  suggests that between the two of them might exist a deeper connection, which in fact shows that the two problems 2.1 and 3.1 and equivalent.

**Definition 4.1.** We say that the natural number  $\beta_n$  has the property  $Q_n$  if for each colouring of the sides of a complete graph with  $\beta_n$  vertices, using segments of  $n$  colours, at least a one monochromatic triangle is formed.

**Definition 4.2.** We say that the natural number  $\alpha_n$  has the property  $P_n$  if for every partition of the set of natural numbers  $\{1, 2, \dots, \alpha_n\}$  in  $n$  sets, there exist the numbers  $x, y, z$  in the same set such that  $x + y = z$ .

**Theorem 4.3.** The number  $\alpha_n$  has the property  $P_n$  if and only if the number  $\beta_n = \alpha_n + 1$  has the property  $Q_n$ .

*Proof.* If  $\alpha_n$  has the property  $P_n$  then we consider the graph with vertices  $A_0, A_1, A_2, \dots, A_{\alpha_n}$  where  $A_0$  is the center of half a circle and the points  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  are situated on the half-circle; graph with  $\beta_n = \alpha_n + 1$  vertices. If  $\alpha_n$  has the property  $P_n$  and  $M_1 \cup M_2 \cup \dots \cup M_n$  is an arbitrary partition of the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, \alpha_n\}$  then we colour the segment  $[A_i A_j]$  with the colour  $C_p$ , where  $p$  is defined by  $|i - j| \in M_p, p = \overline{1, n}$ .

Let us notice that the triangle  $A_i A_j A_k$  is monochromatic if and only if the numbers  $j - i, k - j$  and  $k - i$  ( $i \leq j \leq k$ ) are in the same set  $M_p$  of the partition. Denoting  $x = j - i, y = k - j$  and  $z = k - i$  we get  $x + y = z$  (solution of the equation in the set  $M_p$ ).

**Remark 4.4.** Between the numbers  $x_n$  from the open problem 2.3 and  $y_n$  from the open problem 3.2, there exists the relation  $x_n = y_n$ . The previous numbers are called Schur numbers (for the relation with Ramsey numbers sees [1] and [4]). Since for every partition of the set of positive integers in a finite number of subsets there exist a subset in which the equation  $x + y = z$  has a solution, we say that  $x + y = z$  is a normal equation (I. Schur).

#### 5. PERMUTATION WITHOUT FIXED POINTS

An example of application of inclusion and exclusion principle is the problem of finding the number of permutations of the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  without fixed points. The result obtained is related to the series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} = \frac{1}{e}.$$

Denoting by  $A_i$  the set of permutations having  $i$  as a fixed point,  $i = \overline{1, n}$ , then the set of all permutations having at least a fixed point is  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$ . We have:

$$\left| \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \right| = \sum_{i=1}^n |A_i| - \sum_{i < j} |A_i \cap A_j| + \dots + (-1)^{n-1} \left| \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i \right|$$

and

$$|A_i| = (n-1)!, |A_i \cap A_j| = (n-2)!, \dots, \left| \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i \right| = 1$$

Subtracting from the number of all permutations the number of permutations with at least a fixed point we get the number  $d_n$  of all permutations without fixed points:

$$\begin{aligned} d_n &= n! - (n(n-1)! - C_n^2(n-2)! + C_n^3(n-3)! - \dots + (-1)^{n-1}) \\ &= n! \left( 1 - \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} - \frac{1}{3!} + \dots + (-1)^n \frac{1}{n!} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Remark that the probability of choosing a permutation without fixed points is

$$p_n = \frac{d_n}{n!} = 1 - \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} - \frac{1}{3!} + \dots + (-1)^n \frac{1}{n!}$$

and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = e^{-1}$ .

**Remark.** For the sequence  $(d_n)_{n \geq 1}$  the following relations hold:

1.  $d_{n+1} = (n+1)d_n + (-1)^{n+1}$
2.  $d_{n+1} = n(d_n + d_{n-1})$ .

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