## ON DENSITIES OF SETS OF LATTICE POINTS

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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  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$  are the Schnirelmann densities of A, B, C, respectively, then  $\gamma \ge \alpha + \beta - \alpha\beta$ , and if  $\alpha + \beta \ge 1$  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

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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  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  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  $\omega_i$ ,  $1 \le i \le n$ , 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

(1) 
$$\frac{C(R)}{Q_n(R)} \ge \alpha + \beta - \alpha\beta$$

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 x in  $A_h$  such that  $A_h$  is the largest vector in  $A_n$ .

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

$$(2) x_i \geq y_i \geq \alpha_i^{(i)},$$

where  $x=(x_1,\,\cdots,\,x_n)$  is in  $L_i$  and  $y\neq a^{(i)}$ . 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

$$rac{C(R)}{Q_n(R)} \geq lpha + eta - lpha eta$$
 ,

which completes the proof.

COROLLARY 1. Let  $A_1, \dots, A_k$  be any k subsets of  $Q_n, k \geq 2$ , let  $\alpha_i$  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

$$1 - d(A_1 + \cdots + A_{k-1} + A_k) \le [1 - d(A_1 + \cdots + A_{k-1})] (1 - \alpha_k)$$
  
 $\le (1 - \alpha_1) \cdots (1 - \alpha_{k-1}) (1 - \alpha_k)$ .

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

$$lpha_{\scriptscriptstyle c} = \operatorname{glb}_{\scriptscriptstyle S} rac{A(S)}{Q_{\scriptscriptstyle 2}\!(S)}$$
 .

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  $\alpha_c$ ,  $\beta_c$ ,  $\gamma_c$  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  $L'_i$  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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