

ON THE ASYMPTOTIC DENSITY OF SETS OF INTEGERS. II

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1. Introduction and statement of results

1.1. The object of this note is to answer (in the affirmative) the first two open problems stated at the end of a previous paper by one of us [5]. (For the sake of clarity we first reproduce here part of the introduction of [5], to which we refer for notation and more details.)

1.2. Let \mathbb{N} (resp. \mathbb{N}^*) denote the set of all non-negative (resp. positive) rational integers. Let A and B be a pair of direct factors of \mathbb{N}^* , that is, two subsets of \mathbb{N}^* such that every $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ can be written *uniquely* as

$$n = ab \quad (a \in A, b \in B). \quad (1)$$

This is trivially equivalent to a decomposition of the Riemann zeta function as

$$\zeta(s) = U(s) V(s), \quad U(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{n^s}, \quad V(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{b_n}{n^s},$$

where a_n and b_n equal 0 or 1, the set A (resp. B) appearing as the set of those n such that $a_n = 1$ (resp. $b_n = 1$).

It seems a rather difficult problem to describe explicitly the *structure* of all such direct factors, although the theorem demonstrated in [5] and our present Theorem 1 shed some light on the situation by proving the existence of their asymptotic densities. (The corresponding additive problem for \mathbb{N} is much easier, and has been completely settled by de Bruijn [1] in 1956 and by Long [4] in 1967.)

Although this structure problem for A and B , as pointed out in [5; §9.3], essentially reduces to an algebraic and combinatorial problem, it has close connections with sets of multiples (see [3; Chapter V]), and also has "multiplicative" features, in the (somewhat extended) sense of multiplicative functions. These two interesting aspects can already be foreseen from (respectively) the proof of our present Theorem 2 and the new proof of our result given in [2], but will be discussed further elsewhere.

1.3. Let $S \subset \mathbb{N}^*$. As in [5], denote by $d_*(S)$ [resp. $d^*(S)$] the lower asymptotic (resp. upper asymptotic) density of S , and by $d(S)$ [resp. $\delta(S)$] the asymptotic (resp. logarithmic) density of S whenever it exists. Let

$$H(S) = \sum_{n \in S} \frac{1}{n}.$$

Obviously $\max(H(A), H(B)) = \infty$, but $\min(H(A), H(B))$ can be finite or infinite. We might refer to the case $\min(H(A), H(B)) < \infty$ as the *convergent case* and to $\min(H(A), H(B)) = \infty$ as the *divergent case*.

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It was proved in [5] that, in the convergent case, the sets A and B have asymptotic densities:

$$d(A) = 1/H(B) \quad \text{and} \quad d(B) = 1/H(A). \quad (2)$$

Our first theorem states that this is also true in the divergent case:

THEOREM 1. *The direct factors A and B have asymptotic densities in the divergent case $H(A) = H(B) = \infty$ as well (and (2) remains valid): $d(A) = d(B) = 0$.*

1.4. Our second theorem answers the second open problem stated at the end of [5]. (N.B. Throughout this paper, p denotes a prime):

THEOREM 2. *In the divergent case $H(A) = H(B) = \infty$, we have*

$$\sum_{p \in A} \frac{1}{p} = \sum_{p \in B} \frac{1}{p} = \infty.$$

2. Proof of Theorem 1

2.1. The proof is based on the following lemma:

LEMMA (Davenport–Erdős). *Let S be any (non-empty) subset of \mathbb{N}^* , and $\mathcal{M}(S)$ its “set of multiples”, that is, the set of those elements of \mathbb{N}^* which are divisible by at least one element of S . Then $\mathcal{M}(S)$ has logarithmic density, and $\delta(\mathcal{M}(S)) = d_*(\mathcal{M}(S))$.*

This is Theorem 12 of Chapter V of Halberstam and Roth [3].

2.2. To prove Theorem 1, clearly it suffices to prove that $d(A) = 0$, subject to the assumption

$$H(B) = \infty. \quad (3)$$

If $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$, let $\beta(n)$ be the largest divisor of n contained in B . (Clearly $\beta(n)$ exists, since $1 \in B$). Whenever $T > 0$, let

$$\mathbb{N}_T = \{n \in \mathbb{N}^* : \beta(n) < T\} \quad \text{and} \quad A_T = A \cap \mathbb{N}_T. \quad (4)$$

Then the complement $\tilde{\mathbb{N}}_T$ of \mathbb{N}_T in \mathbb{N}^* is $\mathcal{M}(S_T)$ where $S_T = B \cap [T, +\infty)$, hence the lemma implies that $\tilde{\mathbb{N}}_T$ and \mathbb{N}_T have logarithmic densities, and

$$d^*(\mathbb{N}_T) = \delta(\mathbb{N}_T) \quad [\text{since } d_*(\tilde{\mathbb{N}}_T) = \delta(\tilde{\mathbb{N}}_T)]. \quad (5)$$

Whenever $b \in B$, let $bA = \{k : k = ba \text{ with } a \in A\}$. Then, by (1) and (4),

$$\mathbb{N}_T \subset \bigcup_{b < T} bA. \quad (6)$$

Now, since (3) implies that $\delta(A) = 0$ (see [5; Lemma 1]), it follows from (6) that $\delta(\mathbb{N}_T) = 0$. By (5), this implies $d(\mathbb{N}_T) = 0$. Hence, in view of the second inequality (4), we obtain

$$d(A_T) = 0. \quad (7)$$

Let $\tilde{A}_T = A \cap \tilde{\mathbb{N}}_T$. Then A_T and \tilde{A}_T are complements of each other in A . Therefore,

whenever $x > 0$,

$$\sum_{a \leq x, a \in A} 1 = \sum_{a \leq x, a \in A_T} 1 + \sum_{a \leq x, a \in \tilde{A}_T} 1. \quad (8)$$

By (1) (and the uniqueness condition) the integers $a/\beta(a)$ (with $a \in A$) are pairwise distinct. Also, if $a \in \tilde{A}_T$, then $a/\beta(a) \leq a/T$. Therefore the second sum in the right side of (8) is $\leq x/T$. Thus, dividing both sides of (8) by x and letting successively $x \rightarrow \infty$ and $T \rightarrow \infty$, we deduce from (7) and (8) that $d(A) = 0$, as required.

2.3. *Remark.* One may observe that the method of the above proof is not applicable to the convergent case, which was settled in [5] by an entirely different method (itself not applicable to the divergent case). But we point out that the new "multiplicative" method of [2] is applicable to both cases.

3. Proof of Theorem 2

By contradiction. Suppose $\sum_{p \in B} p^{-1} < \infty$. We will deduce that $H(B) < \infty$.

Let L (resp. M) denote the set of those positive integers all of whose prime divisors are in A (resp. in B). Then our assumption implies that $H(M) < \infty$. Clearly

$$H(B) = \sum_{m \in M} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{l \in L, lm \in B} \frac{1}{l},$$

so that it suffices to show that

$$\sum_{\substack{lm \in B, l \in L \\ \downarrow}} \frac{1}{l} \leq C \quad (9)$$

where C is independent of m . Let $x > 0$ be large (say $x \geq 10$). We have

$$\sum_{\substack{lm \in B \\ l \in L, x < l \leq 2x}} 1 \leq \Sigma_1 + \Sigma_2 \quad (10)$$

where

$$\Sigma_1 = \sum_{\substack{x < r \leq 2x \\ \forall p|r, p \leq (\log x)^2}} 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \Sigma_2 = \sum_{\substack{lm \in B \\ l \in L, l \leq 2x \\ \exists p|l \text{ with } p > (\log x)^2}} 1.$$

In the sequel we use the Vinogradov symbol \ll , the implied constants being absolute (throughout). It is well known that

$$\Sigma_1 \ll x (\log x)^{-2}. \quad (11)$$

One way to see this is to observe that for the integers r counted in Σ_1 one has $(\log x)^{2\Omega(r)} > x$ (where $\Omega(r)$ is the total number of prime divisors of r , that is, counting multiplicity), so that $\Omega(r) > (\log x)/(2 \log \log x)$, whence

$$\Sigma_1 \leq 2^{-(\log x)/(2 \log \log x)} \sum_{r \leq 2x} 2^{\Omega(r)}.$$

This implies (11), since $\sum_{r \leq 2x} 2^{\Omega(r)} \ll x \log x$.

To estimate Σ_2 , observe that if l_1 and l_2 are two of the integers l counted in Σ_2 , ml_1 and ml_2 belong to B , and p_1 (resp. p_2) is the largest prime divisor of l_1 (resp. l_2), then (by (1), since $p_1 \in A$ and $p_2 \in A$) the equality $ml_1/p_1 = ml_2/p_2$ can only occur if $p_1 = p_2$ and $l_1 = l_2$. Thus, to two different integers l counted in Σ_2 there correspond

two different integers ml/p contained in the interval $[1, 2x(\log x)^{-2}]$. Hence

$$\Sigma_2 \leq 2x(\log x)^{-2}. \quad (12)$$

By (10), (11) and (12),

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{lm \in B, l \in L} \frac{1}{l} &\leq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} \sum_{\substack{lm \in B \\ l \in L, 2^{k-1} < l \leq 2^k}} 1 \\ &\ll \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(k+1)^2}. \end{aligned}$$

This proves (9), and therefore Theorem 2.

References

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