# Moreira's theorem: any finite coloring of $\{1,2, \ldots\}$ has a monochromatic triple $\{x, x+y, x y\}$ 

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The classical theorem of Hindman [2] says that for any finite coloring $\mathbb{N}=$ $\{1,2, \ldots\}=C_{1} \cup C_{2} \cup \cdots \cup C_{r}$ of natural numbers there is a color $b \in[r]=$ $\{1,2, \ldots, r\}$ and an infinite sequence $1 \leq n_{1}<n_{2}<\ldots$ in $\mathbb{N}$ such that

$$
n_{i_{1}}+n_{i_{2}}+\cdots+n_{i_{k}} \in C_{b}
$$

for every $k$-tuple $1 \leq i_{1}<i_{2}<\cdots<i_{k}$. The mapping $a \mapsto 2^{a}$ transforms sums into products, and we see that the Hindman theorem also holds for the product $n_{i_{1}} n_{i_{2}} \ldots n_{i_{k}}$ in place of the sum. But can one combine together sums and products? Until now it was not known if every finite coloring of $\mathbb{N}$ has to contain a monochromatic pair $\{x+y, x y\}$. This problem has been recently resolved by Moreira [4]: every finite coloring of $\mathbb{N}$ has a monochromatic triple $\{x, x+y, x y\}$. We present his beautiful elementary proof ([4, Section 5] plus some details filled in by us) below. The proof is selfcontained except for the proof of van der Waerden's theorem, which is easily found in the literature or on the Internet. We intend to include Moreira's theorem in [3] in the chapter on arithmetic progressions.

Two comments before we plunge in the proof. By a general argument, existence of one monochromatic triple $\{x, x+y, x y\}$ in any finite coloring of $\mathbb{N}$ forces existence of infinitely many such triples; if a finite coloring existed with only finitely many such triples, we could recolor points in them and obtain a finite coloring with no such triple. This tacitly uses that always $|\{x, x+y, x y\}| \geq 2$; for $\mathbb{N}_{0}=\{0,1, \ldots\}$ in place of $\mathbb{N}$ we would have to exclude the trivial triple for $x=y=0$. Also, the theorem is equivalent to the finite version that for every $r \in \mathbb{N}$ there is an $n=n(r) \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for any $r$-coloring $f: \quad[n] \rightarrow[r]$ there exist $x, y \in[n]$ such that $x+y, x y \in[n]$ and $f(x)=f(x+y)=f(x y)$. Equivalence of both versions of the theorem follows by the usual compactness argument; if for some $r$ there were no such $n(r)$, we could paste the bad $r$ colorings of $[n], n=1,2, \ldots$, into a bad $r$-coloring of $\mathbb{N}$. We prove the infinite version.

[^0]Theorem (Moreira [4], 2016). For any finite coloring

$$
\mathbb{N}=C_{1} \cup C_{2} \cup \cdots \cup C_{r}
$$

there exist a $b \in[r]$ and $x, y \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\{x, x+y, x y\} \subset C_{b}$.
Proof. A set $X \subset \mathbb{N}$ is piecewise syndetic, or briefly a ps set, if there is a $c \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$ there is a $k$-tuple $n_{1}<n_{2}<\cdots<n_{k}$ of elements in $X$ such that $n_{i+1}-n_{i} \leq c$ for every $i=1,2, \ldots, k-1$. We call such tuple a $c$-run in $X$ with length $k . \mathbb{N}$ is a ps set. It is clear that if $X, Y \subset \mathbb{N}, X$ is a ps set, and $Y=f(X)$ where $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is an affine (nonconstant) mapping, then $Y$ is a ps set. The same if $Y \supset X$. We begin with proving that ps sets have Ramsey property.

- If $\mathbb{N} \supset X=C_{1} \cup C_{2} \cup \cdots \cup C_{r}$ and $X$ is a ps set then some $C_{i}$ is a ps set.

It suffices to prove it for $r=2$. Suppose that $X$ is red-blue colored and $t_{k}$, $k=1,2, \ldots$, are $c$-runs in $X$ with length $k$. Let $b\left(t_{k}\right)$ be the number of blue numbers in $t_{k}$. If $b\left(t_{k}\right)$ are bounded, say $b\left(t_{k}\right) \leq d \in \mathbb{N}$ for every $k$, then by omitting all blue numbers from all $t_{k}$ we get $c(d+1)$-runs of red numbers with length going to infinity. So we assume that $b\left(t_{k}\right)$ are unbounded and passing to a subsequence we may assume that $b\left(t_{k}\right) \rightarrow \infty$. Let $g\left(t_{k}\right)$ be the maximum distance between two consecutive blue numbers in $t_{k}$. If it is unbounded then the red numbers between two distant consecutive blue numbers in $t_{k}$ form $c$-runs of red numbers with length going to infinity. So we may assume that $g\left(t_{k}\right) \leq d$ for a $d \in \mathbb{N}$ for every $k$. But then the blue numbers in $t_{k}$ form $d$-runs of blue numbers with length going to infinity.

The following is the classical van der Waerden theorem.

- For every $k, r \in \mathbb{N}$ there is an $n=n(r, k) \in \mathbb{N}$ such that any $r$-coloring $f:[n] \rightarrow[r]$ contains a monochromatic $k$-term arithmetic progression,

$$
f(a)=f(a+d)=f(a+2 d)=\cdots=f(a+(k-1) d)
$$

for some $a, d \in[n]$ with $a+(k-1) d \in[n]$.
This was proven by van der Waerden [5]. For a short (less than 1 page) combinatorial proof see Graham, Spencer and Rothschild [1].

The next property of ps sets is crucial.

- If $F \subset \mathbb{N}$ is finite and $X \subset \mathbb{N}$ is a ps set then there is an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$
Y=X \cap \bigcap_{m \in F}(X-m n)
$$

is a ps set.
To prove it, we take $c$-runs $t_{k}, k \in \mathbb{N}$, in $X$ with length $k$ and, using the $\operatorname{vdW}$ theorem, set $m=n(c, 1+f)$ where $f=\max F$. We partition each interval of integers $I_{k}=\left[\min t_{k}, \max t_{k}\right]$ into (disjoint and consecutive) intervals $J_{k, i}$,
$i=1,2, \ldots,\left\lfloor\left|I_{k}\right| / m\right\rfloor$, each with length $m$, and the possibly shorter residual interval. We color each $J_{k, i}$ with colors $\{0,1, \ldots, c-1\}$, the color of $a \in J_{k, i}$ is the distance to the preceding closest element of $X$ (so $a$ has color 0 iff $a \in X$ ). By the vdW theorem, every $J_{k, i}$ contains a monochromatic $(1+f)$-term AP. Shifting it down by its color, we get a $(1+f)$-term AP $A_{k, i} \subset J_{k, i}^{\prime} \cap X$, where $J_{k, i}^{\prime}=\left[\min J_{k, i}-c, \max J_{k, i}\right]$. Let $a_{k, i}$ and $d_{k, i}$ be, respectively, the first term and the common difference of $A_{k, i}$. Clearly, $a_{k, i} \in Y$ if $n=d_{k, i}$ (where $Y$ is as stated). Let $Y^{\prime}$ be the set of all $a_{k, i}$. We have $Y^{\prime} \subset X$ and from $a_{k, i} \in J_{k, i}^{\prime}$ and $a_{k, i+1}-a_{k, i}<2 m+c$ it follows that $Y^{\prime}$ is a ps set. We give to each $a_{k, i}$ the color $d_{k, i}$. As $d_{k, i}<m$, this is a finite coloring of $Y^{\prime}$. By the Ramsey property of ps sets (proved above), there is a monochromatic ps set $Y^{\prime \prime} \subset Y^{\prime}$. For $n$ equal to the color of $Y^{\prime \prime}$ one has $Y \supset Y^{\prime \prime}$ and so $Y$ is a ps set.

We start the proper proof of the theorem. Let $\mathbb{N}=C_{1} \cup C_{2} \cup \cdots \cup C_{r}$, $r \geq 2$, be a finite coloring of natural numbers. We define inductively numbers $n_{1}, \ldots, n_{r} \in \mathbb{N}$, ps sets $X_{0}, \ldots, X_{r}, Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{r} \subset \mathbb{N}$, and colors $r_{0}, \ldots, r_{r} \in[r]$ so that $X_{i} \subset C_{r_{i}}$ for every $i$. First we select $r_{0} \in[r]$ so that $X_{0}:=C_{r_{0}}$ is a ps set (using the Ramsey property of ps sets). If $0<i \leq r$ (and the quantities $n_{-}, X_{-}, Y_{-}$, and $r_{-}$with indices smaller than $i$ have been already defined), we apply the above crucial property of ps sets and take $n_{i} \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$
Y_{i}:=X_{i-1} \cap \bigcap_{j=1}^{i}\left(X_{i-1}-n_{j}^{2} \ldots n_{i-1}^{2} n_{i}\right)
$$

is a ps set (for $i=j$ the empty product $n_{j}^{2} \ldots n_{i-1}^{2}=1$ ). Since $n_{i} Y_{i}$ is a ps set, there is an $r_{i} \in[r]$ such that $X_{i}:=n_{i} Y_{i} \cap C_{r_{i}}$ is a ps set. This finishes the inductive definition.

From $X_{i} \subset n_{i} Y_{i} \subset n_{i} X_{i-1}$ we get by iteration, for any $0 \leq j<i \leq r$, the inclusion $X_{i} \subset n_{j+1} \ldots n_{i} X_{j}$. By the pigeonhole principle, there exist $0 \leq j<$ $i \leq r$ with $r_{i}=r_{j}$. We take any $x^{\prime} \in X_{i}$ and set

$$
y:=n_{j+1} \ldots n_{i} \text { and } x:=x^{\prime} / y
$$

$\left(x \in \mathbb{N}\right.$ by the inclusion). We show that $\{x, x+y, x y\} \subset C_{r_{i}}$, which will finish the proof. Indeed, $x y=x^{\prime} \in X_{i} \subset C_{r_{i}}$ and, by the inclusion, $x y \in X_{i} \subset y X_{j}$, giving $x \in X_{j} \subset C_{r_{j}}=C_{r_{i}}$. Finally,

$$
\begin{aligned}
(x+y) y & =x^{\prime}+y^{2} \in X_{i}+y^{2} \subset n_{i} Y_{i}+y^{2} \\
\text { (the definition of } \left.Y_{i}\right) & \subset n_{i}\left(X_{i-1}-n_{j+1}^{2} \ldots n_{i-1}^{2} n_{i}\right)+y^{2} \\
\text { (the inclusion) } & \subset n_{i}\left(n_{j+1} \ldots n_{i-1} X_{j}-n_{j+1}^{2} \ldots n_{i-1}^{2} n_{i}\right)+y^{2} \\
(\text { the definition of } y) & =y X_{j}-y^{2}+y^{2}=y X_{j}
\end{aligned}
$$

and $x+y \in X_{j} \subset C_{r_{j}}=C_{r_{i}}$.

## References

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