# ON SEQUENCES WITHOUT GEOMETRIC PROGRESSIONS 

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#### Abstract

Several papers have investigated sequences which have no $k$-term arithmetic progressions, finding bounds on their density and looking at sequences generated by greedy algorithms. Rankin in 1960 suggested looking at sequences without $k$-term geometric progressions, and constructed such sequences for each $k$ with positive density. In this paper we improve on Rankin's results, derive upper bounds, and look at sequences generated by a greedy algorithm.


## 1. Introduction

Erdős and Turan [1] defined $r_{k}(n)$ to be the least $r$ for which any sequence of $r$ numbers less than $n$ must contain a $k$-term arithmetic progression. Roth [7] showed that $r_{3}(n)=O(n / \log \log n)$, and Szemerédi [8] showed that $r_{k}(n)=o(n)$ for all $k$.

We will denote all sets of nonnegative integers without a $k$-term arithmetic progression by $\mathrm{APF}_{k}$ (for arithmetic progression-free). Erdős conjectured that the sum of reciprocals of the (nonzero) terms of any such sequence converge, and offered $\$ 3,000$ for a proof or disproof.

One way to generate an arithmetic progression-free sequence is to use a greedy algorithm: start with 0 , and add the smallest number which does not form a $k$-term arithmetic progression. Variations on the resulting sequences have been studied by several people $[2,3,5]$. For prime $k$, greedy sequences are just the integers whose base- $k$ representation has no digits equal to $k-1$. For composite $k$ their behavior is still mysterious.

In [4], the span of a set is defined to be the difference of its largest and smallest elements, and $\operatorname{sp}(k, n)$ to be the smallest span of a set in $\mathrm{APF}_{k}$ with $n$ members, and a table of values for $\operatorname{sp}(k, n)$ for small $k$ and $n$ due to Usiskin is given. The value given for $\operatorname{sp}(3,10)$ in that table is wrong; Table 1 corrects it and gives $\operatorname{sp}(k, n)$ for a larger range of $k$ and $n$.

The corresponding questions for sequences with no geometric progressions have received little attention. Rankin [6] used sequences in $\mathrm{APF}_{k}$ to form sequences with no $k$-term geometric progressions, and found their density. In $\S 2$ we review his methods, and show how sequences coming from a greedy method are superior to his for $k>3$. In $\S 3$ we derive upper bounds for the density of such sequences.

Throughout this paper, $A$ will denote an arbitrary sequence of nonnegative integers, $A_{k}$ will be an arbitary sequence in $\mathrm{APF}_{k}$, and $A_{k}^{*}$ will be the greedy sequence described above.

Table 1. Smallest span for $\mathrm{APF}_{k}$

| $k \backslash n$ | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 3 | 3 | 4 | 8 | 10 | 12 | 13 | 19 | 23 | 25 | 29 | 31 | 35 | 39 | 40 | 50 |
| 4 |  | 4 | 5 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 12 | 14 | 16 | 18 | 21 | 22 | 24 | 26 | 27 |
| 5 |  | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 23 |  |
| 6 |  |  | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 |  |

## 2. GEOMETRIC PROGRESSION-FREE SEQUENCES

Let $\mathrm{GPF}_{k}$ denote all sets of positive integers with no $k$-term geometric progressions. The only previous consideration of geometric progression-free sequences we know of is by Rankin [6]. An obvious sequence in $\mathrm{GPF}_{3}$ is the set of squarefree numbers, which have density $6 / \pi^{2} \approx 0.608$.

Rankin showed that sequences in $\mathrm{APF}_{k}$ can be used to form denser sequences in $\mathrm{GPF}_{k}$ :

For a nonnegative sequence of integers $A=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right\}$, let $G(A)$ be the set of all integers

$$
\begin{equation*}
N=p_{1}^{e_{1}} p_{2}^{e_{2}} \cdots p_{r}^{e_{r}}, \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the $p_{i}$ are distinct primes, $r$ is any nonnegative integer, and $e_{i} \in A$ for $i=1, \ldots, r$.

Theorem 1. If $A$ is in $\mathrm{APF}_{k}$, then $G(A)$ is in $\mathrm{GPF}_{k}$.
Proof. Let $\left\{a, a s, a s^{2}, \ldots, a s^{k-1}\right\}$ be any set of integers in a geometric progression. (Note that, while $a \in \mathbb{Z}, s$ may be a rational noninteger, e.g. the progression $9,12,16)$. Any prime dividing the numerator or denominator of $s$ occurs to powers $c, c+d, c+2 d, \ldots, c+(k-1) d$, for some $c \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$and $d \in \mathbb{Z}$. These powers form a $k$-term arithmetic progression, which cannot be contained in $A$, and so the numbers in the geometric progression cannot all be in $G(A)$.

Let $G_{k}^{*}$ be the set in $\mathrm{GPF}_{k}$ generated by the greedy algorithm; $g_{1}=1$, and $g_{i}$ is the smallest integer which does not form a $k$-term geometric progression with $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{i-1}$.

Theorem 2. We have $G_{k}^{*}=G\left(A_{k}^{*}\right)$.
Proof. Let $m$ be the smallest number in $G_{k}^{*}$ which is not in $G\left(A_{k}^{*}\right)$. We will show that $m$ is in a geometric progression with $k-1$ numbers in $G\left(A_{k}^{*}\right)$. This contradicts the definition of $G_{k}^{*}$, since $G_{k}^{*}$ is equal to $G\left(A_{k}^{*}\right)$ up to $m$, proving that no such $m$ exists.

Let $m=\prod_{j} p_{j}^{e_{j}} \prod_{l} q_{l}^{f_{l}}$, where the $e_{j}$ are in $A_{k}^{*}$, and the $f_{l}$ are not. Then for each $f_{l}$, there is an arithmetic progression $\left\{f_{l, 1}, f_{l, 2}, \ldots, f_{l, k}=f_{l}\right\}$ with $f_{l, 1}, \ldots, f_{l, k-1} \in$
$A_{k}^{*}$. Then

$$
\begin{gathered}
N_{1}=\prod_{j} p_{j}^{e_{j}} \prod_{l} q_{l}^{f_{l, 1}} \\
N_{2}=\prod_{j} p_{j}^{e_{j}} \prod_{l} q_{l}^{f_{l, 2}} \\
\vdots \\
N_{k-1}=\prod_{j} p_{j}^{e_{j}} \prod_{l} q_{l}^{f_{l, k-1}},
\end{gathered}
$$

together with $m$ would form a geometric progression. All of $N_{1}, \ldots, N_{k-1}$ are less than $m$ and in $G\left(A_{k}^{*}\right)$, and so are in $G_{k}^{*}$. They form an arithmetic progression with $m$, contradicting $m \in G_{k}^{*}$.

Rankin also gave a method to compute the density of a sequence $G(A) \in \operatorname{GPF}_{k}$ of the form (1). The Dirichlet series

$$
f_{G(A)}(s)=\sum_{n \in G} n^{-s}
$$

has the Euler product

$$
f_{G(A)}(s)=\prod_{p} F_{A}\left(p^{-s}\right)
$$

where, for $|x|<1$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{A}(x)=\sum_{q \in A} x^{q} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

When $k$ is prime, $A=A_{k}^{*}$ consists of numbers with no digits equal to $k-1$ base $k$, and (2) becomes

$$
\begin{aligned}
F_{A_{k}^{*}}(x) & =\prod_{v=0}^{\infty}\left(1+x^{k^{v}}+x^{2 k^{v}}+\cdots+x^{(k-2) k^{v}}\right) \\
& =\prod_{v=0}^{\infty} \frac{1-x^{(k-1) k^{v}}}{1-x^{k^{v}}}
\end{aligned}
$$

which implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{G_{k}^{*}}(s)=\prod_{v=0}^{\infty} \frac{\zeta\left(k^{v} s\right)}{\zeta\left((k-1) k^{v} s\right)} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The asymptotic density of $G$ equals the residue at $s=1$ of $f_{G}(s)$. For $G=G_{3}^{*}$, this is 0.7197 (Rankin gave the same sequence). Even for composite $k$, where there is no known closed form for $f_{G_{k}^{*}}(s)$, we may still compute the residue to any desired precision. For example, for $k=4, A_{4}^{*}=\{0,1,2,4,5, \ldots\}$, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{G_{4}^{*}}(s) & =\prod_{p}\left(1+p^{-s}+p^{-2 s}+p^{-4 s}+\cdots\right) \\
& =\zeta(s) \prod_{p}\left(1-p^{-3 s}+p^{-4 s}-p^{-6 s}+\cdots\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

which has residue $\approx 0.895$.

This is better than the density $0.8626 \mathrm{GPF}_{4}$ sequence Rankin found. In fact, we can show that the greedy sequence is the best of the form (1):

Theorem 3. If $G=G\left(A_{k}\right)$ for $k \geq 3$ and some $\mathrm{APF}_{k}$ sequence $A_{k}$, then its density is no greater than the greedy sequence.
Proof. Any sequence $G=G(A)$ has a Dirichlet series of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{G}(s)=\prod_{p}\left(a_{0}+a_{1} p^{-s}+a_{2} p^{-2 s}+\cdots\right) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a_{i}=1$ if $i \in A$, and $a_{i}=0$ otherwise. As stated above, the residue at $s=1$ of this function gives the density of the corresponding sequence.

Suppose there is another sequence $A^{\prime}$ for which $G^{\prime}=G\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ has density greater than the greedy sequence $G(A)$. Let $a_{i}^{\prime}$ be the coefficients for the Dirichlet series $f_{G^{\prime}}(s)$. The density of $G^{\prime}$ is greater than $G$ if and only if the residue of $f_{G^{\prime}}(s)$ at $s=1$ is greater than the residue of $f_{G}(s)$.

At some point $A^{\prime}$ diverges from the greedy sequence, and we have $a_{i}=1$ and $a_{i}^{\prime}=0$ for some $i$. Let $H$ be the greedy sequence truncated at $i$, and $H^{\prime}$ be the same sequence with $i$ removed and containing all $j>i$. Then $H$ has density less than $G$ and $H^{\prime}$ has density greater than $G^{\prime}$, so it suffices to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{H}(s)=\prod_{p}\left(a_{0}+a_{1} p^{-s}+\cdots+a_{i-1} p^{-(i-1) s}+p^{-i s}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

has a larger residue at $s=1$ than

$$
\begin{align*}
f_{H^{\prime}}(s) & =\prod_{p}\left(a_{0}+\cdots+a_{i-1} p^{-(i-1) s}+p^{i+1) s}+p^{-(i+2) s}+\cdots\right) \\
& =\prod_{p}\left(a_{0}+\cdots+a_{i-1} p^{-(i-1) s}+\frac{p^{-(i+1) s}}{1-p^{-s}}\right) . \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

This is equivalent to showing that

$$
\lim _{s \rightarrow 1} \frac{f_{H}(s)}{f_{H^{\prime}}(s)}>1
$$

But this is obvious, since for $p=2$ the terms in (5) and (6) are equal at $s=1$, and for all $p>2$ and $s \geq 1$ the term in (5) is larger.

This leaves open the question of whether geometric progression-free sequences not of the form (1) have better density than greedy sequences. They can certainly do better over finite ranges; the greedy $\mathrm{GPF}_{3}$ sequence:

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 10 | 11 | 13 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 19 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 26 |
| 27 | 29 | 30 | 31 | 33 | 34 | 35 | 37 | 38 | 39 |
| 40 | 41 | 42 | 43 | 46 |  |  |  |  |  |

may be improved by removing 5 and adding 25 and 45 .

## 3. Upper bounds

It is easy to show that the density of a $\mathrm{GPF}_{k}$ sequence is strictly less than one:
Theorem 4. For any $k \geq 3$, the density of a sequence in $\mathrm{GPF}_{k}$ is at most $1-2^{-k}$.
Proof. For any $N$, let $a$ be an odd number less than $N / 2^{k-1}$. Then the $k$ numbers $a, 2 a, 4 a, \ldots, 2^{k-1} a$ cannot all appear in a $\mathrm{GPF}_{k}$ sequence. There are $N / 2^{k}$ different $a$ 's, so this excludes $N / 2^{k}$ numbers less than $N$ from the sequence.

Theorem 4 can be improved slightly:
Theorem 5. For any $k \geq 3$, the density of a sequence in $\mathrm{GPF}_{k}$ is at most

$$
1-2^{-k}-\frac{5^{-(k-1)}-6^{-(k-1)}}{2}
$$

Proof. Let $b$ be an odd number, $N / 6^{k-1}<b<N / 5^{k-1}$. Then the numbers $3^{k-1} b, 3^{k-2} 5 b, \ldots, 5^{k-1} b$ cannot all appear in the sequence. There are $N /\left(2 \cdot 5^{k-1}\right)-$ $N /\left(2 \cdot 6^{k-1}\right)$ such $b$ 's, and none of them are the numbers $a, 2 a, \ldots, 2^{k-1} a$ from Theorem 4, since they are all odd, and $3^{k-1} b>a$ for $a$ and $b$ in the ranges chosen. Moreover, since $6^{k-1} / 5^{k-1}<5 / 3$, the numbers $3^{k-1} b, 3^{k-2} 5 b, \ldots, 5^{k-1} b$ are distinct for different $b$ in the range.

Table 2. Densities for geometric progression-free sequences

| $k$ | greedy density | upper bound |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | 0.71974 | 0.868889 |
| 4 | 0.89537 | 0.935815 |
| 5 | 0.95805 | 0.968336 |
| 6 | 0.98085 | 0.984279 |
| 7 | 0.99116 | 0.992166 |

The bounds can be further improved by taking fractions of larger primes over smaller ranges, but the improvements become marginal very quickly.

Table 2 gives the best known upper and lower bounds for the density of sequences in $\mathrm{GPF}_{k}$ for $k \leq 7$. For $k=3$ and 4 they are still far apart, but as $k$ gets large they approach each other.

Theorem 6. As $k \rightarrow \infty$, the optimal density for a sequence in $\mathrm{GPF}_{k}$ is $1-$ $2^{-k}(1-o(1))$.
Proof. From Theorem 4, we have that the density is no greater than $1-2^{-k}$. Therefore, it suffices to show that the greedy sequence $G\left(A_{k}\right)$ has the stated density.

It is easy to see that the greedy $\mathrm{APF}_{k}$ sequence $A_{k}$ starts off

$$
\{0,1, \ldots, k-2, k, k+1, \ldots, 2 k-3,2 k-1\}
$$

for $k$ even and

$$
\{0,1, \ldots, k-2, k, k+1, \ldots, 2 k-2,2 k\}
$$

for $k>3$ odd. For simplicity, we will handle the odd case (the even case is virtually identical). The density of $G\left(A_{k}\right)$ is the residue at $s=1$ of

$$
\begin{aligned}
\prod_{p} & \left(1+p^{-s}+\cdots+p^{-(k-2) s}+p^{-k s}+\cdots+p^{-(2 k-2) s}+p^{-2 k s}+\cdots\right) \\
& =\prod_{p} \frac{1}{1-p^{-s}}\left(1-p^{-(k-1) s}+p^{-k s}-p^{-(2 k-1) s}+\cdots\right) \\
& =\zeta(s) \prod_{p}\left(1-p^{-(k-1) s}+p^{-k s}-p^{-(2 k-1) s}+\cdots\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The residue of $\zeta(s)$ is one, so the density is

$$
\begin{aligned}
\prod_{p} & \left(1-p^{-(k-1)}+p^{-k}-p^{-(2 k-1)}+\cdots\right) \\
& \geq\left(1-2^{-k}-2^{-(2 k-1)}\right) \prod_{p>2}\left(1-p^{-(k-1)}\right) \\
& =\frac{1-2^{-k}-2^{-(2 k-1)}}{\left(1-2^{-(k-1)}\right) \zeta(k-1)}
\end{aligned}
$$

For large $k$, we have $\zeta(k-1) \rightarrow 1+2^{-(k-1)}$, and the density becomes

$$
1-2^{-k}(1-o(1))
$$

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