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### A note on the natural density of product sets

Sandro Bettin, Dimitris Koukoulopoulos and Carlo Sanna

#### Abstract

Given two sets of natural numbers  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  of natural density 1, we prove that their product set  $\mathcal{A} \cdot \mathcal{B} := \{ab : a \in \mathcal{A}, b \in \mathcal{B}\}$  also has natural density 1. On the other hand, for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we show there are sets  $\mathcal{A}$  of density  $> 1 - \varepsilon$  for which the product set  $\mathcal{A} \cdot \mathcal{A}$  has density  $< \varepsilon$ . This answers two questions of Hegyvári, Hennecart and Pach.

#### 1. Introduction

Given two sets of natural numbers  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$ , let  $\mathcal{A} \cdot \mathcal{B} := \{ab : a \in \mathcal{A}, b \in \mathcal{B}\}$  be their product set. Also, for any positive integer k, let  $\mathcal{A}^k$  denote the k-fold product  $\mathcal{A} \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \mathcal{A}$ .

The problem of studying the cardinality of product sets has long been of interest in mathematics. The classic multiplication table problem due to Erdős [2, 3] asks for bounds on the cardinality  $M_n$  of the  $n \times n$  multiplication table, that is, of the set  $\{1, \ldots, n\}^2$ . Erdős showed that  $M_n = o(n^2)$  and Ford [5], following earlier results of Tenenbaum [11], determined the exact order of magnitude of  $M_n$ . More recently [7], the second author of the present paper provided uniform bounds for  $\#(\{1,\ldots,n_1\}\cdots\{1,\ldots,n_s\})$  holding for a wide range of  $n_1,\ldots,n_s \in \mathbb{N}$ .

For more general sets  $\mathcal{A}$ , the problem of estimating  $\#(\mathcal{A} \cap [1,x])^2$  was studied by Cilleruelo, Ramana, and Ramaré [1]. For example, they studied this problem when  $\mathcal{A}$  is the set of shifted primes, the set of sums of two squares, and the set of shifted sums of two squares. Moreover, they computed the (almost sure) asymptotic behavior for  $\#\mathcal{A}^2$  when  $\mathcal{A}$  is a random subset of  $\{1,\ldots,n\}$  that contains each element of  $\{1,\ldots,n\}$  independently with probability  $\delta \in (0,1)$ . The third author of the present paper [10] extended this last result to the product of arbitrarily many sets, and Mastrostefano [9] gave a necessary and sufficient condition for having  $\#\mathcal{A}^2 \sim (\#\mathcal{A})^2/2$  almost surely.

Hegyvári, Hennecart and Pach [6] considered the analogous problem for infinite sets of natural numbers. In this context, the role of the cardinality is played by the *natural density*  $\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{A})$  of a set  $\mathcal{A}$ , defined as usual by

$$\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{A}) = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\#\mathcal{A} \cap [1, x]}{x}.$$

They asked the following questions ([6, Questions 3 and 2], respectively):

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QUESTION 1. If  $\mathcal{A}$  is a set of natural numbers of density 1, is it true that  $\mathcal{A}^2$  also has density 1?

QUESTION 2. Is it true that  $\inf_{\mathcal{A}\subset\mathbb{N}:\ \mathbf{d}(\mathcal{A})=\alpha}\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{A}^2)=0$  for any  $\alpha\in[0,1)$ , or at least for  $\alpha\in[0,\alpha_0)$  for some  $\alpha_0\in(0,1)$ ?

Clearly, Question 1 has an affirmative answer if  $1 \in \mathcal{A}$ , and Hegyvári, Hennecart and Pach showed that it also suffices that  $\mathcal{A}$  contains an infinite subset of mutually coprime integers  $a_1 < a_2 < \cdots$  such that  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i^{-1} = +\infty$ . Here, we show that the answer is 'yes' in full generality.

THEOREM 1. Let  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ . If  $\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{A}) = \mathbf{d}(\mathcal{B}) = 1$ , then  $\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{A} \cdot \mathcal{B}) = 1$ .

COROLLARY. If  $A \subset \mathbb{N}$  is such that  $\mathbf{d}(A) = 1$ , then  $\mathbf{d}(A^k) = 1$  for each k = 2, 3, ...

REMARK. In fact, the case  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{B}$  of Theorem 1 implies easily the general case. Indeed, if  $\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{A}) = \mathbf{d}(\mathcal{B}) = 1$ , then  $\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}) = 1$ . In addition, if  $(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B})^2$  has density 1, then so does  $\mathcal{A} \cdot \mathcal{B}$ .

As it will be clear from the proof, the difference in the density of  $\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{A}^2)$  with respect to Erdős's multiplication table problem lies in the fact that many elements of  $\mathcal{A}^2$  come from very 'unbalanced' products, meaning products ab such that the sizes of a and b are completely different.

Let us now turn to Question 2. We will answer it in a strong form that shows, among other things, that the condition that  $\mathbf{d}(A) = 1$  in Theorem 1 cannot be relaxed.

THEOREM 2. For  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ , we have

$$\inf_{\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathbb{N}: \ \mathbf{d}(\mathcal{A}) = \alpha} \mathbf{d}(\mathcal{A}^2) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \alpha < 1, \\ 1 & \text{if } \alpha = 1. \end{cases}$$

#### 2. Preliminaries

Notation. We employ Landau's notation f = O(g) and Vinogradov's notation  $f \ll g$  both to mean that  $|f| \leqslant C|g|$  for a some constant C > 0. Moreover, we write  $f \asymp g$  to mean that  $f \ll g$  and  $g \ll f$ . The notation f = o(g) as  $x \to a$  (respectively,  $f \sim g$  as  $x \to a$ ) means that  $\lim_{x \to a} f(x)/g(x) = 0$  (respectively, = 1). Given an integer n, we write  $P^-(n)$  and  $P^+(n)$  for its smallest and largest prime factors, respectively, with the convention that  $P^-(1) = \infty$  and  $P^+(1) = 1$ . If  $P^+(n) \leqslant y$ , we say that n is y-smooth, and if  $P^-(n) > y$ , we say that it is y-rough. As usual, we let  $\Phi(x,y)$  denote the number of y-rough numbers in [1,x]. Given any integer n, we may write it uniquely as n = ab with  $P^+(a) \leqslant y < P^-(b)$ . We then call a and b the y-smooth and y-rough part of n, respectively. Finally, we let  $\Omega(n)$  denote the number of prime factors of n counted with multiplicity.

We need some standard lemmas. We give their proofs for the sake of completeness.

LEMMA 2.1. For  $x \ge y > 1$ , we have  $\Phi(x, y) \ll x/\log y$ .

*Proof.* This follows for example from [8, Theorem 14.2] with  $f(n) = 1_{P^{-}(n) > n}$ .

LEMMA 2.2. Uniformly for  $x \ge y^2 \ge 1$  and  $u \ge 1$ , we have

$$\#\{n \leqslant x : \exists d | n \text{ such that } P^+(d) \leqslant y^{1/u} \text{ and } d > y\} \ll x \cdot (e^{-u} + y^{-1/3}).$$

Proof. Without loss of generality,  $u \ge 4$ . Let  $\mathcal{B}$  denote the set of  $n \in \mathbb{Z} \cap [1, x]$  that have a  $y^{1/u}$ -smooth divisor d > y. Given  $n \in \mathcal{B}$ , let  $p_1 \leqslant p_2 \leqslant \cdots \leqslant p_k$  be the sequence of prime factors of n of size  $\leqslant y^{1/u}$  listed in increasing order and according to their multiplicity. By our assumption on n, we must have  $p_1 \cdots p_k > y$ . Let j be the smallest integer such that  $p_1 \cdots p_j > y$ . We must have  $j \ge 5$  because all factors  $p_i$  are  $\leqslant y^{1/u} \leqslant y^{1/4}$ . We then set  $a = p_1 \cdots p_{j-2}, \ p = p_{j-1}, \ \text{and} \ b = n/(ap), \ \text{so that} \ a > y/(p_{j-1}p_j) \ge \sqrt{y}, \ ap \leqslant y, \ \text{and} \ P^+(a) \leqslant p \leqslant P^-(b)$ . Consequently,

$$\#\mathcal{B} \leqslant \sum_{p \leqslant y^{1/u}} \sum_{\substack{P^+(a) \leqslant p \\ \sqrt{y} < a \leqslant y/p}} \sum_{\substack{b \leqslant x/(ap) \\ P^-(b) \geqslant p}} 1 \ll \sum_{\substack{p \leqslant y^{1/u} \\ a > \sqrt{y}}} \sum_{\substack{P^+(a) \leqslant p \\ a > \sqrt{y}}} \frac{x}{ap \log p}$$
(1)

by Lemma 2.1. If we let  $\varepsilon_p = \min\{2/3, 2/\log p\}$ , then Rankin's trick implies

$$\frac{\#\mathcal{B}}{x} \ll \sum_{p \leqslant y^{1/u}} \sum_{P^+(a) \leqslant p} \frac{(a/\sqrt{y})^{\varepsilon_p}}{ap \log p} = \sum_{p \leqslant y^{1/u}} \frac{y^{-\varepsilon_p/2}}{p \log p} \sum_{P^+(a) \leqslant p} \frac{1}{a^{1-\varepsilon_p}}.$$

The sum over a equals  $\prod_{q \leqslant p} (1 - q^{-1+\varepsilon_p})^{-1}$  with q denoting a prime number. Since  $q^{\varepsilon_p} = 1 + O(\log q/\log p)$  for  $q \leqslant p$ , Mertens' estimates [8, Theorem 3.4] imply that the sum over a is  $\ll \log p$ . We conclude that

$$\frac{\#\mathcal{B}}{x} \ll y^{-1/3} + \sum_{100 
$$\ll y^{-1/3} + \sum_{j \geqslant 1} e^{-ju} \ll y^{-1/3} + e^{-u}$$$$

using Mertens' estimates once again. This completes the proof.

LEMMA 2.3. Let  $y \ge 2$  and  $\lambda \in [0, 1.99]$ , and set  $Q(\lambda) = \lambda \log \lambda - \lambda + 1$  for  $\lambda > 0$  and Q(0) = 0. If  $0 \le \lambda \le 1$ , then

$$\prod_{p \leqslant y} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{p} \right) \sum_{\substack{P^+(m) \leqslant y \\ \Omega(m) \leqslant \lambda \log \log y}} \frac{1}{m} \ll (\log y)^{-Q(\lambda)},$$

whereas if  $1 \leq \lambda \leq 1.99$ , then

$$\prod_{p \leqslant y} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{p} \right) \sum_{\substack{P^+(m) \leqslant y \\ \Omega(m) \geqslant \lambda \log \log y}} \frac{1}{m} \ll (\log y)^{-Q(\lambda)}.$$

*Proof.* The result is trivial if  $\lambda=0$  by Mertens' estimates [8, Theorem 3.4], so assume  $\lambda>0$ . If  $0<\lambda\leqslant 1$ , then

$$\sum_{\substack{P^+(m)\leqslant y\\\Omega(m)\leqslant \lambda\log\log y}}\frac{1}{m}\leqslant \sum_{P^+(m)\leqslant y}\frac{\lambda^{\Omega(m)-\lambda\log\log y}}{m}=(\log y)^{-\lambda\log \lambda}\prod_{p\leqslant y}\left(1-\frac{\lambda}{p}\right)^{-1}$$

$$\approx (\log y)^{-Q(\lambda)} \prod_{p \leqslant y} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)^{-1}$$

where we used Mertens' estimates once again. Similarly, if  $1 \le \lambda \le 1.99$ , then

$$\sum_{\substack{P^+(m)\leqslant y\\\Omega(m)\geqslant \lambda \log\log y}}\frac{1}{m}\leqslant \sum_{P^+(m)\leqslant y}\frac{\lambda^{\Omega(m)-\lambda\log\log y}}{m}\asymp (\log y)^{-Q(\lambda)}\prod_{p\leqslant y}\left(1-\frac{1}{p}\right)^{-1}.$$

This completes the proof.

LEMMA 2.4. Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be a set of primes such that  $\sum_{p\in\mathcal{P}} 1/p < \infty$ . Then

$$\mathbf{d}(\{n \in \mathbb{N} : p | n \Rightarrow p \notin \mathcal{P}\}) = \prod_{n \in \mathcal{P}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right).$$

*Proof.* The number of integers  $n \leq x$  with a prime divisor  $p > \log x$  from  $\mathcal{P}$  is

$$\leq \sum_{p>\log x, p\in\mathcal{P}} \frac{x}{p} = o(x)$$
 as  $x\to\infty$ ,

because  $\sum_{p\in\mathcal{P}} 1/p$  converges. Hence, if we write  $\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P} \cap [1, \log x]$ , then

$$\#\{n\leqslant x:p|n\ \Rightarrow p\notin\mathcal{P}\}=\#\{n\leqslant x:p|n\ \Rightarrow p\notin\mathcal{P}'\}+o(x)=x\prod_{p\in\mathcal{P}'}\left(1-\frac{1}{p}\right)+o(x)$$

from the inclusion–exclusion principle that has  $\leqslant 2^{\#\mathcal{P}'} \leqslant 2^{\log x} = o(x)$  steps (for example, see [8, Theorem 2.1]). Since  $\prod_{p \in \mathcal{P} \setminus \mathcal{P}'} (1 - 1/p) \sim 1$  by our assumption that  $\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} 1/p < \infty$ , the proof is complete.

#### 3. Proof of Theorem 1

Assume x is sufficiently large and let y = y(x) and u = u(x) to be chosen later, with  $y, u \to +\infty$  slowly as  $x \to +\infty$ . In particular,  $y \le \sqrt{x}$ . In the following, for the sake of notation, we will often omit the dependence on x, y, u.

With a small abuse of notation, given an integer n, let  $n_{\text{smooth}}$  denote its  $y^{1/u}$ -smooth part and let  $n_{\text{rough}}$  denote its  $y^{1/u}$ -rough part. We then set

$$\mathcal{N} = \{ n \leqslant x : n_{\text{smooth}} \leqslant y \}.$$

By Lemma 2.2, we have  $\#\mathcal{N} \sim x$  as  $x \to \infty$ . Therefore, in order to prove Theorem 1, it is enough to show that

$$\#\mathcal{C} = o(x)$$
, where  $\mathcal{C} := \mathcal{N} \setminus (\mathcal{A} \cdot \mathcal{B})$ .

Let  $n \in \mathcal{C}$ . Since  $n = n_{\text{smooth}} \cdot n_{\text{rough}}$ , we must have that either  $n_{\text{smooth}} \notin \mathcal{A}$  or  $n_{\text{rough}} \notin \mathcal{B}$ . Consequently,

$$\#\mathcal{C} \leqslant S_1 + S_2$$

with

$$S_1 := \#\{n \in \mathcal{N} : n_{\text{smooth}} \notin \mathcal{A}\} \quad \text{and} \quad S_2 := \#\{n \in \mathcal{N} : n_{\text{rough}} \notin \mathcal{B}\}.$$

Let us first bound  $S_1$ . Letting  $m = n_{\text{smooth}}$ , we have

$$S_1 \leqslant \sum_{m \leqslant y, m \notin \mathcal{A}} \Phi(x/m, y^{1/u}) \ll \frac{ux}{\log y} \sum_{m \leqslant y, m \notin \mathcal{A}} \frac{1}{m}$$

by Lemma 2.1. Since we have assumed that  $\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{A}) = 1$ , we must have that  $\mathbf{d}(\mathbb{N} \setminus \mathcal{A}) = 0$  and thus

$$\alpha(t) := \frac{1}{\log t} \sum_{m \le t, m \notin A} \frac{1}{m} \to 0 \quad \text{as} \quad t \to \infty.$$

Hence, setting  $u = u(y) := \alpha(y)^{-1/2}$ , we have  $u \to +\infty$  and  $S_1 = o(x)$  as  $x \to +\infty$ . Let us now bound  $S_2$ . Writing  $m' = n_{\text{rough}}$ , we have

$$S_2 \leqslant \sum_{m \leqslant y} \#\{m' \leqslant x/m : m' \notin \mathcal{B}\}.$$

By hypothesis, we have  $\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{B}) = 1$ , so that  $\mathbf{d}(\mathbb{N} \setminus \mathcal{B}) = 0$ . Thus

$$\beta(t) := \sup_{s \ge t} \frac{\#((\mathbb{N} \setminus \mathcal{B}) \cap [1, s])}{s} \to 0 \quad \text{as} \quad t \to \infty.$$

Hence, setting  $y := \min(x^{1/2}, \exp(\beta(x^{1/2})^{-1/2}))$ , we have  $y \to +\infty$  as  $x \to +\infty$  and

$$S_2 \leqslant \sum_{d \leqslant y} \beta(x/d) \cdot \frac{x}{d} \leqslant x\beta(x/y) \sum_{d \leqslant y} \frac{1}{d} \ll x\beta(x^{1/2}) \log y \leqslant x\beta(x^{1/2})^{1/2} = o(x).$$

In conclusion,  $\#\mathcal{C} = o(x)$ , as desired.

REMARK. The proof of Theorem 1 can be made quantitative. For example, if one has  $\#\{n \leq x : n \notin \mathcal{A}\}, \#\{n \leq x : n \notin \mathcal{B}\} \ll x(\log x)^{-a}$  for some fixed 0 < a < 1, then taking  $y = \exp((\log x)^{\frac{a}{1+a}})$  and  $u = \log\log x$  in the above argument yields

$$\#\{n\leqslant x: n\notin \mathcal{A}\cdot\mathcal{B}\}\ll xe^{-u}+\frac{xu}{(\log y)^a}+\frac{x\log y}{(\log x)^a}\ll x(\log x)^{-\frac{a^2}{1+a}+o(1)}.$$

An interesting question is to determine the optimal exponent of  $\log x$  in this upper bound.

### 4. Proof of Theorem 2

The case  $\alpha = 1$  follows from Theorem 1, whereas for the case  $\alpha = 0$  one can just observe that  $\mathbf{d}(\emptyset) = \mathbf{d}(\emptyset^2) = 0$ . We may thus assume  $\alpha \in (0,1)$ . Given any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we need to construct a set  $\mathcal{A}$  of density  $\alpha$  such that the density of  $\mathcal{A}^2$  exists and is smaller than  $\varepsilon$ .

Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $y \geqslant 1$  and a set of primes  $\mathcal{P} \subset (y, +\infty)$  with  $\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} 1/p < \infty$  to be chosen later. Using the notation  $\Omega_y(n) = \sum_{p^a \mid n, p \leqslant y} 1$ , let us consider the sets

$$\mathcal{B}_{y,k,\mathcal{P}} := \{ n \in \mathbb{N} : \Omega_y(n) \geqslant k, \ (n,p) = 1 \ \forall p \in \mathcal{P} \}.$$

The key property these sets have is that  $\mathcal{B}_{y,k,\mathcal{P}}^2 = \mathcal{B}_{y,2k,\mathcal{P}}$ .

Now, using Lemma 2.4 twice (once, with  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{Lemma 2.4}} = \mathcal{P} \cup \{p \leq y\}$  and once with  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{Lemma 2.4}} = \{p \leq y\}$ ), we find that

$$\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{B}_{y,k,\mathcal{P}}) = \prod_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{p} \right) \prod_{p \leqslant y} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{p} \right) \sum_{\substack{P^+(m) \leqslant y \\ \Omega(m) \geqslant k}} \frac{1}{m} = \mathbf{d}(\mathcal{B}_{y,k,\emptyset}) \prod_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{p} \right).$$

Similarly,

$$\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{B}_{y,k,\mathcal{P}}^2) = \mathbf{d}(\mathcal{B}_{y,2k,\mathcal{P}}) = \prod_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) \mathbf{d}(\mathcal{B}_{y,2k,\emptyset}).$$

Now, take  $y := \exp(\exp(4k/3))$ , so that  $k = \frac{3}{4}\log\log y$ . For any fixed  $\varepsilon > 0$ , Lemma 2.3 implies that if k is sufficiently large in terms of  $\alpha$  and  $\varepsilon$ , then  $\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{B}_{y,k,\emptyset}) > \alpha$  and  $\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{B}_{y,2k,\emptyset}) < \varepsilon$ . Let us fix for the remainder of the proof such a choice of k. We then construct  $\mathcal{P}$  in the following way: we take  $p_1 > y$  to be the smallest prime such that  $(1 - 1/p_1)\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{B}_{y,k,\emptyset}) > \alpha$ ,  $p_2 > p_1$  the smallest prime such that  $(1 - 1/p_1)(1 - 1/p_2)\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{B}_{y,k,\emptyset}) > \alpha$  and so on. Taking  $\mathcal{P} := \{p_1, p_2, \ldots\}$  we clearly have  $\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{B}_{y,k,\emptyset}) \prod_{p \in \mathcal{P}} (1 - 1/p) = \alpha$ . Thus,  $\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{B}_{y,k,\mathcal{P}}) = \alpha$  and  $\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{B}_{y,k,\mathcal{P}}^2) < \varepsilon$ , as desired.

REMARK. If  $\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{A}^2)$  in Theorem 2 is replaced by the upper density  $\overline{\mathbf{d}}(\mathcal{A}^2)$ , then one could just take  $\mathcal{A}$  to be any density  $\alpha$  subset of  $\{n \in \mathbb{N} : \Omega_y(n) \geqslant \frac{3}{4} \log \log y\}$  for y large enough. However, in general there is no guarantee that  $\mathcal{A}^2$  has asymptotic density. For this reason, in order to prove Theorem 2, it is more convenient to construct explicit suitable sets  $\mathcal{A}$ .

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