

## LEBESGUE MEASURE OF SUM SETS – THE BASIC RESULT FOR COIN-TOSSING

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**Abstract.** Let  $\mu_p$  be the distribution of a random variable on the interval  $[0, 1)$ , each digit of whose binary expansion is 0 or 1 with probability  $p$  or  $1 - p$ . Thus  $\mu_p = \ast_{n=1}^{\infty} (p\delta_0 + (1 - p)\delta_{\frac{1}{2^n}})$ . We show that for any Borel subsets  $E, F$  of  $[0, 1)$  we have

$$\lambda(E + F) \geq \mu_p(E)^\alpha \mu_q(F)^\beta,$$

where  $0 < \alpha, \beta < 1$  with  $\alpha \log a + \beta \log b = \log 2$  and  $a = [\max\{p, 1 - p\}]^{-1}$ ,  $b = [\max\{q, 1 - q\}]^{-1}$ . Here  $\lambda = \mu_{1/2}$  denotes Lebesgue measure.

**1. Introduction.** We define the sum set  $E + F$  of subsets  $E, F$  of  $[0, 1)$  by

$$E + F = \{x + y \pmod{1} \mid x \in E, y \in F\}.$$

For many years, the measure of algebraic sums of sets has been of interest to mathematicians. (See for example [4], [5], [6] and [7].) This is because the sum of “thin” sets can be “thick”. In fact, in 1947, Marshall Hall, Jr. [4] proved that under certain condition, the sum of two Cantor-type set contains an interval.

It took a surprisingly long time to establish precise measure estimates. After contributions by Haydon, Talagrand, Hall and Woodall, the basic symmetric results for the Lebesgue singular measure  $\nu$  on the Cantor middle-third set were established independently by Brown and Moran [2] and Hajela and Seymour [5]. This result states that, for Borel sets  $E$  and  $F$ , we have

$$\lambda(E + F) \geq \nu(E)^\alpha \nu(F)^\alpha,$$

where  $\alpha = \log 3 / \log 4$ .

The first named author set up some analytic inequalities in [1] and we developed these further to establish several inequalities for the Lebesgue measure of sum sets where the summands are non-null with respect to singular measures which are uniformly distributed over a set of numbers missing certain digits in their base 3 or base 4 expansions. An account of these can be found in the University of Adelaide Ph.D. thesis of the second named author [8]. These results include the basic asymmetric

version of the Cantor middle-third case. Namely

$$\lambda(E + F) \geq \nu(E)^\alpha \nu(F)^\beta,$$

provided that  $\alpha + \beta \geq \frac{\log 3}{\log 2}$ ,  $3(\alpha^{-1} + \beta^{-1}) \leq 8$  and  $\alpha, \beta \geq \frac{\log 3}{\log 2} - 1$ .

In this paper we establish the basic result for the case in which the singular measures are determined by coin-tossing. For  $0 < p < 1$ , we let

$$\mu_p = \sum_{n=1}^\infty (p\delta_0 + (1-p)\delta_{\frac{1}{2^n}}),$$

where  $\delta_x$  is the probability measure concentrated on the point  $x$ . Note that  $\mu_p$  is the distribution of the random variable, the  $n$ -th digit of whose binary expansion is 0 with probability  $p$  and 1 with probability  $1 - p$ .

Brown and Williamson [3] studied sum sets and coin-tossing showing that some  $n$ -fold sum of any Borel set with positive  $\mu_p$  measure must have positive Lebesgue measure. The main result of [3] is as follows.

**THEOREM.** (Brown and Williamson). *Let  $a = [\max\{p, 1 - p\}]^{-1}$ . Suppose that  $a \geq 2^{1/n}$  and  $\alpha = \log 2/n \log a$ . Suppose that  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n$  are Borel subsets of  $[0, 1]$ . Then*

$$\lambda(E_1 + E_2 + \dots + E_n) \geq \mu_p(E_1)^\alpha \mu_p(E_2)^\alpha \dots \mu_p(E_n)^\alpha.$$

The technique used to prove the Brown-Williamson theorem is to reduce the measure theoretical problem to a combinatorial problem. Notice that in the above theorem, they consider the same measure  $\mu_p$  and the same value of  $\alpha$  for all subsets  $E_i$ . The natural generalization is to consider different measures  $\mu_{p_i}$  and different values of  $\alpha_i$  for each subset  $E_i$ .

In this paper we consider the Lebesgue measure of a sum set  $E + F$  of two subsets  $E, F$  with  $E$  and  $F$  having positive  $\mu_p$  and  $\mu_q$  measures respectively, where in general  $p \neq q$ . We set up the basic result of the type

$$\lambda(E + F) \geq \mu_p(E)^\alpha \mu_q(F)^\beta,$$

where in general  $\alpha \neq \beta$ . We follow the pattern of proof of the above Brown-Williamson theorem in [3] to reduce the measure theoretical problem to a counting problem and obtain the related combinatorial result.

We state our main results in Section 2. The proofs will be given in Sections 3 and 4. In Section 5, we consider the size of sum sets in terms of a general coin-tossing measure  $\mu_r$ , ( $0 < r < 1$ ), rather than only using the specific one  $\lambda = \mu_{1/2}$ .

**2. Main results**

**THEOREM 1.** *Let  $a = [\max\{p, 1 - p\}]^{-1}$ ,  $b = [\max\{q, 1 - q\}]^{-1}$ , where  $0 < p, q < 1$ . Let  $0 < \alpha, \beta \leq 1$  with*

$$\alpha \log a + \beta \log b = \log 2.$$

*Then for any Borel subsets  $E, F$  of  $[0, 1]$  one has*

$$\lambda(E + F) \geq \mu_p(E)^\alpha \mu_q(E)^\beta. \tag{1}$$

To prove Theorem 1, we need the following combinatorial result. To shorten our notation, we shall use  $(u, v)$  to denote  $\max\{u, v\}$  from now on.

**THEOREM 2.** *Let  $p, q, \alpha, \beta$  be the same as in Theorem 1. Then, for any  $0 \leq x, y \leq 1$ , we have*

$$\left( \left[ \frac{x}{p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{y}{q} \right]^\beta, \left[ \frac{1-x}{1-p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{1-y}{1-q} \right]^\beta \right) + \left( \left[ \frac{x}{p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{1-y}{1-q} \right]^\beta, \left[ \frac{1-x}{1-p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{y}{q} \right]^\beta \right) \geq 2. \tag{2}$$

The proof of the results above will be given in Sections 3 and 4. In Section 3 we convert the measure theoretical inequality (1) to the combinatorial inequality (2). Theorem 2 will be proved in Section 4.

**3. Reduction process.** The aim of this section is to show that in order to prove Theorem 1, it is sufficient to prove Theorem 2. In this section, when we consider the numbers  $u, v$  as elements of  $[0, 1)$ , by  $u + v$  we mean  $u + v \pmod 1$ .

Since  $\mu_p$  and  $\mu_q$  are regular, we may assume that  $E$  and  $F$  are closed. In fact, for any Borel subsets  $A, B$  and given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exist closed  $A_\epsilon \subseteq A$  and  $B_\epsilon \subseteq B$  such that  $\mu_p(A_\epsilon) \geq (1 - \epsilon)\mu_p(A)$  and  $\mu_q(B_\epsilon) \geq (1 - \epsilon)\mu_q(B)$ . If Theorem 1 holds for closed subsets then

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda(A + B) &\geq \lambda(A_\epsilon + B_\epsilon) \geq \mu_p(A_\epsilon)^\alpha \mu_q(B_\epsilon)^\beta \\ &\geq (1 - \epsilon)^{\alpha+\beta} \mu_p(A)^\alpha \mu_q(B)^\beta. \end{aligned}$$

Let

$$S_n = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\epsilon_i}{2^i} \mid \epsilon_i = 0, 1 \right\}.$$

Define probability measures  $\mu_p^{(n)}, \mu_q^{(n)}$  on  $S_n$  by

$$\mu_p^{(n)} = \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} (p\delta_0 + (1-p)\delta_{\frac{1}{2^k}})$$

and

$$\mu_q^{(n)} = \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} (q\delta_0 + (1-q)\delta_{\frac{1}{2^k}}).$$

Assume that  $E$  and  $F$  are closed subsets of  $[0, 1)$ . It is easy to see that  $E + F$  is also closed. Define

$$A_n = \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\epsilon_k}{2^k} \mid \text{there exist } x \in E, \text{ with } x = \sum_{k=1}^\infty \frac{\epsilon_k}{2^k}, \epsilon_k = 0 \text{ or } 1 \right\},$$

and

$$B_n = \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\epsilon_k}{2^k} \mid \text{there exist } x \in F, \text{ with } x = \sum_{k=1}^\infty \frac{\epsilon_k}{2^k}, \epsilon_k = 0 \text{ or } 1 \right\}.$$

Let  $E_n = A_n + [0, \frac{1}{2^n}]$  and  $F_n = B_n + [0, \frac{1}{2^n}]$ . We have the following facts.

$$E = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n \quad \text{and} \quad F = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n. \tag{3}$$

$$\mu_p^{(n)}(A_n) = \mu_p(E_n) \quad \text{and} \quad \mu_q^{(n)}(B_n) = \mu_q(F_n). \tag{4}$$

It is easy to see that

$$E + F = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} (E_n + F_n). \tag{5}$$

From (3), (4) and (5) we obtain

$$\lambda(E + F) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lambda(E_n + F_n),$$

$$\mu_p(E) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_p(E_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_p^{(n)}(A_n)$$

and

$$\mu_q(F) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_q(F_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_q^{(n)}(B_n).$$

If we can show that

$$\lambda(E_n + F_n) \geq \mu_p^{(n)}(A_n)^\alpha \mu_q^{(n)}(B_n)^\beta,$$

then we obtain

$$\lambda(E + F) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lambda(E_n + F_n) \geq \mu_p(E)^\alpha \mu_q(F)^\beta.$$

However

$$E_n + F_n \supseteq A_n + B_n + \left[0, \frac{1}{2^n}\right]$$

and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lambda \left( A_n + B_n + \left[0, \frac{1}{2^n}\right] \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lambda^{(n)}(A_n + B_n),$$

where  $\lambda^{(n)}$  is the measure which assigns mass  $\frac{1}{2^n}$  to each member of  $S_n$ .

Now it will suffice to prove that, for all subsets  $A, B$  of  $S_n$ , we have

$$\lambda^{(n)}(A + B) \geq \mu_p^{(n)}(A)^\alpha \mu_q^{(n)}(B)^\beta. \tag{6}$$

We prove (6) by induction. For  $n = 1$ , we have  $\lambda^{(1)}(A + B) = 1/2$  if  $\#(A) = \#(B) = 1$ ; or  $\lambda^{(1)}(A + B) = 1$  otherwise. We need to check only the first case. Now

$$\mu_p^{(1)}(A)^\alpha \mu_q^{(1)}(B)^\beta \leq \frac{1}{a^\alpha b^\beta} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Assume that (6) holds for some  $n$ . We show that it holds also for  $n + 1$ . In fact, for arbitrary subsets  $A, B$  of  $S_{n+1}$ , we have

$$A + B = \left[ (A^0 + B^0) \cup \left( A^1 + B^1 + \frac{2}{2^{n+1}} \right) \right] \cup \left[ \left( A^0 + B^1 + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \right) \cup \left( A^1 + B^0 + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \right) \right],$$

where

$$A^i = \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\epsilon_k}{2^k} \mid \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \frac{\epsilon_k}{2^k} \in A \text{ with } \epsilon_{n+1} = i \right\},$$

$$B^i = \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\epsilon_k}{2^k} \mid \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \frac{\epsilon_k}{2^k} \in B \text{ with } \epsilon_{n+1} = i \right\}.$$

The two sets in square brackets are clearly disjoint so that

$$\lambda^{(n+1)}(A + B) \geq \frac{1}{2}(\lambda^{(n)}(A^0 + B^0), \lambda^{(n)}(A^1 + B^1)) + \frac{1}{2}(\lambda^{(n)}(A^0 + B^1), \lambda^{(n)}(A^1 + B^0)).$$

By induction,

$$\lambda^{(n)}(A^i + B^j) \geq \mu_p^{(n)}(A^i)^\alpha \mu_q^{(n)}(B^j)^\beta.$$

On the other hand there exist  $0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1$  such that

$$\mu_p^{(n)}(A^0) = \frac{1}{p} \mu_p^{(n+1)}(A^0) = \frac{x}{p} \mu_p^{(n+1)}(A),$$

$$\mu_q^{(n)}(B^0) = \frac{1}{q} \mu_q^{(n+1)}(B^0) = \frac{y}{q} \mu_q^{(n+1)}(B).$$

It follows that

$$\mu_p^{(n)}(A^1) = \frac{1-x}{1-p} \mu_p^{(n+1)}(A),$$

$$\mu_q^{(n)}(B^1) = \frac{1-y}{1-q} \mu_q^{(n+1)}(B).$$

Therefore,

$$\lambda^{(n+1)}(A + B) \geq \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \left( \left[ \frac{x}{p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{y}{q} \right]^\beta, \left[ \frac{1-x}{1-p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{1-y}{1-q} \right]^\beta \right) + \left( \left[ \frac{x}{p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{1-y}{1-q} \right]^\beta, \left[ \frac{1-x}{1-p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{y}{q} \right]^\beta \right) \right\} \cdot \mu_p^{(n+1)}(A)^\alpha \mu_q^{(n+1)}(B)^\beta.$$

By Theorem 2, we have

$$\lambda^{(n+1)}(A + B) \geq \mu_p^{(n+1)}(A)^\alpha \mu_q^{(n+1)}(B)^\beta,$$

and this completes the induction.

Now it remains to prove Theorem 2 and this will be done in the next section.

**4. Proof of Theorem 2.** In this section, we prove Theorem 2. Without loss of generality, we assume that  $x \geq p, y \geq q$ . Then (2) becomes

$$\left[ \frac{x}{p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{y}{q} \right]^\beta + \left( \left[ \frac{x}{p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{1-y}{1-q} \right]^\beta, \left[ \frac{1-x}{1-p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{y}{q} \right]^\beta \right) \geq 2.$$

For fixed  $p, q, \alpha$ , and  $\beta$ , define

$$f(x, y) = \left[ \frac{x}{p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{y}{q} \right]^\beta + \left[ \frac{x}{p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{1-y}{1-q} \right]^\beta,$$

and

$$g(x, y) = \left[ \frac{x}{p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{y}{q} \right]^\beta + \left[ \frac{1-x}{1-p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{y}{q} \right]^\beta.$$

Then we have that  $f''_{xx}(x, y) < 0, f''_{yy}(x, y) < 0$  and  $g''_{xx}(x, y) < 0, g''_{yy}(x, y) < 0$  for  $0 < x, y < 1$ . By the concavity of  $f(1, y)$  and the facts that

$$f(1, q) = \frac{2}{p^\alpha} > 2$$

and

$$f(1, 1) = \frac{1}{p^\alpha q^\beta} \geq a^\alpha b^\beta = 2$$

we see that

$$f(1, y) \geq 2 \text{ for all } q \leq y \leq 1.$$

Obviously, for all  $q \leq y \leq 1$  we have

$$g(p, y) = 2 \left( \frac{y}{q} \right)^\beta \geq 2.$$

Similarly we can show that

$$f(x, q) \geq 2 \text{ and } g(x, 1) \geq 2,$$

for  $p \leq x \leq 1$ . For fixed  $x \in (p, 1)$ , if we have a  $\phi(x)$  with  $q \leq \phi(x) \leq 1$  such that

$$f(x, \phi(x)) \geq 2 \text{ and } g(x, \phi(x)) \geq 2$$

then, by the concavity of  $f(x, y)$  and  $g(x, y)$  with respect to  $y$ , we can prove that

$$f(x, y) \geq 2 \text{ for } q \leq y \leq \phi(x) \tag{7}$$

and

$$g(x, y) \geq 2 \text{ for } \phi(x) \leq y \leq 1. \tag{8}$$

The combination of (7) and (8) will prove Theorem 2.

Define a function  $\mu(x)$  for  $p \leq x \leq 1$  in the following way: let  $\mu(x) = y_0$  if  $f(x, y_0) = 2$  and  $f(x, y) < 2$  for  $y_0 < y \leq 1$ , and  $\mu(x) = 1$  otherwise. Since  $f(x, y)$  is concave with respect to  $y$  and  $f(x, q) \geq 2$  for all  $p \leq x \leq 1$ , we see that  $\mu(x)$  is well defined and we have  $f(x, y) \geq 2$  for  $q \leq y \leq \mu(x)$  and  $f(x, y) < 2$  for  $\mu(x) < y \leq 1$  in the case  $\mu(x) < 1$ .

Similarly, define  $\nu(x) = y_0$  if  $g(x, y_0) = 2$  and  $g(x, y) < 2$  for  $q \leq y < y_0$ , and  $\nu(x) = q$  otherwise. Because of the concavity of  $g(x, y)$  with respect to  $y$  and the fact that  $g(x, 1) \geq 2$  for  $p \leq x \leq 1$ , we know that  $\nu(x)$  is well defined. Furthermore, we have  $g(x, y) \geq 2$  for  $\nu(x) \leq y \leq 1$  and  $g(x, y) < 2$  for  $q \leq y < \nu(x)$  in the case  $\nu(x) > q$ .

If we have  $\nu(x) \leq \mu(x)$  then we can define  $\phi(x)$  to be any number in the interval  $[\nu(x), \mu(x)]$ .

We prove that we have  $\nu(x) \leq \mu(x)$  for all  $p \leq x \leq 1$ . First notice that  $\nu(1) \leq 1 = \mu(1)$  and  $\nu(p) = q \leq \mu(p)$ . By the concavity of  $f(x, y)$  and  $g(x, y)$  with respect to  $x$  we can see that  $\mu(x)$  and  $\nu(x)$  are non-decreasing and continuous. We take  $\mu(x)$  as an example.

Let  $x_1 < x_2$ . By definition,  $f(x_1, y) \geq 2$  for  $q \leq y \leq \mu(x_1)$ . Recall that we have  $f(1, y) \geq 2$  for  $q \leq y \leq 1$ . Since  $x_1 < x_2 \leq 1$ , by the concavity of  $f(x, y)$  with respect to  $x$ , we have  $f(x_2, y) \geq 2$  for  $q \leq y \leq \mu(x_1)$ . Hence  $\mu(x_2) \geq \mu(x_1)$ . Therefore  $\mu(x)$  is non-decreasing. If  $\mu$  is not continuous then, because it is non-decreasing, we have  $\mu(x_0^-) < \mu(x_0)$  or  $\mu(x_0) < \mu(x_0^+)$  for some  $p \leq x_0 \leq 1$ . In the first case, we claim that for any  $\mu(x_0^-) < y \leq \mu(x_0)$  we have  $f(x_0, y) = 2$ . In fact, by the definition of  $\mu(x_0)$ , it is clear that  $f(x_0, y) \geq 2$ , for  $\mu(x_0^-) < y \leq \mu(x_0)$ . If, for some  $\mu(x_0^-) < y_0 \leq \mu(x_0)$  we have  $f(x_0, y_0) > 2$ , then, since  $f(x, y_0)$  is continuous, we have  $\lim_{x \uparrow x_0} f(x, y_0) = f(x_0, y_0) > 2$ . Thus there exists  $x < x_0$  with  $f(x, y_0) \geq 2$ . Then, by definition, we must have  $\mu(x) \geq y_0 > \mu(x_0^-)$ , a contradiction. On the other hand, by the definition of  $f(x, y)$ , it is impossible that  $f(x_0, y)$  is constant for  $y$  in an interval. Hence we must have  $\mu(x_0^-) = \mu(x_0)$ . The second case is also impossible, since we have

$$2 \leq \lim_{x \downarrow x_0} f(x, \mu(x_0^+)) = f(x_0, \mu(x_0^+))$$

from which it follows that  $\mu(x_0) \geq \mu(x_0^+)$ .

Assume that for some  $p < x < 1$  we have  $\mu(x) < \nu(x)$ . Let

$$s = \inf\{x : \mu(x) < \nu(x)\}$$

and

$$t = \sup\{u : \mu(x) < \nu(x), s < x < u\}.$$

By the continuity of  $f, g, \mu$  and  $\nu$ , we have the following facts:

$$\mu(s) = \nu(s), \quad \mu(t) = \nu(t),$$

and for all  $s \leq x \leq t$

$$f(x, \mu(x)) = g(x, \nu(x)) = 2.$$

Then, for  $s < x < t$ , we have

$$\mu'(x) = \left[ \frac{\beta p}{2\alpha} \left(\frac{x}{p}\right)^{1+\alpha} \left( \frac{(1 - \mu(x))^{\beta-1}}{(1 - q)^\beta} - \frac{\mu(x)^{\beta-1}}{q^\beta} \right) \right]^{-1}$$

and

$$v'(x) = \frac{\alpha q}{2\beta} \left(\frac{v(x)}{q}\right)^{1+\alpha} \left(\frac{(1-x)^{\alpha-1}}{(1-p)^\alpha} - \frac{x^{\alpha-1}}{p^\alpha}\right).$$

Since  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  are non-decreasing, we have  $\mu'(x) \geq 0$  and  $\nu'(x) \geq 0$ . Because  $0 < \alpha, \beta < 1$ , we see that  $v'(x)$  is a product of non-negative non-decreasing functions and so is the reciprocal of  $\mu'(x)$ . Thus  $v'(x)$  is increasing and  $\mu'(x)$  is decreasing, for  $s < x < t$ . Since we have  $\mu(x) \geq \nu(x)$  for  $x \leq s$  and  $\mu(x) < \nu(x)$  for  $s < x < t$ , we must have  $\mu'(s+) < \nu'(s+)$ . Then, by the discussion above, we should have

$$\mu'(x) - \nu'(x) < 0$$

for  $s < x < t$ . But the fact that  $\mu(s) = \nu(s)$  and  $\mu(t) = \nu(t)$  implies that there exists  $x_0 \in (s, t)$  such that  $\mu'(x_0) - \nu'(x_0) = 0$ . This contradiction implies that  $\mu(x) < \nu(x)$  is impossible. Now we have shown that for all  $p \leq x \leq 1$  we have  $\mu(x) \geq \nu(x)$ . The proof is complete.

**5. Generalization.** In Theorem 1, we considered the size of sum sets in terms of Lebesgue measure,  $\lambda = \mu_{1/2}$ . In this section, we use general coin-tossing measure  $\mu_r$  to replace Lebesgue measure. Then Theorem 1 can be generalized to the following form.

**THEOREM 3.** *Let  $a = [\max\{p, 1 - p\}]^{-1}$ ,  $b = [\max\{q, 1 - q\}]^{-1}$  and  $c = [\min\{r, 1 - r\}]^{-1}$ , where  $0 < p, q, r < 1$ . If there exist  $0 < \alpha, \beta \leq 1$  such that*

$$\alpha \log a + \beta \log b = \log c, \tag{9}$$

*then for any Borel subsets  $E, F$  of  $[0, 1]$  one has*

$$\mu_r(E + F) \geq \mu_p(E)^\alpha \mu_q(E)^\beta. \tag{10}$$

Using a similar argument as in the proof of Theorem 1, we can convert the proof of Theorem 3 to the proof of the following result.

**THEOREM 4.** *Assume that  $p, q, r$  and  $\alpha, \beta$  are the same as defined in Theorem 3. Then for any  $0 \leq x, y \leq 1$  we have*

$$\begin{aligned} & r \left( \left[ \frac{x}{p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{y}{q} \right]^\beta, \left[ \frac{1-x}{1-p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{1-y}{1-q} \right]^\beta \right) \\ & + (1-r) \left( \left[ \frac{x}{p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{1-y}{1-q} \right]^\beta, \left[ \frac{1-x}{1-p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{y}{q} \right]^\beta \right) \geq 1. \end{aligned} \tag{11}$$

Theorem 4 can be proved in the same way as Theorem 2. We need only change the definitions of  $f(x, y)$  and  $g(x, y)$  there to

$$f(x, y) = r \left[ \frac{x}{p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{y}{q} \right]^\beta + (1-r) \left[ \frac{x}{p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{1-y}{1-q} \right]^\beta,$$



and

$$g(x, y) = r \left[ \frac{x}{p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{y}{q} \right]^\beta + (1 - r) \left[ \frac{1 - x}{1 - p} \right]^\alpha \left[ \frac{y}{q} \right]^\beta.$$

All the arguments there remain valid with some minor changes.

REMARK. Although Theorem 3 generalizes Theorem 1, we have not gone very far. Notice that the minimal possible value of  $c$  is 2, and from (9) we see that the larger the value of  $c$  is, the smaller the range of  $a$ ,  $b$  is. For example, if we let  $p = q = 1/3$ , then Theorem 1 holds for any  $0 < \alpha, \beta < 1$  with  $\alpha + \beta = \log 2 / (\log 3 - \log 2) = 1.7095 \dots$ . But for  $r = 1/3$ , we do not have  $0 < \alpha, \beta < 1$  such that  $(\alpha + \beta)(\log 3 - \log 2) = \log 3$ . This illustrates the limitation of the generalization. In fact, if (9) holds for some  $0 < \alpha, \beta < 1$ , we must have  $ab > c$ , so that in any circumstances, we have  $c < 4$ ; that is  $1/4 < r < 3/4$ .

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