# On a linear diophantine problem of Frobenius 

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Introduction. Given integers $0<a_{1}<\ldots<a_{n}$ with ged $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=1$, it is well-known that the equation $N=\sum_{k=1}^{n} x_{k} a_{k}$ has a solution in nonnegative integers $x_{k}$ provided $N$ is sufficiently large. Following [9], we let $G\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ denote the greatest integer $N$ for which the preceding equation has no such solution.

The problem of determining $G\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$, or at least obtaining nontrivial estimates, was first raised by G. Frobenius (cf. [2]) and has been the subject of numerous papers (e.g., cf. [1], [2], [3], [4], [7], [8], [9], [11], [12], [13]). It is known that:

$$
\begin{gathered}
G\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=\left(a_{1}-1\right)\left(a_{2}-1\right)-1 \quad([2],[11]) \\
G\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \leqslant\left(a_{1}-1\right)\left(a_{n}-1\right)-1 \quad([2],[4]) \\
G\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \leqslant \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} a_{k+1} d_{k} / d_{k+1}
\end{gathered}
$$

where $d_{k}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}\right)$ ([2]). The exact value of $G$ is also known for the case in which the $a_{k}$ form an arithmetic progression ([1], [13]).

In this paper, we obtain the bound

$$
G\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \leqslant 2 a_{n-1}\left[\frac{a_{n}}{n}\right]-a_{n}
$$

which in many cases is superior to previous bounds and which will be seen to be within a constant factor of the best possible bound. We also consider several related extremal problems and obtain an exact solution in the case that $a_{n}-2 n$ is small compared to $n^{1 / 2}$.

A general bound. As before, we consider integers $0<a_{1}<\ldots<a_{n}$ with $\operatorname{gcd}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=1$.

Theorem 1.

$$
\begin{equation*}
G\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \leqslant 2 a_{n-1}\left[\frac{a_{n}}{n}\right]-a_{n} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Let $g$ denote $a_{n}$, let $m$ denote $\left[\frac{a_{n}}{n}\right]$ and let $A$ denote the set $\left\{0, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n-1}\right\}$ of residues modulo $g$. Consider the sum

$$
\mathscr{C}=\underbrace{A+\ldots+A}_{m}=\left\{b_{1}+\ldots+b_{m}: b_{k} \in A\right\}(\bmod g) .
$$

By a strong theorem of Kneser ([10]; cf. also [6], p. 57), there exists a (minimal) divisor $g^{\prime}$ of $g$ such that

$$
\mathscr{C}=\underbrace{A^{\left(g^{\prime}\right)}+\ldots+A^{\left(g^{\prime}\right)}}_{m}(\bmod g)
$$

where

$$
A^{\left(g^{\prime}\right)}=\left\{a+r g^{\prime}: 0 \leqslant r<g / g^{\prime}, a \in A\right\}(\bmod g)
$$

and such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{|\mathscr{C}|}{g} \geqslant \frac{m n}{g}-\frac{m-1}{g^{\prime}} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Assume $\mathscr{C}$ does not contain a complete system of residues modulo $g$. Since $\operatorname{ged}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n-1}, g\right)=1$ then $A^{\left(g^{\prime}\right)}$ must consist of more than one congruence class mod $g^{\prime}$. By the theorem of Kneser and the minimality of $g^{\prime}$, it follows that $\mathscr{C}$ must contain at least $m+1$ distinct residue classes $\bmod g^{\prime}$; thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{|\mathscr{C}|}{g} \geqslant \frac{m+1}{g^{\prime}} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $g \geqslant n$ and $m=[g / n]$ imply

$$
\begin{equation*}
m+1>\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{m-1}{\frac{m n}{g}-\frac{1}{2}}\right) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose now that $|\mathscr{C}| \leqslant \frac{1}{2} g$. By (2) and (4) we have

$$
\frac{m n}{g}-\frac{m-1}{g^{\prime}} \leqslant \frac{1}{2}, \quad \cdot g^{\prime} \leqslant \frac{m-1}{\frac{m n}{g}-\frac{1}{2}}<2(m+1)
$$

Hence, by (3),

$$
\frac{|\mathscr{C}|}{g} \geqslant \frac{m+1}{g^{\prime}}>\frac{m+1}{2(m+1)}=\frac{1}{2}
$$

which is a contradiction.

We may therefore assume $|\mathscr{C}|>\frac{1}{2} g$. But in this case it is easily seen that $\mathscr{C}+\mathscr{C}$ contains a complete residue system mod $g$. It follows that the least possible integer not representable in the form

$$
x_{1} b_{1}+\ldots+x_{2 m} b_{2 m}+x g
$$

with $x_{k} \geqslant 0, x \geqslant 0, b_{k} \in A$, is given by

$$
2 m \cdot \max _{a \in A}(a)-g=2 a_{n-1}\left[\frac{a_{n}}{n}\right]-a_{n} .
$$

This proves the theorem.
Note that in the case that $n=2$ and $a_{2}$ is odd we have

$$
G\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right) \leqslant 2 a_{1}\left[\frac{a_{2}}{2}\right]-a_{2}=a_{1} a_{2}-a_{1}-a_{2}
$$

which is best possible.
An extremal problem. The question of the estimation of $G$ naturally suggests the following extremal problem. For integers $n$ and $t$, define $g(n, t)$ by

$$
g(n, t)=\max _{a_{i}} G\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)
$$

where the max is taken over all $a_{i}$ satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
0<a_{1}<\ldots<a_{n} \leqslant t, \quad \operatorname{gcd}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=1 \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

By Theorem 1 the following result is immediate.
Corollary. $g(n, t)<2 t^{2} / n$.
On the other hand, it is not hard to see that for the set $\{x, 2 x, \ldots$ $\left.\ldots,(n-1) x, x^{*}\right\}$ with $x=[t /(n-1)]$ and $x^{*}=(n-1)[t /(n-1)]-1$,

$$
g(n, t) \geqslant G\left(x, \ldots, x^{*}\right) \geqslant \frac{t^{2}}{n-1}-5 t \quad \text { for } \quad n \geqslant 2
$$

Thus, $g(n, t)$ is bounded below by essentially $t^{2} / n$.
Of course, for $n=2$, the exact value of $g$ is given by $g(2, t)$ $=(t-1)(t-2)-1$. It appears that

$$
g(3, t)=\left[\frac{(t-2)^{2}}{2}\right]-1
$$

with the sets $\{t / 2, t-1, t\}$ or $\{t-2, t-1, t\}$ for $t$ even and $\{(t-1) / 2, t-1, t\}$ for $t$ odd achieving this bound. However, this has not yet been established. It follows from the Corollary that $g(n, c n)<2 c^{2} n$ and $g\left(n, n^{2}\right)<2 n^{3}$; again, the truth probably differs from these estimates by a factor of $1 / 2$ for large $n$.

Determination of $g(n, 2 n+k)$. The remainder of the paper will be concerned with the determination of $g(n, 2 n+k)$ for $n$ large compared to $k$. It follows easily from density considerations that $g(n, 2 n+k)$ $=2 n+2 k-1$ for $k \leqslant-1$ (cf. [12]). It was shown in [5] that $g(n, 2 n)$ $=2 n+1$ and $g(n, 2 n+1)=2 n+3$. It was also proved in [5] that for $k$ fixed $g(n, 2 n+k)=2 n+h(k)$ for some function $h$ of $k$ provided $n$ is sufficiently large. The exact value of $h(k)$ is given by the next result.

Theorem 2. For $k$ fixed, if $n$ is sufficiently large then

$$
g(n, k)= \begin{cases}2 n+2 k-1 & \text { for } \quad k \leqslant-1 \\ 2 n+1 & \text { for } \quad k=0 \\ 2 n+4 k-1 & \text { for } \quad k \geqslant 1 \text { and } n-k \equiv 1(\bmod 3) \\ 2 n+4 k+1 & \text { for } \quad k \geqslant 1 \text { and } n-k \not \equiv 1(\bmod 3)\end{cases}
$$

Proof. By previous remarks we may restrict ourselves to $k \geqslant 2$. Assume for a fixed integer $K \geqslant 2$ the theorem holds for all $k<K$. Let $A=\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\}$ be a set satisfying (5) with $k=K$ and $n$ large (to be specified later). We first establish

$$
g(n, k) \leqslant\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
2 n+4 K-1 & \text { if } & n-K \equiv 1(\bmod 3)  \tag{6}\\
2 n+4 K+1 & \text { if } & n-K \not \equiv 1(\bmod 3)
\end{array}\right.
$$

Let $S(A)$ denote the set of sums $\left\{\sum_{i=0}^{n} x_{i} a_{i}: x_{i} \geqslant 0\right\}$ we are considering and let $G(A)$ abbreviate $G\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$. Note that if there exists an $x$, $1 \leqslant x \leqslant 2 n+K$, with $x \in S(A), x \xi A$, then the set $A^{\prime}=A \cup\{x\}$ satisfies

$$
0<a_{1}^{\prime}<\ldots<a_{n+1}^{\prime}=2 n+K=2(n+1)+K-2
$$

By the induction hypothesis

$$
G(A)=G\left(A^{\prime}\right) \leqslant 2(n+1)+4(K-2)+1=2 n+4 K-5<2 n+4 K-1
$$

so that (6) certainly holds in this case. Hence, we may assume $A$ and $S(A)$ agree below $2 n+K$.

Next, suppose $2 n+K+1 \in S(A)$. Then for $A^{\prime}=A \cup\{2 n+K+1\}$ we have

$$
0<a_{1}^{\prime}<\ldots<a_{n+1}^{\prime}=2 n+K+1=2(n+1)+K-1
$$

so that by the induction hypothesis

$$
G(A)=G\left(A^{\prime}\right) \leqslant 2(n+1)+4(K-1)+1=2 n+4 K-1
$$

and (6) holds in this case. Hence, we may assume

$$
2 n+K+1 \notin S(A)
$$

Now, suppose $2 n+K+2 \epsilon S(A), 2 n+K+3 \epsilon S(A)$. For $A^{\prime}=A \cup$ $\cup\{2 n+K+2,2 n+K+3\}$ we have

$$
0<a_{1}^{\prime}<\ldots<a_{n+2}^{\prime}=2 n+K+3=2(n+2)+K-1 .
$$

By the induction hypothesis

$$
\begin{aligned}
G(A)=G\left(A^{\prime}\right) & \leqslant \begin{cases}2(n+2)+4(K-1)-1 & \text { if }(n+2)-(K-1) \equiv 1(\bmod 3), \\
2(n+2)+4(K-1)+1 & \text { if }(n+2)-(K-1) \not \equiv 1(\bmod 3)\end{cases} \\
& =\left\{\begin{array}{l}
2 n+4 K-1 \text { if } n-k \equiv 1(\bmod 3), \\
2 n+4 K+1 \text { if } n-k \not \equiv 1(\bmod 3),
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

so that (6) holds in this case. Hence we may assume that either

$$
2 n+K+2 \phi S(A) \quad \text { or } \quad 2 n+K+3 \Varangle S(A) .
$$

There are two cases:
(I) Suppose $a_{1} \leqslant 3 K$. If at least $3 K$ consecutive integers belong to $A$ then by successively adding $a_{1}$ to these integers, we infer that $G(A)$ $<2 n+K$ and (6) holds in this case. Therefore, we may assume that $A$ does not contain $3 K$ consecutive integers.

Since we have assumed $2 n+K+1 ¢ S(A)$ then for all $i, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant 2 n+K$, either $i \notin A$ or $2 n+K+1-i \notin A$. Thus, for exactly $\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]$ values of $j$ we have $j \notin A$ and $n+K+1-j \notin A$. For a given integer $f(K)$, if $n$ is sufficiently large then for some $t \leqslant\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right] f(K)$, each of the integers $t+i$, $1 \leqslant i \leqslant f(K)$, satisfies either

$$
t+i \epsilon A \quad \text { or } \quad 2 n+K+1-(t+i) \epsilon A .
$$

Consequently, for some $t^{\prime}, t+1 \leqslant t^{\prime} \leqslant t+3 K$, we have

$$
2 n+K-t^{\prime}+1 \epsilon A .
$$

There are several possibilities:
(i) Suppose $2 n+K-t^{\prime} \epsilon A$. If $t^{\prime}+2 \epsilon A$ then we would have $2 n+K-t^{\prime}+$ $+2,2 n+K-t^{\prime}+3 \epsilon S(A)$ which contradicts our assumptions on $A$. We may therefore assume

$$
2 n+K-t^{\prime}-1 \epsilon A
$$

But now consider $t^{\prime}+3$. If $t^{\prime}+3 \epsilon A$ then as before we find $2 n+K-t^{\prime}+2$, $2 n+K-t^{\prime}+3 \epsilon S(A)$ which is a contradiction. Hence, we must have

$$
2 n+K-t^{\prime}-2 \epsilon A .
$$

We can continue this argument to conclude that

$$
2 n+K-t^{\prime}-s \epsilon A \quad \text { for } \quad 0 \leqslant s \leqslant 3 K-1
$$

provided $f(K) \geqslant 6 K$ and $n$ is sufficiently large. But this is a sequence of $3 K$ consecutive integers in $A$ and since this contradicts our assumption on $A$, then case (i) is impossible.
(ii) Suppose $2 n+K-t^{\prime} \notin A$. Then we have

$$
t^{\prime}+1 \in A .
$$

If we now have $t^{\prime}+2 \epsilon A$ then as before $2 n+K-t^{\prime}+2,2 n+K-t^{\prime}+3 \epsilon S(A)$ which is a contradiction. Therefore, we may assume $t^{\prime}+2 \notin A$, i.e.,

$$
2 n+K-t^{\prime}-1 \epsilon A
$$

Now, by using the same arguments as in (i) we can argue that $t^{\prime}+3$, $2 n+K-t^{\prime}-3, \ldots, t^{\prime}+2 r+1,2 n+K-t^{\prime}-2 r-1 \epsilon A$ for $2 r<f(K)-3 K$ if $n$ is sufficiently large. In particular we have

$$
t^{\prime}+2 j+1 \epsilon A, \quad 0 \leqslant j<\frac{1}{2}(f(K)-3 K)
$$

where $t^{\prime} \leqslant\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right] f(K)+3 K$. Since $a_{1} \leqslant 3 K$ then by successively adding $2 a_{1}$ to the integers $t^{\prime}+2 j+1$, we see that all integers $x$ of the form $x=t^{\prime}+$ $+2 s+1, s \geqslant 0$, belong to $S(A)$ provided

$$
6 K \leqslant f(K)-3 K
$$

Of course if $t^{\prime} \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$, then by adding $t^{\prime}+1 \epsilon A$ to the integers $t^{\prime}+2 s+1, \quad s \geqslant 0$, we see that all integers $\geqslant 2\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right] f(K)+6 K+2$ belong to $S(A)$. For $n$ sufficiently large, this certainly implies (6). We may therefore assume

$$
t^{\prime} \equiv 1(\bmod 2)
$$

and consequently all even integers $\geqslant t^{\prime}+1$ belong to $S(A)$. In fact, is it clear that if $x \in A$ is an odd integer and $x \leqslant 2 n+K-\left(t^{\prime}+1\right)$ then all odd integers $\geqslant 2 n+K$ (and hence all integers $\geqslant 2 n+K$ ) belong to $S(A)$. Thus, we may assume that

$$
x \in A, \quad x \text { odd } \Rightarrow x>2 n-\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right] f(K)-2 K .
$$

Further, if $K$ is odd then $2 n+K+1$ is even and therefore belongs to $S(A)$ for $n$ sufficiently large. This contradicts our assumption on $A$ and we may assume $K$ is even.

Now, let $u$ be the largest integer such that $2 n+K-2 u+1 \epsilon A$. Since $K$ is even it follows that

$$
u<\frac{1}{2}\left(\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right] f(K)+3 K+1\right)
$$

Consider the $K+1$ integers $2 u+2 j, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant K+1$. By the definition of $u$ none of the integers $2 n+K-(2 u+2 j)+1$ belongs to $A$. Since there are at most $\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]=\frac{K}{2}$ of these integers for which both $2 u+2 j \notin A$ and $2 n+K-(2 u+2 j)+1 \notin A$ then we see that at least $K+1-\frac{K}{2}=\frac{K}{2}+1$ of them belong to $A$, say,

$$
2 u+2 j_{1}, \ldots, 2 u+2 j_{t} \epsilon A, \quad t \geqslant K / 2+1
$$

Forming the sums

$$
(2 n+K-2 u+1)+\left(2 u+2 j_{i}\right), \quad i=1,2, \ldots, t
$$

we obtain at least $K / 2+1$ sums $2 n+K+2 j_{i}+1$ which are $\geqslant 2 n+K+3$ and $\leqslant 2 n+3 K+3$ and which belong to $S(A)$. But all the even integers $2 n+K+2 r, 1 \leqslant r \leqslant K+1$, also belong to $S(A)$. Hence, $S(A)$ contains at least $n+(K / 2+1)+K+1$ integers which are less than or equal to $2 n+3 K+3$ and we can find a subset $A^{\prime} \subseteq S(A)$ with

$$
0<a_{1}^{\prime}<\ldots<a_{n+3 K / 2+2}^{\prime}=2 n+3 K+3-d
$$

for some integer $d \geqslant 0$. Since

$$
(2 n+3 K+3-d)-(2+3 K / 2+2) \leqslant-1
$$

then by the induction hypothesis we conclude that all integers $\geqslant 2 n+$ $+3 K+3-d$ belong to $S(A)$. If $d \geqslant 1$ then in fact all integers $\geqslant 2 n+3 K+2$ belong to $S(A)$; if $d=0$ then since $2 n+3 K+2$ is even then we still have all integers $\geqslant 2 n+3 K+2 \epsilon S(A)$. Thus,

$$
G(A) \leqslant 2 n+3 K+1 .
$$

But for $K \geqslant 2,4 K-1 \geqslant 3 K+1$ so that

$$
G(A) \leqslant 2 n+4 K-1
$$

and (6) holds in this case. This concludes case (I).
(II) Suppose $a_{1}>3 K$. There are two cases:
(i) Suppose $a_{1}>n+\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]$. Thus, exactly $\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]$ of the integers which are $>n+\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]$ and $<2 n+K$ are missing from $A$. This
implies that for some $i, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]+1$, both $n+2\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]+1+i \epsilon A$ and $n+2\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]+2-i \epsilon A$, i.e., $2 n+4\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]+3 \epsilon S(A)$. Of course, the same argument can be repeated for $2 n+4\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]+4$, etc., so that for $n$ sufficiently large, $2 n+4\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]+j+2 \epsilon S(A)$ for $1 \leqslant j \leqslant 4\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]+$ +3 . Hence $S(A)$ contains a subset $A^{\prime}$ with

$$
0<a_{1}^{\prime}<\ldots<a_{n+4}^{\prime}\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]+3=2 n+8\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]+5-d
$$

for some $d \geqslant 0$. Since

$$
2\left(n+4\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]+3\right)>2 n+8\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]+5-d
$$

then by the induction hypothesis all integers $>2 n+8\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]+5$ belong to $S(A)$. But since $2 n+4\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]+j+2 \epsilon S(A)$ for $1 \leqslant j \leqslant 4\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]+3$ then all integers $>2 n+4\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]+2$ belong to $S(A)$. However, $4\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]+$ $+2<4 K-1$ for $K \geqslant 2$ so that (6) holds in this case.
(ii) Suppose $a_{1} \leqslant n+\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]$. Consider the $3 K-1$ integers $2 n+$ $+K-a_{1}+i+1,1 \leqslant i \leqslant 3 K-1$. Since $a_{1}$ is the least element of $A$ then at least $3 K-1-\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]$ of these integers must belong to $A$. Adding $a_{1}$ to each of them gives at least $3 K-1-\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]$ integers in $S(A)$ which are $>2 n+K$ and $\leqslant 2 n+4 K$. Thus, $S(A)$ contains a subset $A^{\prime}$ with

$$
0<a_{1}^{\prime}<\ldots<a_{n+3 K-1-\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]}^{\prime}=2 n+4 K-d
$$

for some $d \geqslant 0$.
For $K \geqslant 4$,

$$
2\left(n+3 K-1-\left[\frac{K+1}{2}\right]\right)>2 n+4 K-d
$$

so that by the induction hypothesis

$$
G(A) \leqslant G\left(A^{\prime}\right) \leqslant 2 n+4 K-1
$$

and (6) holds. Hence, we may assume $K \leqslant 3$. There are two cases.

Suppose $K=2$. If $2 n-a_{1}+j \in A, 4 \leqslant j \leqslant 6$, then $2 n+j \in S(A)$, $4 \leqslant j \leqslant 6$. Thus $S(A)$ contains a subset $A^{\prime}$ with

$$
0<a_{1}^{\prime}<\ldots<a_{n+3}^{\prime}=2 n+6
$$

and by the induction hypothesis

$$
G(A) \leqslant G\left(A^{\prime}\right) \leqslant 2 n+7
$$

so that (6) holds in this case.
If at least one of $2 n-a_{1}+j, 4 \leqslant j \leqslant 6$, is missing from $A$, then in fact, exactly one of $2 n-a_{1}+j, 4 \leqslant j \leqslant 6$, is missing from $A$, and all of $2 n-a_{1}+j \epsilon A, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant 9$. Hence, $2 n+j \in S(A), 7 \leqslant j \leqslant 9$, and $S(A)$ contains a subset $A^{\prime}$ with

$$
0<a_{1}^{\prime}<\ldots<a_{n+5}^{\prime} \leqslant 2 n+9
$$

By the induction hypothesis

$$
G\left(A^{\prime}\right) \leqslant 2 n+8
$$

and since $2 n+7,2 n+8 \epsilon S(A)$ then

$$
G(A) \leqslant 2 n+6
$$

which satisfies (6) in this case.
The case $K=3$ is similar and will be omitted. It can be checked that the condition that $n$ be sufficiently large in the preceding arguments is satisfied, for example, by taking $n>20 K^{2}$.

This concludes case (II) and (6) is proved.
We next exhibit specific sets $A$ which satisfy (6) with equality for $n$ arbitrarily large. There are three cases.
(i) $n-K \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$. Write $n=3 m+K+1$ and let

$$
A=\bigcup_{i=1}^{2 m+K}\{3 i\} \cup \bigcup_{j=1}^{m+1}\{3 m+3 K+5-3 j\}
$$

The least element of $S(A)$ which is $\equiv 1(\bmod 3)$ is $2(3 m+3 K+2)=6 m+$ $+6 K+4$ so that

$$
2 n+4 K-1=6 m+6 K+1 \notin S(A)
$$

Therefore $0<a_{1}<\ldots<a_{n}=2 n+K$ and $G(A) \geqslant 2 n+4 K-1$.
(ii) $n-K \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$. Write $n=3 m+K+2$ and let

$$
A=\bigcup_{i=1}^{2 m+K+1}\{3 i\} \cup \bigcup_{j=1}^{m+1}\{3 m+3 K+7-3 j\} .
$$

(iii) $n-K \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$. Write $n=3 m+K$ and let

$$
A=\bigcup_{i=1}^{2 m+K}\{3 i\} \cup \bigcup_{j=1}^{m}\{6 m+3 K+2-3 j\} .
$$

It is easy to see in (ii) and (iii) that $A$ satisfies (5) and $G(A) \geqslant 2 n+$ $+4 K+1$.

The examples in (i), (ii) and (iii) together with (6) establish the theorem for $k=K$. This completes the induction step and the theorem is proved.

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Added in proof: The conjecture $g(3, t)=\left[\frac{(t-2)^{2}}{2}\right]-1$ has recently been settled in the affirmative by M. Lewin (personal communication).

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