Pacific Journal of Mathematics

ON DENSITIES OF SETS OF LATTICE POINTS

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Vol. 13, No. 2 April 1963

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1. Introduction. Let A be a set of positive integers, and for any positive integer x denote by A(x) the number of integers of A which are not greater than x. Then the Schnirelmann density of A is defined [4] to be the quantity

$$\alpha = \operatorname{glb} \frac{A(x)}{x}$$
.

For any k sets A_1, \dots, A_k of positive integers, $k \ge 2$, let the sum set $A_1 + \dots + A_k$ be the set of all nonzero sums $a_1 + \dots + a_k$ for which each a_i , $i = 1, \dots, k$, is either contained in A_i or is 0. Let kA be the set $A + \dots + A$ with k summands.

Schnirelmann [4] and Landau [2] have shown that if A and B are two sets of positive integers with C=A+B, and if α , β , γ are the Schnirelmann densities of A, B, C, respectively, then $\gamma \geq \alpha + \beta - \alpha \beta$, and if $\alpha + \beta \geq 1$ then $\gamma = 1$. They have also shown that if A is a set of positive integers whose Schnirelmann density is positive then A is a basic sequence for the set of positive integers, or, in other words, there exists a positive integer k such that every positive integer can be written as the sum of at most k elements of A.

We will show that by using extensions of the methods employed by Schnirelmann and Landau the above results can be generalized to certain sets of vectors in a discrete lattice (for definition and discussion see [3, pp. 28-31] or [5, pp. 141-145]). Without loss of generality it may be assumed that the components of the vectors in such a lattice are rational integers. The usual identification of algebraic integers with lattice points then gives an immediate extension of these results to algebraic integers.

2. Notation and definitions. Let Q_n be the set of all n-dimensional lattice points (x_1, \dots, x_n) , $n \ge 1$, for which each x_i , $i = 1, \dots, n$, is a nonnegative integer and at least one x_i is positive. Define the sum of subsets of Q_n in the same manner as was done for sets of positive integers, and for any subsets A and B of Q_n let A - B denote the set of all elements of A which are not in B. If A and B are subsets of Q_n and B is finite let A(B) be the number of elements in $A \cap B$.

DEFINITION 1. A finite nonempty subset R of Q_n will be called a

Received August 10, 1962, and in revised form February 27, 1963. The author is indebted to the referee for a suggestion which has greatly simplified the proof of Theorem 2.

fundamental subset of Q_n or, briefly, a fundamental set, if whenever an element (r_1, \dots, r_n) is in R then all elements (x_1, \dots, x_n) of Q_n such that $x_i \leq r_i$, $i = 1, \dots, n$, are also in R.

DEFINITION 2. Let A be any subset of Q_n . The density of A is defined to be the quantity

$$\alpha = \operatorname{glb} \frac{A(R)}{Q_n(R)}$$

taken over all fundamental sets R.

3. Extension of the Landau-Schnirelmann results. Throughout this section we let A and B be subsets of Q_n with C = A + B, and let α, β, γ be the densities of A, B, C, respectively.

Theorem 1. If $\alpha + \beta \ge 1$ then $\gamma = 1$.

Proof. Assume $\gamma < 1$. Then there exists a fundamental set R for which $C(R) < Q_n(R)$, which in turn implies that there exists an element (x_1^0, \dots, x_n^0) in $Q_n - C$. Let R_0 be the set of all elements (x_1, \dots, x_n) in Q_n for which $x_i \leq x_i^0$, $i = 1, \dots, n$. Then for any (x_1, \dots, x_n) in R_0 either (x_1, \dots, x_n) is in A, or $(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (x_1^0, \dots, x_n^0) - (b_1, \dots, b_n)$ for some (b_1, \dots, b_n) in $B \cap R_0$, or neither, but not both. In particular, (x_1^0, \dots, x_n^0) is neither. Hence,

$$A(R_0) + B(R_0) \leq Q_n(R_0) - 1$$
,

and

$$lpha+eta \leq rac{A(R_{\scriptscriptstyle 0})+B(R_{\scriptscriptstyle 0})}{Q_{\scriptscriptstyle n}(R_{\scriptscriptstyle 0})} < 1$$

which is a contradiction. Therefore $\gamma = 1$.

Theorem 2. $\gamma \ge \alpha + \beta - \alpha\beta$.

Proof. Let ω_i , $1 \le i \le n$, be that vector in Q_n for which the *i*th component is 1 and the other components, if any, are 0. If any one of the vectors $\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n$ is missing from A then $\alpha = 0$ and the theorem is trivial. Hence we assume all the vectors $\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n$ are in A. We must show

$$\frac{C(R)}{Q_{\alpha}(R)} \ge \alpha + \beta - \alpha\beta$$

for all fundamental sets R. If $C(R) = Q_n(R)$ then (1) holds, since

 $(1-\alpha)(1-\beta) \ge 0$ implies $1 \ge \alpha + \beta - \alpha\beta$. Therefore we assume $C(R) < Q_n(R)$ and, consequently, $A(R) < Q_n(R)$.

Let H = R - A. We will show that there exist vectors $a^{(1)}, \dots, a^{(s)}$ in A and sets L_1, \dots, L_s with the following properties.

- (i) $L_i \subseteq H$ and L_i is not empty, $i = 1, \dots, s$.
- (ii) The sets $L_i' = \{x a^{(i)} | x \in L_i\}$ are fundamental sets.
- (iii) $L_i \cap L_j = \phi$ for $i \neq j$.
- (iv) $H = L_1 \cup \cdots \cup L_s$.

Let the elements of R be ordered so that $(x_1, \dots, x_n) > (x_1', \dots, x_n')$ if $x_1 > x_1'$ or if $x_1 = x_1', \dots, x_p = x_p', x_{p+1} > x_{p+1}'$. For every $h = (h_1, \dots, h_n)$ in H, let A_h be the set of all (a_1, \dots, a_n) in A such that each $a_i \leq h_i$. The sets A_h are not empty since $\omega_i \in A$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$. The A_h are finite sets, hence they contain (in our ordering) a largest vector. Let $a^{(1)}, \dots, a^{(s)}$ be all the distinct vectors that are largest vectors in any A_h . Let A_h be the set of all vectors A_h in A_h such that A_h is the largest vector in A_h .

That (i), (iii), and (iv) are satisfied follows immediately from this definition of the L_i . To prove (ii) consider a vector $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ such that

$$(2) x_j \geq y_j \geq a_j^{(i)},$$

where $x=(x_1,\,\cdots,\,x_n)$ is in L_i and $y\neq \alpha^{(i)}$. Suppose $y\in L_k,\ k\neq i$. Then

$$(3) x_i \ge y_i \ge a_i^{(k)}$$

and $a^{(k)} \ge a^{(i)}$. But (2) and (3) and $x \in L_i$ imply $a^{(k)} \le a^{(i)}$, hence $a^{(k)} = a^{(i)}$. Similarly, $y \in A$ implies $y = a^{(i)}$. This proves (ii).

If $b \in B \cap L'_i$ then $a^{(i)} + b$ is in $C \cap L_i$, hence in C - A. Therefore,

$$egin{aligned} C(R) & \geq A(R) + B(L_1') + \cdots + B(L_s') \ & \geq A(R) + eta[Q_n(L_1') + \cdots + Q_n(L_s')] \ & = A(R) + eta[Q_n(L_1) + \cdots + Q_n(L_s)] \ & = A(R) + eta[Q_n(H)] \ & = A(R) + eta[Q_n(R)] \ & = (1 - eta)A(R) + eta[Q_n(R)] \ & \geq (1 - eta)lpha[Q_n(R)] + eta[Q_n(R)] \ , \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\frac{C(R)}{Q_{\alpha}(R)} \ge \alpha + \beta - \alpha\beta$$
,

which completes the proof.

COROLLARY 1. Let A_1, \dots, A_k be any k subsets of $Q_n, k \geq 2$, let α_i be the density of A_i for $i = 1, \dots, k$, and let $d(A_1 + \dots + A_k)$ be the density of $A_1 + \dots + A_k$. Then

$$1-d(A_1+\cdots+A_k) \leq (1-\alpha_1)\cdots(1-\alpha_k).$$

Proof. If k=2 then Theorem 2 implies that $1-d(A_1+A_2) \leq 1-\alpha_1-\alpha_2+\alpha_1\alpha_2=(1-\alpha_1)\,(1-\alpha_2)$. Hence assume $1-d(A_1+\cdots+A_{k-1}) \leq (1-\alpha_1)\cdots(1-\alpha_{k-1})$. Then

$$egin{aligned} 1 - d(A_1 + \cdots + A_{k-1} + A_k) & \leq [1 - d(A_1 + \cdots + A_{k-1})] (1 - lpha_k) \ & \leq (1 - lpha_1) \cdots (1 - lpha_{k-1}) (1 - lpha_k) \ . \end{aligned}$$

COROLLARY 2. If A is any subset of Q_n with density $\alpha > 0$ then there exists an integer k > 0 such that $kA = Q_n$.

Proof. There exists an integer m > 0 such that $(1 - \alpha)^m \le 1/2$. Let d(mA) be the density of mA. Then Corollary 1 implies that $1 - d(mA) \le (1 - \alpha)^m \le 1/2$, or $d(mA) \ge 1/2$. From Theorem 1, $d(mA) + d(mA) \ge 1$ implies d(2mA) = 1, or $2mA = Q_n$.

4. Remark. We may identify Q_2 with the set of nonzero Gaussian integers x + yi for which x and y are both nonnegative rational integers. Luther Cheo [1] defined density for subsets of this Q_2 as follows, using our notation.

DEFINITION 3. Let $x_0 + y_0 i$ be any element of Q_2 and S the set of all x + y i in Q_2 such that $x \le x_0$ and $y \le y_0$. Then for any subset A of Q_2 the *density* of A is the quantity

$$\alpha_c = \operatorname{glb}_{S} \frac{A(S)}{Q_2(S)}$$
.

Cheo proved Theorem 1 for his density and also a theorem which implies that if ji is in A for all $j=1,2,\cdots$, and if α_c , β_c , γ_c are the Cheo densities of A, B, C=A+B, respectively, then

$$\gamma_c \geq \alpha_c + \beta_c - \alpha_c \beta_c$$
 .

We cannot remove the requirement that all ji be in A by means of an argument like that used to establish Theorem 2 since it would be necessary to partition H in such a way that the sets L'_j are of the type S used in defining the Cheo density, and this is not always possible. Consider, for example, the set $R = \{x + yi \colon x + yi \text{ is in } Q_2, x \leq 4, y \leq 3\}$, and let $A \cap R = \{1, i, 3 + 3i\}$. Then H = R - A cannot be so partitioned, as the reader can easily verify.

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The *Pacific Journal of Mathematics* is published quarterly, in March, June, September, and December. Effective with Volume 13 the price per volume (4 numbers) is \$18.00; single issues, \$5.00. Special price for current issues to individual faculty members of supporting institutions and to individual members of the American Mathematical Society: \$8.00 per volume; single issues \$2.50. Back numbers are available.

Subscriptions, orders for back numbers, and changes of address should be sent to Pacific Journal of Mathematics, 103 Highland Boulevard, Berkeley 8, California.

Printed at Kokusai Bunken Insatsusha (International Academic Printing Co., Ltd.), No. 6, 2-chome, Fujimi-cho, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo, Japan.

PUBLISHED BY PACIFIC JOURNAL OF MATHEMATICS, A NON-PROFIT CORPORATION

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Pacific Journal of Mathematics

Vol. 13, No. 2

April, 1963

Raiael Artzy, Solution of toop equations by adjunction		301
Earl Robert Berkson, A characterization of scalar type operator. Banach spaces		365
Mario Borelli, <i>Divisorial varieties</i>		375
Raj Chandra Bose, Strongly regular graphs, partial geometries a		575
balanced designs		389
R. H. Bruck, Finite nets. II. Uniqueness and imbedding		421
L. Carlitz, The inverse of the error function		459
Robert Wayne Carroll, Some degenerate Cauchy problems with a		
coefficients	-	471
Michael P. Drazin and Emilie Virginia Haynsworth, A theorem o		
and 1's	•	487
Lawrence Carl Eggan and Eugene A. Maier, On complex approx	cimation	497
James Michael Gardner Fell, Weak containment and Kronecker	products of group	
representations		503
Paul Chase Fife, Schauder estimates under incomplete Hölder co	ontinuity	
assumptions		511
Shaul Foguel, <i>Powers of a contraction in Hilbert space</i>		551
Neal Eugene Foland, The structure of the orbits and their limit s		
flows		563
Frank John Forelli, Jr., Analytic measures		571
Robert William Gilmer, Jr., On a classical theorem of Noether in		579
P. R. Halmos and Jack E. McLaughlin, <i>Partial isometries</i>		585
Albert Emerson Hurd, Maximum modulus algebras and local ap		505
<i>C</i> ⁿ		597
James Patrick Jans, Module classes of finite type		603
Betty Kvarda, On densities of sets of lattice points		611
H. Larcher, A geometric characterization for a class of discontinuous		C17
linear fractional transformations		617
John W. Moon and Leo Moser, Simple paths on polyhedra		629
T. S. Motzkin and Ernst Gabor Straus, Representation of a point transforms of boundary points		633
Rajakularaman Ponnuswami Pakshirajan, <i>An analogue of Kolmo</i>		055
theorem for abstract random variables		639
Robert Ralph Phelps, Čebyšev subspaces of finite codimension in		647
James Dolan Reid, On subgroups of an Abelian group maximal of		047
subgroup		657
William T. Reid, Riccati matrix differential equations and non-o	scillation criteria	
for associated linear differential systems		665
Georg Johann Rieger, Some theorems on prime ideals in algebra		687
Gene Fuerst Rose and Joseph Silbert Ullian, Approximations of j		
integers		693
F. J. Sansone, Combinatorial functions and regressive isols		703
Leo Sario, On locally meromorphic functions with single-valued	moduli	709
Takayuki Tamura, Semigroups and their subsemigroup lattices.		725
Pui-kei Wong, Existence and asymptotic behavior of proper solu		
second-order nonlinear differential equations		737
Fawzi Mohamad Yaqub, Free extensions of Boolean algebras		761