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On the distribution modulo 1 of the sequence $an^3 + \beta n^2 + \gamma n$

by

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1. Introduction. Let $\| \cdot \|$ denote distance to the nearest integer. Let $\varepsilon > 0$, and let α, β, γ denote arbitrary real numbers. Recently W. M. Schmidt showed [5] that for $N > c_1(\varepsilon)$ there is a natural number $n \leq N$ having

$$\|an^2 + \beta n\| < N^{-1/2+\varepsilon}.$$

This generalizes the well known theorem of Heilbronn [3] and sharpens a result of Davenport [2].

Schmidt's method enabled him to prove that for $N > c_2(\varepsilon)$ there is a natural number $n \leq N$ having

$$\|\alpha n^3 + \beta n^2 + \gamma n\| < N^{-1/5+\varepsilon}.$$

For $\gamma = 0$, the exponent $-1/5 + \varepsilon$ could be replaced by $-1/4 + \varepsilon$ [6]. Both results sharpen those of Davenport [2].

In the present paper we shall show that for $N > c_3(\varepsilon)$ there is a natural number $n \leq N$ having

$$\|an^3 + \beta n^2 + \gamma n\| < N^{-1/4+\varepsilon}.$$

It is no more difficult to prove a more general theorem. We denote by k an integer greater than 1 and write $K = 2^{k-1}$.

THEOREM 1. *Suppose $k \geq 3$ and $N > c_1(k, \varepsilon)$. Then there is a natural number $n \leq N$ with*

$$(1) \quad \|an^k + \beta n^{k-1} + \gamma n\| < N^{-1/K+\varepsilon}.$$

We also strengthen Schmidt's theorem [6] for an arbitrary polynomial of degree $k \geq 3$ with constant term zero, but only when k is odd.

THEOREM 2. *Let k be an odd integer, $k \geq 3$, and write $K_1 = \frac{4}{3}(2^{k-1} - 1)$. Let $N > c_2(k, \varepsilon)$. Given a polynomial $F(n)$ of degree k with constant term zero, there is a natural number $n \leq N$ with*

$$(2) \quad \|F(n)\| < N^{-1/K_1+\varepsilon}.$$

We shall use ideas normally associated with "major arcs" in the circle method [4]. Schmidt's method, on the other hand, is a very original development of "minor arc" ideas.

2. The final coefficient lemma. We write $e(x) = e^{2\pi i x}$, $e_q(x) = e(x/q)$. In [7], Chapter 4, I. M. Vinogradov showed that, given a large exponential sum

$$\sum_{n=1}^N e(a_k n^k + a_{k-1} n^{k-1} + \dots + a_1 n)$$

and a good simultaneous rational approximation to a_k, a_{k-1}, \dots, a_1 , one can (under suitable conditions) obtain a good simultaneous approximation to a_k, a_{k-1}, \dots, a_1 . Lemma 4 (below) is a refined version of this principle. Other applications of Lemma 4 are given in [1].

We shall need some preliminary lemmas. Lemma 2 is rather like Lemma 7.11 of Hua's book [4].

LEMMA 1. Let $G(x) = u_k x^k + \dots + u_1 x$ be a polynomial with integer coefficients. Let q be an integer and write d for the greatest common divisor,

$$d = (q, u_2, \dots, u_k).$$

Then when $1 \leq m \leq q$, we have

$$\sum_{x=1}^m e_q(G(x)) = O(q^{1-1/k+\varepsilon} d^{1/k}).$$

Proof. This is Theorem 2 of [4]. The implied constants, here and subsequently, depend at most on k and ε .

In the following lemmas the polynomials occurring have real coefficients.

LEMMA 2. Let $k \geq 2$. Let $f(x) = a_k x^k + \dots + a_1 x$ and suppose that there are integers $N, q, u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k$ such that

$$(3) \quad d = (q, u_2, \dots, u_k) \leq N^\varepsilon$$

and

$$(4) \quad 1 \leq q \leq N^{1-\varepsilon}, \quad |qa_j - u_j| \leq N^{1-j-\varepsilon} \quad (1 \leq j \leq k).$$

Writing

$$\beta_j = a_j - u_j/q \quad (j = 1, \dots, k), \quad g(x) = \sum_{j=1}^k \beta_j x^j,$$

$$G(v) = \sum_{j=1}^k u_j v^j, \quad S(q) = \sum_{v=1}^q e_q(G(v)),$$

we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} e(f(n)) = q^{-1} S(q) \int_0^1 e(g(y)) dy + O(q^{1-1/k} N^\varepsilon).$$

Proof. Write $S = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} e(f(n))$, then

$$S = \sum_{v=1}^q \sum_{(5)} e \left(\sum_{j=1}^k \left(\frac{u_j}{q} + \beta_j \right) (mq + v)^j \right)$$

where the inner summation is over integers m satisfying

$$(5) \quad 0 \leq m + v/q < N/q.$$

Thus

$$(6) \quad S = \sum_{v=1}^q e_q(G(v)) \sum_{(5)} e(g(mq + v)).$$

Let $l = [1/\varepsilon] + 1$. Write $H(x) = e(g(qx))$ and $A = Nq^{-1}$. By Euler's sum formula ([4], p. 80) we have for all t

$$(7) \quad \sum_{0 \leq m+l < A} H(m+t) = \int_0^A H(x) dx + \sum_{r=0}^{l-1} \{H^{(r)}(A) b_{r+1}(t-A) - H^{(r)}(0) b_{r+1}(t)\} - \int_0^A H^{(l)}(x) b_l(t-x) dx.$$

Here $b_1(x), b_2(x), \dots$ are functions of period one defined inductively by: $b_1(x) = x - [x] - 1/2$,

$$b_{l+1}(x) = b_{l+1}(0) + \int_0^x b_l(y) dy.$$

We write V_r for the total variation of b_r on $[0, 1]$ (evidently $V_r < \infty$) and $M_r = \sup_x |b_r(x)|$.

We note that

$$(8) \quad \int_0^A H(x) dx = q^{-1} \int_0^N e(g(y)) dy.$$

Combining (6), (7) (with $t = v/q$) and (8), we find that

$$(9) \quad S = q^{-1} S(q) \int_0^1 e(g(y)) dy + E,$$

where

$$(10) \quad E = \sum_{r=0}^{l-1} H^{(r)}(A) \sum_{v=1}^q e_q(G(v)) b_{r+1} \left(\frac{v}{q} - A \right) - \sum_{r=0}^{l-1} H^{(r)}(0) \sum_{v=1}^q e_q(G(v)) b_{r+1} \left(\frac{v}{q} \right) - \sum_{v=1}^q e_q(G(v)) \int_0^A H^{(l)}(x) b_l \left(\frac{v}{q} - x \right) dx.$$

It remains to estimate E . We begin by observing that the h th derivative of $e(ay^j)$ takes the shape

$$D^h(e(ay^j)) = \sum_{hj^{-1} \leq r \leq h} O(r, h, j) a^r y^{jr-h} e(ay^j).$$

For $1 \leq j \leq k$, $0 \leq y \leq A$, $hj^{-1} \leq r \leq h$ we have, in view of (4),

$$(q^j \beta_j)^r y^{jr-h} \leq q^{jr} q^{-r} N^{r(1-j\epsilon)} N^{jr-h} q^{h-jr} \leq (qN^{-1+\epsilon})^{h-r} N^{-hs} \leq N^{-hs}.$$

It follows that for $1 \leq j \leq k$, $0 \leq y \leq A$,

$$D^h(e(\beta_j q^j y^j)) = O(C_1(h) N^{-hs})$$

and we easily deduce that

$$(11) \quad D^h(H(y)) = O(C_2(h) N^{-hs}) \quad (0 \leq y \leq A).$$

Thus the third term in (10) is

$$O(qNq^{-1} \cdot M_1 N^{-1\epsilon}) = O(1).$$

Write $s_v = \sum_{w=1}^v e_q(G(w))$. If t is any real number,

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{v=1}^q e_q(G(v)) b_{r+1} \left(\frac{v}{q} - t \right) \\ &= \sum_{v=1}^{q-1} s_v \left\{ b_{r+1} \left(\frac{v}{q} - t \right) - b_{r+1} \left(\frac{v+1}{q} - t \right) \right\} + s_q b_{r+1} (1-t), \end{aligned}$$

so that for $0 \leq r < l$,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{v=1}^q e_q(G(v)) b_{r+1} \left(\frac{v}{q} - t \right) \right| &\leq (V_{r+1} + M_{r+1}) \max_{v \leq q} |s_v| \\ &= O(q^{1-1/k+\epsilon/2} q^{1/k}) = O(q^{1-1/k} N^\epsilon) \end{aligned}$$

in view of Lemma 1, (3) and (4). Taking (11) into account, it follows that the first and second terms in (10) are

$$O(q^{1-1/k} N^\epsilon).$$

The same estimate thus applies to B , and Lemma 2 is proved.

LEMMA 3. Let $g(x) = \beta_k x^k + \dots + \beta_1 x$. Then

$$\int_0^N e(g(x)) dx \ll NZ^{-1/k},$$

where $Z = \max(1, N|\beta_1|, \dots, N^k|\beta_k|)$.

Proof. This follows at once from Lemma 10.1 of [4].

LEMMA 4. Let $f(x) = a_k x^k + \dots + a_1 x$ and suppose there are integers $N > c_2(k, \epsilon)$ and r such that

$$(12) \quad 1 \leq r \leq N^{1-2\epsilon}, \quad \|a_j r\| \leq N^{1-j-2\epsilon} \quad (2 \leq j \leq k).$$

Suppose further that

$$(13) \quad \left| \sum_{n=1}^N e(f(n)) \right| \geq H \geq r^{1-1/k} N^{2\epsilon}.$$

Then there is a divisor s of r and a natural number $t \leq N^\epsilon$ such that, writing $q = st$,

$$q \leq N^{k+3k\epsilon} H^{-k}, \quad \|a_j q\| \leq N^{k-j+3k\epsilon} H^{-k} \quad (1 \leq j \leq k).$$

Proof. Write

$$\|ra_j\| = |ra_j - v_j| \quad (j = 2, \dots, k).$$

Let $d = (r, v_2, \dots, v_k)$ and define $s = rd^{-1}$, $w_j = v_j d^{-1}$ ($j = 2, \dots, k$).

By Dirichlet's theorem there is a natural number $t \leq N^\epsilon$ such that

$$\|a_1 st\| = |a_1 st - u_1| \leq N^{-\epsilon}.$$

Write $q = st$, $u_j = w_j t$ ($j = 2, \dots, k$); then

$$(q, u_2, \dots, u_k) = t(s, w_2, \dots, w_k) = t \leq N^\epsilon;$$

and in view of (12),

$$1 \leq q \leq rN^\epsilon \leq N^{1-\epsilon},$$

$$\|qa_j - u_j\| = td^{-1} \|ra_j - v_j\| \leq N^{1-j-\epsilon} \quad (2 \leq j \leq k).$$

We may therefore apply Lemma 2. Now in view of (13) and $N > c_2(k, \epsilon)$, the quantity $O(q^{1-1/k} N^\epsilon)$ is smaller than $\frac{1}{2}H$. It follows that

$$\left| q^{-1} S(q) \int_0^N e(g(y)) dy \right| > \frac{1}{2}H$$

where $S(q)$ and $g(y)$ are as in Lemma 2.

We now use the estimate

$$q^{-1} S(q) \ll q^{-1/k} N^{2\epsilon}$$

which follows from (3) and Lemma 1. In the notation of Lemma 3, then, we see that

$$H \ll q^{-1/k} N^{1+2\epsilon} Z^{-1/k}$$

or

$$qZ = \max(q, N \|qa_1\|, \dots, N^k \|qa_k\|) \ll N^{k+2k\epsilon} H^{-k}.$$

Since $N > c_2(k, \epsilon)$, this proves Lemma 4.

3. Proofs of the theorems.

LEMMA 5. Suppose $N > e_3(k, \epsilon)$ and $1 \leq M \leq N^{1/K-\epsilon}$. Let

$$F(x) = \alpha x^k + \beta x^{k-1} + \dots + \omega x.$$

Suppose that there is no natural number $n \leq N$ having

$$\|F(n)\| \leq M^{-1}.$$

Then there exists a natural number r with

$$(14) \quad r \leq M^K N^\epsilon, \quad \|\alpha r\| \leq M^{K-1} N^{\epsilon-k}, \quad \|\beta r\| \leq M^{K-1} N^{\epsilon-k+1};$$

and there is a natural number $m \leq MN^\epsilon$ such that

$$(15) \quad \left| \sum_{n=1}^N e(mF(n)) \right| \geq N^{1-\epsilon} M^{-1}.$$

Proof. As far as (14) goes, this is a special case of Lemma 8A of [6]. The inequality (15) is an easy consequence of the proof of Lemma 8A.

Proof of Theorem 1. Suppose that there is no natural number $n \leq N$ having (1). Let $M = N^{1/K-\epsilon}$. We apply Lemma 5 with $\epsilon_1 = \epsilon/5k$ in place of ϵ . Thus there is a natural number $r \leq M^K N^{\epsilon_1}$ such that

$$\|\alpha r\| \leq M^{K-1} N^{\epsilon_1-k}, \quad \|\beta r\| \leq M^{K-1} N^{\epsilon_1-k+1},$$

and a natural number $m \leq MN^{\epsilon_1}$ such that

$$\left| \sum_{n=1}^N e(mF(n)) \right| \geq H = N^{1-\epsilon} M^{-1}.$$

Write $f(x) = mF(x) = \alpha_k x^k + \alpha_{k-1} x^{k-1} + \dots + \alpha_1 x$. Evidently

$$1 \leq r \leq N^{1-2\epsilon_1}, \quad \|\alpha_j r\| \leq N^{1-j-2\epsilon_1} \quad (2 \leq j \leq k),$$

and moreover

$$r^{1-1/k} N^{2\epsilon_1} \leq M^{K-1} N^{3\epsilon_1} \leq H.$$

Applying Lemma 4, with ϵ_1 in place of ϵ , there is a natural number q such that

$$q \leq N^{k+3k\epsilon_1} H^{-k} \leq M^{1/k} N^{4k\epsilon_1},$$

$$\|q\alpha_k\| = \|qma\| \leq N^{3k\epsilon_1} H^{-k} \leq M^k N^{4k\epsilon_1-k} \leq M^{K-1} N^{4k\epsilon_1-k},$$

and similarly

$$\|qm\beta\| \leq M^{K-1} N^{4k\epsilon_1-k+1}, \quad \|qm\gamma\| \leq M^{K-1} N^{4k\epsilon_1-1}.$$

Write $n = qm$. Then

$$n \leq M^{k+1} N^{5k\epsilon_1} \leq M^K N^{5k\epsilon_1} \leq N,$$

while

$$\begin{aligned} \|F(n)\| &\leq n^{k-1} \|\alpha n\| + n^{k-2} \|\beta n\| + \|\gamma n\| \\ &\leq N^{k-1} M^{K-1} N^{4k\epsilon_1-k} + N^{k-2} M^{K-1} N^{4k\epsilon_1-k+1} + M^{K-1} N^{4k\epsilon_1-1} \\ &\leq 3N^{-1+4k\epsilon_1} N^{1-1/K} \leq N^{-1/K+\epsilon}. \end{aligned}$$

This is a contradiction, and Theorem 1 is proved.

Proof of Theorem 2. This is true for $k = 3$ by Theorem 1. We proceed by induction from $k-2$ to k . Write

$$F(n) = \alpha n^k + \beta n^{k-1} + \dots + \omega n = \alpha n^k + \beta n^{k-1} + P(n),$$

and put $M = N^{1/K_1-\epsilon}$. Suppose that there is no natural number $n \leq N$ having (2). Let r be as in Lemma 5. We apply the induction hypothesis to the polynomial $P(rn)$. Thus there exists a natural number $s \leq M^{K_2} N^\epsilon$ with

$$\|P(rs)\| < \frac{1}{2} M^{-1},$$

where $K_2 = \frac{4}{3}(2^{k-3}-1)$.

Putting $n = rs$, we have $n \leq M^{K+K_2} N^{2\epsilon} = M^{K_1} N^{2\epsilon} \leq N$. Moreover,

$$\begin{aligned} \|F(n)\| &\leq s^k r^{k-1} \|\alpha r\| + s^{k-1} r^{k-2} \|\beta r\| + \|P(rs)\| \\ &\leq M^{k(K_2+K)-1} N^{(k+1)\epsilon-k} + M^{(k-1)(K_2+K)-1} N^{k\epsilon-k+1} + \frac{1}{2} M^{-1} \\ &< M^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

This is a contradiction, and Theorem 2 is proved.

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