ALGEBRAIC AND GEOMETRIC PROPERTIES OF LATTICE WALKS WITH STEPS OF EQUAL LENGTH

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In memory of Professor Czesław Ryll-Nardzewski whose question is answered in this note.

Abstract

A lattice walk with all steps having the same length d is called a d-walk. Denote by \mathcal{T}_d the terminal set, that is, the set of all lattice points that can be reached from the origin by means of a d-walk. We examine some geometric and algebraic properties of the terminal set. After observing that $(\mathcal{T}_d, +)$ is a normal subgroup of the group $(\mathbb{Z}^N, +)$, we ask questions about the quotient group $\mathbb{Z}^N/\mathcal{T}_d$ and give the number of elements of $\mathbb{Z}^2/\mathcal{T}_d$ in terms of d. To establish this result, we use several consequences of Fermat's theorem about representations of prime numbers of the form 4k+1 as the sum of two squares. One of the consequences is the fact, observed by Sierpiński, that every natural power of such a prime number has exactly one relatively prime representation. We provide explicit formulas for the relatively prime integers in this representation.

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1. Introduction

A *lattice point* in \mathbb{R}^N is a point with integer coordinates. The set of all lattice points in \mathbb{R}^N is denoted by \mathbb{Z}^N . By a *lattice walk* or *lattice path* in \mathbb{R}^N we mean an ordered sequence of lattice points $W = (w_0, w_1, \ldots, w_m)$. The point w_0 is called the *initial point* and w_m is called the *terminal point* of W. Without loss of generality, we can assume that $w_0 = 0$. With this assumption, there is a one-to-one correspondence between a lattice walk W and the ordered sequence $\mathcal{U} = (u_1, \ldots, u_m)$ of vectors, called *steps*, where $u_i = w_i - w_{i-1}$ for $i = 1, \ldots, m$. Thus, we shall alternatively use W or \mathcal{U} to represent the same lattice walk.

There are many aspects of research dealing with lattice points and, in particular, with lattice paths. We refer the reader to [1, 3, 6, 7, 10, 11], where various problems for different types of lattice walks are considered.

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To present the purpose of this note, we need several definitions. A lattice walk $\mathcal{U} = (u_1, \dots, u_m)$ is called a *d-walk* if all its steps have the same length *d*, that is, $||u_i|| = d$ for $i = 1, \dots, m$, where ||x|| denotes the Euclidean norm of *x*.

A positive real number d is said to be N-admissible if there exists $v \in \mathbb{Z}^N$ such that ||v|| = d or, in other words, if

$$U_d = \{ v \in \mathbb{Z}^N : ||v|| = d \} \neq \emptyset.$$

Obviously, d is N-admissible if and only if d^2 has a representation as a sum of N squares.

For $x = (x_1, ..., x_N) \in \mathbb{Z}^N$, by gcd(x) we denote the number $gcd(x_1, ..., x_N)$. If there exists a point $x \in U_d$ with gcd(x) = 1, then we say that d^2 has a *relatively prime* representation as a sum of N squares. In such a case, the real number d is called N-reduced. A very important class of N-reduced lattice walks are 1-walks using steps $u_i \in \{\pm e_1, ..., \pm e_N\}$, where $e_1, ..., e_N$ denote the standard unit vectors in \mathbb{R}^N .

For an N-admissible real number d, we define the terminal set \mathcal{T}_d as

$$\mathcal{T}_d = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}^N : x \text{ is the terminal point in a } d\text{-walk from the origin}\}.$$

It is obvious, for 1-walks in \mathbb{R}^N using steps $u_i \in \{\pm e_1, \dots, \pm e_N\}$, that $\mathcal{T}_d = \mathbb{R}^N$.

In [7] we proved that $\mathcal{T}_d = \mathbb{R}^2$ if and only if d is a 2-reduced real number whose square, d^2 , is odd. In this note, we explore the terminal set \mathcal{T}_d further and study its geometric and algebraic properties. In Section 4, we show that $(\mathcal{T}_d, +)$ is a normal subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}^N, +)$ and that \mathcal{T}_d is a sublattice of \mathbb{Z}^N . Therefore questions about the quotient $\mathbb{Z}^N/\mathcal{T}_d$ are well motivated. The main result of this note is in Section 5 where we provide a detailed analysis of the number of elements of $\mathbb{Z}^2/\mathcal{T}_d$ in relation to number theoretical properties of d. This is done by using some consequences of Fermat's theorem about representations of prime numbers of the form 4k + 1 as sums of two squares. One of the consequences is the known fact, observed by Sierpiński [8], that every power (with a natural exponent) of such a prime number has a unique relatively prime representation. In Section 2, we provide explicit formulas for the relatively prime integers appearing in this representation. If L is a sublattice of \mathbb{Z}^N , the problem of counting the number of elements in the quotient group \mathbb{Z}^N/L is of great interest. In [4, Theorem 2.3.19], this question is answered several times in relation to bases of the sublattice L. However, in the special case when $L = \mathcal{T}_d$, it would be nice to have the number of elements of $\mathbb{Z}^N/\mathcal{T}_d$ given in relation to d. This is why we end our note with a problem to express the cardinality of $\mathbb{Z}^N/\mathcal{T}_d$ in terms of d and (possibly) of N.

2. 2-reduced numbers

To speak about d-walks, we need d to be 2-admissible. From results in elementary number theory, a real number d is 2-admissible if and only if d^2 has the form

$$d^{2} = 2^{2\beta + \alpha} p_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots p_{r}^{\alpha_{r}} (q_{1}^{\beta_{1}} \cdots q_{s}^{\beta_{s}})^{2}, \tag{2.1}$$

where p_i and q_j are distinct prime numbers such that $p_i \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ for i = 1, ..., r, $q_i \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ for $j = 1, ..., s, \alpha_1, ..., \alpha_r, \beta_1, ..., \beta_s \in \mathbb{N}, \beta, r, s \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \text{ and } \alpha \in \{0, 1\}.$

In particular, we will deal with 2-reduced numbers. This is why we will need some consequences of Fermat's theorem about representations of natural numbers as sums of squares. A rephrased version of Fermat's theorem reads as follows.

THEOREM 2.1 (Fermat). Let p be a prime number of the form $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Then $d = \sqrt{p}$ is 2-reduced.

Sierpiński [8, 9] proved that every power (with a natural exponent) of a prime of the form 4k + 1 has unique relatively prime representation as the sum of two squares. Below we provide explicit formulas for the integers appearing in this unique representation.

THEOREM 2.2. Let p be a prime number of the form $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ with the representation $p = a^2 + b^2$ as the sum of squares. Then, for every $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}$, the number $\sqrt{p^{\alpha}}$ is 2-reduced, that is, $p^{\alpha} = x_{\alpha}^2 + y_{\alpha}^2$ for relatively prime numbers x_{α} and y_{α} given by

$$x_{\alpha} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} {\alpha \choose 2k} (-1)^k a^{2k} b^{\alpha-2k}$$
 and $y_{\alpha} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} {\alpha \choose 2k+1} (-1)^k a^{2k+1} b^{\alpha-(2k+1)}$.

PROOF. Suppose p is a prime of the form $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and $p = a^2 + b^2$. Obviously, a and b are relatively prime. Moreover, $x_1 = b$ and $y_1 = a$.

Clearly, p = (b + ia)(b - ia), where $i = \sqrt{-1}$. Observe that, via the binomial theorem,

$$(b+ia)^{\alpha} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} {\alpha \choose 2k} (-1)^k a^{2k} b^{\alpha-2k} + i \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} {\alpha \choose 2k+1} (-1)^k a^{2k} b^{\alpha-2k} = x_{\alpha} + i y_{\alpha}.$$

Hence

$$p^{\alpha} = (b + ia)^{\alpha}(b - ia)^{\alpha} = (x_{\alpha} + iy_{\alpha})(x_{\alpha} - iy_{\alpha}) = x_{\alpha}^{2} + y_{\alpha}^{2}.$$

If x_{α} and y_{α} have a common factor greater than one, then they must both be divisible by p and so p divides $(b+ia)^{\alpha}$. That is, (b+ia)(b-ia) divides $(b+ia)^{\alpha}$ and so (b-ia) divides $(b+ia)^{\alpha-1}$. This is impossible since (b+ia) and (b-ia) are distinct Gaussian primes. Thus x_{α} and y_{α} are relatively prime. The proof is finished.

It was pointed out to us by the editor that the formulas for x_{α} and y_{α} have already been observed by Plana (compare with [5, page 241]). We show, in addition, that the representation is relatively prime. It is worth noticing, in this context, that the following fact is true.

Corollary 2.3. Let p be a prime number of the form $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Then, for every $\alpha \geq 3$, the number p^{α} has a representation $p^{\alpha} = c_{\alpha}^2 + d_{\alpha}^2$ such that $p||c_{\alpha}$ and $p||d_{\alpha}$. Moreover, if $p = a^2 + b^2$, then

$$c_{\alpha} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left[\binom{\alpha-1}{2k} - \binom{\alpha-1}{2k+1} \right] (-1)^{k} a^{2k+1} b^{\alpha-(2k+1)}$$

and

$$d_{\alpha} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left[\begin{pmatrix} \alpha - 1 \\ 2k \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \alpha - 1 \\ 2k - 1 \end{pmatrix} \right] (-1)^k a^{2k} b^{\alpha - 2k}.$$

PROOF. Let x_{α} and y_{α} be as in Theorem 2.2. Then

$$p^{\alpha} = (a^2 + b^2)(x_{\alpha-1}^2 + y_{\alpha-1}^2) = (ax_{\alpha-1} - by_{\alpha-1})^2 + (bx_{\alpha-1} + ay_{\alpha-1})^2.$$

It is easy to check that

$$c_{\alpha} = ax_{\alpha-1} - by_{\alpha-1}$$
 and $d_{\alpha} = bx_{\alpha-1} + ay_{\alpha-1}$.

So, to complete the proof, it is enough to show that p divides c_{α} and d_{α} . For that purpose, we consider the polynomial

$$W(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left[{\alpha - 1 \choose 2k} - {\alpha - 1 \choose 2k+1} \right] (-1)^k z^{2k+1} b^{\alpha - 1 - 2k}$$

of a complex variable z. One can easily check that, for $\alpha \geq 3$,

$$W(\pm ib) = \pm ib^{\alpha} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left[\binom{\alpha-1}{2k} - \binom{\alpha-1}{2k+1} \right] = 0.$$

Thus $W(z) = (z^2 + b^2) \cdot W_1(z)$ for some polynomial $W_1(z)$. In particular, $W(a) = (a^2 + b^2) \cdot W_1(a)$ which means that c_{α} is divisible by p. In a similar way one can check that p divides d_{α} . The proof is finished.

Sierpiński [8] has shown the following result.

Theorem 2.4 (Sierpiński). Let $t = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r}$, where p_i are distinct prime numbers of the form $p_i \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ for $i = 1, \ldots, r$ and $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r \in \mathbb{N}$. Then t has a relatively prime representation as the sum of two squares.

The next theorem provides a general form of 2-reduced numbers.

Theorem 2.5. Every real number d such that $d^2 = 2^{\alpha} p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r}$, where p_i are distinct prime numbers of the form $p_i \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ for $i = 1, \ldots, r$ with $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\alpha \in \{0, 1\}$, is 2-reduced.

PROOF. The case $\alpha = 0$ is considered in Theorem 2.4. If $s = 2t = 2p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r}$, then Theorem 2.4 guarantees the existence of relatively prime numbers x and y such that $t = x^2 + y^2$. Clearly,

$$s = 2(x^2 + y^2) = (x + y)^2 + (x - y)^2.$$
 (2.2)

In view of (2.2), the numbers x and y are of different parity. Now it is easily seen that neither x + y nor x - y are divisible by any of the numbers $2, p_1, \ldots, p_r$. Thus x + y and x - y are relatively prime and d is 2-reduced.

3. The cardinality and a property of U_d

The number of representations of a natural number n by the sum of two squares, allowing zeros and distinguishing signs and order, is usually denoted by $r_2(n)$. It is known, see [2], that

$$r_2(n) = \begin{cases} 4(\alpha_1 + 1) \cdots (\alpha_r + 1) & \text{if } n \text{ is of the form (2.1),} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (3.1)

From (3.1), it follows that if d^2 is of the form (2.1), then

$$|U_d| = r_2(d^2) = 4(\alpha_1 + 1) \cdots (\alpha_r + 1).$$
 (3.2)

We now introduce a notation which plays a crucial role in finding the cardinality of $\mathbb{Z}^2/\mathcal{T}_d$. Let d be a 2-admissible real number. Define

$$h_d = \min\{\gcd(v) \ge 1 : v \in U_d\}.$$

Lemma 3.1. Let d be a 2-admissible real number with d^2 of the form (2.1). Then

$$h_d = 2^{\beta} q_1^{\beta_1} \cdots q_s^{\beta_s}.$$

PROOF. Take a 2-admissible real number d with d^2 of the form (2.1). Denote by h the number $h = 2^{\beta} q_1^{\beta_1} \cdots q_s^{\beta_s}$ and consider the number $d^* = d/h$. Then

$$(d^*)^2 = 2^{\alpha} p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r}.$$

By Theorem 2.5, there are relatively prime numbers x and y such that $(x, y) \in U_{d^*}$. Clearly, the vector (hx, hy) belongs to U_d and gcd(v) = h. This means that $h_d \le h$.

Now take any vector v = (x, y) from U_d . If $h \not\mid x$ or $h \not\mid y$, then the vector v/h would not belong to $U_{d/h}$. This, and the obvious inclusion $hU_{d/h} \subset U_d$, would imply that $|U_{d/h}| < |U_d|$, which gives us a contradiction because, from (3.1) and (3.2), it follows that $|U_{d/h}| = |U_d|$. Thus, for every $v = (x, y) \in U_d$, h|x and h|y and therefore also $\gcd(v) \ge h$. This implies that $h_d \ge h$. Consequently, $h = h_d$ and the proof is finished. \square

In the proof of Lemma 3.1 we have shown the following property of h_d .

Remark 3.2. Let d be a 2-admissible real number. Then

$$h_d = \gcd\left(\bigcup_{(x,y)\in U_d} \{x,y\}\right). \tag{3.3}$$

THEOREM 3.3. For any 2-admissible real number d,

$$h_d \cdot U_{d/h_d} = U_d$$
.

PROOF. The inclusion $h_d \cdot U_{d/h_d} \subset U_d$ is obvious. From (3.3) it follows, for every $v = (x, y) \in U_d$, that $h_d|x$ and $h_d|y$. Therefore there exists $v' = (x', y') \in U_{d/h_d}$ such that $h_dv' = v$. This means that $v \in h_dU_{d/h_d}$. Thus the inclusion $U_d \subset h_d \cdot U_{d/h_d}$ is also true and the proof is complete.

4. The terminal set \mathcal{T}_d

Let d be an N-admissible real number. Recall that the terminal set \mathcal{T}_d consists of all lattice points in \mathbb{Z}^N that can be reached from the origin by means of a d-walk. Since d-walks use steps from the set U_d , obviously, $U_d \subset \mathcal{T}_d$. Therefore an immediate consequence of Theorem 3.3 is the following corollary.

Corollary 4.1. For any 2-admissible real number d,

$$\mathcal{T}_d = h_d \cdot \mathcal{T}_{d/h_d}$$
.

It is clear that U_d is a finite set which is symmetrical with respect to the origin and all coordinate axes. The symmetry properties of U_d guarantee that the terminal set \mathcal{T}_d is also symmetrical with respect to the origin and all coordinate axes. We have also the following property of U_d .

Proposition 4.2. For any permutation $\pi: \{1, ..., N\} \rightarrow \{1, ..., N\}$,

$$(x_1,\ldots,x_N)\in U_d\Longrightarrow (x_{\pi(1)},\ldots,x_{\pi(N)})\in U_d.$$

In the next theorem, we show an algebraic property of \mathcal{T}_d .

THEOREM 4.3. Let d be an N-admissible real number. The pair $(\mathcal{T}_d, +)$ is a normal subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}^N, +)$.

PROOF. Since $(\mathbb{Z}^N, +)$ is an Abelian group, we only need to check that $(\mathcal{T}_d, +)$ is a subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}^N, +)$. Take x and y from \mathcal{T}_d . In order to prove the theorem, it suffices to show that $x - y \in \mathcal{T}_d$. There are d-walks

$$\mathcal{U}_1 = \{u_1, \dots, u_k\}$$
 and $\mathcal{U}_2 = \{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$

from the origin to x and y, respectively. Consider the d-walk

$$\mathcal{U} = \{u_1, \dots, u_k, u_{k+1}, \dots, u_{k+m}\},\$$

where $u_{k+i} = -v_i$ for i = 1, ..., m. Clearly, \mathcal{U} is a d-walk from the origin to x - y. Thus $x - y \in \mathcal{T}_d$ and the proof is complete.

We say that $L \subset \mathbb{Z}^N$ is a *sublattice* of \mathbb{Z}^N if L is an additive subgroup and the vector space spanned by L is \mathbb{R}^N . From the abovementioned geometric properties of \mathcal{T}_d , Proposition 4.2 and Theorem 4.3, we get the following corollary.

COROLLARY 4.4. Let d be an N-admissible real number. Then \mathcal{T}_d is a sublattice of \mathbb{Z}^N .

Let $u_1, \ldots, u_N \in \mathbb{Z}^N$ be linearly independent vectors in \mathbb{R}^N . The sublattice L of \mathbb{Z}^N generated by u_1, \ldots, u_N is defined as

$$L = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{N} a_i u_i : a_i \in \mathbb{Z}, i = 1, \dots, N \right\}.$$

The fundamental parallelepiped of L is the set

$$\Pi_L = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^N t_i u_i : 0 \le t_i < 1, i = 1, \dots, N \right\}.$$

The next lemma is similar to [4, Theorem 2.3.12] and can be proved in an analogous way.

LEMMA 4.5. Let L be a sublattice of \mathbb{Z}^N generated by u_1, \ldots, u_N . Then, for any $w \in \mathbb{Z}^N$, the coset w + L coincides with a coset $w_0 + L$ for some $w_0 \in \Pi_L \cap \mathbb{Z}^N$. Moreover, if w_1 and w_2 are two distinct points in $\Pi_L \cap \mathbb{Z}^N$, then $(w_1 + L) \cap (w_2 + L) = \emptyset$.

An immediate consequence of Lemma 4.5 is the following corollary.

Corollary 4.6. Let L be a sublattice of \mathbb{Z}^N generated by $u_1, \ldots, u_N \in \mathbb{Z}^N$. Then

$$|\mathbb{Z}^N/L| = |\Pi_L \cap \mathbb{Z}^N|.$$

5. The cardinality of $\mathbb{Z}^2/\mathcal{T}_d$

After observing Theorem 4.3, it is natural to deal with the quotient $\mathbb{Z}^N/\mathcal{T}_d$, which will be the main object of the remaining part of this note. We start with two useful lemmas, the first of which immediately follows from [7, Theorem 4.1].

Lemma 5.1. Let d be a 2-reduced real number such that d^2 is an odd number. Then $\mathcal{T}_d = \mathbb{Z}^2$.

Lemma 5.2. Let d be a 2-reduced real number such that d^2 is even. Then $\mathcal{T}_d \neq \mathbb{Z}^2$ and \mathcal{T}_d is a sublattice of \mathbb{Z}^2 generated by the vectors (1,1) and (-1,1).

PROOF. Assume that d is a 2-reduced real number such that d^2 is even. From the proof of [7, Theorem 4.1], it follows that $(1,0) \notin \mathcal{T}_d$ and hence $\mathcal{T}_d \neq \mathbb{Z}^2$. In view of Corollary 4.4, it is enough to show that the vectors (1,1) and (-1,1) belong to \mathcal{T}_d . As \mathcal{T}_d is symmetrical with respect to the y-axis, we only show that $(1,1) \in \mathcal{T}_d$.

From the assumption that d is 2-reduced, it follows that there exists a vector $v_1 = (x_1, x_2) \in U_d$ with $gcd(x_1, x_2) = 1$. Of course, we may assume that $0 < x_1 < x_2$. Consider the subset $U_d^0 \subset U_d$ consisting of v_1 , $v_2 = (-x_2, x_1)$, $v_3 = (x_2, x_1)$ and $v_4 = (-x_1, x_2)$. We shall show that there exists a lattice walk from the origin to the point (1, 1) using steps from the set $U_d^0 \cup (-U_d^0)$. The existence of such a walk will be clear if we show that the system of linear equations

$$\begin{cases}
1 = a_1 x_1 - a_2 x_2 + a_3 x_2 - a_4 x_1, \\
1 = a_1 x_2 + a_2 x_1 + a_3 x_1 + a_4 x_2,
\end{cases}$$
(5.1)

has an integral solution a_1 , a_2 , a_3 and a_4 . By substituting $\alpha = a_1 - a_4$, $\beta = a_3 - a_2$, $\gamma = a_3 + a_2$ and $\delta = a_1 + a_4$, the system (5.1) gives

$$\begin{cases} 1 = \alpha x_1 + \beta x_2, \\ 1 = \gamma x_1 + \delta x_2. \end{cases}$$
 (5.2)

Since $gcd(x_1, x_2) = 1$, both equations in (5.2) have the same integral solution α_0 and β_0 . All other solutions of (5.2) are given by

$$\alpha = \alpha_0 + x_2 t$$
, $\beta = \beta_0 - x_1 t$, $\gamma = \alpha_0 + x_2 s$ and $\delta = \beta_0 - x_1 s$,

where t, s are arbitrary integers.

Using this, and returning to the original unknowns a_1 , a_2 , a_3 and a_4 , yields

$$\begin{cases} a_1 - a_4 = \alpha_0 + x_2 t, \\ a_1 + a_4 = \beta_0 - x_1 s, \end{cases} \text{ and } \begin{cases} a_3 - a_2 = \beta_0 - x_1 t, \\ a_3 + a_2 = \alpha_0 + x_2 s. \end{cases}$$

Solving the two systems, we easily obtain

$$a_1 = \frac{\alpha_0 + \beta_0 - x_1 s + x_2 t}{2}, \quad a_4 = a_1 - (\alpha_0 + x_2 t)$$
 (5.3)

and

$$a_3 = \frac{\alpha_0 + \beta_0 - x_1 t + x_2 s}{2}, \quad a_2 = a_3 + (x_1 t - \beta_0). \tag{5.4}$$

It remains now to show that, for suitable integers t and s, all four unknowns are integers. In view of (5.3) and (5.4), it is enough to ensure that a_1 and a_3 are integers.

From the assumptions that d is 2-reduced and d^2 is even, it follows that both the numbers x_1 and x_2 are odd. From this and the equality $\alpha_0 x_1 + \beta_0 x_2 = 1$ it follows, in turn, that α_0 and β_0 must be of different parity. It is easy to check that when we put $s = \alpha_0$ and $t = \beta_0$, then a_1 and a_3 are integers. Hence all four unknowns are integers and this completes the proof.

Now we are ready to establish the main result of this section and the paper.

THEOREM 5.3. Let d be a 2-admissible real number. Then

$$|\mathbb{Z}^2/\mathcal{T}_d| = \begin{cases} h_d^2 & \text{when } (d/h_d)^2 \text{ is odd,} \\ 2h_d^2 & \text{when } (d/h_d)^2 \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

PROOF. Take a 2-admissible real number d. From (2.1) and the form of h_d , it follows that $(d/h_d)^2$ is either odd (when $\alpha = 0$) or even (when $\alpha = 1$). We will consider the two possible cases separately.

Case $\alpha = 0$: By Lemma 5.1, the terminal set \mathcal{T}_{d/h_d} is just \mathbb{Z}^2 . From Corollaries 4.4 and 4.1, it follows that \mathcal{T}_d is a sublattice of \mathbb{Z}^2 generated by the vectors $u_1 = (h_d, 0)$ and $u_2 = (0, h_d)$. Clearly, $\Pi_{\mathcal{T}_d}$ contains h_d^2 lattice points. This, in conjunction with Corollary 4.6, ends the proof in this case.

Case $\alpha = 1$: By Lemma 5.2 and Corollaries 4.4 and 4.1, \mathcal{T}_d is a sublattice of \mathbb{Z}^2 generated by the vectors $u_1 = (h_d, h_d)$ and $u_2 = (-h_d, h_d)$. One can easily check that, in this case, $\Pi_{\mathcal{T}_d}$ contains $2(h_d)^2$ lattice points. By Corollary 4.6, $|\mathbb{Z}^2/\mathcal{T}_d| = 2(h_d)^2$, which establishes the case when $\alpha = 1$. The proof of the theorem is complete.

6. A problem about the cardinality of $\mathbb{Z}^N/\mathcal{T}_d$

Corollary 4.6, in conjunction with Corollary 4.4, provides some kind of implicit information about the cardinality of $\mathbb{Z}^N/\mathcal{T}_d$. It would be interesting to find an explicit formula for $|\mathbb{Z}^N/\mathcal{T}_d|$ depending on d and N in a similar way to the formula in Theorem 5.3. Therefore we formulate the following problem.

PROBLEM 6.1. Let d be an N-admissible real number. Express the cardinality of $\mathbb{Z}^N/\mathcal{T}_d$ in terms of d and N.

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