

## On sumset of certain sets

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### 1. Introduction

In 1971 R. L. GRAHAM raised the following question: Let  $\alpha, \beta > 0$  be real numbers and put

$$A_{\alpha\beta} = \{[2^n\alpha], [2^n\beta] \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

For which pairs of  $(\alpha, \beta)$  is the sequence  $A_{\alpha\beta}$  complete?

We say that  $A$  is complete if every sufficiently large integer belongs to  $P(A) = \{\sum \varepsilon_i a_i \mid a_i \in A; \varepsilon_i = 0 \text{ or } 1\}$ . An infinite sequence of integers is said to be subcomplete if it contains an infinite arithmetic progression.

It became clear that the structure of  $P(A_{\alpha\beta})$  depends on the dyadic representations of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .

Let  $\rho > 0$  and let  $\rho = \sum_{i=-k}^{\infty} \varepsilon_i(\rho) \cdot 2^{-i}$ ;  $\varepsilon_i(\rho) \in \{0, 1\}$  and assume

that  $\varepsilon_i(\rho) = 0$  infinitely many times. Let us call a real number  $\rho$  an infinite diadical fraction (briefly IDF) if  $\varepsilon_i(\rho) = 1$  infinitely many times, otherwise let us call  $\rho$  a finite diadical fraction (briefly FDF). Actually we can distinguish three cases:

*Definition 1.* Let us say that the type of  $A_{\alpha\beta}$  is

- (a)  $\mathcal{F}$  if  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are FDF
- (b)  $\mathcal{M}$  if  $\alpha$  is FDF and  $\beta$  is IDF
- (c)  $\mathcal{I}$  if  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are IDF.

In [3] I proved that if the type of  $A_{\alpha\beta}$  is  $\mathcal{M}$  then  $A_{\alpha,\beta}$  is complete and I showed in [4] that if  $\alpha > 0$  and  $X_\alpha = \{\beta \mid A_{\alpha\beta} \text{ is complete}\}$  then  $\mu(X_\alpha) = 0$  or  $\infty$  ( $\mu$  is the Lebesgue-measure). I also proved in [3]:

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**Theorem A.** *There are continuum many pairs of  $(\alpha, \beta)$  for which  $A_{\alpha\beta}$  is not complete.*

We are going to sharpen this result in section 3, proving the following

**Theorem 1.** *There are continuum many pairs of  $(\alpha, \beta)$  for which  $A_{\alpha\beta}$  is not subcomplete.*

Furthermore we would like to pay a dept: we shall investigate  $A_{\alpha\beta}$  if it has type  $\mathcal{F}$ .

*Definition 2.* Let  $\alpha, \gamma$  be FDF. Let

- (1)  $m_\gamma^* = \min\{m \mid \forall k > m \implies \varepsilon_k(\gamma) = 0\}$  and let
- (2)  $g_\alpha(m) = |\{B \mid m_\beta^* = m \text{ and } A_{\alpha\beta} \text{ is complete}\}|/2^m$ .

Actually the function  $g_\alpha(m)$  counts those  $\beta$ 's for which  $A_{\alpha\beta}$  is complete and has type  $\mathcal{F}$ . In section 3 we prove

**Theorem 2.** *Let  $\alpha > 0$  be FDF. Then*

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} g_\alpha(m) = 1.$$

## 2. The structure of $P(A_\alpha)$

The second aim of this note is to investigate the structure of  $P(A_\alpha)$ . It is easy to see that  $A_\alpha$  is subcomplete if and only if  $\alpha$  is FDF.

*Definition 3.* Let

$$f_\alpha(x) = \max\{L \mid \exists y \leq x - L \text{ for which } \forall t, 1 \leq t \leq L, y + t \notin P(A_\alpha)\}.$$

In other words  $f_\alpha(x)$  is the biggest gap in  $P(A_\alpha) \cap [1, x]$ . In section 4 we prove the following theorem:

- Theorem 3.** (1)  $\limsup_{x \rightarrow \infty} f_\alpha(x)/\log_2 x \leq 1$ .  
 (2) *For almost all  $\alpha$  we have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f_\alpha(x) = 1/2$ .*  
 (3) *Let*

$$G_A(\eta, x) = G(\eta, x) = \left\{ \alpha \mid A - 1 \leq \alpha < A \text{ and } \left( f_\alpha(x) - \frac{\log_2 x}{2} \right) / \left( \sqrt{\log x} / 2 \right) \leq \eta \right\}.$$

*Then*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \mu(G(\eta, x)) = \Phi(\eta),$$

where  $\Phi(\eta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\eta} e^{-t^2/2} dt$ .

### 3. Proof of Theorems 1 and 2

PROOF of Theorem 1. Let  $a_n = [2^n \alpha]$  and let  $x_n = a_0 + a_1 + \cdots + a_n + 1$ .

**Lemma 1.** *Let  $\alpha \geq 2$  and  $\beta = 2^n \alpha$  ( $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ). Then  $x_n \notin P(A_{\alpha\beta})$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .*

See the proof of Theorem 2 in [3].

Thus by Lemma 1 we only have to show that there are continuum many  $\alpha$  such that for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $0 \leq r < n$  there is an  $m$  for which  $x_m \equiv r \pmod{n}$ . Let us arrange the set of the arithmetical progressions according to their modulus to a non-decreasing sequence. Let us assume, that we have defined the digits

$$\varepsilon_1(\alpha), \varepsilon_2(\alpha), \dots, \varepsilon_{N-1}(\alpha)$$

$N = N(n)$ , so that for every  $m$ ,  $1 \leq m \leq n$  and for every  $s$ ,  $0 \leq s < m$  there are  $r \leq N-1$  and  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  for which  $x_r = k \cdot m + s$ .

Now let us choose  $\varepsilon_N(\alpha)$  equal to 0 or 1 arbitrarily.

**Lemma 2.** *Let  $N, m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then*

$$\begin{aligned} x_{N+m} - x_{N-1} &= a_N + a_{N+1} + \cdots + a_{N+m} = \\ &= a_N(2^{m+1} - 1) + \varepsilon_{N+1}(\alpha)(2^m - 1) + \\ &+ \varepsilon_{N+2}(\alpha)(2^{m-1} - 1) + \cdots + \varepsilon_{N+m}(\alpha). \end{aligned}$$

PROOF of Lemma 2. It is easy to check that if  $\alpha = a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \varepsilon_i(\alpha) \cdot 2^{-i}$  then

$$(1.1) \quad a_{n+1} = 2 \cdot a_n + \varepsilon_{n+1}(\alpha).$$

This implies that for every  $k \in \mathbb{N}$

$$a_{N+k} = 2^k \cdot a_N + \varepsilon_{N+1}(\alpha) \cdot 2^{k-1} + \varepsilon_{N+2}(\alpha) \cdot 2^{k-2} + \cdots + \varepsilon_{N+k}(\alpha).$$

Thus we get

$$\begin{aligned} x_{N+m} - x_{N-1} &= \sum_{h=0}^m a_{N+h} = \sum_{h=0}^m \left( 2^h \cdot a_N + \sum_{k=1}^h \varepsilon_{N+k}(\alpha) \cdot 2^{k-h} \right) = \\ &= a_N \cdot (2^{m+1} - 1) + \varepsilon_{N+1}(\alpha) \cdot (2^m - 1) + \cdots + \varepsilon_{N+m}(\alpha) \end{aligned}$$

as we asserted.

Let now  $m = n^3$ . In the next step we show that there is an  $u \in \mathbb{N}$  for which  $(u, n) = 1$  and the congruence

$$(1.2) \quad 2^x - 1 \equiv u \pmod{n}$$

has infinitely many solutions. If  $n = 2^t$  then for every  $x \in \mathbb{N}$   $(2^x - 1, n) = 1$  and by the pigeonhole principle for some  $u$  (1.2) has infinitely many solutions. Now let  $n = 2^t \cdot z$ ,  $z = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r} > 1$ . Then for every  $i$

$$2^{s \cdot \phi(z) + 1} - 1 \equiv 2 \cdot (2^{\phi(z)})^s - 1 \equiv 2 - 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{p_i}$$

and by  $2 \nmid 2^x - 1$  we get  $(2^{s \cdot \phi(z) + 1} - 1, n) = 1$ . Furthermore let us note that if  $a > t$  then for every  $i \in \mathbb{N}$

$$2^a - 1 \equiv 2^{a+i \cdot \phi(z)} - 1 \pmod{n}.$$

Let  $U = \{(t+i) \cdot \phi(z) + 1 \mid i \in \mathbb{N}\} = \{u_1 < u_2 < \dots\}$ . Thus if  $x \in U$  then  $x$  is a solution of (1.2). Clearly  $m > \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{u_i\}$ .

Now we are going to prove that there are  $m$ -tuples of digits

$$\varepsilon_{N+1}(\alpha), \varepsilon_{N+2}(\alpha), \dots, \varepsilon_{N+m}(\alpha)$$

for which

$$x_{N+m} - x_{N-1} \equiv r - x_{N-1} - a_N \cdot (2^{m+1} - 1) \pmod{n}.$$

Since  $(u, n) = 1$ , there is an  $y$ ,  $1 \leq y < n$  for which

$$(1.3) \quad y \cdot u \equiv r - x_{N-1} - a_N \cdot (2^{m+1} - 1) \pmod{n}.$$

Now if

$$\varepsilon_{N+h}(\alpha) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \exists i \text{ for which } h = m - u_i + 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

then by (1.3)

$$\begin{aligned} x_{N+m} &\equiv X_{N-1} + a_N \cdot (2^{m+1} - 1) + 2^{u_1} - 1 + 2^{u_2} - 1 + \dots + 2^{u_y} - 1 \equiv \\ &\equiv x_{N-1} + a_N \cdot (2^{m+1} - 1) + y \cdot u \equiv r \pmod{n}. \end{aligned}$$

Since the digits  $\{\varepsilon_{N(n)}(\alpha)\}$  have been chosen without restriction we get that there are continuum many  $\alpha$  for which  $A_{\alpha\beta}$  is not subcomplete.

PROOF of Theorem 2. First we need a lemma which is essentially a quantitative form of a results of mine [3].

**Lemma 2.** *Let  $m$  be a positive integer,  $s$  be a nonnegative integer. Let us suppose that*

$$(2.1) \quad \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \varepsilon_i(\beta) > 2m^2.$$

*Then there exists  $x_{m,s} \in P(A_\beta)$  for which  $x_{m,s} \equiv s \pmod{m}$ .*

PROOF of Lemma 2. By (2.1) we can select a sequence of indices  $k_1 < k_2 < \dots < k_{m^2}$  for which  $\varepsilon_{k_i+1}(\beta) = 1$  and  $k_{i+1} - k_i > 1$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, m^2$ ). Using the pigeonhole principle we conclude that there is a  $z \in [0, m - 1]$  for which the congruence

$$[2^{k_i}\beta] \equiv z \pmod{m}$$

has at least  $m$  solutions. Let these be  $b_{k_1}, b_{k_2}, \dots, b_{k_m}$ , where  $b_{k_i} = [2^{k_i}\beta]$ . Let now  $t \equiv -2s \pmod{m}$  where  $0 \leq t < m$ . So

$$\begin{aligned} s &= s(2z + 1) - 2zs \equiv s(2z + 1) + t \cdot z \equiv \\ &\equiv (b_{k_{i_1}+1} + b_{k_{i_2}+1} + \dots + b_{k_{i_s}+1}) + (b_{k_{i_1}} + b_{k_{i_2}} + \dots + b_{k_{i_s}}) \pmod{m}. \end{aligned}$$

Let  $\alpha$  be FDF. The number of those  $\beta$ 's for which  $\beta$  is FDF and  $j_\beta^* = j$  is  $2^j$ . Let  $A := 2 \cdot [2^{j^*}\alpha]$ . If

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \varepsilon_i(\beta) > A$$

then by Lemma 2 we conclude that  $A_{\alpha\beta}$  is complete. This implies that the number of those  $\beta$ 's for which  $j_\beta^* = j$  and  $A_{\alpha\beta}$  is not complete is at most

$$\sum_{n=1}^A \binom{j}{n} < \sum_{n=1}^A j^n < j^{A+1}.$$

Thus

$$g_\alpha(j) > (2^j - j^{A+1})/2^j = 1 - j^{A+1}/2^j$$

which means that

$$\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} g_\alpha(j) = 1.$$

#### 4. Proof of Theorem 3

**Lemma 3.1.** *Let  $P_n(A_\alpha) := P(A_\alpha) \cap [1, a_n]$ . The biggest gap in  $P_n(A_\alpha)$  is the interval*

$$(3.1) \quad \mathcal{I}_n := \left[ \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i + 1, a_n \right)$$

and

$$(3.2) \quad |\mathcal{I}_n| = \sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i(\alpha) + a_0 - 1$$

(if  $v < u$  then let  $\sum_{i=u}^v a_i = 0$ ).

PROOF of Lemma 3.1. We are going to show by induction on  $n$  that the assertions of the lemma hold for every  $n \geq 0$ .

For  $n = 0$ ,  $\mathcal{I}_0 = [1, a_0)$  and  $|\mathcal{I}_0| = a_0 - 1$ .

Assume now that  $n \geq 1$  and the assertions hold with  $0, 1, \dots, n-1$  in place of  $n$ . First let us observe by (1.1) that if  $m \notin P_{n-1}(A_\alpha)$  then  $m + a_{n-1} \notin P_n(A_\alpha)$ . So we conclude that if  $\mathcal{J}$  is a gap in  $P_{n-1}(A_\alpha)$  then  $a_n + \mathcal{J}$  is also a gap in  $[a_{n-1}, a_n]$  and conversely if  $\mathcal{J}'$  is a gap in  $[a_{n-1}, a_n]$  then  $\mathcal{J}' - a_{n-1}$  is also one. This implies, using the inductive hypothesis, that the biggest gap in  $[1, 2a_{n-1})$  is the interval  $\left[ \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i + 1, 2a_{n-1} \right)$ . Since  $2a_{n-1} \in P(A_\alpha)$  if  $\varepsilon_n(\alpha) = 0$  and  $2a_{n-1} \notin P(A_\alpha)$  otherwise, we get that the biggest gap in  $P_n(A_\alpha)$  is the interval  $\mathcal{I}_n = \left[ \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i + 1, a_n \right)$  and

$$|\mathcal{I}_n| = |\mathcal{I}_{n-1}| + \varepsilon_n(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i(\alpha) + a_0 - 1.$$

This completes the proof of the lemma.

Now we prove the first point of the theorem.

Let

$$(3.3) \quad a_n \leq x < a_{n+1}.$$

Then

$$2^n \leq [2^n \alpha] = a_n \leq x < a_{n+1} \leq 2^{n+1} \alpha.$$

So

$$(3.4) \quad \log_2 x - \log_2 \alpha - 1 \leq n \leq \log_2 x.$$

By Lemma 3.1 and by (3.3) and (3.4) we get the estimation

$$f_\alpha(x) = |\mathcal{I}_n| = \sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i(\alpha) + a_0 - 1 \leq n + a_0 - 1 \leq \log_2 x + a_0 - 1$$

i.e.  $\limsup_{x \rightarrow \infty} f_\alpha(x)/\log x \leq 1$ .

We turn now to the proof of the second point of the theorem.

**Lemma 3.2.** *Suppose that  $\alpha$  is expressed in the scale of  $r$ , and the digit  $b$ ,  $0 \leq b < r$  occurs  $n_b$  times in the first  $n$  places. Then for almost all numbers  $n_b/n \rightarrow 1/r$ .*

This is a special case of Th. 148. in [5].

Lemma 3.2 implies that for almost all  $\alpha \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i(\alpha)/n = 1/2$ . This means that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$

$$(1/2 - \varepsilon) \cdot n \leq f_\alpha(x) \leq (1/2 + \varepsilon) \cdot n$$

if  $n > n_0(a_0, \varepsilon)$ . By (3.4) we get

$$(1/2 - \varepsilon) \cdot \log_2 x - c_\alpha \leq f_\alpha(x) \leq (1/2 + \varepsilon) \cdot \log_2 x$$

where  $c_\alpha$  depends only on  $\alpha$ .

Thus by (3.3) we have that for almost all  $\alpha$

$$f_\alpha(x)/\log_2 x \rightarrow 1/2$$

if  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , which proves the second point of the theorem.

Finally we prove the third part of the theorem. (3.3) and (3.4) mean that  $n = \log_2 x + O(1)$ . The condition

$$f_\alpha(x) \leq \log x/2 + \eta\sqrt{\log_2 x}/2$$

means that

$$(3.5) \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \varepsilon_i(\alpha) + a_0 - 1 \leq n/2 + \eta \cdot (n + c')^{1/2}/2 + c$$

where  $c, c'$  depend only on  $\alpha$ .

Let

$$F_{n,A}(\eta, \delta) = F_n(\eta, \delta) = \{\alpha \mid A - 1 \leq \alpha < A \text{ and}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i(\alpha) < n/2 + (\eta + \delta) \cdot \sqrt{n}/2\}.$$

Clearly if  $\alpha \in F(\eta, \delta)$  then (3.5) is satisfied if  $n$  is large enough. Furthermore

$$\mu(F_n(\eta, \delta)) = \sum' \binom{n}{k} \cdot 2^{-n}$$

where the summation in  $\sum'$  is taken for those  $k$ 's for which

$$(k - n/2)/(\sqrt{n}/2) < \eta + \delta.$$

Thus for every  $\delta > 0$ , using the connection between the binomial and the normal distribution we get

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu(F_n(\eta, \delta)) = \Phi(\eta + \delta)$$

and so

$$(3.6) \quad \limsup_{x \rightarrow \infty} G(x, \eta) \leq \Phi(\eta + \delta).$$

Using a similar method we have that for every  $\delta > 0$

$$(3.7) \quad \liminf_{x \rightarrow \infty} G(x, \eta) \geq \Phi(\eta - \delta).$$

(3.6) and (3.7) imply the third part of the theorem.

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