# Rainbow numbers for $x_1 + x_2 = kx_3$ in $\mathbb{Z}_n$

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#### Abstract

In this work, we investigate the fewest number of colors needed to guarantee a rainbow solution to the equation  $x_1 + x_2 = kx_3$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ . This value is called the Rainbow number and is denoted by  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, k)$  for positive integer values of n and k. We find that  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_p, 1) = 4$  for all primes greater than 3 and that  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, 1)$  can be determined from the prime factorization of n. Furthermore, when k is prime,  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, k)$  can be determined from the prime factorization of n.

### Introduction

Let  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  be the cyclic group of order n, and let an r-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  be a function  $c: \mathbb{Z}_n \to [r]$  where  $[r] := \{1, ..., r\}$ . In this paper, we assume that each r-coloring is exact (surjective). Given an exact r-coloring, we define r color classes  $C_i = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_n \mid c(x) = i\}$  for  $1 \le i \le r$ . Occasionally, when convenient, we will use R, G, B, and Y to denote the colors or the color classes red, green, blue, and yellow, respectively.

Fix an integer k. Let a triple  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  be any three elements in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  which are a solution to  $x_1 + x_2 \equiv kx_3 \mod n$ . When k = 1, we will call these triples Schur triples. Such a triple is called a rainbow triple under a coloring c when  $c(x_1) \neq c(x_2)$ ,  $c(x_1) \neq c(x_3)$ , and  $c(x_2) \neq c(x_3)$ . Consequently, a coloring will be called rainbow-free when there does not exist a rainbow triple in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  under c.

The rainbow number of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  given  $x_1 + x_2 = kx_3$ , denoted  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, k)$ , is the smallest positive integer r such that any r-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  admits a rainbow triple. By convention, if such an integer does not exist, we set  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, k) = n + 1$ . A maximum coloring is a rainbow-free r-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  where  $r = rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, k) - 1$ .

For a coloring c of  $\mathbb{Z}_{st}$ , the  $i^{th}$  residue class modulo t is the set of all the elements in  $\mathbb{Z}_{st}$  which are congruent to  $i \mod t$ . Denote each residue class as  $R_i = \{j \in \mathbb{Z}_{st} | j \equiv i \mod t\}$ . We say the  $i^{th}$  residue palette modulo t is the set of colors which appear in the  $i^{th}$  residue class, and we will denote each palette as  $P_i = \{c(j) | j \equiv i \mod t\}$ .

Rainbow numbers for the equation  $x_1 + x_2 = 2x_3$ , for which the solutions are 3-term arithmetic progressions, have been studied in [4], [5], [7], and [9]. These problems are historically rooted in Roth's Theorem, Szemerédi's Theorem, and van der Waerden's Theorem. The first half of our paper explores the rainbow numbers of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  given the Schur equation,  $x_1 + x_2 = x_3$ . We rely on the work of Llano and Montenjano in [8], Jungić et al. in [7], and Butler et al. in [5] to prove exact values for  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, 1)$  in terms of the prime factorization of n. Our results are an extension to the results in [4], [7], and [9].

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**Theorem 1.** For a prime  $p \geq 5$ ,  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_p, 1) = 4$ .

**Remark 1.** It can be deduced through inspection that  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_2,1) = rb(\mathbb{Z}_3,1) = 3$ .

Theorem 1 gives exact values for  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_p, 1)$  where p is prime. Therefore, Theorems 2 and 1 give exact values for  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, 1)$ . The proof for Theorem 2 is at the end of Section 1.3.

**Theorem 2.** For a positive integer n with prime factorization  $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_m^{\alpha_m}$ ,

$$rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, 1) = 2 + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \alpha_i (rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p_i}, 1) - 2) \right).$$

We continue by considering the equation  $x_1 + x_2 = px_3$  for any prime p. Many of the techniques for the k = 1 case generalize. However, there are complications. If we let the prime factorization of n be  $n = p^{\alpha} \cdot q_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots q_m^{\alpha_m}$ , then we can produce a recursive formula for  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, p)$  detailed in Theorem 5.

**Theorem 3.** Let p,q be distinct and prime. Then  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_q,p)=4$  if and only if p,q do not satisfy either of the following conditions:

1. p generates  $\mathbb{Z}_q^*$ ,

2. |p| = (q-1)/2 in  $\mathbb{Z}_q^*$  and (q-1)/2 is odd.

Otherwise,  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_q, p) = 3$ .

**Theorem 4.** For  $p \geq 3$  prime and  $\alpha \geq 1$ ,

$$rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha}}, p) = \begin{cases} 3 & p = 3, \alpha = 1\\ 4 & p = 3, \alpha \ge 2\\ \frac{p+1}{2} + 1 & p \ge 5 \end{cases}$$

The values for  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_{2^{\alpha}}, 2)$  are resolved in [4]. In conjunction with Theorems 3 and 4, Theorem 5 determines exact values for  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, p)$ . The proof for Theorem 5 is at the end of Section 2.4.

**Theorem 5.** Let n be a positive integer, and let p be prime. Let n have prime factorization  $n = p^{\alpha} \cdot q_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots q_m^{\alpha_m}$ . Then

$$rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, p) = rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha}}, p) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left(\alpha_i(rb(\mathbb{Z}_{q_i}, p) - 2)\right).$$

In the case that  $\alpha = 0$ , let  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha}}, p) = 2$ .

## 1 Schur Triples

Section 1 is dedicated to proving Theorem 2. In Section 1.1 we introduce the idea of a dominant color to describe the structural properties of colorings of  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ . Additionally, we prove Proposition 9, the Schur triple counterpart of Theorem 3.2 in [7]. We use Proposition 9 to prove Theorem 1, concluding Section 1.1. In Section 1.2 we show that the lower bound of  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, 1)$  can be determined by the prime factorization of n. The equivalent upper bound is proved in 1.3. Combining Sections 1.2 and 1.3 proves Theorem 2.

### 1.1 Schur Triples in $\mathbb{Z}_p$ , p prime

Let c be a coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ . We say a sequence  $S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_k$  of colors appears at position i if  $c(i) = S_1, c(i+1) = S_2, \ldots, c(i+k-1) = S_k$ . A sequence is bichromatic if it contains exactly two colors. A color R is dominant if for  $S = \{c(x) : i \leq x \leq j, i < j\}$ , |S| = 2 implies  $R \in S$ . That is, R appears in every bichromatic string. Using dominant colors to derive a contradiction is used in [7]. We also use this idea to describe the structure of rainbow-free colorings of  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ . However, we must show that a dominant color exists.

**Lemma 6.** There exists a dominant color in every rainbow-free coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ . Furthermore, c(1) is dominant.

Proof. Let c be a rainbow-free coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ . Note that (1, i, i+1) is a Schur triple for all  $i \notin \{0, 1\}$ . Since c is rainbow-free, either c(i) = c(i+1), c(1) = c(i), or c(1) = c(i+1). Thus, if  $c(i) \neq c(i+1)$ , then c(1) must appear on either i or i+1. This implies that c(1) is dominant.

An immediate result from this lemma is that any color which doesn't appear on 1 must be adjacent to itself or the dominant color. Now we can relate the structure of our coloring to the presence of a rainbow triple. Without loss of generality, let c(1) = R be dominant.

**Lemma 7.** Let c be an r-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  with  $r \geq 3$ . If BB and GG appears in c, then there exists a rainbow Schur triple in c.

*Proof.* Let c be an r-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  with  $r \geq 3$  such that BB and GG appears in c. Without loss of generality, assume R is dominant, and c contains BB and GG. Then, the sequence BBR must appear at some position i and the sequence GGR must appear at some position j.

Consider the Schur triple (i, j + 2, i + j + 2). Since c(i) = B, and c(j + 2) = R, then either c contains a rainbow Schur triple, or c(i + j + 2) is R or B. Assume the second case, and consider the Schur triple (i+2, j, i+j+2). Since c(i+2) = R, and c(j) = G then either c contains a rainbow Schur triple or c(i+j+2) is R. Again, assume the second case, and finally consider the triple (i+1, j+1, i+j+2). Since c(i+1) = B, c(j+1) = G, and c(i+j+2) = R, this triple is rainbow. Therefore, c contains a rainbow Schur triple.  $\square$ 

Therefore, if c is a rainbow-free coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  with R dominant, either GG or BB can appear in c, but not both. Next we show that there are ways to re-order colorings while maintaining whether or not Schur triples are rainbow.

**Lemma 8.** Let c be an r-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ . If m is relatively prime to n, then c has a rainbow Schur triple if and only if  $\hat{c}(x) := c(mx)$  contains a rainbow Schur triple. Additionally, the cardinality of each color class will be maintained.

*Proof.* Let  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  be a triple in c. By definition,  $x_1 + x_2 = x_3$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is equivalent to

$$x_1 + x_2 = sn + r$$
$$x_3 = tn + r,$$

as equations in the integers for some  $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Multiply both equations by m to get

$$mx_1 + mx_2 = msn + mr$$
$$mx_3 = mtn + mr$$

Therefore,  $mx_1 + mx_2 \equiv mr \mod n$ , and  $mx_3 \equiv mr \mod n$ , so  $mx_1 + mx_2 \equiv mx_3 \mod n$ . Thus,  $(mx_1, mx_2, mx_3)$  is rainbow in  $\hat{c}$  if and only if  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  is rainbow in c.

Finally, the last statement of Lemma 8 follows from the fact that if m is relatively prime to n, then the map  $F: x \mapsto mx$  is a bijection.

Our next result is the Schur equation counterpart to Theorem 3.2 in [7].

**Proposition 9.** Let p be prime. Then every 3-coloring c of  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  with  $\min(|R|, |G|, |B|) > 1$  contains a rainbow Schur triple.

Proof. For the sake of contradiction, assume that c is a rainbow-free 3-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  and  $\min(|R|, |G|, |B|) > 1$ . Without loss of generality, assume that  $|R| = \min(|R|, |G|, |B|)$ . Since there are at least two elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  colored R, there exists a minimal element  $1 \le i \le p-1$  such that c(i) = R Because p is prime, i is relatively prime to p and i has a multiplicative inverse. Let  $\hat{c}(x) := c(ix)$  so that  $\hat{c}(1) = R$ . Therefore, by Lemma 6, R is dominant in  $\hat{c}$ . By Lemma 7, BB and GG cannot both appear in  $\hat{c}$ . Without loss of generality, assume that GG does not appear in  $\hat{c}$ . Because R is dominant, R must follow each G, so  $|R| \ge |G|$ . Furthermore, BR must appear in  $\hat{c}$ . This implies that  $|R| \ge |G| + 1$  in  $\hat{c}$  which implies  $|R| \ge |G| + 1$  in c by Lemma 8. This contradicts our assumption that  $|R| = \min(|R|, |G|, |B|)$ .

**Lemma 10.** If c is a rainbow-free r-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  for a prime p with r > 2, then c(x) = c(-x).

Proof. Let c be a rainbow-free r-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ . For the sake of contradiction, assume that there exists i, -i with  $c(i) \neq c(-i)$ . Without loss of generality, let c(i) = R and c(-i) = G. Now, let  $\hat{c}(x) := c(ix)$  and let  $\bar{c}(x) := c(-ix)$ . By Lemma 8,  $\hat{c}$  and  $\bar{c}$  are both rainbow-free. Since  $\hat{c}(1) = c(i) = R$  and  $\bar{c}(1) = c(-i) = G$ , R is dominant in  $\hat{c}$ , and G is dominant in  $\bar{c}$ . Notice that  $\hat{c}(x) = \bar{c}(-x)$ , so if two colors are adjacent at some position in  $\hat{c}$ , then they are also adjacent at some position in  $\bar{c}$ . Thus, since G is dominant in  $\bar{c}$ , G must also appear in every bichromatic sequence in  $\hat{c}$ , and, consequently, G is also dominant in  $\hat{c}$ . If both R and G are dominant in  $\hat{c}$ , then  $\hat{c}$  must only contain R and G, and r = 2; this is a contradiction.

Note that this lemma shows that the coloring from 1 to p-1 must be symmetric in a rainbow-free coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ .

Remark 2. For any prime  $p \geq 5$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  can be colored with three colors by coloring zero uniquely and coloring 1 to p-1 with two colors in any way such that c(x) = c(-x) for all x. This coloring is rainbow-free since any three group elements which witness three colors must contain 0, and in order to make a Schur triple of three distinct elements where one of the elements is 0 the other two elements must be x and -x for some x (see also Corollary 2 in [8]).

Now we have enough information about the structure of rainbow-free colorings to prove Theorem 1. A color class C is singleton if |C| = 1.

Proof of Theorem 1. For the sake of contradiction, suppose that  $r+1=rb(\mathbb{Z}_p,1)>4$  for a prime  $p\geq 5$ , and let c be a rainbow-free r-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  with r>3. Note that since c is rainbow-free, at least one of the color classes in c must contain more than one element. Partition the color classes of c into three sets to define  $\hat{c}$ , an exact 3-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ . We use the union of the color classes within each part of the partition as the color classes for  $\hat{c}$ . Since we are concatenating colors,  $\hat{c}$  is also rainbow-free. By Proposition 9, regardless of how the color classes of c are partitioned, there exists some color class in  $\hat{c}$  with exactly one element. If  $r\geq 5$ , then there exists a partition of the five or more color classes such that each color class has more than one element. Therefore, r=4.

Furthermore, if two or more color classes are not singleton, then there would exist a partition of the color classes that yields no singleton color classes in  $\hat{c}$ . Therefore, all but one of the four color classes in c must be singleton.

If there are three singleton color classes in c, then there exists an  $x \neq 0$  such that  $c(x) \neq c(-x)$ . This contradicts Lemma 10, and c cannot be rainbow-free.

Thus, there does not exist an exact rainbow-free r-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  for r > 3 and  $p \ge 5$ .

#### 1.2 Lower Bound

In order to prove the lower bound for  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, 1)$ , we examine the relationship between Schur triples in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_{\frac{n}{n}}$  where m divides n.

**Lemma 11.** If there exists a Schur triple of form  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  where  $m|x_1, x_2, x_3$  for some m|n,  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then there exists a Schur triple of the form  $(x_1/m, x_2/m, x_3/m)$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{\frac{m}{m}}$ .

*Proof.* By definition,  $x_1 + x_2 = x_3$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  implies that in the integers

$$x_1 + x_2 = qn + r$$
$$x_3 = tn + r,$$

for some  $q, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Divide both equations by m to get

$$\frac{x_1}{m} + \frac{x_2}{m} = q\frac{n}{m} + \frac{r}{m}$$
$$\frac{x_3}{m} = t\frac{n}{m} + \frac{r}{m}.$$

Now we must check that  $\frac{r}{m}$  is an integer. Since  $m|(x_1+x_2-qn)$ , we know m|r.

By definition, this means that there exists a Schur triple of the form  $(x_1/m, x_2/m, x_3/m)$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{\frac{n}{m}}$ .

This shows that Schur triples can be "projected" from the cyclic group  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  to a subgroup  $\mathbb{Z}_{\frac{n}{m}}$ . Next, we will show another property of Schur triples related to the divisibility of a triple's elements by a prime.

**Lemma 12.** For a positive integer n and a prime p, if  $x_1 + x_2 \equiv x_3 \mod np$ , then p cannot divide exactly two of  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ .

*Proof.* If  $x_1 + x_2 \equiv x_3 \mod np$ , then there exist integers  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$ , and  $c_3$  such that  $c_4 + c_5 = c_1 np + c_2 np$ 

Assume that p divides  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ . Then there exist integers  $c_3$  and  $c_4$  such that  $x_1 = c_3p$  and  $x_2 = c_4p$ . We know there exist integers  $c_5$  and  $r_1$  with  $0 \le r_1 < p$  such that  $x_3 = c_5p + r_1$ , so we want to show  $r_1 = 0$ . Immediately, we see that  $c_3p + c_4p = c_1np + r_0$  and  $c_5p + r_1 = c_2np + r_0$ , which, after substituting for  $r_0$ , shows us  $c_3p + c_4p = c_1np + c_5p + r_1 - c_2np$ . Solving for  $r_1$  gives us

$$r_1 = c_3p + c_4p - c_1np - c_5p + c_2np$$
  
=  $p(c_3 + c_4 - c_1n - c_5 + c_2n)$ 

This means that p divides  $r_1$ , forcing  $r_1 = 0$ . Thus, p divides  $x_3$ .

Now assume p divides  $x_1$  and  $x_3$ , i.e. there exist integers  $c_6$  and  $c_7$  such that  $x_1 = c_6 p$  and  $x_3 = c_7 p$ . We know there exist integers  $c_8$  and  $r_2$  with  $0 \le r_2 < p$  such that  $x_2 = c_8 p + r_2$ , so we want to show  $r_2 = 0$ . Immediately, we see that  $c_6 p + c_8 p + r_2 = c_1 n p + r_0$  and  $c_7 p = c_2 n p + r_0$ , which, after substituting for  $r_0$ , shows us  $c_6 p + c_8 p + r_2 = c_1 n p + c_7 p - c_2 n p$ . Solving for  $r_2$  gives us

$$r_2 = c_1 np + c_7 p - c_2 np - c_6 p - c_8 p$$
  
=  $p(c_1 n + c_7 - c_2 n - c_6 - c_8)$ 

This means that p divides  $r_2$ , forcing  $r_2 = 0$ . Thus, p divides  $x_2$ . By symmetry, this case is identical to the case where p divides  $x_2$  and  $x_3$ .

Therefore, we can see that if p divides two elements in  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ , then p must also divide the third.  $\Box$ 

**Lemma 13.** Let p,t be positive integers with p prime. If there exists a rainbow-free r-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_t$ , then there exists a rainbow-free  $r + rb(\mathbb{Z}_p, 1) - 2$ -coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{pt}$ .

*Proof.* Let t, p be positive integers such that p is a prime. Assume  $\hat{c}$  is a rainbow-free r-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_t$ . Then let c be an exact  $(r+rb(\mathbb{Z}_p,1)-2)$ -coloring (if p=2 or p=3, then c is an exact (r+1)-coloring. Otherwise, c is an exact r+2 coloring) of  $\mathbb{Z}_{pt}$  as follows:

$$c(x) := \begin{cases} \hat{c}(x/p) & x \equiv 0 \mod p \\ r+1 & x \equiv 1 \text{ or } p-1 \mod p \\ r+2 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Notice that if  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  is a Schur triple in  $\mathbb{Z}_{pt}$ , then there are three cases by Lemma 12: p divides exactly one of  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ , p divides each of  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ , or p divides none of  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ .

Case 1: The two terms  $x_i, x_j$  where  $i, j \in \{1, 2, 3\}$  that are not divisible by p are either additive inverses modulo p or are equal modulo p. Thus,  $c(x_i) = c(x_j)$  and  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  does not form a triple.

Case 2: The coloring of each  $x_i$  is inherited from  $\hat{c}$ . Since  $\hat{c}$  does not admit rainbow triples, we know that this triple will not be rainbow by Lemma 11.

Case 3: The three integers in the triple will be colored from  $\{r+1, r+2\}$ , so the triple will not be rainbow. In each case, c is a rainbow-free  $r + rb(\mathbb{Z}_p, 1) - 2$ -coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{pt}$ .

**Proposition 14.** For any positive integer  $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_m^{\alpha_m}$ ,

$$rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, 1) \ge 2 + \sum_{i=1}^m \left( \alpha_i (rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p_i}, 1) - 2) \right).$$

*Proof.* If n is prime, there is nothing to show. Suppose that the claim holds true for n where n has N prime factors.

Assume that  $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_m^{\alpha_m}$  where  $\alpha_1 + \cdots + \alpha_m = N + 1$ . By the induction hypothesis, there exists a rainbow-free r-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{n/p_1}$  where

$$r = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \alpha_i (rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p_i}, 1) - 2) \right) - rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p_1}, 1) + 2.$$

Therefore, by Lemma 13, there exists a rainbow-free  $r + rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p_1}, 1) - 2$  coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ . Thus, by induction

$$rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, 1) \ge 2 + \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\alpha_i(rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p_i}, 1) - 2)\right).$$

### 1.3 Upper Bound

To establish the upper bound for  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, 1)$ , we consider residue classes and their corresponding residue palettes under c.

**Lemma 15.** Let  $R_0, R_1, \ldots, R_{t-1}$  be the residue classes modulo t for  $\mathbb{Z}_{st}$ , and let  $P_0, P_1, \cdots, P_{t-1}$  be the corresponding residue palettes under rainbow-free c. Then  $|P_i \setminus P_0| \le 1$  for  $1 \le i \le t-1$ .

Proof. Assume that  $|P_i \setminus P_0| \ge 2$ . Then  $R_i$  must contain at least two elements which receive colors that do not appear in  $P_0$ . Without loss of generality, let G and B denote two colors in  $P_i \setminus P_0$ . Then there exists two integers m and n such that c(mt+i) = G and c(nt+i) = B. Consider the Schur triple (mt-nt, nt+i, mt+i). Notice that  $mt-nt \equiv 0 \mod t$ ,  $c(mt-nt) \ne G$ , B. Thus, we have a rainbow triple under c in  $\mathbb{Z}_{st}$ , which is a contradiction. Therefore,  $|P_i \setminus P_0| \le 1$  for  $1 \le i \le t-1$ .

Lemma 15 lets us create a well-defined reduction of a coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_t$  to a coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_t$ .

**Lemma 16.** Let s and t be positive integers. Let  $R_0, R_1, \ldots, R_{t-1}$  be the residue classes modulo t for  $\mathbb{Z}_{st}$  with corresponding residue palettes  $P_i$ . Suppose c is a coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{st}$  where  $|P_i \setminus P_0| \leq 1$ . Let  $\hat{c}$  be a coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_t$  given by

$$\hat{c}(i) := \begin{cases} P_i \setminus P_0 & \text{if } |P_i \setminus P_0| = 1\\ \alpha & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where  $\alpha \notin P_i$  for  $0 \le i \le t$ . If  $\hat{c}$  contains a rainbow Schur triple, then c contains a rainbow Schur triple.

*Proof.* Suppose  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  is a rainbow Schur triple in  $\hat{c}$ . Then, at least two of  $x_1, x_2, x_3$  must receive a color other than  $\alpha$ . We consider the following two cases.

Case 1: Neither  $x_1$  nor  $x_2$  receive color  $\alpha$ .

Without loss of generality, assume that  $c(x_1) = G$  and  $C(x_2) = B$ . This implies that there exist n, m such that  $c(nt + x_1) = G$  and  $c(mt + x_2) = B$ . There is a Schur triple of the form  $(nt + x_1, mt + x_2, (n + m)t + (x_1 + x_2))$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{st}$ . Since  $x_1 + x_2 \equiv x_3 \mod t$ ,  $(n + m)t + (x_1 + x_2)$  is in the residue class  $R_{x_3}$ . As  $\hat{c}(x_3) \neq G, B$ , we have  $G, B \notin P_{x_3}$ . Therefore, the triple  $(nt + x_1, mt + x_2, (n + m)t + (x_1 + x_2))$  is rainbow.

Case 2: One of  $x_1$  or  $x_2$  is colored  $\alpha$ .

Without loss of generality, assume that  $c(x_1) = \alpha$ ,  $c(x_2) = B$ , and  $c(x_3) = G$ . Then  $c(nt + x_2) = B$  for some n, and  $c(mt + x_3) = G$  for some m. There is a Schur triple of the form  $((m-n)t + (x_3 - x_2), nt + x_2, mt + x_3)$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{st}$ . Since  $x_1 + x_2 \equiv x_3 \mod t$ ,  $(m-n)t + (x_3 - x_2)$  is in the residue class  $R_{x_1}$ . As  $\hat{c}(x_1) = \alpha$ , we have  $G, B \notin P_{x_1}$ . Therefore, the triple  $((m-n)t + (x_3 - x_2), nt + x_2, mt + x_3)$  is rainbow.

Hence, if  $\hat{c}$  has a rainbow Schur triple, then c has a rainbow Schur triple.

We use the coloring described in Lemma 16 to prove an upper bound for  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_{st}, 1)$ .

**Proposition 17.** Let s and t be positive integers. Then  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_{st},1) \leq rb(\mathbb{Z}_{s},1) + rb(\mathbb{Z}_{t},1) - 2$ .

Proof. Let c be an exact r-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{st}$ , and let  $\hat{c}$  be a coloring constructed from c as in Lemma 16. Notice that the set of colors used in c is comprised of the colors in  $R_0$  and each color used in  $\hat{c}$  other than  $\alpha$ . Thus,  $r = |P_0| + |\hat{c}| - 1$ , where  $|\hat{c}|$  is the number of colors appearing in  $\hat{c}$ . If c is a rainbow-free coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{st}$ , then  $R_0$  is a rainbow-free coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_s$ . Thus,  $|P_0| \leq rb(\mathbb{Z}_s, 1) - 1$ . Also,  $\hat{c}$  is a rainbow-free coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_t$ , so  $|\hat{c}| \leq rb(\mathbb{Z}_t, 1) - 1$ . Thus,  $r \leq rb(\mathbb{Z}_s, 1) + rb(\mathbb{Z}_t, 1) - 3$ . If we let c be the maximum rainbow-free coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{st}$ , then  $r = rb(\mathbb{Z}_{st}, 1) - 1$ . This shows that  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_{st}, 1) \leq rb(\mathbb{Z}_s, 1) + rb(\mathbb{Z}_t, 1) - 2$ .

Using both the upper bound we just established and the lower bound established in Proposition 14 of Section 1.2, we prove Theorem 2.

*Proof of Theorem 2.* Recursively applying Proposition 17 to prime factors of n yields

$$rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, 1) \le 2 + \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\alpha_i(rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p_i}, 1) - 2)\right).$$

Since this is identical to the lower bound from Proposition 14 in Section 1.2, we can conclude

$$rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, 1) = 2 + \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\alpha_i (rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p_i}, 1) - 2)).$$

## 2 Triples for $x_1 + x_2 = px_3$ , p prime

Section 2 is dedicated to proving Theorem 5. In Section 2.1, we establish exact values for  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_q, p)$  where  $p \neq q$  are prime. Finding an exact value for  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_p, p)$  is more difficult, and is the subject of Section 2.2. Some properties of rainbow-free colorings of  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  are used in the construction of the general lower bound in Section 2.3. The equivalent upper bound is proved in 2.4. Combining Sections 2.3 and 2.3 proves Theorem 5.

### 2.1 Exact values for $rb(\mathbb{Z}_q, p), p \neq q$ prime

Lemmas 20, 21, 22, 23 establish the upper bound  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_q, p) \leq 4$ . These lemmas are proven by assuming that there exists a rainbow-free r-coloring c with  $r \geq 4$ , and reducing c to a 3-coloring  $\hat{c}$ . In each case, we find that  $\hat{c}$  does not conform to the structure of a rainbow-free 3-coloring outlined in Theorem 18 proven in [8]. For convenience, we include Theorem 18 and the necessary definitions from [8].

For a subset  $X\subseteq \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  and  $a\in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  define  $aX:=\{ax\mid x\in X\},\ X+a:=\{x+a\mid x\in X\},\$ and X-a:=X+(-a). We say the set aX is the dilation of X by a. Let  $\langle x\rangle \leq \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  denote the subgroup multiplicatively generated by x. A subset  $X\in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  is H-periodic if X is the union of cosets of H, where  $H\leq \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ . In the case that X is  $\langle -1\rangle$ -periodic, we say that X is symmetric. This coincides with the notion that X is symmetric if and only if X=-X.

**Theorem 18.** [[8], Theorem 2] A 3-coloring  $\mathbb{Z}_q = A \cup B \cup C$  with  $1 \leq |A| \leq |B| \leq |C|$  is rainbow-free for  $x_1 + x_2 = kx_3$  if and only if, up to dilation, one of the following holds.

- 1.  $A = \{0\}$  and both B and C are symmetric and  $\langle k \rangle$ -periodic subsets.
- 2.  $A = \{1\}$  for
  - (i)  $k = 2 \mod q$ , (B-1) and (C-1) are symmetric and  $\langle 2 \rangle$ -periodic subsets.
  - (ii)  $k = -1 \mod q$ ,  $(B \setminus \{2\}) + 2^{-1}$ ,  $(C \setminus \{2\}) + 2^{-1}$  are symmetric subsets.
- 3.  $|A| \ge 2$ , for  $k = -1 \mod q$  and A, B, and C are arithmetic progressions with difference 1 such that  $A = [a_1, a_2 1]$ ,  $B = [a_2, a_3 1]$ , and  $C = [a_3, a_1 1]$ , with  $(a_1 + a_2 + a_3) = 1$  or 2.

Suppose that  $q \geq 5$  is prime. Let c be a coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  with color classes  $C_1, \ldots, C_r$  with  $1 \leq |C_1| \leq |C_2| \leq \cdots \leq |C_r|$  and  $r \geq 4$ .

**Observation 19.** If  $C_1 = \{0\}$  and  $C_2 = \{x\}$ , then (x, -x, 0) is a rainbow triple for  $x \neq 0$ .

Therefore, if c has two or more singleton color classes, we can assume that  $\{0\}$  is not a color class. Furthermore, since dilation preserves the rainbow-free property, we can assume that if  $|C_2| = 1$ , then  $C_1 = \{1\}$ .

**Lemma 20.** If  $p \not\equiv -1 \mod q$  and  $|C_2| = 1$ , then c admits a rainbow triple.

Proof. Consider the coloring  $\hat{c}$  given by the color classes  $C_1, C_2, \bigcup_{i=3}^r C_i$ . If  $\hat{c}$  admits a rainbow triple, then c also admits a rainbow triple and we are done. If  $\hat{c}$  does not admit a rainbow triple, then  $\hat{c}$  must conform to case 2.(i) in Theorem 18. Therefore,  $p \equiv 2 \mod q$ . In this case, triples satisfying  $x_1 + x_2 = kx_3$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  are 3-term arithmetic progressions. In [5], Proposition 3.5 establishes that  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_q, 2) \leq 4$ . Therefore, there exists a rainbow triple under c.

**Lemma 21.** If  $p \equiv -1 \mod q$  and  $|C_3| = 1$ , then c admits a rainbow triple.

*Proof.* Let  $C_2 = \{x\}, C_3 = \{y\}$ . For the sake of contradiction, assume that c is rainbow free.

If x=2, then (x,-3,1) is a rainbow triple. The same argument for y shows that  $x,y\neq 2$ .

Consider the coloring  $\hat{c}$  given by the color classes  $C_1, C_2, \bigcup_{i=3}^r C_i$ . Then by Theorem 18 we must have  $C_2 \setminus \{2\} + 2^{-1}$  is symmetric and so  $x + 2^{-1} = -2^{-1} - x$ . Solving for x gives that  $x = -2^{-1}$ . Considering the coloring given by  $C_1, C_3, C_2 \cup \bigcup_{i=4}^r C_i$  gives that  $y = -2^{-1}$ , which is a contradiction.

**Lemma 22.** If  $p \not\equiv -1 \mod q$ , and  $|C_2| \geq 2$ , then c admits a rainbow triple.

*Proof.* For the sake of contradiction, suppose that c does not admit a rainbow triple. Consider the coloring  $\hat{c}$  given by  $C_1 \cup C_2, C_3, \bigcup_{i=4}^r C_i$ . Since  $|C_3| \ge |C_2| \ge 2$ , notice that  $\hat{c}$  does not have a singleton color class and is rainbow-free. This contradicts Theorem 18.

**Lemma 23.** If  $p \equiv -1 \mod q$  and  $|C_3| \geq 2$ , then c admits a rainbow triple.

*Proof.* For the sake of contradiction, suppose that c does not admit a rainbow triple. There are two cases:  $|C_2| \ge 2$ , or  $|C_2| = 1$ .

Case 1: Assume that  $|C_2| \ge 2$  and  $C_1 = \{x\}$ . By Theorem 18, the coloring  $C_1 \cup C_2, C_3, \bigcup_{i=4}^r C_i$  is of the form

$$C_1 \cup C_2 = [a_1, a_2 - 1],$$
  
 $C_3 = [a_2, a_3 - 1],$   

$$\bigcup_{i=4}^r C_i = [a_3, a_1 - 1].$$

x is not adjacent to at least one of  $C_3$  or  $\bigcup_{i=4}^r C_i$ . Without loss of generality, assume x is not adjacent to  $C_3$  (the other case follows the same argument). Consider the coloring  $\hat{c}$  given by  $C_2, C_1 \cup C_3, \bigcup_{i=4}^r C_i$ . Notice that  $\hat{c}$  can only be dilated by 1 or -1 to preserve the interval structure of  $\bigcup_{i=4}^r C_i$ . However, dilating by 1 or -1 will not make  $C_1 \cup C_3$  an arithmetic progression with difference 1. This is a contradiction.

Case 2: Assume that  $|C_2| = 1$ . Consider the coloring  $\hat{c}$  given by  $C_1 \cup C_2, C_3, \bigcup_{i=4}^r C_i$ . By Theorem 18,  $\hat{c}$  is of the form

$$C_1 \cup C_2 = [a_1, a_2 - 1],$$
  
 $C_3 = [a_2, a_3 - 1],$   

$$\bigcup_{i=4}^r C_i = [a_3, a_1 - 1]$$

with  $a_1+a_2+a_3 \in \{1,2\}$ . Since every set is an arithmetic progression with difference 1,  $a_2-1=a_1+1$ . This implies that  $a_3 \in \{-2a_1-1,-2a_1\}$ . This implies that  $c(-2a_1-1) \neq c(a_1), c(a_1+1)$ . Therefore, triple  $(-2a_1-1,a_1,a_1+1)$  is rainbow, which is a contradiction.

Proof of Theorem 3. By Lemmas 20, 21, 22, and 23, we know that  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_q, p) \leq 4$ . Therefore, it suffices to show that there exists a rainbow-free 3-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  if and only if p, q do not satisfy either condition 1 or 2. First we will prove that if there exists a rainbow-free 3-coloring, then p, q do not satisfy conditions 1 and 2.

Let c be a rainbow-free 3-coloring. There are two cases,  $p \not\equiv -1 \mod q$  or  $p \equiv -1 \mod q$ .

Case 1: By Theorem 18, either 0 is uniquely colored, or  $p \equiv 2 \mod q$ .

Suppose 0 is uniquely colored and c(1) = R. Notice that if c(x) = R, then c(px) = R and c(-x) = R. If p, q satisfy either 1 or 2, then  $\{p^i, -p^i \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ , which contradicts the fact that c is a 3-coloring.

Suppose  $p \equiv 2 \mod q$ . Then neither 1 nor 2 are satisfied by Theorem 3.5 in [7].

Case 2: Suppose  $p \equiv -1 \mod q$ . Then |p| = 2. If (q-1)/2 is odd, then  $(q-1)/2 \neq 2$ . Therefore, neither 1 nor 2 are satisfied.

To prove the reverse direction, suppose that p,q do not satisfy either 1 or 2. Let c be given by

$$C_1 = \{0\}, C_2 = \{p^i, -p^i \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}\}, C_3 = \mathbb{Z}_q^* \setminus C_2.$$

Since p, q do not satisfy either 1 or 2,  $C_3$  is non-empty. Notice that any rainbow triple must contain 0 and some element  $y \in C_2$ . However, if 0, y, z is a triple, then  $z \in C_2$ . Therefore, c is rainbow-free.

The following corollary is used in Section 2.3 to prove a general lower bound for  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, p)$ .

Corollary 24. There exists a maximum rainbow-free coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  where 0 is uniquely colored and the color classes are symmetric.

## **2.2** Exact values for $rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha}}, p)$ , p prime

In order to determine the rainbow numbers for equations of the form  $x_1 + x_2 = px_3$  for prime  $p \geq 3$  we still need to determine  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha}}, p)$  for  $\alpha \geq 1$ . We will prove Theorem 4 using induction. Observation 25 and Propositions 26, 27, and 28 provide the lower bound and base case for our induction argument. Lemmas 29 and 30 provide the basic structure of a rainbow-free coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha}}$ . Lastly, Lemmas 31, and 32 exploit the structure to derive a contradiction by forcing a rainbow triple. Throughout this section, for  $0 \leq k \leq p-1$ , recall that the  $k^{th}$  residue class mod p is the set  $R_k = \{j \in \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha}} : j \equiv k \mod p\}$  and that the  $k^{th}$  residue palette  $P_k$  is the set of colors which appear on  $R_k$ .

**Observation 25.** Notice  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_3,3)=3$  and  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_9,3)=4$ .

**Proposition 26.** Let  $p \geq 3$  be prime. Then  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_p, p) = \frac{p+1}{2} + 1$ .

*Proof.* To prove the lower bound, consider the following coloring:

$$c(x) = \begin{cases} x & 0 \le x \le \frac{p+1}{2} \\ -x & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Notice that c(x) = c(-x) for all  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ . Furthermore, if  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  is a triple, then  $x_1 = -x_2$ . Thus, c is a rainbow-free  $\frac{p+1}{2}$  coloring, and  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_p, p) > \frac{p+1}{2}$ .

To prove the upper bound, assume that c is an  $\frac{p+1}{2}+1$  coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ . By the pigeonhole principle, there exists  $x\in\mathbb{Z}_p$  such that  $x\neq 0$  and  $c(x)\neq c(-x)$ . Since  $p\geq 3, \ x\neq -x$ , and there exist  $y\neq x, -x$  such that  $c(y)\neq c(x), c(-x)$ . Therefore, (x,-x,y) is a rainbow-triple, and  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_p,p)\leq \frac{p+1}{2}+1$ .

For the rest of the section, we will assume that  $\alpha \geq 2$ .

Proposition 27. For  $\alpha \geq 2$ ,

$$rb(\mathbb{Z}_{3^{\alpha}},3)>3.$$

*Proof.* Suppose that  $\alpha \geq 3$  and  $\bar{c}$  is a rainbow-free 3-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_9$ . Let c be a 3-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha}}$  given by  $c(i) := \bar{c}(i \mod 9)$ . Assume that  $x_1, x_2, x_3$  is a triple in  $\mathbb{Z}_{3^{\alpha}}$ . Then  $x_1, x_2, x_3$  is a triple in  $\mathbb{Z}_9$  and cannot be rainbow.

**Proposition 28.** For prime  $p \geq 5$  and  $\alpha \geq 1$ ,

$$rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha}},p) \ge \frac{p+1}{2} + 1.$$

Proof. Color all of  $R_i, R_{p-i}$  color i for  $0 \le i \le \frac{p+1}{2}$ . Suppose  $x_1 + x_2 = px_3$  and  $x_1 \equiv j \mod p$  for  $0 \le j \le p-1$ . Then  $x_2 \equiv p-j \mod p$ , and  $x_1, x_2, x_2$  is not rainbow.

**Lemma 29.** If c does not admit a rainbow triple, then

$$P_i = P_{n-i}$$

when 0 < i < p.

*Proof.* For the sake of contradiction, suppose that there exists 0 < i < p with  $G \in P_i \setminus P_{p-i}$ . Then there exists an element px + i with color G in  $R_i$ . Let py + p - i be an element in  $R_{p-i}$ . Notice that

$$x_1 = p(py - x + p - 1 - i) + p - i$$
  

$$x_2 = px + i$$
  

$$x_3 = py + p - i$$

is a triple. Since  $G \notin P_{p-i}$ , we have  $c(x_3) = c(x_1)$ . Furthermore,  $x_1 - x_3 = p(py - x + p - 1 - i) + p - i - py - p + i = p(y(p-1) - x + p - 1)$ . Since py + p - i was arbitrary, we can choose y so that  $y(p-1) - x + p - 1 \not\equiv 0$ 

mod p. Since  $y(p-1) - x + p - 1 \not\equiv 0 \mod p$ , we know that y(p-1) - x + p - 1 is an additive generator of  $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha-1}}$ . This implies that  $P_{p-i} = \{B\}$ .

Let pz + j be an element with  $c(pz + j) \notin \{G, B\}$ . Then

$$x_1 = p(pz - x + j - 1) + p - i$$
  

$$x_2 = px + i$$
  

$$x_3 = pz + j$$

is a rainbow triple, which is a contradiction.

Notice that by Lemma 29, it is sufficient to only consider the structure of  $R_i$  for  $0 < i < \frac{p+1}{2}$ .

**Lemma 30.** Suppose c does not admit a rainbow triple. If there exists 0 < i < p such that  $|P_i \setminus P_0| \ge 1$ , then  $|P_0| = 1$ .

*Proof.* Since c does not admit a rainbow triple,  $P_i = P_{p-i}$ . Without loss of generality, suppose that  $G \in P_i \setminus P_0$  and let  $c(pa_1 + i) = c(pa_2 + p - i) = G$ . Let  $pb \in R_0$  be arbitrary. Consider the following triple:

$$x_1 = pb$$

$$x_2 = p(pa_1 + i - b)$$

$$x_3 = pa_1 + i.$$

Since c is rainbow-free,  $c(x_1) = c(x_2)$ . Next, consider the following triple:

$$x'_1 = p(pa_1 + i - b)$$
  
 $x'_2 = p(pa_2 + p - i - pa_1 - i + b)$   
 $x'_3 = pa_2 + p - i.$ 

Since c is rainbow-free,  $c(x'_1) = c(x'_2)$ . This implies that

$$c(pb) = c(p(pa_2 + p - i - pa_1 - i + b)).$$

Notice that difference in position between  $x_2'$  and pb, given by  $pa_2 + p - i - pa_1 - i + b - b$ , does not depend on b. Furthermore,  $pa_2 + p - i - pa_1 - i + b - b$  is relatively prime to  $p^{\alpha-1}$ . Therefore, all elements in  $R_0$  receive the same color.

**Lemma 31.** Let p be prime with  $p \ge 5$ . If there exists  $0 < i < \frac{p+1}{2}$  such that  $|P_i \setminus P_0| \ge 2$  and  $G \notin P_i \cup P_0$ , then c admits a rainbow triple.

*Proof.* For the sake of contradiction, suppose that c does not admit a rainbow triple. Since  $p \geq 5$  and  $|P_0| = 1$ , there exists  $j \neq i$  such that 0 < j < p and  $G \in P_j \setminus (P_i \cup P_0)$ . By Lemma 29,  $P_j = P_{p-j}$  and  $P_i = P_{p-i}$ . Let  $c(pa_1 + j) = c(pa_2 + p - j) = G$ . Let  $pb + i \in R_i$  be arbitrary. Consider the following triple:

$$x_1 = pb + i$$
  
 $x_2 = p(pa_1 + j - b - 1) + p - i$   
 $x_3 = pa_1 + j$ .

Then  $c(x_1) = c(x_2)$ . Next consider the following triple:

$$x'_{1} = p(pa_{1} + j - b - 1) + p - i$$

$$x'_{2} = p(pa_{2} + p - j - pa_{1} - j + b) + i$$

$$x'_{3} = pa_{2} + p - j$$

Then  $c(x_1') = c(x_2')$ . This implies that

$$c(pb+i) = c(p(pa_2 + p - j - pa_1 - j + b) + i).$$

Notice that the difference in position between  $x_2'$  and pb+i, given by  $pa_1+p-j-pa_1-j+b-b$ , does not depend on b. Furthermore,  $pa_2+p-j-pa_1-j+b-b$  is relatively prime to  $p^{\alpha-1}$ . Therefore, all elements in  $R_i$  receive the same color. This is a contradiction, since  $|P_i| \geq 2$ .

**Lemma 32.** If  $p \ge 5$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha}}$  is colored with at least 4 colors, and there exists  $0 < i < \frac{p+1}{2}$  with  $Im(c) = P_i \cup P_0$  and  $|P_i \setminus P_0| \ge 2$ , then c admits a rainbow triple.

*Proof.* For the sake of contradiction, suppose that c does not admit a rainbow triple. By Lemma 30, let  $P_0 = \{R\}$ . By Lemma 29,  $P_i = P_{p-i}$ . Since  $P_i$  contains all colors except possibly R, there exists a, b, d such that c(pa+i) = G, c(pb+p-i) = B and c(pd+i) = B. Consider the following triple:

$$x_1 = pa + i$$
  
 $x_2 = p(pb + p - i - a - 1) + p - i$   
 $x_3 = pb + p - i$ .

Then  $c(x_2) \in \{B, G\}$ . Let  $x \in \{a, d\}$  such that  $c(px + i) \neq c(x_2)$  and consider the following triple:

$$x'_1 = p(pb - p - i - a - 1) + p - i$$
  
 $x'_2 = p(px - pb + p + 2i + a) + i$   
 $x'_3 = px + i$ .

Notice that  $c(x_2') \in \{B, G\}$ . Furthermore, the difference in position between  $x_2'$  and pa + i, given by  $px - pb + p + 2i \equiv 2i \mod p$ , does not depend on a, b, d modulo p. Therefore, for any  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p$  there exists  $a \equiv x$  such that  $c(pa + i) \in \{B, G\}$ .

Since  $P_{p-i}$  contains all colors of c except for possibly R, there exists y such that c(py+p-i)=Y. Select  $a \equiv -1-y \mod p$  such that  $c(pa+i) \in \{B,G\}$ . Then the triple (py+p-i,pa+i,a+y+1) is rainbow since  $a+y+1 \in R_0$ .

*Proof of Theorem 4.* Proposition 27 provides the lower bound for p = 3,  $\alpha \ge 2$ . Observation 25 covers the case when p = 3,  $\alpha = 1, 2$ .

We will proceed by induction on  $\alpha$ . Suppose that  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha-1}},3)=4$  for some  $\alpha\geq 3$ . Let c be a 4 coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{3^{\alpha}}$ . For the sake of contradiction, suppose that c does not admit a rainbow triple. If  $|P_0|=4$ , then c admits a rainbow triple by the induction hypothesis. Therefore,  $|P_0|\leq 3$  and there exits 0< i< p such that  $|P_i\setminus P_0|\geq 1$ . By Lemma 30,  $|P_0|=1$ . This implies that  $\mathrm{im}(c)=|P_i\setminus P_0|$ . By Lemma 32, c admits a rainbow triple. This completes the case when p=3.

Let  $p \geq 5$ . With Proposition 26 as the base case, we will proceed by induction on  $\alpha$ . Suppose that  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha-1}},p) = \frac{p+1}{2}+1$  for some  $\alpha \geq 2$ . For the sake of contradiction, suppose that c does not admit a rainbow triple. If  $|P_0| = \frac{p+1}{2}+1$ , then c admits a rainbow triple by the induction hypothesis. Therefore,  $|P_0| \leq \frac{p+1}{2}$  and there exists 0 < j < p such that  $|P_j \setminus P_0| \geq 1$ . By Lemma 30,  $P_0 = \{R\}$ . By the pigeon hole principle, there exists  $0 < i < \frac{p+1}{2}$  such that  $|P_i \setminus P_0| \geq 2$ . Notice that one of the following must hold:

- 1.  $G \notin P_i \cup P_0$  for some color  $G \neq R$ ,
- 2.  $im(c) = P_i \cup P_0$ .

Therefore, by Lemmas 31 and 32, c must admit a rainbow triple. This completes the case when  $p \geq 5$ .  $\square$ 

### 2.3 Lower bound for $rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, p)$ , p prime

Since p is the coefficient of the equation that we are considering, we will use q to denote a prime other than p. Using values for  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_q, k)$ , we establish a lower bound for  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, p)$ . In order to proceed in a similar manner as with the Schur equation, two lemmas about the structure of triples are necessary.

**Lemma 33.** If  $x_1 + x_2 = kx_3$  is a triple in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  where  $m|x_1, x_2, x_3$  for some  $m|n, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then there exists a triple of the form  $x_1/m + x_2/m = kx_3/m$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{\frac{n}{m}}$ .

*Proof.* By definition  $x_1 + x_2 = kx_3$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  implies:

$$x_1 + x_2 = qn + r$$
$$kx_3 = tn + r$$

Divide both equations by m to get:

$$\frac{x_1}{m} + \frac{x_2}{m} = q \frac{n}{m} + \frac{r}{m}$$
$$k \frac{x_3}{m} = t \frac{n}{m} + \frac{r}{m}$$

Now we must check that  $\frac{r}{m}$  is an integer. Since  $m|(x_1+x_2-qn)$ , we know m|r. By definition, this means there exists a triple of the form  $x_1/m+x_2/m=x_3/m$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{\frac{n}{m}}$ .

Next, we show that q cannot divide exactly two terms of a triple.

**Lemma 34.** Let  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  be a triple of the form  $x_1 + x_2 = kx_3$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{qn}$ . If q is relatively prime to k and q divides two of the terms in  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  then q must divide the third term in  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ .

*Proof.* We consider the case where q divides  $x_1, x_2$  and the case where q divides  $x_1, x_3$ .

Case 1: Assume q divides  $x_1, x_2$ . By definition the equation  $x_1 + x_2 = kx_3$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{qn}$  means:

$$x_1 + x_2 = c_1 q n + r$$
$$k \cdot x_3 = c_2 q n + r$$

We rearrange the first equation to get q divides  $x_1 + x_2 - c_1qn$  which implies that q divides r. Thus q divides  $c_2qn + r$  which mplies q divides  $kx_3$ . We know q and k are relativity prime, therefore q must divide  $x_3$ .

Case 2: Similarly, assume q divides  $x_1$ ,  $x_3$ . By definition the equation  $x_1 + x_2 = kx_3$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{qn}$  means:

$$x_1 + x_2 = c_1 q n + r$$
$$k \cdot x_3 = c_2 q n + r$$

From the second equation we get q divides  $kx_3 - c_2qn$  which implies that q divides r. Thus q divides  $x_1 - c_1 \cdot qn - r$  which implies q divides  $x_2$ .

Notice that Lemmas 33 and 34 are stated for the equation  $x_1 + x_2 = kx_3$  without the stipulation that k is prime. We can use the above lemmas to find our lower bound.

**Lemma 35.** Let q, t be positive integers with q prime, and  $q \neq p$ . If there exists a rainbow-free r-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_t$ , then there exists a rainbow-free  $(r + rb(\mathbb{Z}_q, p) - 2)$ -coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{qt}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $q, t \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that q is prime, and  $q \neq p$ . Let  $\hat{c}$  be a rainbow-free r-coloring for  $\mathbb{Z}_t$  and let  $\bar{c}$  be a maximum coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  such that 0 is uniquely colored and the other color classes are symmetric subsets, as described in Corollary 24. Let c be an exact (r+1)-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{qt}$  if  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_q, p) = 3$  or an exact (r+2)-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{at}$  if  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_q, p) = 4$  as follows:

$$c(x) = \begin{cases} \hat{c}(\frac{x}{q}) & x \equiv 0 \mod q \\ r + \bar{c}(x \mod q) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Since q and p are distinct primes, q and p are relatively prime. By Lemma 34, since q is relatively prime to p, q cannot divide exactly two of the terms in  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  for the equation  $x_1 + x_2 = px_3$ . Therefore, for all triples in  $\mathbb{Z}_{qt}$ , q can divide all three elements, no elements, or exactly one element of the triple.

Case 1: If q divides all three terms in  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ , then by the constructions of c, the triple has the same colors as the triple  $(\frac{x_1}{q}, \frac{x_2}{q}, \frac{x_3}{q})$  in  $\hat{c}$ . By Lemma 33, if  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  is a triple in  $\mathbb{Z}_{qt}$  and  $q|x_1, x_2, x_3$ , then  $(\frac{x_1}{q}, \frac{x_2}{q}, \frac{x_3}{q})$  is a triple in  $\mathbb{Z}_t$ . Thus, since  $\hat{c}$  is a rainbow-free coloring, triples where all three elements are divisible by q cannot be rainbow in c.

Case 2: Suppose q divides none of the terms in  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ , there is a maximum of two colors added on terms not divisible by q. Thus, there are at most two colors coloring the elements in any such triple, and triples of the form  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  with each  $x_i$  not divisible by q are not rainbow.

Case 3: Suppose q divides exactly one of  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ . First assume q divides  $x_1$ . Notice that if  $x_1 + x_2 \equiv px_3 \mod qt$  then  $x_1 + x_2 \equiv px_3 \mod q$ . Since 0 is uniquely colored in  $\bar{c}$ , the rainbow-free coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ , any triple in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  of the form  $0 + x_2 \equiv px_3 \mod q$  is colored so that  $x_2$  and  $x_3$  receive the same color. In this case,  $c(x_2) = r + \bar{c}(x_2 \mod q)$  and  $c(x_3) = r + \bar{c}(x_3 \mod q)$ , so  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  is not rainbow under c. If q divides either  $x_2$  or  $x_3$  the argument proceeds the same way.

**Proposition 36.** Let p be prime and let n be an integer with prime factorization  $n = p^{\alpha} \cdot q_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot q_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots q_m^{\alpha_m}$  where  $q_i$  is prime,  $q_i \neq q_j$  for  $i \neq j$  and  $\alpha_i \geq 0$ . Then,

$$rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, p) \ge rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha}}, p) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \alpha_i (rb(\mathbb{Z}_{q_i}, p) - 2) \right)$$

*Proof.* If n is a power of p, then there is nothing to show. Suppose that the claim holds true for n where n has N prime factors that are not p.

Assume that  $n = p^{\alpha} \cdot q_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot q_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots q_m^{\alpha_m}$  where  $\alpha_1 + \cdots + \alpha_m = N + 1$ . By the induction hypothesis, there exists a rainbow-free r-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{n/q_1}$  where

$$r = rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha}}, p) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \alpha_i (rb(\mathbb{Z}_{q_i}, p) - 2) \right) - rb(\mathbb{Z}_{q_1}, p) + 2.$$

Therefore, by Lemma 35 there exists a rainbow-free  $r + \mathbb{Z}_{q_1}, p$  – 2 coloring of  $Z_n$ . Thus, by induction

$$rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha}},p) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left(\alpha_{i}(rb(\mathbb{Z}_{q_{i}},p)-2)\right).$$

### 2.4 Upper bound for $rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, p)$ , p prime

In this section we prove an upper bound matching Proposition 36. The proof of the upper bound uses the following lemmas.

**Lemma 37.** Suppose c is a rainbow-free coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{qt}$  for  $x_1 + x_2 = px_3$  where t is some positive integer and  $q \neq p$  is prime. Let  $R_0, \dots, R_{t-1}$  be the residue classes modulo t of  $\mathbb{Z}_{qt}$ , with corresponding color palettes  $P_0, \dots, P_{t-1}$ . Let j be an index such that  $|P_j| \geq |P_i|$  for all  $0 \leq i \leq t-1$ . Then  $|P_i \setminus P_j| \leq 1$  for all  $0 \leq i \leq t-1$ .

*Proof.* For the sake of contradiction, assume that there exists i such that  $|P_i \setminus P_j| \ge 2$ . This implies that there exists tu + i and tv + i with colors G and B respectively, that are not in  $P_j$ . Without loss of generality, v > u

First suppose that  $P_{pi-j} \neq P_j$ . There are two cases: either  $P_{pi-j}$  has a color that is not in  $P_j$ , or  $P_j$  has a color that is not in  $P_{pi-j}$ .

Case 1: Suppose that  $c(st + pi - j) \notin P_j$ . Without loss of generality,  $c(st + pi - j) \neq G$ . Then

$$x_1 = ts + pi - j$$

$$x_2 = ptu + -ts + j$$

$$x_3 = tu + i$$

is a rainbow triple.

Case 2: Suppose that  $c(ts+j) \notin P_{pi-j}$ . Then

$$x_1 = ts + j$$

$$x_2 = ptu - ts + pi - j$$

$$x_3 = tu + i$$

is rainbow.

Since c is assumed to be rainbow-free, both cases result in a contradiction. Therefore,  $P_j = P_{pi-j}$ . Let  $ts + j \in R_j$ . Since c is rainbow-free, c(ptu - ts + pi - j) = c(ts + j). Similarly, the triple

$$\{t(pu - s) + pi - j, t(pv - pu + s) + j, tv + i\}$$

shows that c(ptv - ptu + ts + j) = c(ptu - ts + pi - j) = c(ts + j). Notice that the difference of position between ptv - ptu + ts + j and ts + j in  $R_j$  is p(v - u). Since  $p \neq q$  is prime and v - u < q, we know that p(v - u) generates  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ . Therefore,  $R_j$  is monochromatic; this contradicts the maximality of  $|P_j|$ .

Lemma 37 allows us to create a well-defined reduction of a coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{qt}$  to a coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_t$ .

**Lemma 38.** Let t be a positive integer and  $q \neq p$  be prime. Let  $R_0, R_1, \dots, R_{t-1}$  be the residue classes modulo t for  $\mathbb{Z}_{qt}$  with corresponding residue palettes  $\{P_i\}$ . Let j be an index such that  $|P_j| \geq |P_i|$  for all  $0 \leq i < t$ . Suppose c is a coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{qt}$  where  $|P_i \setminus P_j| \leq 1$ . Let  $\hat{c}$  be a coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_t$  such that:

$$\hat{c}(i) := \begin{cases} P_i \setminus P_j & \text{if } |P_i \setminus P_j| = 1\\ \alpha & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

If  $\hat{c}$  contains a rainbow triple then c contains a rainbow triple.

Proof. Suppose that  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  is a rainbow triple in  $\mathbb{Z}_t$  under  $\hat{c}$ . There are two cases:  $\hat{c}(x_3) = \alpha$ , or  $\hat{c}(x_3) \neq \alpha$ . Case 1: If  $\hat{c}(x_3) = \alpha$ , then  $\alpha \neq \hat{c}(x_1), \hat{c}(x_2)$ . Without loss of generality, suppose that  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are colored G and G, respectively. This implies that there exists G, G such that G and G and G are G and G are formula for G. We must find integer G such that

$$u + v - ps \equiv \begin{cases} 1 \mod q & x_1 + x_2 \ge t \\ 0 \mod q & x_1 + x_2 < t \end{cases}.$$

Since p and q are relatively prime, we can alway solve for s. Therefore, there exists a rainbow triple in  $\mathbb{Z}_{qt}$  under c.

Case 2: Assume  $\hat{c}(x_3) \neq \alpha$ . Without loss of generality,  $\hat{c}(x_1) \neq \alpha$ , and there exists u, v such that  $c(tu+x_1)=G$  and  $c(tv+x_3)=B$  where  $G,B \notin P_{x_2}$ . Notice that  $ptv-tu+px_3-x_1 \in R_{x_2}$ . Therefore, there exist a rainbow triple in  $\mathbb{Z}_{qt}$  under c.

**Proposition 39.** Let t be a positive integer, and let q and p be distinct primes. Then

$$rb(\mathbb{Z}_{qt}, p) \le rb(\mathbb{Z}_t, p) + rb(\mathbb{Z}_q, p) - 2.$$

*Proof.* Let c be a rainbow-free r-coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{qt}$ , and let  $\hat{c}$  be a coloring constructed from c as described in Lemma 38. Notice that the set of colors used in c is comprised of the colors in  $R_j$  and each color used in  $\hat{c}$  other than  $\alpha$ . Thus, we know that  $r = |P_j| + |\hat{c}| - 1$ , where  $|\hat{c}|$  is the number of colors appearing in  $\hat{c}$ .

Since c is a rainbow-free coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{qt}$ , then  $c|_{R_j}$  must be a rainbow-free coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ , so  $|P_j| \leq rb(\mathbb{Z}_q,p)-1$ . Furthermore,  $\hat{c}$  is a rainbow-free coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_t$ , implying that  $|\hat{c}| \leq rb(\mathbb{Z}_t,p)-1$ . Therefore,  $r \leq rb(\mathbb{Z}_t,p)+rb(\mathbb{Z}_q,p)-3$ . If we let c be the maximum rainbow-free coloring of  $\mathbb{Z}_{qt}$ , then  $r=rb(\mathbb{Z}_{qt},p)-1$ . This shows that  $rb(\mathbb{Z}_{qt},p) \leq rb(\mathbb{Z}_t,p)+rb(\mathbb{Z}_q,p)-2$ .

We can use Proposition 39 to find a matching upper bound for Proposition 36.

*Proof of Theorem 5.* Recursively applying Proposition 39 for every prime factor  $p_i \neq p$  of n gives

$$rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, p) \le rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha}}, p) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left(\alpha_i(rb(\mathbb{Z}_{q_i}, p) - 2)\right).$$

Since this is identical to the lower bound from Proposition 36, we can conclude

$$rb(\mathbb{Z}_n, p) = rb(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha}}, p) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left(\alpha_i(rb(\mathbb{Z}_{q_i}, p) - 2)\right).$$

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