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# ASYMPTOTIC DENSITIES OF SETS OF POSITIVE INTEGERS 

## TIBOR ŠALÁT-ROBERT TIJDEMAN

## 1. Introduction.

Let $N$ denote the set of all positive integers and let $2^{N}$ be the set of all subsets of $N$. For $A \subset N$ we define the counting function $A(n)=\sum_{a \in A: a \leq n} 1$, the asymptotic lower density $\underline{\mathrm{d}}(A)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf n^{-1} A(n)$ and the asymptotic upper density $\overline{\mathrm{d}}(A)=$ $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup n^{-1} A(n)$. If $\underline{d}(A)=\overline{\mathrm{d}}(A)$, then we call this value the asymptotic density, $\mathrm{d}(\boldsymbol{A})$, of $\boldsymbol{A}$.

A set function $v: 2^{N} \rightarrow R$ is said to have the the property $\mathbf{P}$ if for every pair $A, B \subset N$ with the $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} A(n) / B(n)=t$ one has $v(A) / v(B)=t$. It is obvious that both $\underline{d}$ and $\bar{d}$ and $d$ posses the property $P$. Here we shall show that every density measure has the property $\mathbf{P}$.

Using the well-known theorem of Hahn and Banach, the set function d which is defined on the sets having asymptotic density can be extended to a finitely additive measure $\mu$ defined on all subsets of $N$ (cf. [1], p. 231). We call such a measure $\mu$ a density measure on $2^{N}$. (Thus if $A \cap B=\emptyset$, then $\mu(A \cup B)=\mu(A)+\mu(B)$ ). Density measures have been studied by several authors, see, e. g. R. C. Buck [2], [3], R. B. Deal [4] and D. Maharam [7], [8]. The last mentioned author ([7], p. 174) proved that for every $A \subset N$ and $t \in R$ with $0 \leqq t \leqq 1$, there exists a subset $B$ of $A$ with $\mu(B)=t \mu(A)$. Lemma 1 states the simple fact that for given $A \subset N$ and $t$ with $0 \leqq t \leqq 1$ there exists a subset $B$ of $A$ with $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} B(n) / A(n)=t$. The following can therefore be considered as a generalization of the result of Maharam.

Theorem 1. Let $\mu$ be any density measure on $2^{N}$. Let $A$ and $B$ be subsets of $N$ with $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} A(n) / B(n)=t$. Then $\mu(A)=t \mu(B)$.

Thus every density measure on $2^{N}$ has the property $\mathbf{P}$.

If a set function has the property $\mathbf{P}$, then almost all subsets of a given set have a measure which is equal to one half of the measure of the original set. To be more precise, let $A=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ be a given infinite set of positive integers with $a_{1}<a_{2} \ldots$. Let $S(A)$ be the set of all infinite subsets of $A$. To the subset $B=\left\{a_{k_{1}}, a_{k_{2}}, \ldots\right\}$ with $k_{1}<k_{2}<\ldots$ we adjoin the number $\varrho(B)=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 2^{-k_{j}}$. Hence, $\varrho$ is a one-to-one mapping of $S(A)$ onto $(0,1\rangle$. For $0<x \leqq 1$ we denote the uniquely determined subset $\varrho^{-1}(x)$ of $A$ by $A_{x}$. The mapping $\varrho^{-1}$ transfers the Lebesgue measure on ( 0,1$\rangle$ to a measute on $S(A)$. The above mentioned assertion is expressed more precisely by the following result.

Theorem 2. Let $v$ be a set function of $2^{N}$ having the property $\mathbf{P}$. Let $A$ an infinite set of positive integers. Then $v\left(A_{x}\right)=\frac{1}{2} v(A)$ for almost all $x \in(0,1\rangle$.

For $v$ one can take $\mathrm{d}, \overline{\mathrm{d}}$ or any density measure $\mu$. It follows that the measure of the set of $x$ with $v\left(A_{x}\right)=t v(A)$ and $t \neq \frac{1}{2}$ is 0 . The concept of the Hausdorff dimension is useful for measuring such sets. For simplicity we restrict ourselves to sets having asymptotic density. Let dim $C$ denote the Hausdorff dimension of $C$ and put $h(0=h(1)=0$ and

$$
h(t)=-\frac{t \log t+(1-t) \log (1-t)}{\log 2}, \quad 0<t<1
$$

Theorem 3. Let $A$ be a set of positive integers with $\mathrm{d}(A)=d>0$. Let $0 \leqq t \leqq 1$. Let $W(t)$ be the set of all $x \in(0,1\rangle$ for which $\mathrm{d}\left(A_{x}\right)$ exists and equals $t d$. Then $\operatorname{dim} W(t)=h(t)$.

Closely related is the following result.
Theorem 4. Let $A$ be a set of positive integers with $\mathrm{d}(A)=d>0$. Let $0 \leqq t \leqq 1$. Let $Z(t)$ be the set of all $x \in(0,1)$ for which dt is a limit point of the sequence $\left\{n^{-1} A_{x}(n)\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. Then $\operatorname{dim} Z(t)=h(t)$. Further, if $0<\xi \leqq \frac{1}{2}$, then $\operatorname{dim} \bigcup_{0 \leqq 1 \leq 5} Z(t)=$ $h(t)$.

Our final result has more topological character and is closely related to the main result of T. Šalát [11]. We denote the set of all limit points of sequence $\left\{a_{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ by $\left\{a_{n}\right\}_{n}^{\prime}$.

Theorem 5. Let $\overline{\mathrm{d}}(A)=\alpha>0$. Then the set of all $x \in(0,1)$ for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{\frac{A_{x}(n)}{n}\right\}_{n}^{\prime}=\langle 0, \alpha\rangle \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a residual set in $(0,1\rangle$.

Corollary. If $\overline{\mathrm{d}}(A)>0$, then the set $H$ of all $x \in(0,1\rangle$ for which $A_{x}$ has an asymptotic density, is a set of the first Baire category in ( 0,1$\rangle$.

We refer to G. Grekos [5] for a precise and elegant characterization of the possibilities of the asymptotic density of a subset of a given set $\boldsymbol{A}$.

Before giving proofs of the above mentioned assertions we define two other properties of a set function $v$ on $2^{N}$.
a) If $A(n) \geqq B(n)$ for all $n$, then $v(A) \geqq v(B)$.
b) If $A, B \subset N$ and $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} A(n) / B(t n)=1$, then $v(A)=t \cdot v(B)$.

It is obvious that both $\underline{d}$ and $\bar{d}$ have these properties. It is an open problem whether every density measure possesses them, too. Our second author conjectures that there exists a density measure having a) and b), but that a) and b) are not a common property of all density measures.

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## 2. Some elementary properties of density measures

We derive some auxiliary results for the proof of Theorem 1. Throughout this section we assume that $\mu$ is a density measure on $2^{N}$ and that the elements of sets of positive integers are arranged in increasing order.

Lemma 1. Let $C \subset N$ be an infinite set and $0 \leqq t \leqq 1$. There exists a subset $D$ of $C$ such that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} D(n) / C(n)=t$.

Proof. We construct $D$ by induction. Suppose $D(n-1) \leqq t C(n-1)$. If $n \notin C$, then $n \notin D$. If $n \in C$ and $D(n-1)+1>t C(n)$, then $n \notin D$, otherwise $n \in D$. It is obvious that $D(n) \leqq t C(n)$ for every $n$. On the other hand, let $n \in N$ and let $m$ be the largest number with $m \leqq n, m \in C, m \notin D$. Then

$$
C(n)-D(n)=C(m)-D(m-1)<(1-t) C(m)+1 \leqq(1-t) C(n)+1
$$

Hence, $D(n)>t C(n)-1$. Thus

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{D(n)}{C(n)}=t
$$

Lemma 2. Let $A, B, C, D$ be subsets of $N$ with $D \subset A \cap B, A \cap C=\emptyset$ and $B \cap C=\emptyset$. Then

$$
\mu(A)-\mu(B)=\mu((A \cup C) \backslash D)-\mu((B \cup C) \backslash D)
$$

Proof. Since $\mu$ is finitely additive, we have

$$
\mu(A \backslash D)+\mu(D)=\mu(A), \quad \mu(B \backslash D)+\mu(D)=\mu(B)
$$

Hence, $\mu(A)-\mu(B)=\mu(A \backslash D)-\mu(B \backslash D)$. Similarly,

$$
\mu(A \backslash D)-\mu(B \backslash D)=\mu((A \backslash D) \cup C)-\mu((B \backslash D) \cup C)
$$

Since $C \cap D=\emptyset$, this gives the assertion.
Lemma 3. If $\boldsymbol{A}=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ and $B=\left\{b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ are disjoint subsets of $N$ such that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} A(n) / B(n)=1$, then $\mu(A)=\mu(B)$.
Proof. Let $\varepsilon>0$. Then

$$
(1-\varepsilon) A(n)<B(n)<(1+\varepsilon) A(n)
$$

for $n$ larger than some $p$. Put $D=A \cup B$. Then

$$
-\varepsilon n \leqq-\varepsilon A(n)<2 B(n)-D(n)<\varepsilon A(n) \leqq \varepsilon n
$$

for $n>p$. Put $E=\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots\right\}=N \backslash D$ and $C=\left\{e_{1}, e_{3}, \ldots, e_{2 k}, \ldots\right\}$. Then $0 \leqq 2 C(n)-E(n) \leqq 1$ for every $n$ in $N$. Hence,

$$
-\frac{\varepsilon n}{2} \leqq B(n)+C(n)-\frac{n}{2} \leqq \frac{\varepsilon n+1}{2}
$$

for $n>p$. Since $2 B(n)-D(n)=D(n)-2 A(n)$ for every $n$, we further have

$$
-\frac{\varepsilon n}{2} \leqq A(n)+C(n)-\frac{n}{2} \leqq \frac{\varepsilon n+1}{2}
$$

for $n>p$. Hence $\mathrm{d}(A \cup C)=\mathrm{d}(B \cup C)=\frac{1}{2}$. Since $\mu$ extends d , we obtain $\mu(A \cup C)$ $=\mu(B \cup C)=\frac{1}{2}$. By Lemma 2 we find

$$
\mu(A)-\mu(B)=\mu(A \cup C)-\mu(B \cup C)=0
$$

because $A \cap C=B \cap C=\emptyset$. This proves the assertion.
Lemma 4. If $A=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right\}, B=\left\{b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ are subsets of $N$ with $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} A(n) / B(n)=1$, then $\mu(A)=\mu(B)$.

Proof. We may assume that $B$ is an infinite set. Let us put $D=A \cap B$ with $D=\left\{d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots\right\}$. Put $D_{1}=\left\{d_{1}, d_{3}, \ldots, d_{2 k-1}, \ldots\right\}, D_{2}=\left\{d_{2}, d_{4}, \ldots, d_{2 k}, \ldots\right\}, A^{*}=$ $A \backslash D_{1}, B^{*}=B \backslash D_{2}$. Hence $A^{*} \cap B^{*}=A^{*} \cap D_{1}=B^{*} \cap D_{2}=D_{1} \cap D_{2}=\emptyset$. Furthermore $D_{1}(n) \leqq A^{*}(n)+1$ and $D_{2}(n) \leqq B^{*}(n)$ for every $n$. Observe that

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \leqq D_{1}(n)-D_{2}(n) \leqq 1 \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every $n$.
If $\left\{D_{1}(n)\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is bounded, then $\mu\left(D_{1}\right)=\mu\left(D_{2}\right)=0$. If $\left\{D_{1}(n)\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is unbounded,
then, by (2) $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} D_{1}(n) / D_{2}(n)=1$ and hence, by Lemma 3, $\mu\left(D_{1}\right)=\mu\left(D_{2}\right)$. Thus in both cases

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu\left(D_{1}\right)=\mu\left(D_{2}\right) . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is given that for every $\varepsilon>0$ there exists an $m$ such that $(1-\varepsilon) B(n)<A(n)<$ $(1+\varepsilon) B(n)$ for $n>m$. Hence, by (2),

$$
-1+(1-\varepsilon) B(n)-D_{2}(n)<A(n)-D_{1}(n)<(1+\varepsilon) B(n)-D_{2}(n) .
$$

It follows that

$$
(1-\varepsilon) B^{*}(n)-\varepsilon D_{2}(n)-1<A^{*}(n)<(1+\varepsilon\rangle B^{*}(n)+\varepsilon D_{2}(n)
$$

for $n>m$. Since $B^{*}(n) \geqq D_{2}(n), B^{*}(n)>\varepsilon^{-1}$ for $n$ larger than some constant $m^{\prime}$, we obtain

$$
1-3 \varepsilon<1-\varepsilon-\frac{\varepsilon D_{2}(n)}{B^{*}(n)}-\frac{1}{B^{*}(n)}<\frac{A^{*}(n)}{B^{*}(n)}<1+\varepsilon+\frac{\varepsilon D_{2}(n)}{B^{*}(n)} \leqq 1+2 \varepsilon
$$

for $n>\max \left\{m, m^{\prime}\right\}$. Thus $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} A^{*}(n) / B^{*}(n)=1$. By Lemma 3 we have $\mu\left(A^{*}\right)=$ $\mu\left(B^{*}\right)$. Recall that $A^{*} \cap D_{1}=B^{*} \cap D_{2}=\emptyset$. We conclude in view of (3)

$$
\mu(A)=\mu\left(A^{*} \cup D_{1}\right)=\mu\left(A^{*}\right)+\mu\left(D_{1}\right)=\mu\left(B^{*}\right)+\mu\left(D_{2}\right)=\mu(B) .
$$

Lemma 5. Let $p, q \in N$. Let $A=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ and $B=\left\{b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ be subsets of $N$ such that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} A(n) / B(n)=p / q$. Then $q \mu(A)=p \mu(B)$.

Proof. It follows from Lemma 4 that each pair of subsets

$$
\left\{a_{p+j}, a_{2 p+j}, a_{3 p+j}, \ldots\right\} \text { with } j \in\{1,2, \ldots, p\}
$$

has the same density measure. Hence, by the finite additivity of $\mu$ each subset has the density measure $\mu(A) / p$. In particular $\mu\left(A^{*}\right)=\mu(A) / p$, where $A^{*}=$ $\left\{a_{p}, a_{2 p}, a_{3 p}, \ldots\right\}$ and, similarly, $\mu\left(B^{*}\right)=\mu(B) / q$, where $B^{*}=\left\{b_{q}, b_{2 q}, b_{3 q}, \ldots\right\}$. Note that $A^{*}(n) \sim A(n) / p$ and $B^{*}(n) \sim B(n) / q$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Hence,

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{A^{*}(n)}{B^{*}(n)}=\frac{q}{p} \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{A(n)}{B(n)}=1
$$

A second application of Lemma 4 implies that $\mu\left(A^{*}\right)=\mu\left(B^{*}\right)$. Thus $\mu(A) / p=-$ $\mu(B) / q$.

## 3. Proof of Theorem 1

Let $\mu$ be some density measure on $2^{N}$ and let $A$ and $B$ be subsets of $N$ with $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} A(n) / B(n)=t$. If $A$ is a finite set and $t \neq 0$, then $B$ is finite, too. Therefore we can assume that $\boldsymbol{A}$ is an infinite set.

If $t=0$, then $A(n)=o(B(n))=o(B(n))=o(n)$ and hence $\mu(A)=\mathrm{d}(A)=0$.
Let $t \neq 0$. Let $p / q$ be any rational number with $t>p / q$. Then we can construct a subset $A^{*}$ of $A$ with $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} A^{*}(n) / B(n)=p / q$ by applying Lemma 1 . It follows from Lemma 5 that $q \mu\left(A^{*}\right)=p \mu(B)$. Since

$$
\mu(A)=\mu\left(A^{*}\right)+\mu\left(A \backslash A^{*}\right) \geqq\left(A^{*}\right),
$$

we obtain

$$
\mu(A) \geqq \mu\left(A^{*}\right)=\frac{p}{q} \mu(B) .
$$

This result holds for every rational number $p / q$ less than $t$. Hence $\mu(A) \geqq t \mu(B)$. On the other hand, $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} B(n) / A(n) \geqq t^{1}$. By the same argument

$$
\mu(B) \geqq t^{1} \mu(A) \text {. Thus } \mu(A)=t \mu(B)
$$

## 4. Proofs of Theorems 2,3 and 4

To understand the proofs it is important to note that $\left\{\boldsymbol{n}^{1} \cdot \boldsymbol{A}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(a_{n}\right)\right\}_{n-1}^{\infty}$ measures the relative density of $\boldsymbol{A}_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ with respect to $\boldsymbol{A}$ and it is therefore independent of the structure of $\boldsymbol{A}$ itself.

Denote by $E$ the set of all dyadically normal numbers from ( 0,1$\rangle$. A well-known theorem of Borel states that the Lebesgue measure of $E$ is 1 (cf. [9], Ch. 8). If $x \in E$, then

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\boldsymbol{A}_{x}\left(a_{n}\right)}{\boldsymbol{A}\left(a_{n}\right)}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\boldsymbol{A}_{x}\left(a_{n}\right)}{n}=\frac{1}{2} .
$$

Since $v$ has the property $\mathbf{P}$, we have $v\left(A_{x}\right) / v(A)=1 / 2$ for $x \in E$. Thus $v\left(A_{x}\right)=v(A) / 2$ for almost all $x$. This proves Theorem 2. $W(t)$ in Theorem 3 corresponds to the set of $x \in(0,1\rangle$ with

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\boldsymbol{A}_{x}\left(a_{n}\right)}{\boldsymbol{A}\left(a_{n}\right)}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{A_{x}\left(a_{n}\right)}{a_{n}} \cdot \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n}}{\boldsymbol{A}\left(a_{n}\right)}=d t d^{1}=t
$$

The Hausdorff dimension of this set is $h(t)$ (cf. [10], p. 195). This proves Theorem 3.

In order to prove Theorem 4 we first show that $Z(t)$ is precisely the set of numbers $\boldsymbol{x}$ for which $t$ is a limit point of the sequence $\left\{n^{-1} \boldsymbol{A}_{x}\left(a_{n}\right)\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$.

If $t$ is a limit point of $\left\{n^{-1} A_{x}\left(a_{n}\right)\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$, then there exists a sequence $\left\{n_{i}\right\}_{1=1}^{\infty}$ such that

$$
n_{i}^{-1} A_{x}\left(a_{n_{i}}\right) \rightarrow t \quad(i \rightarrow \infty)
$$

Hence

$$
a_{n_{i}}^{-1} A_{x}\left(a_{n_{i}}\right)=\frac{n_{i}}{a_{n_{i}}} \cdot \frac{A\left(a_{n_{i}}\right)}{n_{i}} \rightarrow d t(i \rightarrow \infty) .
$$

This implies that $d \cdot t$ is a limit point of the sequence

$$
\left\{n^{-1} A_{x}(n)\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty} .
$$

Conversely, suppose $d \cdot t$ is a limit point of

$$
\left\{n^{-1} A_{x}(n)\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \text {. Let } A=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right\}
$$

with elements in increasing order. There exists a sequence $\left\{k_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ such that $k_{1}^{-1} A_{x}\left(k_{i}\right) \rightarrow d \cdot t, i \rightarrow \infty$. For every $k_{t}$ there is an $n_{i}$ such that $a_{n_{i}} \leqq k_{i}<a_{n_{i}+1}$. We have $A_{x}\left(a_{n_{i}}\right)=A_{x}\left(k_{i}\right)$ and hence

$$
\frac{A_{x}\left(a_{n_{i}}\right)}{a_{n_{i}}} \cdot \frac{a_{n_{i}}}{a_{n_{i}+1}}<\frac{A_{x}\left(k_{i}\right)}{k_{i}} \leqq \frac{A_{x}\left(a_{n_{i}}\right)}{a_{n_{i}}} .
$$

Since

$$
\frac{a_{n_{i}}}{a_{n_{i}+1}}=\frac{a_{n_{i}}}{n_{i}} \cdot \frac{n_{i}}{n_{i}+1} \cdot \frac{n_{i}+1}{a_{n_{i}+1}}=d^{-1} \cdot 1 \cdot d=1
$$

as $i \rightarrow \infty$, we obtain

$$
\frac{A_{x}\left(a_{n_{i}}\right)}{a_{n_{i}}} \rightarrow d \cdot t \quad \text { as } \quad i \rightarrow \infty .
$$

It foliows that

$$
\frac{A_{x}\left(a_{n_{i}}\right)}{n_{i}}=\frac{A_{x}\left(a_{n_{i}}\right)}{a_{n_{i}}} \cdot \frac{a_{n_{i}}}{n_{i}} \rightarrow t \quad \text { as } \quad i \rightarrow \infty .
$$

We conclude that $t$ is a limit point of $\left\{n^{-1} A_{x}\left(a_{n}\right)\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. It is known that the Hausdorff dimension of the set

$$
\left\{x \in(0,1\rangle ; t \in\left\{n^{-1} A_{x}\left(a_{n}\right)\right\}^{\prime}\right\}
$$

is $h(t)$ (cf. [10], p. 195). This proves the first part of Theorem 4. The second part follows from the first part of the proof on using Theorem 7 of [10], p. 195.

## 5. Proof of Theorem 5

Let $D=\left\{k 2^{-n} ; k, n \in N, 0<k \leqq 2^{n}\right\}$. Put $X=(0,1\rangle \backslash D$. For $z \in(0, \alpha)$ denote by $M(z)$ the set of $x \in X$ for which $z \in\left\{n^{-1} A_{x}(n)\right\}_{n}^{\prime}$. For $k, n \in N$ put

$$
M(z, k, n)=\left\{x \in X ;\left|\frac{A_{x}(n)}{n}-z\right|<\frac{1}{k}\right\} .
$$

It follows from the construction of the dyadic expansions of real numbers that $\boldsymbol{M}(z, k, n)$ is a union of some sets of the form

$$
\left(\frac{j}{2^{n}}, \frac{j+1}{2^{n}}\right) \cap X \quad\left(0 \leqq j<2^{n}\right)
$$

Hence the set $M(z, k, n)$ is open in $X$. This implies that

$$
\boldsymbol{M}(z)=\bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n-1}^{\infty} \boldsymbol{M}(z, k, n)
$$

is a $G_{\delta}$-set in $X$.
We shall show that $M(z)$ is dense in $X$.
Let $x_{0}=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \varepsilon_{k}\left(x_{0}\right) 2^{-k}$ (non-terminating dyadic expansion of $x_{0}$ ), $x_{0} \in X, \eta>0$. Choose a positive integer $m$ such that $2^{-m}<\eta$. It follows from Lemma 1 that $A$ has a subset $A^{*}$ such that $\lim A^{*}(n) / A(n)=z / \alpha$. Hence $\overline{\mathrm{d}}\left(A^{*}\right)=z$. Let $A^{*}=$ $\left\{a_{k_{1}}, a_{k_{2}}, \ldots\right\}$ with $a_{k_{1}}<a_{k_{2}}<\ldots$. Put

$$
\varepsilon_{j}=\begin{array}{ll}
\varepsilon_{l}\left(x_{0}\right) & \text { for } j \leqq m \\
0 & \text { for } j \neq k_{1}(i=1,2, \ldots) \\
1 & \text { for } j>m, j=k_{i} \text { for some } i
\end{array}
$$

Put $x=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \varepsilon, 2^{-1} \in(0,1\rangle$. Since $\overline{\mathrm{d}}\left(A^{*}\right)=z$ we have $x \in M(z)$. According to the choice of $m$ we have $\left|x-x_{0}\right|<\eta$. Thus $M(z)$ is dense in $X$. Since $M(z)$ is a dense $G_{\delta}$-set in $X$, it is residual in $X$ (cf. [6], p. 49).

Now let $Z \subset(0, \alpha)$ be a countable dense set in ( $0, \alpha$ ). Then it follows that $M=\bigcap_{z \in Z} M(z)$ is residual in $X$. Since $(0,1\rangle \backslash X$ is countable, the set $M$ is also residual in $(0,1\rangle$. This finishes the proof, for (1) holds for every $x \in M$.

Proof of the Corollary. The set $H$ is a subset of the set $H^{*}$ of all $x \in(0,1\rangle$ for which (1) does not hold. According to Theorem 5 the set $H^{*}$ is a set of the first category in $(0,1)$. Thus $H$ is also a set of the first category in $(0,1\rangle$.

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АСИМПТОТИЧЕСКИЕ ПЛОТНОСТИ МНОЖЕСТВ НАТУРАЛЬНЫХ ЧИСЕЛ
Tibor Šalát-Robert Tijdeman
Резюме
В работе рассматриваются свойства конечно-аддитивных мер на $2^{N}$ в связи с асимптотическими плотностями множеств $A \subset N=\{1,2, \ldots, n, \ldots\}$.

