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# DIRECTIONS SETS: A GENERALIZATION OF RATIO SETS 

PAOLO LEONETTI and CARLO SANNA


#### Abstract

For every integer $k \geq 2$ and every $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, we define the $k$-directions sets of $A$ as $D^{k}(A):=\left\{\boldsymbol{a} /\|\boldsymbol{a}\|: \boldsymbol{a} \in A^{k}\right\}$ and $D^{\underline{k}}(A):=\left\{\boldsymbol{a} /\|\boldsymbol{a}\|: \boldsymbol{a} \in A^{k}\right\}$, where $\|\cdot\|$ is the Euclidean norm and $A^{\underline{k}}:=\left\{\boldsymbol{a} \in A^{k}: a_{i} \neq a_{j}\right.$ for all $\left.i \neq j\right\}$. Via an appropriate homeomorphism, $D^{k}(A)$ is a generalization of the ratio set $R(A):=\{a / b: a, b \in A\}$, which has been studied by many authors. We study $D^{k}(A)$ and $D^{k}(A)$ as subspaces of $S^{k-1}:=\{\boldsymbol{x} \in$ $\left.[0,1]^{k}:\|x\|=1\right\}$. In particular, generalizing a result of Bukor and Tóth, we provide a characterization of the sets $X \subseteq S^{k-1}$ such that there exists $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ satisfying $D^{k}(A)^{\prime}=X$, where $Y^{\prime}$ denotes the set of accumulation points of $Y$. Moreover, we provide a simple sufficient condition for $D^{k}(A)$ to be dense in $S^{k-1}$. We conclude leaving some questions for further research.


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## 1. Introduction

Given $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, its ratio set is defined as $R(A):=\{a / b: a, b \in A\}$. The study of the topological properties of $R(A)$ as a subspace of $[0,+\infty]$, especially the question of when $R(A)$ is dense in $[0,+\infty]$, is a classical topic and has been considered by many researchers $[1-4,10,12,13,19-23]$. More recently, some authors have also studied $R(A)$ as a subspace of the $p$-adic numbers $\mathbb{Q}_{p}[6,8,9,14,15,17]$.

We consider a further variation on this theme, which stems from the following easy observation: We have that $[0,+\infty]$ is homeomorphic to $S^{1}:=\left\{\boldsymbol{x} \in[0,1]^{2}:\|x\|=1\right\}$ via the map $x \mapsto(1, x) /\|(1, x)\|$, if $x \in[0,+\infty)$, and $+\infty \mapsto(0,1)$. This sends $R(A)$ onto $D^{2}(A):=\left\{\rho(\boldsymbol{a}): \boldsymbol{a} \in A^{2}\right\}$, where $\rho(\boldsymbol{a}):=\boldsymbol{a} /\|\boldsymbol{a}\|$ for each $\boldsymbol{a} \neq \mathbf{0}$. Hence, topological questions about $R(A)$ as a subspace of $[0,+\infty]$ are equivalent to questions about $D^{2}(A)$ as a subspace of $S^{1}$. The novelty of this approach is that it can be generalized to higher dimensions. For every integer $k \geq 2$, define the $k$-directions sets of $A$ as

$$
D^{k}(A):=\left\{\rho(\boldsymbol{a}): \boldsymbol{a} \in A^{k}\right\} \quad \text { and } \quad D^{\underline{k}}(A):=\left\{\rho(\boldsymbol{a}): \boldsymbol{a} \in A^{\underline{k}}\right\},
$$

where for every set $B$ we let $B^{\underline{k}}:=\left\{\boldsymbol{b} \in B^{k}: b_{i} \neq b_{j}\right.$ for all $\left.i \neq j\right\}$ denote the set of $k$-tuples with pairwise distinct entries in $B$. Put also $S^{k-1}:=\left\{\boldsymbol{x} \in[0,1]^{k}:\|\boldsymbol{x}\|=1\right\}$. We shall study $D^{k}(A)$ and $D^{k}(A)$ as subspaces of $S^{k-1}$.

[^0]Bukor and Tóth [3] characterized the subsets of [0, + ] that are equal to $R(A)^{\prime}$ for some $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, where $Y^{\prime}$ denotes the set of accumulation points of $Y$. In terms of $D^{2}(A)$, via the homeomorphism $[0,+\infty] \rightarrow S^{1}$ mentioned above, their result is the following:

Theorem 1.1. Let $X \subseteq S^{1}$. Then there exists $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that $X=D^{2}(A)^{\prime}$ if and only if the following conditions are satisfied:
(i) $X$ is closed;
(ii) $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) \in X$ implies $\left(x_{2}, x_{1}\right) \in X$;
(iii) if $X$ is nonempty, then $(1,0) \in X$.

Note that Theorem 1.1 holds also if $D^{2}(A)$ is replaced by $D^{2}(A)$. Indeed, $D^{2}(A) \subseteq$ $D^{2}(A) \subseteq D^{2}(A) \cup\{\rho(1,1)\}$ and consequently $D^{2}(A)^{\prime}=D^{2}(A)^{\prime}$.

Our first result generalizes Theorem 1.1. Before stating it, we need to introduce some notation. Let $\boldsymbol{x}=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right) \in S^{k-1}$. For every permutation $\pi$ of $\{1, \ldots, k\}$, we put $\pi(\boldsymbol{x}):=\left(x_{\pi(1)}, \ldots, x_{\pi(k)}\right)$. Also, for every $I \subseteq\{1, \ldots, k\}$, we say that $I$ meets $\boldsymbol{x}$ if there exists $j \in I$ such that $x_{j} \neq 0$. In such a case, we put $\rho_{I}(\boldsymbol{x}):=\rho(\boldsymbol{y})$, where $\boldsymbol{y}=\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k}\right)$ is defined by $y_{i}:=x_{i}$ if $i \in I$, and $y_{i}:=0$ for $i \notin I$. (This is well defined since $\boldsymbol{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$.)

Our first result is the following:
Theorem 1.2. Let $X \subseteq S^{k-1}$ for some integer $k \geq 2$. Then there exists $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that $X=D^{k}(A)^{\prime}$ if and only if the following conditions are satisfied:
(i) $X$ is closed;
(ii) $\boldsymbol{x} \in X$ implies $\pi(\boldsymbol{x}) \in X$, for every permutation $\pi$ of $\{1, \ldots, k\}$;
(iii) $\boldsymbol{x} \in X$ implies $\rho_{I}(\boldsymbol{x}) \in X$, for every $I \subseteq\{1, \ldots, k\}$ that meets $\boldsymbol{x}$.

Note that Theorem 1.2 is indeed a generalization of Theorem 1.1, since $\rho_{I}(\boldsymbol{x}) \in$ $\{\boldsymbol{x},(1,0),(0,1)\}$ for every $I \subseteq\{1,2\}$ that meets $\boldsymbol{x} \in S^{1}$. Furthermore, for $k \geq 3$, Theorem 1.2 is false if $D^{k}(A)$ is replaced by $D^{k}(A)$ (see Remark 2.1 below).

Now we turn our attention to the question of when $D^{k}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-1}$. First, we have the following easy proposition.

Proposition 1.3. Let $k \geq 2$ be an integer and fix $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. We have that $D^{k}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-1}$ if and only if $D^{k}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-1}$.

Proof. On the one hand, since $D^{k}(A) \subseteq D^{k}(A)$, if $D^{k}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-1}$ then $D^{k}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-1}$. On the other hand, suppose that $D^{k}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-1}$. Then, for every $\boldsymbol{x} \in S^{k-1} \cap \mathbb{R}^{k}$, there exists $\boldsymbol{a}^{(n)} \in A^{k}$ such that $\rho\left(\boldsymbol{a}^{(n)}\right) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{x}$. Consequently, for all sufficiently large $n$ we have $\boldsymbol{a}^{(n)} \in A^{\underline{k}}$. This implies that $D^{k}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-1} \cap \mathbb{R}^{\underline{k}}$. Since $S^{k-1} \cap \mathbb{R}^{\underline{k}}$ is dense in $S^{k-1}$, we get that $D^{\underline{k}}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-1}$, as desired.

The next result shows that if $D^{k}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-1}$, for some integer $k \geq 3$ and $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, then $D^{k-1}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-2}$, but the opposite implication is false.

Theorem 1.4. Let $k \geq 3$ be an integer. On the one hand, if $D^{k}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-1}$, for some $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, then $D^{k-1}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-2}$. On the other hand, there exists $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that $D^{k}(A)$ is not dense in $S^{k-1}$ but $D^{k-1}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-2}$.

We also provide a simple sufficient condition for $D^{k}(A)$ to be dense in $S^{k-1}$.
Theorem 1.5. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. If there exists an increasing sequence $a_{n} \in A$ such that $a_{n-1} / a_{n} \rightarrow 1$, then $D^{k}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-1}$ for every integer $k \geq 2$.

The case $k=2$ of Theorem 1.5 was proved by Starni [19] (hereafter, we tacitly express all the results about $R(A)$ in terms of $D^{2}(A)$ ), who also showed that the condition is sufficient but not necessary.

Let $\mathbb{P}$ be the set of prime numbers. It is known that $D^{2}(\mathbb{P})$ is dense in $S^{1}[13,19]$ (see also $[5,7,16,18]$ for similar results in number fields). Let $p_{n}$ be the $n$th prime number. As a consequence of the Prime Number Theorem, we have that $p_{n} \sim n \log n$ [11, Theorem 8]. Hence, $p_{n-1} / p_{n} \rightarrow 1$ and thus Theorem 1.5 yields the following:

Corollary 1.6. $D^{k}(\mathbb{P})$ is dense in $S^{k-1}$, for every integer $k \geq 2$.
We leave the following questions to the interested readers:
Question 1.7. What is a simple characterization of the sets $X \subseteq S^{k-1}, k \geq 2$, such that there exists $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ satisfying $X=D^{k}(A)^{\prime}$ ?

Question 1.8. Strauch and Tóth [20] proved that if $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ has lower asymptotic density at least $1 / 2$, then $D^{2}(A)$ is dense in $S^{1}$. Moreover, they showed that for every $\delta \in[0,1 / 2)$ there exists some $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ with lower asymptotic density equal to $\delta$ and such that $D^{2}(A)$ is not dense in $S^{1}$. How can these results be generalized to $D^{k}(A)$ with $k \geq 3$ ?

Question 1.9. Bukor, Šalát, and Tóth [4] proved that $\mathbb{N}$ can be partitioned into three sets $A, B, C$, such that none of $D^{2}(A), D^{2}(B), D^{2}(C)$ is dense in $S^{1}$. Moreover, they showed that such a partition is impossible using only two sets. How can these results be generalized to $D^{k}(A)$ with $k \geq 3$ ?

Notation We use $\mathbb{N}$ to denote the set of positive integers. We write vectors in bold and we use subscripts to denote their components, so that $\boldsymbol{x}=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$. Also, we put $\|\boldsymbol{x}\|:=\sqrt{x_{1}^{2}+\cdots+x_{k}^{2}}$ for the Euclidean norm of $\boldsymbol{x}$. If $X$ is a subset of a topological space $T$, then $X^{\prime}$ denotes the set of accumulation points of $X$. Given a sequence $x^{(n)} \in T$, we write $x^{(n)} \rightarrow x$ to mean that $x^{(n)} \rightarrow x$ as $n \rightarrow+\infty$ and $x^{(n)} \neq x$ for infinitely many $n$.

## 2. Proof of Theorem 1.2

Only If Part. Suppose that $X=D^{k}(A)^{\prime}$ for some $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. We shall prove that $X$ satisfies (i)-(iii). Clearly, $X$ is closed, since it is a set of accumulation points.

Hence, (i) holds. Pick $\boldsymbol{x} \in X$. Then there exists a sequence $\boldsymbol{a}^{(n)} \in A^{\underline{k}}$ such that $\rho\left(\boldsymbol{a}^{(n)}\right) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{x}$. In particular, this implies that $\left\|\boldsymbol{a}^{(n)}\right\| \rightarrow+\infty$ and that $A$ is infinite. Let $\pi$ be a permutation of $\{1, \ldots, k\}$. Setting $\boldsymbol{b}^{(n)}:=\pi\left(\boldsymbol{a}^{(n)}\right)$, it follows easily that $\boldsymbol{b}^{(n)} \in A^{\underline{k}}$ and $\rho\left(\boldsymbol{b}^{(n)}\right) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\pi}(\boldsymbol{x})$. Consequently, $\pi(\boldsymbol{x}) \in X$ and (ii) holds. Finally, assume that $I \subseteq\{1, \ldots, k\}$ meets $\boldsymbol{x}$. Up to passing to a subsequence of $\boldsymbol{a}^{(n)}$, we can assume that each sequence $a_{i}^{(n)}$, with $i \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$, is nondecreasing. Recalling that $A$ is infinite, this implies that we can fix $k-\# I$ distinct $c_{i} \in A$, with $i \in\{1, \ldots, k\} \backslash I$, such that $\boldsymbol{d}^{(n)} \in A^{\underline{k}}$ for every sufficiently large $n \in \mathbb{N}$, where $\boldsymbol{d}^{(n)} \in \mathbb{N}^{k}$ is defined by $d_{i}^{(n)}:=a_{i}^{(n)}$ if $i \in I$, and $d_{i}^{(n)}:=c_{i}$ if $i \notin I$. Since $I$ meets $\boldsymbol{x}$, there exists $j \in I$ such that $x_{j} \neq 0$, which in turn implies that $a_{j}^{(n)} \rightarrow+\infty$ and consequently $\left\|\boldsymbol{d}^{(n)}\right\| \rightarrow+\infty$. At this point, it follows easily that $\rho\left(\boldsymbol{d}^{(n)}\right) \rightarrow \rho_{I}(\boldsymbol{x})$. Hence, $\rho_{I}(\boldsymbol{x}) \in X$ and (iii) holds too.

If Part. Suppose that $X \subseteq S^{k-1}$ satisfies (i)-(iii). We shall prove that there exists $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that $X=D^{k}(A)^{\prime}$. Since $X$ is a closed subset of $S^{k-1}$, we have that $X$ has a countable dense subset, say $Y:=\left\{\boldsymbol{y}^{(m)}: m \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$.

Claim 1. There exists a sequence $\boldsymbol{c}^{(m)}$ such that:
(c1) $\boldsymbol{c}^{(m)} \in \mathbb{N}$ k for every $m \in \mathbb{N}$;
(c2) $m \mapsto \rho\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{(m)}\right)$ is an injection;
(c3) $\left|\frac{1}{m!} c_{i}^{(m)}-y_{i}^{(m)}\right| \rightarrow 0$, for every $i \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$;
(c4) $\left\|\rho\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{(m)}\right)-\boldsymbol{y}^{(m)}\right\| \rightarrow 0$.
Proof. For every $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $i \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$, we define $c_{i}^{(m)}:=\left\lfloor m!y_{i}^{(m)}\right\rfloor+s_{i}^{(m)}+t^{(m)}$, where $\boldsymbol{s}^{(m)} \in \mathbb{N}^{k}$ and $t^{(m)} \in \mathbb{N}$ will be chosen later. For each $m \in \mathbb{N}$, it is easy to see that we can choose $\boldsymbol{s}^{(m)} \in\{1, \ldots, k\}^{k}$ such that $\boldsymbol{c}^{(m)} \in \mathbb{N}{ }^{k}$. (Note that this property does not depend on $t^{(m)}$.) We make this choice so that (c1) holds. Now note that for every fixed $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^{+}$, with $u \neq v$, the function $\mathbb{R}^{+} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}: t \mapsto \frac{u+t}{v+t}$ is injective. Therefore, for each $m \in \mathbb{N}$ we can choose $t^{(m)} \in\{1, \ldots, m\}$ such that $c_{1}^{(m)} / c_{2}^{(m)} \neq c_{1}^{(\ell)} / c_{2}^{(\ell)}$ for every positive integer $\ell<m$. In turn, this choice implies that (c2) holds. At this point, both (c3) and (c4) follow easily.

Define $A:=\bigcup_{i=1}^{k} A_{i}$, where $A_{i}:=\left\{c_{i}^{(m)}: m \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$ for every $i \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$. We claim that $X=D^{k}(A)^{\prime}$.

First, let us prove that $X \subseteq D^{k}(A)^{\prime}$. Pick some $x \in X$. Since $Y$ is a dense subset of $X$, there exists an increasing sequence of positive integers $\left(m_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that $\boldsymbol{y}^{\left(m_{n}\right)} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{x}$. By the definition of $A$ and by (c1), we have that $\boldsymbol{c}^{\left(m_{n}\right)} \in A^{\underline{k}}$. Moreover, (c2) and (c4) imply that $\rho\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\left(m_{n}\right)}\right) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{x}$. Hence, we have $\boldsymbol{x} \in D^{\underline{k}}(A)^{\prime}$, as desired.

Now let us prove that $D^{k}(A)^{\prime} \subseteq X$. Pick $\boldsymbol{x} \in D^{k}(A)^{\prime}$. Then there exists a sequence $\boldsymbol{a}^{(n)} \in A^{\underline{k}}$ such that $\rho\left(\boldsymbol{a}^{(n)}\right) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{x}$. Up to passing to a subsequence, we can assume that there exist some $j_{1}, \ldots, j_{k} \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$ such that $\boldsymbol{a}^{(n)} \in A_{j_{1}} \times \cdots \times A_{j_{k}}$ for every
$n \in \mathbb{N}$. In turn, this implies that there exists a sequence $\boldsymbol{m}^{(n)} \in \mathbb{N}^{k}$ such that $a_{i}^{(n)}=c_{j_{i}}^{\left(m_{i}^{(n)}\right)}$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $i \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$. Thanks to (ii), without loss of generality, we can reorder the entries of $\boldsymbol{a}^{(n)}$. Hence, up to reordering and up to passing to a subsequence, we can assume that there exists $h \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$ such that $y_{j_{1}}^{\left(m_{1}^{(n)}\right)}, \ldots, y_{j_{h}}^{\left(m_{h}^{(n)}\right)} \neq 0$ and $y_{j_{h+1}}^{\left(m_{h+1}^{(n)}\right)}=\cdots=y_{j_{k}}^{\left(m_{k}^{(n)}\right)}=0$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Similarly, again up to reordering and up to passing to a subsequence, we can assume that there exists $\ell \in\{1, \ldots, h\}$ such that $m_{1}^{(n)}=\cdots=m_{\ell}^{(n)}>m_{\ell+1}^{(n)} \geq \cdots \geq m_{h}^{(n)}$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. In particular, since $\boldsymbol{a}^{(n)} \in A^{k}$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we get that $j_{1}, \ldots, j_{\ell}$ are pairwise distinct. Let $\pi$ be any permutation of $\{1, \ldots, k\}$ such that $\pi(i)=j_{i}$ for all $i \in I:=\{1, \ldots, \ell\}$. Note that $I$ meets $\pi\left(\boldsymbol{y}^{\left(m_{1}^{(n)}\right)}\right)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Put $z^{(n)}:=\rho_{I}\left(\pi\left(\boldsymbol{y}^{\left(m_{1}^{(n)}\right)}\right)\right)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence, by (ii) and (iii) we have that $\boldsymbol{z}^{(n)} \in X$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Thanks to (c3), we have that $\left|\frac{1}{m_{1}^{(n)}!} a_{i}^{(n)}-y_{j_{i}}^{\left(m_{1}^{(n)}\right)}\right| \rightarrow 0$ for each $i \in I$, and $\frac{1}{m_{1}^{(n)}!} a_{i}^{(n)} \rightarrow 0$ for each $i \in\{1, \ldots, k\} \backslash I$, as $n \rightarrow+\infty$. As a consequence, $\left\|\rho\left(\boldsymbol{a}^{(n)}\right)-\boldsymbol{z}^{(n)}\right\| \rightarrow 0$, which in turn implies that $\boldsymbol{z}^{(n)} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{x}$. Finally, since $X$ is closed by (i), we obtain that $\boldsymbol{x} \in X$, as desired.

The proof is complete.
Remark 2.1. We note that for $k \geq 3$ the statement of Theorem 1.2 is false if $D^{k}(A)$ is replaced by $D^{k}(A)$. In fact, fix an integer $k \geq 3$ and let $X$ be the subset of $S^{k-1}$ containing all the permutations of $\boldsymbol{\eta}:=\rho(1, \sqrt{2}, 0, \ldots, 0)$ and $\rho(1,0, \ldots, 0)$ (and nothing else). It follows by Theorem 1.2 that there exists $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that $X=D^{\underline{k}}(A)^{\prime}$. For the sake of contradiction, let us suppose that there exists $B \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that $X=D^{k}(B)^{\prime}$. Since $\boldsymbol{\eta} \in X$, there exists a sequence $\boldsymbol{b}^{(n)} \in B^{k}$ such that $\rho\left(\boldsymbol{b}^{(n)}\right) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\eta}$. Let $\boldsymbol{c}^{(n)} \in \mathbb{N}^{k}$ be the sequence defined by $c_{i}^{(n)}=b_{1}^{(n)}$ if $i \neq 2$, and $c_{i}^{(n)}:=b_{2}^{(n)}$ if $i=2$. We obtain that $\boldsymbol{c}^{(n)} \in B^{k}$ and $\rho\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{(n)}\right) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}$, where $\boldsymbol{\theta}:=\rho(1, \sqrt{2}, 1, \ldots, 1)$. (Here we have used that $\eta_{1} / \eta_{2}$ is irrational and consequently $\rho\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{(n)}\right) \neq \boldsymbol{\theta}$.) Therefore, $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in D^{k}(B)^{\prime}=X$, which is a contradiction.

## 3. Proof of Theorem 1.4

Let $k \geq 3$ be an integer and let $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $D^{k}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-1}$. We shall prove that $D^{k-1}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-2}$. For every $\boldsymbol{x} \in S^{k-2}$, let $f_{k}(\boldsymbol{x}) \in S^{k-1}$ be defined by $f_{k}(\boldsymbol{x}):=\rho\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}, 0\right)$. Since $D^{k}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-1}$, we have that there exists a sequence $\boldsymbol{a}^{(n)} \in A^{k}$ such that $\rho\left(\boldsymbol{a}^{(n)}\right) \rightarrow f_{k}(\boldsymbol{x})$. In turn, this implies that $\rho\left(\boldsymbol{b}^{(n)}\right) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{x}$, where $\boldsymbol{b}^{(n)} \in A^{k-1}$ is defined by $b_{i}^{(n)}:=a_{i}^{(n)}$ for $i \in\{1, \ldots, k-1\}$. Hence, $D^{k-1}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-2}$, as desired.

Now given an integer $k \geq 3$, we shall prove that there exists $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that $D^{k-1}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-2}$, but $D^{k}(A)$ is not dense in $S^{k-1}$. Let $X:=\left\{\boldsymbol{x} \in S^{k-1}: x_{i}=\right.$ 0 for some $i$. Clearly, $X$ satisfies conditions (i)-(iii) of Theorem 1.2, and consequently there exists $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that $D^{k}(A)^{\prime}=X$. Therefore, $D^{k}(A)$ is not dense in $S^{k-1}$ and, in light of Proposition 1.3, $D^{k}(A)$ is not dense in $S^{k-1}$ as well. Finally, for every $\boldsymbol{x} \in S^{k-2}$ we have $f_{k}(\boldsymbol{x}) \in X$, and the same reasonings of the previous paragraph show that $D^{k-1}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-2}$.

## 4. Proof of Theorem 1.5

Suppose that there exists an increasing sequence $a_{n} \in A$ such that $a_{n-1} / a_{n} \rightarrow 1$. Fix an integer $k \geq 2$ and pick $\boldsymbol{x} \in S^{k-1}$ with $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}>0$. Clearly, for every integer $m \geq a_{1} / \min \left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right\}$ there exist integers $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k} \geq 2$ such that $a_{m_{i}-1} \leq m x_{i}<$ $a_{m_{i}}$ for each $i \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$. Hence, for every $i \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$, we have that

$$
x_{i}<\frac{a_{m_{i}}}{m} \leq \frac{a_{m_{i}}}{a_{m_{i}-1}} x_{i},
$$

which, since $m_{i} \rightarrow+\infty$ as $m \rightarrow+\infty$, yields that $a_{m_{i}} / m \rightarrow x_{i}$ as $m \rightarrow+\infty$. Putting $\boldsymbol{a}^{(m)}:=\left(a_{m_{1}}, \ldots, a_{m_{k}}\right)$, it follows that $\rho\left(\boldsymbol{a}^{(m)}\right) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{x}$. Therefore, $D^{k}(A)$ is dense in $S^{k-1}$, as claimed.

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