

Restricted integer partition functions

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Abstract

For two sets A and M of positive integers and for a positive integer n , let $p(n, A, M)$ denote the number of partitions of n with parts in A and multiplicities in M , that is, the number of representations of n in the form $n = \sum_{a \in A} m_a a$ where $m_a \in M \cup \{0\}$ for all a , and all numbers m_a but finitely many are 0. It is shown that there are infinite sets A and M so that $p(n, A, M) = 1$ for every positive integer n . This settles (in a strong form) a problem of Canfield and Wilf. It is also shown that there is an infinite set M and constants c and n_0 so that for $A = \{k!\}_{k \geq 1}$ or for $A = \{k^k\}_{k \geq 1}$, $0 < p(n, A, M) \leq n^c$ for all $n > n_0$. This answers a question of Ljujić and Nathanson.

1 Introduction

For two sets A and M of positive integers and for a positive integer n , let $p(n, A, M)$ denote the number of representations of n in the form

$$n = \sum_{a \in A} m_a a \tag{1}$$

where $m_a \in M \cup \{0\}$ for all a , and all numbers m_a but finitely many are 0. We say that the function $p = p(n, A, M)$ has polynomial growth if there exists an absolute constant c and an integer n_0 so that $p(n, A, M) \leq n^c$ for all $n > n_0$. Canfield and Wilf [2] raised the following question.

Question 1 [Canfield and Wilf [2]]

Do there exist two **infinite** sets A and M so that $p(n, A, M) > 0$ for all sufficiently large n and yet p has polynomial growth ?

Ljujić and Nathanson [4] showed, among other things, that this cannot be the case if the set A has at least $\delta \log n$ members in $[n] = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ for all sufficiently large n , where $\delta > 0$ is any positive constant, and asked the following two more specific questions.

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Question 2 [Ljujić and Nathanson [4]]

Let $A = \{k!\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$. Does there exist an infinite set M of positive integers so that $p(n, A, M) > 0$ for all sufficiently large n , and p has polynomial growth ?

Question 3 [Ljujić and Nathanson [4]]

Let $A = \{k^k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$. Does there exist an infinite set M of positive integers so that $p(n, A, M) > 0$ for all sufficiently large n and p has polynomial growth ?

In this note we prove that the answer to all three questions above is positive.

Our first result is simple, and shows that the answer to the first question is positive in the strongest possible way: there are infinite sets A and M so that $p(n, A, M) = 1$ for all n . This is stated in the following Theorem.

Theorem 1.1 *There are two infinite sequences of positive integers A and M so that $p(n, A, M) = 1$ for every positive integer n .*

The proof is by an explicit construction, which is general enough to give examples with sets A that grow at any desired rate which is faster than exponential. This rate of growth is tight, by the observation of Ljujić and Nathanson mentioned above.

We also prove the following result, which settles Questions 2 and 3.

Theorem 1.2 *Let A be an infinite set of positive integers, and suppose that $1 \in A$ and*

$$|A \cap [n]| = (1 + o(1)) \frac{\log n}{\log \log n},$$

where the $o(1)$ term tends to 0 as n tends to infinity. Then there exists n_0 and an infinite set M of positive integers so that $0 < p(n, A, M) < n^{8+o(1)}$ for all $n > n_0$.

The upper estimate $n^{8+o(1)}$ can be improved and we make no attempt to optimize it here. The proof of this theorem is probabilistic and can be easily modified to provide the existence of such sets M for many other sparse infinite sets A .

The rest of this note is organized as follows. In Section 2 we present the simple proof of Theorem 1.1. In Section 3 we describe the probabilistic construction of the set M used in the proof of Theorem 1.2. The proof it satisfies the required properties and hence establishes Theorem 1.2 is described in Section 4. Section 5 contains some concluding remarks.

All logarithms throughout the paper are in base 2, unless otherwise specified.

2 The proof of Theorem 1.1

Proof. Let $N \cup \{0\} = B \cup C$, $B \cap C = \emptyset$ be a partition of the set of all non-negative integers into two disjoint infinite sets B and C . Let

$$D = \left\{ \sum_{i \in B'} 2^i : B' \subset B \right\}$$

be the set of all sums of powers of two in which each exponent lies in B . Similarly, put

$$E = \left\{ \sum_{j \in C'} 2^j : C' \subset C \right\}.$$

This is the set of all sums of powers of two in which each exponent is a member of C . Note that both D and E contain 0, as the sets B' and C' in their definition may be taken to be empty. Since every non-negative integer has a unique binary representation, it is clear that each such integer has a unique representation as a sum of an element of D and an element of E .

Define, now,

$$A = \{2^d : d \in D\},$$

and

$$M = \left\{ \sum_{e \in E'} 2^e : E' \subset E \right\}.$$

Clearly both A and M are infinite. We claim that every positive integer has a unique representation of the form (1) with these A and M , that is, $p(n, A, M) = 1$ for all $n \geq 1$. Indeed, a general expression of the form $\sum_{a \in A} m_a a$ with $m_a \in M$ for all a satisfies

$$\sum_{a \in A} m_a a = \sum_{d \in D} \sum_{e \in E'_d} 2^{e+d}.$$

Let $n = 2^{t_1} + 2^{t_2} + \dots + 2^{t_r}$ be the binary representation of n , with $0 \leq t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_r$. By the fact that each nonnegative integer has a unique representation as a sum of an element of D and an element of E , there are, for each $1 \leq j \leq r$, unique $d_i \in D$ and $e_i \in E$ so that $t_i = d_i + e_i$. The elements d_i are not necessarily distinct. Let $D' = \{d_1, d_2, \dots, d_r\}$ be the set of all distinct ones. For each $d \in D'$ define $m_{2^d} = \sum_{i: d_i=d} 2^{e_i}$ and observe that

$$n = \sum_{d \in D'} m_{2^d} \cdot 2^d.$$

Therefore n has a representation of the form (1). It is not difficult to check that this representation is unique, that is, the elements d and m_{2^d} in the expression above can be reconstructed in the unique way described above from the binary representation of n . This shows that indeed $p(n, A, M) = 1$ for all n , completing the proof of Theorem 1.1. \square

Note that by choosing the set B so that $|B \cap \{0, 1, \dots, r\}| = r - g(r)$, where $g(r)$ is an arbitrary monotone function of r that tends to infinity, and $r - g(r)$ also tends to infinity in a monotone way, we get that for every integer $r \geq 1$:

$$|A \cap [2^{2^r}]| = |D \cap [2^r]| = |B \cap \{r\}| + 2^{|B \cap \{0, 1, \dots, r-1\}|} = 2^{r-1-g(r-1)} + O(1).$$

As $r = \log \log n$ this shows that $|A \cap [n]|$ is

$$\Theta\left(\frac{\log n}{2^{g(\log \log n)}}\right) + O(1),$$

showing that by an appropriate choice of g we can get sets A whose growth function is at least $\log n/w(n)$ for an arbitrary slowly growing function $w(n)$.

3 The probabilistic construction

The set M defined for the proof of Theorem 1.2 is a union of the form $M = \cup_{a \in A} M_a$. Each set M_a is a union $M_a = \cup_{i:2^i \geq a} M_{a,i}$. Each of the sets $M_{a,i}$ is a random subset of $[2^i]$ obtained by picking each number in $[2^i]$, randomly and independently, to be a member of $M_{a,i}$ with probability $\frac{i^6}{2^i}$ (if this ratio exceeds 1 then all members of $[2^i]$ lie in $M_{a,i}$, clearly this happens only for finitely many values of i .)

We claim that M satisfies the required properties with high probability (that is, with probability that tends to 1 as n_0 tends to infinity). This is proved in the next section. The fact that $p = p(n, A, M)$ has polynomial growth is simple: we show that with high probability the set M is sparse enough to ensure that the total number of expressions of the form (1) that are at most n does not exceed $n^{8+o(1)}$. The fact that with high probability $p(n, A, M) > 0$ for all sufficiently large n is more complicated and requires some work. It turns out to be convenient to restrict attention to expressions (1) of a special form that enable us to control their behaviour in an effective manner. We can then apply the Janson Inequality (c.f., [1], Chapter 8) to derive the required result.

4 The proof of Theorem 1.2

4.1 Polynomial growth

Let A be as in Theorem 1.2, and let $M = \cup_{a \in A} \cup_{i:2^i \geq a} M_{a,i}$ be as in the previous section. In this subsection we show that with high probability the function $p(n, A, M)$ has polynomial growth.

Lemma 4.1 *For every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists an $n_0 = n_0(\epsilon)$ so that with probability at least $1 - \epsilon$, M is infinite and $|M \cap [n]| < \log^8 n - 1$ for all $n > n_0$.*

Proof. It is obvious that M is infinite with probability 1. We proceed to prove the main part of the lemma.

Let m be a sufficiently large integer. If $2^i < m$ then m cannot lie in $M_{a,i}$. If $2^i \geq m$, then the probability that $m \in M_{a,i}$ is $\frac{i^6}{2^i}$. Since for large i , $\frac{(i+1)^6}{2^{i+1}} < \frac{2}{3} \frac{i^6}{2^i}$ it follows that for $a \leq m$ the probability $Pr[m \in M_a = \cup_{i:2^i \geq m} M_{a,i}]$ is smaller than $3 \frac{\log^6 m}{m}$. Similarly, for $a > m$, $Pr[m \in M_a] < 3 \frac{\log^6 a}{a}$. Summing over all $a \in A$, $a > m$ and using the fact that A is sparse we conclude that $Pr[m \in \cup_{a > m} M_a] < o(\frac{\log^7 m}{m})$. Since there are $o(\log m)$ members of A that are smaller than m we also get that (since m is large) $Pr[m \in \cup_{a \leq m} M_a] < 0.9 \frac{\log^7 m}{m}$. Altogether, the probability that m lies in $M = \cup_a M_a$ does not exceed $\frac{\log^7 m}{m}$.

It follows that the expected value of $|M \cap [n]|$ is smaller than $O(1) + \frac{1}{8} \log^8 n < 0.5 \log^8 n$ (where the $O(1)$ term is added to account for the small values of m). As this cardinality is a sum of independent random variables we can apply the Chernoff-Hoeffding Inequality (c.f., e.g., [1], Appendix A) and conclude that the probability that $|M \cap [n]|$ is at least $\log^8 n - 1$ is at most $e^{-\Omega(\log^8 n)}$. For sufficiently large n_0 the sum $\sum_{n \geq n_0} e^{-\Omega(\log^8 n)} < \epsilon$, completing the proof of the lemma. \square

Corollary 4.2 *Let A and M be as above. For any $\epsilon > 0$ there is an $n_0 = n_0(\epsilon)$ so that with probability at least $1 - \epsilon$, M is infinite and $\sum_{n \leq m} p(n, A, M) \leq m^{8+o(1)}$ for all $m > n_0$.*

Proof. Let ϵ and $n_0 = n_0(\epsilon)$ be as in Lemma 4.1 and suppose that M satisfies the assertion of the lemma (this happens with probability at least $1 - \epsilon$). Then, the number of representations of the form (1) of integers n that do not exceed m is at most $|(M \cap [m]) \cup \{0\}|^{|A \cap [m]|}$, as all coefficients m_a and all numbers a with a nonzero coefficient must be at most m . This expression is at most $(\log^8 m)^{(1+o(1)) \log m / \log \log m} = m^{8+o(1)}$, as needed. \square

4.2 Representing all large integers

In this subsection we prove that with high probability every sufficiently large number n has a representation of the form (1) where A and M are as above. To do so, it is convenient to insist on a representation of a special form, which we proceed to define. Put $A' = \{a \in A : a \leq n^{1/3}\}$. Let $q = |A'|$, $A' = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_q\}$ where $1 = a_1 < a_2 < \dots < a_q$. Thus $q = (\frac{1}{3} + o(1)) \frac{\log n}{\log \log n}$. Let i_1 be the smallest integer t so that $2^t \geq n$. For $2 \leq j \leq q$, let i_j be the smallest integer t so that $2^t \geq \frac{n}{a_j \log n}$. Therefore, $n \leq 2^{i_1} < 2n$ and $\frac{n}{a_j \log n} \leq 2^{i_j} < \frac{2n}{a_j \log n}$ for all $2 \leq j \leq q$. Since $a_j \leq n^{1/3}$ for all $a_j \in A'$, it follows that $i_j > \frac{1}{2} \log n$ for all admissible j .

We say that n has a special representation as a partition with parts in A and multiplicities in M (for short: n has a special representation) if there is a representation of the form $n = \sum_{j=1}^q m_j a_j$ where $m_j \in M_{a_j, i_j}$ for all $1 \leq j \leq q$. Recall that here $a_j \leq n^{1/3}$ for all $j \leq q$.

Lemma 4.3 *For all sufficiently large n , the probability that n does not have a special representation is at most $e^{-\Omega(\log^5 n)}$. Therefore, for any $\epsilon > 0$ there is an $n_0 = n_0(\epsilon)$ such that the probability that there is a special representation for every integer $n > n_0$ is at least $1 - \epsilon$.*

The assertion of Theorem 1.2 follows from Corollary 4.2 (with $\epsilon < 1/2$) and Lemma 4.3 (with $\epsilon < 1/2$) that supply the existence of an infinite set M satisfying the conclusions of the theorem.

In the proof of Lemma 4.3 we apply the Janson Inequality (c.f. [1], Chapter 8). We first state it to set the required notation. Let X be a finite set, and let $R \subset X$ be a random subset of X obtained by picking each element $r \in X$ to be a member of R , randomly and independently, with probability p_r . Let $\mathcal{C} = \{C_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a collection of subsets of X , let B_i denote the event that $C_i \subset R$, and let $i \sim j$ denote the fact that $i \neq j$ and $C_i \cap C_j \neq \emptyset$. Let $\mu = \sum_{i \in I} Pr[B_i] = \sum_{i \in I} \prod_{j \in C_i} p_j$ be the expected number of events B_i that hold, and define $\Delta = \sum_{i, j \in I, i \sim j} Pr[B_i \cap B_j]$ where the sum is computed over ordered pairs. The inequality we need is the following.

Lemma 4.4 (The Janson Inequality) *In the notation above, if $\Delta \leq D$ with $D \geq \mu$ then the probability that no event B_i holds is at most $e^{-\mu^2/2D}$.*

Note that the above statement is an immediate consequence of the two Janson inequalities described in [1], Chapter 8. If $\Delta < \mu$ then the above statement follows from the first inequality, whereas if $\Delta \geq \mu$ then it follows from the second.

We can now prove Lemma 4.3.

Proof. We apply the Janson inequality as stated in Lemma 4.4 above. The set X here is a disjoint union of the sets $X_j = [2^{i_j}]$, $1 \leq j \leq q$, and each element of X_j is chosen with probability $\frac{i_j^6}{2^{i_j}}$. The sets C_i are indexed by sequences (m_1, m_2, \dots, m_q) with $m_j \in X_j$ which satisfy

$$\sum_{j=1}^q m_j a_j = n. \quad (2)$$

If (m_1, m_2, \dots, m_q) is the i -th such sequence, then the set C_i is defined by the rule $C_i \cap X_j = \{m_j\}$. Note that there are exactly $\prod_{j=2}^q 2^{i_j}$ such sets, as for any choice of $m_j \in X_j$, $2 \leq j \leq q$ there is a unique choice of $m_1 \in X_1$ so that (2) holds. Therefore, in the notation above

$$\mu = \prod_{j=2}^q 2^{i_j} \prod_{j=1}^q \frac{i_j^6}{2^{i_j}} = \frac{1}{2^{i_1}} \prod_{j=2}^q i_j^6 = n^{1-o(1)},$$

where the last equality follows from the fact that $\frac{1}{2} \log n \leq i_j \leq \log n$ for all $2 \leq j \leq q$ and the fact that $q = (\frac{1}{3} + o(1)) \frac{\log n}{\log \log n}$.

We proceed with the estimation of the quantity Δ that appears in the inequality. This is the sum, over all ordered pairs of sequences $m_j^{(1)}$ and $m_j^{(2)}$ with $m_j^{(1)}, m_j^{(2)} \in X_j$, where $\sum m_j^{(1)} a_j = \sum m_j^{(2)} a_j = n$ and for at least one r , $m_r^{(1)} = m_r^{(2)}$, of the probability that both $m_j^{(1)}$ and $m_j^{(2)}$ belong to M_{a_j, i_j} for all j .

Write $\Delta = \sum_{\ell=1}^q \Delta_\ell$, where Δ_ℓ is the sum of these probabilities over all pairs $m_j^{(1)}$ and $m_j^{(2)}$ as above for which $\ell = \min\{j : m_j^{(1)} \neq m_j^{(2)}\}$.

Claim 1:

$$\Delta_1 \leq \frac{1}{2^{i_1}} \prod_{j=1}^q i_j^6 \sum_{\emptyset \neq I \subset \{2, 3, \dots, q\}} \frac{i_1^6}{2^{i_1}} \prod_{j>1, j \notin I} i_j^6.$$

Indeed, for each choice of the sequence $m_j^{(1)}$ the contribution to Δ_1 arises from sequences $m_j^{(2)}$ for which $m_r^{(1)} = m_r^{(2)}$ for all r in some nonempty subset I of $\{2, 3, \dots, q\}$. There are $\prod_{j=2}^q 2^{i_j}$ choices for the sequence $m_j^{(1)}$ (as the value of $m_1^{(1)}$ is determined by the value of the sum $\sum_{j=1}^q m_j^{(1)} a_j$). The probability that each $m_j^{(1)}$ lies in M_{a_j, i_j} is $\frac{i_j^6}{2^{i_j}}$. For each fixed choice of $m_j^{(1)}$ and for each nonempty subset I as above, there are $\prod_{j>1, j \notin I} (2^{i_j} - 1)$ possibilities to choose the numbers $m_j^{(2)}$, $j > 1, j \notin I$, and the value of $m_1^{(2)}$ is determined (and has to differ from $m_1^{(1)}$, which is another reason the above is an upper estimate for Δ_1 and not a precise computation). The probability that $m_j^{(2)} \in M_{a_j, i_j}$ for all these values of j is $\frac{i_1^6}{2^{i_1}} \prod_{j>1, j \notin I} \frac{i_j^6}{2^{i_j}}$, implying Claim 1.

Plugging the value of μ in Claim 1, we conclude that

$$\Delta_1 \leq \mu^2 \sum_{\emptyset \neq I \subset \{2, 3, \dots, q\}} \prod_{j \in I} \frac{1}{i_j^6} = \mu^2 \left(\left[\prod_{j=2}^q \left(1 + \frac{1}{i_j^6} \right) \right] - 1 \right) \leq \mu^2 \frac{1}{\log^5 n}. \quad (3)$$

The final inequality above follows from the fact that $i_j > 0.5 \log n$ for all j and that $q = o(\log n)$.

Claim 2: For any $2 \leq \ell \leq q$,

$$\Delta_\ell \leq \frac{1}{2^{i_1}} \prod_{j=1}^q i_j^6 \cdot \frac{i_\ell^6}{2^{i_\ell}} \sum_{I \subset \{\ell+1, \ell+2, \dots, q\}} \prod_{r \in \{\ell+1, \ell+2, \dots, q\} - I} i_r^6.$$

The proof is similar to that of Claim 1 with a few modifications. For each choice of the sequence $m_j^{(1)}$ the contribution to Δ_ℓ arises from sequences $m_j^{(2)}$ for which $m_r^{(1)} = m_r^{(2)}$ for all $r < \ell$, $m_\ell^{(1)} \neq m_\ell^{(2)}$, and there is a possibly empty subset I of $\{\ell + 1, \ell + 2, \dots, q\}$ so that $m_r^{(1)} = m_r^{(2)}$ for all $r \in I$ (and for no other r in $\{\ell + 1, \ell + 2, \dots, q\}$.) As in the proof of Claim 1 there are $\prod_{j=2}^q 2^{i_j}$ choices for the sequence $m_j^{(1)}$, and the probability that each $m_j^{(1)}$ lies in M_{a_j, i_j} is $\frac{i_j^6}{2^{i_j}}$. For each fixed choice of $m_j^{(1)}$ and for each subset I as above, there are $\prod_{r \in \{\ell+1, \ell+2, \dots, q\} - I} (2^{i_r} - 1)$ possible choices for $m_r^{(2)}$, $r \in \{\ell + 1, \ell + 2, \dots, q\} - I$, and the probability that each of those lies in the corresponding M_{a_r, i_r} is $\frac{i_r^6}{2^{i_r}}$. The product of these two terms is at most $\prod_{r \in \{\ell+1, \ell+2, \dots, q\} - I} i_r^6$. Finally, the value of $m_\ell^{(2)}$ is determined by the values of all other $m_j^{(2)}$ and by the fact that $\sum_{j=1}^q m_j^{(2)} a_j = n$. (Note that this value has to lie in $[2^{i_\ell}]$, otherwise we do not get any contribution here. This is fine, as we are only upper bounding Δ_ℓ .) Finally, the probability that $m_\ell^{(2)} \in M_{a_\ell, i_\ell}$ is $\frac{i_\ell^6}{2^{i_\ell}}$. This completes the explanation for the estimate in Claim 2.

Plugging the value of μ we get, by Claim 2, that for any $2 \leq \ell \leq q$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_\ell &\leq \mu^2 \frac{2^{i_1}}{2^{i_\ell}} \frac{1}{i_1^6 i_2^6 \dots i_{\ell-1}^6} \sum_{I \subset \{\ell+1, \ell+2, \dots, q\}} \prod_{r \in I} \frac{1}{i_r^6} \\ &\leq \mu^2 \frac{2^{i_1}}{2^{i_\ell}} \frac{1}{i_1^6 i_2^6 \dots i_{\ell-1}^6} \prod_{r=\ell+1}^q \left(1 + \frac{1}{i_r^6}\right) \leq 4\mu^2 a_\ell \log n \left(\frac{2^6}{\log^6 n}\right)^{\ell-1}. \end{aligned}$$

In the last inequality we used the fact that

$$\frac{2^{i_1}}{2^{i_\ell}} \leq 2a_\ell \log n \quad \text{and} \quad \prod_{r=\ell+1}^q \left(1 + \frac{1}{i_r^6}\right) < 2.$$

Since $a_2 = O(1)$ we conclude that $\Delta_2 \leq O\left(\frac{\mu^2}{\log^5 n}\right)$. For any $\ell \geq 3$ we use the fact that $a_\ell < \ell^{(1+o(1))\ell} \leq (\log n)^{(1+o(1))\ell}$ to conclude that $\Delta_\ell \leq O\left(\frac{\mu^2}{\log^{(5-o(1))\ell-7} n}\right) \leq O\left(\frac{\mu^2}{\log^7 n}\right)$.

Summing over all values of ℓ we conclude that $\Delta = O\left(\frac{\mu^2}{\log^5 n}\right)$. The assertion of Lemma 4.3 thus follows from Lemma 4.4. As mentioned after the statement of this lemma, this also completes the proof of Theorem 1.2. \square

5 Concluding Remarks

- Since the proof of Theorem 1.2 is probabilistic and the probabilistic estimates are strong enough it follows that for any finite collection of sequences A_j , each satisfying the assumptions of Theorem

1.2, there is a sequence of multiplicities M that is good for each of them, where the number n_0 here depends on all sequences A_j .

- The proof of Theorem 1.2 can be easily modified to work for any sequence A that grows to infinity at least as fast as $k^{\Omega(k)}$ and satisfies $\gcd(A) = 1$.
- Erdős and Turán [3] asked if for any asymptotic basis of order 2 of the positive integers (that is, a set A of positive integers so that each sufficiently large integer has a representation as a sum of two elements of A), there must be, for any constant t , integers that have more than t such representations. Theorem 1.1 shows that a natural analogous statement does not hold for partition functions with restricted multiplicities.

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