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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 $\mathcal{A} \cdot \mathcal{B}:=\{a b: a \in \mathcal{A}, b \in \mathcal{B}\}$ 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 $\mathcal{A} \cdot \mathcal{B}:=\{a b: a \in \mathcal{A}, b \in \mathcal{B}\}$ be their product set. Also, for any positive integer $k$, let $\mathcal{A}^{k}$ denote the $k$-fold product $\mathcal{A} \cdots \mathcal{A}$.

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 $M_{n}=o\left(n^{2}\right)$ 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 $\#\left(\left\{1, \ldots, n_{1}\right\} \cdots\left\{1, \ldots, n_{s}\right\}\right)$ 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

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

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

[^0]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 $\inf _{\mathcal{A} \subset \mathbb{N}: \mathbf{d}(\mathcal{A})=\alpha} \mathbf{d}\left(\mathcal{A}^{2}\right)=0$ for any $\alpha \in[0,1)$, or at least for $\alpha \in\left[0, \alpha_{0}\right)$ 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 $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathbb{N}$ is such that $\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{A})=1$, then $\mathbf{d}\left(\mathcal{A}^{k}\right)=1$ for each $k=2,3, \ldots$
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 $\mathbf{d}\left(\mathcal{A}^{2}\right)$ 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 $a b$ 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 $\mathbf{d}(\mathcal{A})=1$ in Theorem 1 cannot be relaxed.

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

$$
\inf _{\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathbb{N}: \mathbf{d}(\mathcal{A})=\alpha} \mathbf{d}\left(\mathcal{A}^{2}\right)= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } \alpha<1 \\ 1 & \text { if } \alpha=1\end{cases}
$$

## 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 $x \rightarrow a$ (respectively, $f \sim g$ as $x \rightarrow a$ ) means that $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x) / g(x)=0$ (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 $n=a b$ 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 $x \geqslant y>1$, we have $\Phi(x, y) \ll x / \log y$.
Proof. This follows for example from [8, Theorem 14.2] with $f(n)=1_{P^{-}(n)>y}$.
Lemma 2.2. Uniformly for $x \geqslant y^{2} \geqslant 1$ and $u \geqslant 1$, we have

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

Proof. Without loss of generality, $u \geqslant 4$. 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 $j \geqslant 5$ because all factors $p_{i}$ are $\leqslant y^{1 / u} \leqslant y^{1 / 4}$. We then set $a=$ $p_{1} \cdots p_{j-2}, p=p_{j-1}$, and $b=n /(a p)$, so that $a>y /\left(p_{j-1} p_{j}\right) \geqslant \sqrt{y}, a p \leqslant y$, and $P^{+}(a) \leqslant p \leqslant$ $P^{-}(b)$. Consequently,

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

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

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

The sum over $a$ equals $\prod_{q \leqslant p}\left(1-q^{-1+\varepsilon_{p}}\right)^{-1}$ 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

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\# \mathcal{B}}{x} \ll y^{-1 / 3}+\sum_{100<p \leqslant y^{1 / u}} \frac{e^{-\log y / \log p}}{p} & \leqslant y^{-1 / 3}+\sum_{j \geqslant 1} \sum_{y^{1 /(u(j+1))}<p \leqslant y^{1 /(u j)}} \frac{e^{-j u}}{p} \\
& \ll y^{-1 / 3}+\sum_{j \geqslant 1} e^{-j u} \ll y^{-1 / 3}+e^{-u}
\end{aligned}
$$

using Mertens' estimates once again. This completes the proof.
LEMMA 2.3. Let $y \geqslant 2$ and $\lambda \in[0,1.99]$, and set $Q(\lambda)=\lambda \log \lambda-\lambda+1$ for $\lambda>0$ and $Q(0)=0$. If $0 \leqslant \lambda \leqslant 1$, 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 $1 \leqslant \lambda \leqslant 1.99$, 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

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

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

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

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

$$
\leqslant \sum_{p>\log x, p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{x}{p}=o(x) \quad \text { as } \quad x \rightarrow \infty,
$$

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

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

from the inclusion-exclusion principle that has $\leqslant 2^{\# \mathcal{P}^{\prime}} \leqslant 2^{\log x}=o(x)$ steps (for example, see [8, Theorem 2.1]). Since $\prod_{p \in \mathcal{P} \backslash \mathcal{P}^{\prime}}(1-1 / p) \sim 1$ 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 $y, u \rightarrow+\infty$ slowly as $x \rightarrow+\infty$. In particular, $y \leqslant \sqrt{x}$. 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

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

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

$$
\# \mathcal{C}=o(x), \quad \text { where } \quad \mathcal{C}:=\mathcal{N} \backslash(\mathcal{A} \cdot \mathcal{B})
$$

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

$$
S_{1}:=\#\left\{n \in \mathcal{N}: n_{\text {smooth }} \notin \mathcal{A}\right\} \quad \text { and } \quad S_{2}:=\#\left\{n \in \mathcal{N}: n_{\text {rough }} \notin \mathcal{B}\right\} .
$$

Let us first bound $S_{1}$. Letting $m=n_{\text {smooth }}$, we have

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

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

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

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

$$
S_{2} \leqslant \sum_{m \leqslant y} \#\left\{m^{\prime} \leqslant x / m: m^{\prime} \notin \mathcal{B}\right\}
$$

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

$$
\beta(t):=\sup _{s \geqslant t} \frac{\#((\mathbb{N} \backslash \mathcal{B}) \cap[1, s])}{s} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text { as } \quad t \rightarrow \infty
$$

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

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

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

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

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 $\mathbf{d}(\emptyset)=\mathbf{d}\left(\emptyset^{2}\right)=0$. 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

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

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

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

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

Similarly,

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

Now, take $y:=\exp (\exp (4 k / 3))$, 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 $\mathbf{d}\left(\mathcal{B}_{y, k, \emptyset}\right)>\alpha$ and $\mathbf{d}\left(\mathcal{B}_{y, 2 k, \emptyset}\right)<\varepsilon$. 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 $\left(1-1 / p_{1}\right) \mathbf{d}\left(\mathcal{B}_{y, k, \emptyset}\right)>\alpha, p_{2}>p_{1}$ the smallest prime such that $\left(1-1 / p_{1}\right)\left(1-1 / p_{2}\right) \mathbf{d}\left(\mathcal{B}_{y, k, \emptyset}\right)>\alpha$ and so on. Taking $\mathcal{P}:=\left\{p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ we clearly have $\mathbf{d}\left(\mathcal{B}_{y, k, \emptyset}\right) \prod_{p \in \mathcal{P}}(1-1 / p)=\alpha$. Thus, $\mathbf{d}\left(\mathcal{B}_{y, k, \mathcal{P}}\right)=\alpha$ and $\mathbf{d}\left(\mathcal{B}_{y, k, \mathcal{P}}^{2}\right)<\varepsilon$, as desired.

Remark. If $\mathbf{d}\left(\mathcal{A}^{2}\right)$ in Theorem 2 is replaced by the upper density $\overline{\mathbf{d}}\left(\mathcal{A}^{2}\right)$, then one could just take $\mathcal{A}$ to be any density $\alpha$ subset of $\left\{n \in \mathbb{N}: \Omega_{y}(n) \geqslant \frac{3}{4} \log \log y\right\}$ 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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