

**Two problems  
in  
combinatorial number theory**

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Our story begins with:



Abram S. Besicovitch

[Besicovitch](#) showed in 1934 that there are primitive sets of natural numbers with upper density arbitrarily close to  $1/2$ .

Here “primitive” means that no member of the set divides another. For example, the set of prime numbers is a primitive set.

But the set of primes has density 0. By the upper density of a set  $\mathcal{S}$ , we mean

$$\bar{d}(\mathcal{S}) := \limsup_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} S(x),$$

where  $S(x) := |\mathcal{S} \cap [1, x]|$ .

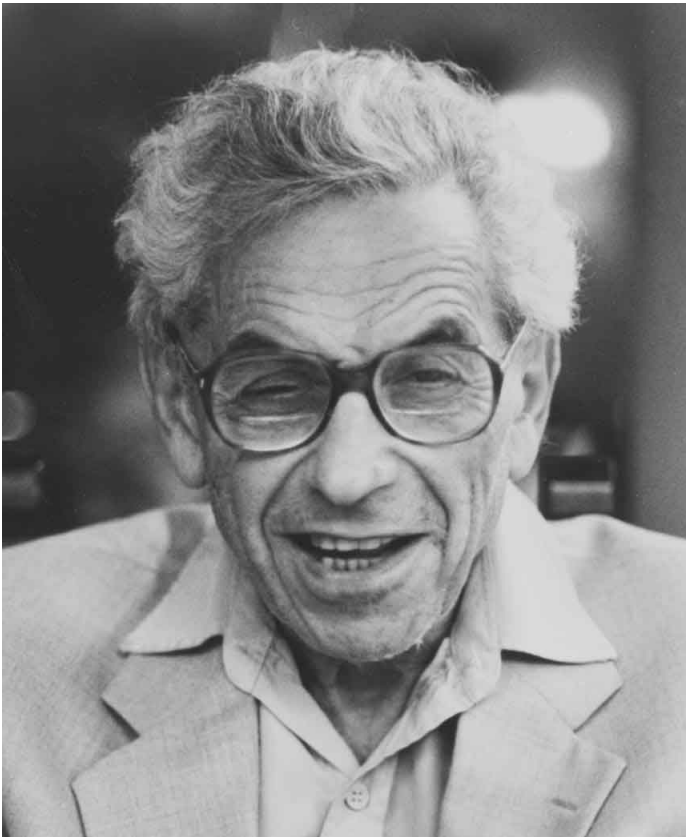
The result of [Besicovitch](#) is somewhat of a surprise, since a first guess might be that the set of primes forms a typical example.

The two key ideas in the proof of the [Besicovitch](#) result:

- For any number  $x$ , the integers in  $(x, 2x]$  form a primitive set.
- As  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , the density of the integers with a divisor in  $(x, 2x]$  tends to 0.

So, by choosing a rapidly growing sequence  $x_1 < x_2 < \dots$ , where  $x_1$  is already very large, and taking  $\mathcal{S}_k$  as the set of numbers in  $(x_k, 2x_k]$  not divisible by any number in  $\mathcal{S}_i$  for  $i < k$ , and then letting  $\mathcal{S} = \cup \mathcal{S}_k$ , we have our dense primitive set.

But what about the lower density of a primitive set?



Erdős showed in 1935 that not only must the lower asymptotic density of a primitive set be 0, but

$$\sup_{\mathcal{S} \text{ primitive}} \sum_{n \in \mathcal{S} \setminus \{1\}} \frac{1}{n \log n} < \infty.$$

It is thought that the supremum is achieved for the set of primes, but this is still not known.

Recall that  $S(x) = |\mathcal{S} \cap [1, x]|$ , the number of members of  $\mathcal{S}$  in  $[1, x]$ . The case of the primes shows us that

$$S(x) \gg \frac{x}{\log x}$$

is possible for a primitive set. Can we do better? That is, can we find larger (concave down) functions here than  $x/\log x$ ?

Erdős: “The following problem seems difficult. Let  $b_1 < \dots$  be an infinite sequence of integers. What is the necessary and sufficient condition that there should exist a primitive sequence  $a_1 < \dots$  satisfying  $a_n < cb_n$  for every  $n$ ? From [my old result] we obtain that we must have  $\sum 1/(b_n \log b_n) < \infty$ . ....”

Ahlsvede, Khachatryan, Sárközy (1999): For each  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a primitive set  $\mathcal{S}$  such that

$$S(x) \gg \frac{x}{\log_2 x \cdot (\log_3 x)^{1+\epsilon}}.$$

Here we write  $\log_k$  for the  $k$ -fold iteration of  $\log$ .

It is clear that this result is best possible, since if the counting function satisfied

$$S(x) \gg \frac{x}{\log_2 x \cdot \log_3 x},$$

then we would have  $\sum_{n \in \mathcal{S}} 1/n \log n = \infty$ .



One might view the [Erdős](#) problem mentioned above as whether the criterion  $\sum 1/n \log n = O(1)$  is the only limitation on the growth of a primitive set. And the answer is essentially “yes for smoothly growing sequences”:

[Martin, P](#) (2010): *Suppose that  $L(x)$  is positive and increasing for  $x \geq 2$ ,  $L(2x) \sim L(x)$ , and*

$$\int_2^\infty \frac{dt}{t \log t \cdot L(t)} < \infty.$$

*Then there is a primitive set  $S$  such that*

$$S(x) \asymp \frac{x}{\log_2 x \cdot \log_3 x \cdot L(\log_2 x)}.$$

*In particular for each  $\ell \geq 3$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a primitive set  $S$  with*

$$S(x) \asymp \frac{x}{\log_2 x \cdot \dots \cdot \log_{\ell-1} x \cdot (\log_\ell x)^{1+\epsilon}}.$$

Our primitive set is based on an increasing sequence of primes  $p_1, p_2, \dots$ , where  $p_j \ll j^2$  and  $\sum 1/p_j < 1/2$ . It is the union of the sets

$$\mathcal{S}_k = \{n : \Omega(n) = k, p_k \mid n, (n, p_1 \dots p_{k-1}) = 1\}.$$

It is immediate that each  $\mathcal{S}_k$  is primitive as is their union.

We show using the [Sathe–Selberg](#) theorem that

$$S_k(x) \asymp \frac{x}{\log x} \frac{(\log_2 x)^{k-2}}{(k-2)!} \frac{1}{p_k}.$$

We then show that  $x/p_B \gg S(x) \gg x/p_{B'}$ , where  $B = \lfloor (1/2) \log_2 x \rfloor$  and  $B' = \lfloor (3/2) \log_2 x \rfloor$ .

To complete the proof, we show that we may take  $p_k$  as the  $\lfloor kL(k) \rfloor$ th prime.

And now for something completely different ...

Must dense sets of integers contain a solution to  $ab = c$ ?

Some examples of sets where this equation has no solutions:

- The set of negative integers.
- The set of integers with an odd number of prime factors.
- The set of  $2^a(4b + 3)$  where  $a \geq 0$ .
- The set of  $np^a$  where  $n$  is a quadratic nonresidue mod  $p$ ,  $a \geq 0$ .

These examples all have density  $1/2$ .

Recently [Hajdu, Schinzel, & Skalba](#) (2009) showed that there are sets of integers with upper density arbitrarily close to 1 that are *product free*, namely there is no solution to  $ab = c$  in the set.

Must it be true that any product-free subset of  $\mathbb{Z}$  (or  $\mathbb{N}$ ) must have lower density at most  $1/2$ ?

[Hajdu, Schinzel, Skalba](#) (2009): *If the lower asymptotic density of a set of integers exceeds  $1/2$ , then there are members  $a, b, c, d$  with  $abc = d^2$ .*

Recently [Schinzel](#) conjectured: *If  $n$  is a positive integer, let  $F(n)$  be the size of the largest product-free subset of  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $F(n) < n/2$ .*

Here are some examples:

| $n$ | $F(n)$ | $n$ | $F(n)$ |
|-----|--------|-----|--------|
| 1   | 0      | 11  | 5      |
| 2   | 0      | 12  | 4      |
| 3   | 1      | 13  | 6      |
| 4   | 1      | 14  | 6      |
| 5   | 2      | 15  | 6      |
| 6   | 2      | 16  | 7      |
| 7   | 3      | 17  | 8      |
| 8   | 3      | 18  | 8      |
| 9   | 4      | 19  | 9      |
| 10  | 4      | 20  | 8      |

Maybe

$$F(n) = \max \left\{ \left\lfloor \frac{q-1}{2} \right\rfloor \frac{n}{q} : q \mid n, q \text{ a prime power} \right\} ?$$

[P, Schinzel](#) (2010): *The set of possible counterexamples to  $F(n) < n/2$  lie in a set with asymptotic density smaller than  $1.56 \times 10^{-8}$ .*

We show this by showing that if  $n$  has no divisor  $m^2$  with  $\omega(m) \geq 6$ , then  $F(n) < n/2$ .

With any product-free subset  $\mathcal{S}$  of  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ , we organize the elements by their gcd with  $n$ , where for  $d \mid n$ , we let  $\mathcal{S}_d$  be the set of those  $s \in \mathcal{S}$  with  $\gcd(s, n) = d$ . Further, let

$$T_d = \{a \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} : \gcd(a, n) = d\}.$$

Suppose  $uv \mid n$  and  $\mathcal{S}_u \neq \emptyset$ , with  $s \in \mathcal{S}_u$ . Then multiplication by  $s$  maps  $T_v$  to  $T_{uv}$  and since  $\mathcal{S}$  is product free, it follows that  $s\mathcal{S}_v \cap \mathcal{S}_{uv} = \emptyset$ .

It follows that  $|s\mathcal{S}_v| + |\mathcal{S}_{uv}| \leq |T_{uv}|$ .

This observation is our principal tool.



In fact, it is possible using these thoughts to prove that the [Schinzel](#) conjecture  $F(n) < n/2$  follows from the following conjecture:

For  $m$  a squarefree number and a positive integer  $k$ , consider real variables  $x_d$  where  $d$  runs over the divisors of  $m^k$ . We restrict these variables as follows:

$$x_d \in [0, 1], \quad uv \mid m^k \text{ implies } x_u + x_v + x_{uv} \leq 2, \quad x_1 = 0.$$

**Conjecture:** Subject to these constraints, the maximum value of  $\sum x_d/d$  is smaller than

$$\sum_{\substack{\text{rad}(u) \mid m \\ \Omega(u) \text{ odd}}} \frac{1}{u},$$

where  $\text{rad}(u)$  is the largest squarefree divisor of  $u$ .

We have proved this linear-programming conjecture in the cases where  $m$  is either a prime or the product of two primes. Actually the tools we used to do this are similar to the tools we used to directly attack the product-free problem, so it is not clear that this linear-programming perspective is making progress.

We have not exhausted all of our tools in getting the  $1.56 \times 10^{-8}$  result, we have just exhausted ourselves.

Perhaps a fresh effort to improve our result will allow one to see a general pattern, and not only get a smaller density for the exceptional set, but prove there are no exceptions.

**THANK YOU!**

**Happy birthday András, Kálmán, János, and Attila!**