## Additive properties of a pair of sequences

by

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**1. Introduction.** For a given set  $A \subset \mathbb{N}_0$  of non-negative integers, here and throughout the paper, the *counting function* A(n) is defined as the number of elements of A not exceeding n, i.e.,  $A(n) = |A \cap \{0, 1, \dots, n\}|$ . Consider the following functions:

$$r(A,n) = |\{(a_1, a_2) \in A \times A : a_1 + a_2 = n\}|,$$
  

$$r_1(A,n) = |\{(a_1, a_2) \in A \times A : a_1 + a_2 = n \text{ and } a_1 \le a_2\}|,$$
  

$$r_2(A,n) = |\{(a_1, a_2) \in A \times A : a_1 + a_2 = n \text{ and } a_1 \le a_2\}|.$$

A well-studied problem concerning these functions is to determine necessary and sufficient conditions on A for their (eventual) monotonicity. Here and throughout the paper, monotonicity refers to monotonicity in n. In other words, for what sets A can we find an  $n_0$  such that  $r(A, n+1) \ge r(A, n)$  for all  $n > n_0$ ? Although the three functions look similar, and in fact  $|r(A, n) - 2r_2(A, n)| \le 1$  and  $|r_1(A, n) - r_2(A, n)| \le 1$ , the (partial) answers to these questions may be quite different.

Erdős, Sárközy and Sós [3] proved that r(A, n) is eventually increasing if and only if A contains all the positive integers from a certain point on. On the other hand, they obtained only a partial answer for  $r_1$  and  $r_2$ . In particular, they proved that if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n - A(n)}{\log n} = \infty$$

then  $r_1(A, n)$  is not eventually increasing. (This result was also obtained independently by Balasubramanian [1].)

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Also, for  $r_2(A, n)$  they proved that if

$$A(n) = o\left(\frac{n}{\log n}\right)$$

then  $r_2(A, n)$  cannot be increasing from a certain point on.

Motivated by these results, Sárközy asked the following question in his valuable paper [8] on unsolved problems in number theory (see Problem 4 in [8]).

PROBLEM 1. If A,B are given infinite sets of non-negative integers, what can one say about the monotonicity of the number of solutions of the equation

$$a+b=n, \quad a \in A, b \in B$$
?

We can naturally rephrase this question by defining the following function.

DEFINITION 2. The representation function for two sets  $A, B \subset \mathbb{N}_0$  is

$$r(A, B, n) = |\{(a, b) \in A \times B : a + b = n\}|.$$

The main goal of the present paper is to give some sufficient conditions on A, B for the monotonicity of this function. This new representation function acts surprisingly different from the preceding functions. Our main result is as follows.

THEOREM 3. For all  $0 \le \alpha, \beta < 1, 1/2 < c_1, c_2 \le 1$ , there exist sets  $A, B \subset \mathbb{N}_0$  such that r(A, B, n) is increasing in n, and

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{A(n)}{n^{c_1}} = \alpha, \quad \limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{B(n)}{n^{c_2}} = \beta.$$

In the next sections we develop tools to approach Theorem 3 and prove some related results. Then we will return to the proof of Theorem 3.

**2. Co-Sidon sets.** Before proving Theorem 3, we introduce a generalized notion of Sidon sets and study some of its properties. Recall that a set  $A \subset \mathbb{N}_0$  is called Sidon if  $r_1(A, n) \leq 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , i.e., the sums of unordered pairs of elements of A are all distinct. We remark that it is possible to extend the notion of a Sidon set to a pair of sets in different ways. In this paper, we consider the following generalization.

DEFINITION 4. Two sets  $A, B \subset \mathbb{N}_0$  are called *co-Sidon* if  $r(A, B, n) \leq 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ , i.e., the sums a + b are distinct for all  $(a, b) \in A \times B$ .

Note that if A, B are co-Sidon then  $|A \cap B| \leq 1$ .

For sets A and B of integers we denote their sum set by  $A+B=\{a+b:a\in A,\ b\in B\}$ . For simplicity, if the set B is a single element b we denote their sum set by A+b=A+B.

When A, B are finite sets, we prove a simple but sharp result about |A|, |B|.

THEOREM 5. If  $A, B \subset \{0, 1, ..., n\}$  are co-Sidon, then  $\min\{|A|, |B|\} < |\sqrt{2n}|$ .

Furthermore, equality can be obtained for infinitely many values of n.

*Proof.* Since A and B are finite (and co-Sidon) we have |A+B| = |A| |B|. Without loss of generality assume  $|A| \leq |B|$ . Then  $|A|^2 \leq |A+B|$ .

Clearly, for an element  $c \in A+B$  we have  $0 \le c \le 2n$ . However, either 0 or 2n is not an element of A+B, otherwise we would have  $0, n \in A \cap B$  and there would be two distinct solutions to a+b=n with  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ . Thus,  $|A+B| \le 2n$ , which yields  $|A| \le \lfloor \sqrt{2n} \rfloor$ , and the upper bound is established.

To see that the upper bound is best possible for infinitely many n, consider the following construction for A and B. Let  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  be fixed and define

$$A := \{0, m, 2m, \dots, (2m-1)m\},\$$

$$B := \{0, 1, 2, \dots, m - 1, 2m^2, 2m^2 + 1, 2m^2 + 2, \dots, 2m^2 + m - 1\}.$$

Note that |A| = |B| = 2m and  $A + B = \{0, 1, ..., 4m^2 - 1\}$ . Therefore A and B are co-Sidon. As  $A, B \subseteq \{0, 1, ..., 2m^2 + m - 1\}$ , we can take  $n = 2m^2 + m - 1$ . This gives

$$2m = \sqrt{4m^2} \le \sqrt{4m^2 + 2m - 2} = \sqrt{2n} < \sqrt{4m^2 + 4m + 1} = 2m + 1.$$

Hence  $\min\{|A|, |B|\} = 2m = \lfloor \sqrt{2n} \rfloor$ . As the choice of m was arbitrary, there are infinitely many n for which we can reach the upper bound in the statement of the theorem.

The above result can be compared with the following theorem of Erdős and Turán [4] on finite Sidon sets.

THEOREM 6. There is an absolute positive constant c such that if  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $A \subset \{1, ..., n\}$  is a Sidon set, then  $|A| < n^{1/2} + cn^{1/4}$ .

On the other hand, the best known constructions give Sidon sets of size  $n^{1/2}$  for infinitely many n (see e.g. [5, 7] for details). The reduction of this gap is a well-known hard problem.

We now consider the case where A, B are infinite co-Sidon. Defining  $A_n = A \cap \{0, 1, ..., n\}$  and  $B_n = B \cap \{0, 1, ..., n\}$ , we see that  $A_n, B_n$  are co-Sidon. So, by Theorem 5, for any n we have

$$\min\{A(n), B(n)\}/\sqrt{n} = \min\{|A_n|, |B_n|\}/\sqrt{n} \le |\sqrt{2n}|/\sqrt{n} \le \sqrt{2}.$$

A simple example shows that we can come close to achieving this bound.

Construction 7. Let A be the set of integers which can be written in the form  $\sum_{i=0}^k \alpha_i 2^{2i}$  where  $\alpha_i \in \{0,1\}$  and  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let B be the set of

integers which can be written in the form  $\sum_{i=0}^k \alpha_i 2^{2i+1}$  where  $\alpha_i \in \{0,1\}$  and  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . It is clear that A and B are co-Sidon and  $A+B=\mathbb{N}_0$ . It can easily be verified that

$$\begin{split} & \lim\inf_{n\to\infty}\frac{A(n)}{\sqrt{n}}=1, \qquad \limsup_{n\to\infty}\frac{A(n)}{\sqrt{n}}=\sqrt{3}, \\ & \lim\inf_{n\to\infty}\frac{B(n)}{\sqrt{n}}=\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, \qquad \limsup_{n\to\infty}\frac{B(n)}{\sqrt{n}}=\frac{\sqrt{6}}{2}. \end{split}$$

Thus,

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \frac{\min\{A(n), B(n)\}}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}.$$

Comparing this with the following result of Erdős (see [9, 5]), we conclude that infinite Sidon sets and infinite co-Sidon sets also behave differently. In general, we have more freedom when working with co-Sidon sets.

Theorem 8. There is an absolute, positive constant c such that for any infinite Sidon set  $A \subset \mathbb{N}$  we have

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \frac{A(n)}{\sqrt{n/\log n}} < c.$$

The following theorem of Krückeberg [6] for infinite Sidon sets is also worth mentioning.

Theorem 9. There is a Sidon set  $A \subset \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{A(n)}{\sqrt{n}} \ge \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}.$$

The following definition will be useful for us.

DEFINITION 10. We call sets  $A, B \subset \mathbb{N}_0$  perfect if the sum set A + B is an interval (possibly unbounded) of consecutive integers.

The next proposition will be helpful in building new perfect co-Sidon sets from other co-Sidon sets.

PROPOSITION 11. Let  $A, B \subset \mathbb{N}_0$  be finite perfect co-Sidon sets. Let  $c = \max(A) + \max(B) - \min(A) - \min(B) + 1$ . Then for any  $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$ , the sets A and  $C = \bigcup_{i=0}^k (B+ic)$  are perfect co-Sidon.

*Proof.* Let  $r = \min(A) + \min(B)$ . By assumption,  $A + B = \{r, r + 1, \ldots, c + r - 1\}$ . For each i, the sets A and B + ic are co-Sidon. Furthermore,

the sets

$$A + (B+c) = \{c+r, c+r+1, \dots, 2c+r-1\},\$$

$$A + (B+2c) = \{2c+r, 2c+r+1, \dots, 3c+r-1\},\$$

$$\vdots$$

$$A + (B+kc) = \{kc+r, kc+r+1, \dots, (k+1)c+r-1\}$$

are all pairwise disjoint consecutive intervals. Therefore A and  $\bigcup_{i=0}^k (B+ic)$  are perfect co-Sidon with sum set  $\{r,r+1,\ldots,(k+1)c+r-1\}$ .

Clearly, the proposition also holds for  $C = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} (B + ic)$ .

Next we characterize all infinite perfect co-Sidon sets  $A, B \subset \mathbb{N}_0$  using the mixed-radix representation. Note that both the co-Sidon and perfect properties are invariant under translation of each of the sets (i.e. addition or subtraction of a constant), so without loss of generality we may assume  $0 \in A \cap B$ .

THEOREM 12. Let  $A, B \subset \mathbb{N}_0$  be infinite, such that  $0 \in A \cap B$ . Then A, B are perfect co-Sidon if and only if there exists an infinite sequence of integers  $(k_i)_{i=1}^{\infty}$  such that  $k_i \geq 2$  for all i, and (up to an exchange of A and B)

$$A = \Big\{ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} k_1 k_2 \cdots k_{2i-2} a_{2i-1} : \forall j, \ 0 \le a_{2j-1} < k_{2j-1},$$

$$finitely \ many \ a_{2i-1} \ non-zero \Big\},$$

$$B = \Big\{ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} k_1 k_2 \cdots k_{2i-1} a_{2i} : \forall j, \ 0 \le a_{2j} < k_{2j},$$

$$finitely \ many \ a_{2i} \ non-zero \Big\}.$$

*Proof.* A sum of the form  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} k_1 k_2 \cdots k_{i-1} a_i$ , where  $0 \leq a_j < k_j$  and only finitely many  $a_i$  are non-zero, is precisely the so-called *mixed-radix* representation with bases  $(k_1, k_2, \ldots)$ . Thus the base r representation is the special case where  $k_i = r$  for all i. For any sequence  $(k_i)_{i=1}^{\infty}$  of integers with  $k_i \geq 2$ , every non-negative integer is uniquely representable with bases  $(k_i)$ .

Let  $(k_i)_{i=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of integers such that  $k_i \geq 2$  for all i. Suppose A and B are of the form determined by the bases  $k_i$  as above. As every non-negative integer is uniquely representable with bases  $(k_i)$ , A and B are co-Sidon. Also observe that

$$A + B = \Big\{ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} k_1 k_2 \cdots k_{i-1} a_i : \forall j, 0 \le a_j < k_j, \text{ finitely many } a_i \text{ non-zero} \Big\}.$$

Thus  $A + B = \mathbb{N}_0$  and therefore A and B are perfect.

Now assume that A, B are perfect co-Sidon. Unless  $A = B = \{0\}$ , we can assume without loss of generality that  $1 \in A$ . To show that A, B are of the required form, we need to construct a sequence of base elements  $(k_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  that represents A and B as in the statement of the theorem.

Our construction of the integers  $k_i$  is recursive. Let  $k_0 = 1$ . For  $t \ge 1$  define  $c_t = k_{t-1}k_{t-2}\cdots k_0$  and let

$$k_t = \begin{cases} \max\{a : \{c_t, 2c_t, \dots, (a-1)c_t\} \subset A\} & \text{if } t \text{ is odd,} \\ \max\{b : \{c_t, 2c_t, \dots, (b-1)c_t\} \subset B\} & \text{if } t \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

Note that  $k_t < \infty$  for all t > 0. Otherwise, one of A or B contains an infinite arithmetic progression, whose consecutive terms differ by  $c_t$ . But as they are co-Sidon, this implies that the other set is finite (in fact of cardinality at most  $c_t$ ), a contradiction.

Now define two families of sets. Let  $A_0 = B_0 = \{0\}$  and, for each  $t \ge 1$ ,

$$A_t = \Big\{ \sum_{i=1}^t k_1 k_2 \cdots k_{i-1} a_i : \forall j, \ 0 \le a_j < k_j \text{ and } a_{2j} = 0 \Big\},$$

$$B_t = \Big\{ \sum_{i=1}^t k_1 k_2 \cdots k_{i-1} b_i : \forall j, \ 0 \le b_j < k_j \text{ and } b_{2j-1} = 0 \Big\}.$$

Note that for all j,  $A_{2j} = A_{2j-1}$  and  $B_{2j-1} = B_{2j-2}$ . Let  $A^* = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} A_i$  and  $B^* = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} B_i$ . It only remains to prove that  $A = A^*$  and  $B = B^*$ . We will use the following claim.

Claim 13. For all  $t \geq 0$ ,

$$A \cap \{0, 1, \dots, k_1 \cdots k_t - 1\} = A_t, \quad B \cap \{0, 1, \dots, k_1 \cdots k_t - 1\} = B_t.$$

*Proof.* Suppose not and let t be minimal such that the claim does not hold. Thus there must exist an  $x \in \mathbb{N}$  such that either

$$x \in (A \cap \{0, 1, \dots, k_1 k_2 \cdots k_t - 1\}) \triangle A_t$$

or

$$x \in (B \cap \{0, 1, \dots, k_1 k_2 \cdots k_t - 1\}) \triangle B_t$$

where  $\triangle$  denotes the symmetric difference of sets. Pick a minimal such x. Let us assume that t is odd and  $t \geq 3$ ; the proof is trivial for t = 0 or t = 1 and similar when  $t \geq 2$  is even. As t is odd (and minimal),  $B_t = B_{t-1} = B \cap \{0, 1, \dots, k_1 \cdots k_{t-1} - 1\} \subset B \cap \{0, 1, \dots, k_1 \cdots k_t - 1\}$ , thus  $B_t \setminus (B \cap \{0, 1, \dots, k_1 \cdots k_t - 1\})$  is empty.

Now write

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^{t} k_1 k_2 \cdots k_{i-1} a_i$$

in the mixed-radix representation with bases  $(k_i)_{i=1}^{\infty}$ . Set

$$z = \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor t/2 \rfloor} k_1 \cdots k_{2i} a_{2i+1}, \quad w = \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor t/2 \rfloor} k_1 \cdots k_{2i-1} a_{2i}.$$

By definition,  $z \in A_t$ ,  $w \in B_t = B_{t-1}$  and x = z + w. By the minimality of t,  $B_{t-1} \subset B$ , thus  $w \in B$ . We now distinguish the remaining three cases.

- (i) Suppose  $x \in (A \cap \{0, 1, ..., k_1 \cdots k_t 1\}) \setminus A_t$ . Since  $x \notin A_t$ , we have  $x \neq z$ , thus  $z \in A$  by minimality of x. Now  $x, z \in A$  and  $0, w \in B$ . But x + 0 = z + w, contradicting the fact that A and B are co-Sidon.
- (ii) Suppose  $x \in A_t \setminus (A \cap \{0, 1, \dots, k_1 \cdots k_t 1\})$ . As  $A + B = \mathbb{N}_0$ , we can write x = a + b with  $a \in A$ ,  $b \in B$ . Note that  $x \leq k_1 k_2 \cdots k_t 1$  and this implies  $x \notin A$ . In particular,  $x \neq a$ . We claim that x = b. If not, then 0 < a, b < x and the minimality of x implies that  $a \in A_t$  and  $b \in B_t$ . But  $a + b = x \in A_t$ , which contradicts the definition of  $A_t$  and  $B_t$ . Thus we may suppose x = b, i.e.,  $x \in A_t \cap B$ .

For  $0 \le i \le \lfloor t/2 \rfloor - 1$ , define

$$\alpha_{2i+1} = \begin{cases} k_{2i+1} - a_{2i+1} & \text{if } a_{2i+1} > 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } a_{2i+1} = 0, \end{cases} \quad \beta_{2i+2} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \alpha_{2i+1} = 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } \alpha_{2i+1} > 0. \end{cases}$$

Let

$$u = (\alpha_{t-1}0\alpha_{t-4}\dots\alpha_3 - \alpha_1)_{(k_i)} = \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor t/2 \rfloor - 1} k_1 \cdots k_{2i}\alpha_{2i+1} \in A_{t-2},$$

$$v = (\beta_{t-1}0\beta_{t-3}0\dots\beta_20)_{(k_i)} = \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor t/2 \rfloor} k_1 \cdots k_{2i-1}\beta_{2i}.$$

By definition of  $k_t$ ,  $a_t \prod_{i=0}^{t-1} k_i \in A$ , and by minimality of t, we have  $u \in A$  and  $v \in B$ . Clearly,  $u \neq a_t \prod_{i=0}^{t-1} k_i$ . But  $u+x = a_t \prod_{i=0}^{t-1} k_i + v$ , contradicting the fact that A and B are co-Sidon.

(iii) Suppose  $x \in (B \cap \{0, 1, \dots, k_1 \cdots k_t - 1\}) \setminus B_t$ . Clearly,  $x \notin A$ , otherwise  $0, x \in A \cap B$ , which contradicts A, B being co-Sidon. Also,  $x \notin A_t$ , otherwise  $x \in A_t \cap B$  and we can continue as at the end of case (ii). Thus  $x \neq z$ , and this implies  $z \in A$  by the minimality of x. Also,  $w \in B_t$  implies  $x \neq w$ . Now 0 + x = z + w, with  $0, z \in A$  and  $x, w \in B$ , contradicting the fact that A and B are co-Sidon.

To complete the proof of the theorem, we must show that  $k_t \geq 2$  for all t > 0. Suppose that  $k_{t_0} = 1$ . That is,  $c_{t_0} = k_1 k_2 \cdots k_{t_0-1}$  is in neither A nor B. But then, as A and B are perfect co-Sidon, there exist  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$  such that  $a + b = c_{t_0}$ . By assumption,  $a, b < c_{t_0}$ . But clearly  $(a, b) \notin A_{t_0} \times B_{t_0}$  as  $A_{t_0} + B_{t_0} \subset \{0, 1, \ldots, c_{t_0} - 1\}$ , contradicting Claim 13.

Theorem 12 allows us to make a useful observation about the structure of perfect co-Sidon sets.

COROLLARY 14. If A and B are infinite perfect co-Sidon sets then for all  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  there are infinitely many  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$${n, n+1, \dots, 2n+m} \cap A = \emptyset.$$

*Proof.* As the statement remains true when we translate A or B, it suffices to prove it for A and B with  $0 \in A \cap B$ . There exists an infinite sequence of integers  $(k_i)$  with  $k_i \geq 2$  for all i such that A and B are represented by the bases  $k_i$  as in Theorem 12. Fix  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  and let t be such that  $2\prod_{i=0}^{t-1} k_i - 3 \geq m$  and  $(k_t - 1)\prod_{i=0}^{t-1} k_i \in A$ . Then by Theorem 12 the next element in A is exactly  $\prod_{i=0}^{t+1} k_i$ . Let  $n = (k_t - 1)\prod_{i=0}^{t-1} k_i + 1$ . Now

$$\prod_{i=0}^{t+1} k_i = k_{t+1} \{ (k_t - 1) + 1 \} \prod_{i=0}^{t-1} k_i \ge 2 \{ n - 1 + \prod_{i=0}^{t-1} k_i \}$$

$$\ge 2n - 2 + m + 3 = 2n + m + 1.$$

Thus  $\{n, n+1, \ldots, 2n+m\} \cap A = \emptyset$ . Since A is infinite, it follows that for every m there are infinitely many such n.

It is natural to ask whether all co-Sidon sets A, B are subsets of perfect co-Sidon sets  $A^*, B^*$ . The answer turns out to be no, as the following proposition shows.

PROPOSITION 15. The sets  $A = \{2^k : k \in \mathbb{N}, k \geq 9\}$  and  $B = \{3^l : l \in \mathbb{N}, l \geq 9\}$  are co-Sidon and there are no perfect co-Sidon sets  $A^*, B^*$  such that  $A \subseteq A^*$  and  $B \subseteq B^*$ .

*Proof.* The Diophantine equation  $2^k + 3^l = 2^m + 3^n$  with k < m and l > n has only five solutions (see [10]); all have exponents less than 9. This implies that A and B are co-Sidon.

Note that, for all  $n \geq 2^9$ , A contains numbers between n and 2n. That is, for all n,  $A \cap \{n, n+1, \ldots, 2n\} \neq \emptyset$ . However, if  $A^*$  and  $B^*$  are perfect co-Sidon sets such that  $A \subset A^*$  and  $B \subset B^*$ , then according to Corollary 14 there is an n with  $A^* \cap \{n, n+1, \ldots, 2n+m\} = \emptyset$ .

**3. Representation function.** We seek to provide sufficient conditions on A and B so that the representation function  $r(A,B,n)=|\{(a,b)\in A\times B: a+b=n\}|$  is (eventually) increasing. For  $C\subset\mathbb{N}_0$  let us denote its complement by  $\overline{C}=\mathbb{N}_0\setminus C$ .

It is easy to see that if either A or  $\overline{A}$  is finite and either B or  $\overline{B}$  is finite then r(A,B,n) is eventually monotone. Indeed, if  $\overline{A}$  and B are finite, then for all  $n>\max(\overline{A})+\max(B)$  we see that  $b\in B$  implies  $n-b\in A$  and thus r(A,B,n)=|B|. Also, if  $\overline{A}$  and  $\overline{B}$  are finite, then for all n>0

 $\max(\overline{A}) + \max(\overline{B})$  we have  $r(A, B, n) = n + 1 - |\overline{A}| - |\overline{B}|$ . Finally, if A and B are both finite then it is obvious that r(A, B, n) is eventually monotone. So the study is non-trivial only in the case when A and  $\overline{A}$  are both infinite.

PROPOSITION 16. Let  $A, B \subset \mathbb{N}_0$  be infinite perfect co-Sidon sets such that  $A + B = \mathbb{N}_0$ . Then, for any  $A' \subset A$  and  $B' \subset B$ , the representation function r(A + B', B + A', n) is increasing.

*Proof.* Note that

$$r(A+B',B+A',n) = r\Big(\bigcup_{b\in B'} A+b,\bigcup_{a\in A'} B+a,n\Big)$$
$$= \sum_{a\in A',b\in B'} r(A+b,B+a,n).$$

The second equality holds because the unions are disjoint.

From  $A+B=\mathbb{N}_0$  it follows that  $(A+b)+(B+a)=\mathbb{N}_0+a+b$  and thus each summand is

$$r(A + b, B + a, n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n < a + b, \\ 1 & \text{if } n \ge a + b. \end{cases}$$

Therefore, the representation function r(A+B',B+A',n) is increasing.

It follows from Theorem 12 that sets A and B which are infinite perfect co-Sidon exist. Since the subsets in Proposition 16 are arbitrary, we can construct many sets A and B such that r(A,B,n) is increasing. The next theorem allows us to choose sets A and B whose representation function is increasing and whose counting functions A(n) and B(n) grow at a controlled rate.

THEOREM 17. Let  $A, B \subset \mathbb{N}_0$  be infinite perfect co-Sidon such that  $A + B = \mathbb{N}_0$ . Let  $f : \mathbb{N}_0 \to \mathbb{R}$  be such that  $A(n) \leq f(n)$  and for every M > 0 there exists  $n_0$  such that for  $n > n_0$  we have f(n) < n + 1 - MA(n). Then there exists a  $B' \subseteq B$  such that

$$(A+B')(n) \le f(n)$$
 for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ 

and

$$(A+B')(n) \ge f(n) - A(n)$$
 for infinitely many  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ .

*Proof.* Let A and B be as in the statement and write  $B = \{b_0 < b_1 < \cdots \}$ . By assumption,  $b_0 = 0$ . Let us construct  $B' \subseteq B$  greedily as follows: set  $B'_0 = \{0\}$  and for i > 0 let

$$B'_{i+1} = \begin{cases} B'_i \cup \{b_{i+1}\} & \text{if } (A + (B'_i \cup \{b_{i+1}\}))(n) \le f_A(n) \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}_0, \\ B'_i & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then let  $B' = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} B'_i$ . We claim that this B' satisfies the conditions of the

theorem. By the construction,

$$(A+B')(n) \le f(n)$$
 for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ .

To prove that the other inequality holds for infinitely many values of n, we first need to show that  $B \setminus B'$  is infinite. Suppose that  $B \setminus B'$  is finite, and let  $M = |B \setminus B'|$ . Since  $A + B \setminus B' = \bigcup_{b \in B \setminus B'} (A + b)$  we have  $(A + B \setminus B')(n) \leq MA(n)$  for every n. Now, clearly,

$$\bigcup_{b \in B'} (A+b) = \mathbb{N}_0 \setminus \bigcup_{b \in B \setminus B'} (A+b).$$

It follows that  $(A + B')(n) = n + 1 - (A + (B \setminus B'))(n) \ge n + 1 - MA(n)$  for all n. But, for large enough n, we have n + 1 - MA(n) > f(n). Then for large enough n we would have (A + B')(n) > f(n), which contradicts the construction of B'. Hence  $B \setminus B'$  is infinite.

Therefore, for infinitely many i, we have  $b_{i+1} \notin B'$ . For such an i we have  $B'_{i+1} = B'_i$ . Therefore, by definition of  $B'_{i+1}$ , there exists  $n_{i+1}$  such that  $(A + B'_i \cup \{b_{i+1}\})(n_{i+1}) > f(n_{i+1})$ . Note that  $n_{i+1} \ge b_{i+1}$ , because for all  $n < b_{i+1}$ ,

$$(A + B_i' \cup \{b_{i+1}\})(n) = (A + B_i')(n) \le f_A(n).$$

Therefore there are infinitely many n such that

$$(A + B')(n) \ge (A + B'_i)(n) \ge f(n) - A(n)$$
.

Our main theorem follows as a corollary of Theorem 17. We restate it here for easy reference:

THEOREM 3. For all  $0 \le \alpha, \beta < 1, 1/2 < c_1, c_2 \le 1$ , there exist sets  $A, B \subset \mathbb{N}_0$  such that r(A, B, n) is increasing in n, and

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{A(n)}{n^{c_1}} = \alpha, \quad \limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{B(n)}{n^{c_2}} = \beta.$$

Proof. Suppose we are given constants  $0 \le \alpha < 1$  and  $1/2 < c_1 \le 1$ . Let  $A_0, B_0$  be perfect co-Sidon sets such that  $A_0(n) = \Theta(n^{1/2}), B_0(n) = \Theta(n^{1/2})$  (e.g. Construction 7). Let  $f(n) = \alpha n^{c_1} + d$  where d is a constant large enough such that  $f(n) \ge A_0(n)$  for all n. Clearly, for all m > 0 there exists an  $n_0$  such that for  $n > n_0$ ,  $f(n) < n + 1 - mA_0(n)$ . By Theorem 17, there is a  $B' \subset B_0$  such that  $(A_0 + B')(n) \le f(n)$  for all n and  $(A_0 + B')(n) \ge f(n) - A_0(n)$  for infinitely many n. Set  $A = A_0 + B'$ . Then

$$\alpha = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{n^{c_1}} \ge \limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{A(n)}{n^{c_1}} \ge \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n) - A_0(n)}{n^{c_1}} = \alpha.$$

We can construct B in the same manner. By Proposition 16, the representation function r(A, B, n) is increasing.

By modifying the previous two proofs, we can restate Theorem 3 with either (or both) of the upper limits replaced with lower limits. The details are left to the interested reader. Theorem 3 gives a strong answer about the densities of sets A and B with monotone representation function r(A, B, n).

When  $c_1 = c_2 = 1$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Q}$  we can restate Theorem 3 by replacing the upper limits with standard limits.

THEOREM 18. For all rational  $0 \le \alpha, \beta \le 1$ , there exist sets  $A, B \subset \mathbb{N}_0$  such that A has density  $\alpha$ , B has density  $\beta$  and r(A, B, n) is increasing in n.

*Proof.* We construct A and B using mixed-radix representation to describe its elements. Write  $\alpha = p_1/q_1$  and  $\beta = p_2/q_2$  where  $p_i, q_i \in \mathbb{N}$ . Set  $k_1 = q_1, k_2 = q_2$  and  $k_i = 2$  for all i > 2. Let  $A_0$  be the set of all integers that can be written in the form

$$\sum_{i=0}^k k_1 k_2 \cdots k_{2i} a_{2i+1}$$

where for each  $i, 0 \le a_{2i+1} < k_{2i+1}$ . Similarly, let  $B_0$  be the set of all integers that can be written in the form

$$\sum_{i=1}^k k_1 k_2 \cdots k_{2i-1} b_{2i}$$

where for each  $i, 0 \le b_{2i} < k_{2i}$ . Note that  $A_0$  and  $B_0$  are perfect co-Sidon.

Let A' be the subset of  $A_0$  consisting of all those integers whose  $k_1$ -digit (in the mixed-radix representation) lies in the set  $\{0, 1, \ldots, p_1 - 1\}$ . As  $p_1 \leq q_1$  we must have  $p_1 - 1 \leq k_1 - 1$ . Thus A' is well-defined. Then  $B = A' + B_0$  is the set of all numbers whose  $k_1$ -digit lies in  $\{0, \ldots, p_1 - 1\}$ , that is, B consists of the numbers congruent to  $0, 1, \ldots, p_1 - 1 \pmod{q_1}$ . The density of this set is clearly  $p_1/q_1$ .

Similarly, let B' be the subset of  $B_0$  consisting of all those integers whose  $k_2$ -digit (in the mixed-radix representation) lies in the set  $\{0, 1, \ldots, p_2 - 1\}$ . Again as  $p_2 \leq q_2$  we have  $p_2 - 1 \leq k_2 - 1$  so B' is also well-defined. A similar argument holds when we are considering  $A = A_0 + B'$ . Here, A is the set of numbers whose  $k_2$ -digit is in  $\{0, 1, \ldots, p_2 - 1\}$ . Thus A consists exactly of the numbers less than or equal to  $(p_2 - 1)q_1 \pmod{q_1q_2}$ . This follows as the base of the first digit is  $q_1$ . Again, it is clear that A has density  $(p_2q_1)/(q_1q_2) = p_2/q_2$ .

By Proposition 16, r(A, B, n) is increasing.

Finally, we determine for which sets A, B the representation function r(A, B, n) is eventually *strictly* increasing. The corresponding question for a single set has been considered by Chen and Tang [2], who discuss when the functions  $r, r_1, r_2$  are strictly increasing. When considering two sets and the function r, the problem turns out to be easy.

PROPOSITION 19. Let  $A, B \subset \mathbb{N}_0$ . Then the representation function r(A, B, n) is eventually strictly increasing if and only if  $\overline{A}$  and  $\overline{B}$  are finite.

*Proof.* First, let us assume that r(A, B, n) is eventually strictly increasing. We will use the trivial identity

$$n+1=r(\mathbb{N}_0,\mathbb{N}_0,n)=r(A,B,n)+r(\overline{A},B,n)+r(A,\overline{B},n)+r(\overline{A},\overline{B},n),$$
 which is equivalent to

$$n+1-r(A,B,n)=r(\overline{A},B,n)+r(A,\overline{B},n)+r(\overline{A},\overline{B},n).$$

In the last identity the left hand side is bounded, since we have assumed that r(A, B, n) is eventually strictly increasing. Thus the right hand side is also bounded. Hence  $r(\overline{A}, B, n)$ ,  $r(A, \overline{B}, n)$  and  $r(\overline{A}, \overline{B}, n)$  are all bounded. From this it follows that  $r(\overline{A}, \mathbb{N}_0, n) = r(\overline{A}, B, n) + r(\overline{A}, \overline{B}, n)$  and  $r(\mathbb{N}_0, \overline{B}, n) = r(A, \overline{B}, n) + r(\overline{A}, \overline{B}, n)$  are bounded. Thus  $\overline{A}$  and  $\overline{B}$  must be finite.

Now we assume that  $\overline{A}$  and  $\overline{B}$  are finite. For any  $n > \max(\overline{A}) + \max(\overline{B})$  we know that  $a \in \overline{A}$  implies  $n - a \notin \overline{B}$  and vice versa, so we can write

$$r(A, B, n) = n + 1 - |\overline{A}| - |\overline{B}| < n + 2 - |\overline{A}| - |\overline{B}| = r(A, B, n + 1).$$

Thus for  $n>\max(\overline{A})+\max(\overline{B})$  the representation function is strictly increasing.  $\blacksquare$ 

**4. Open problems.** A far-reaching goal would be to completely characterize co-Sidon sets. Which co-Sidon sets are subsets of some perfect co-Sidon sets? Are two random sets likely to be co-Sidon?

Can we completely characterize sets A, B whose representation function is increasing? Are there constructions that do not come from perfect co-Sidon sets?

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