

## Notes

### 106.31 What proportion of square-free numbers are divisible by 2? or by 30 but not by 7?

In 1885 Gegenbauer proved that the natural density of the set of square-free integers, i.e., the proportion of natural numbers which are square-free, is  $6/\pi^2$  [1, Theorem 333; reference on page 272]. In 2008 J. A. Scott conjectured that the proportion of natural numbers which are odd square-free numbers is  $4/\pi^2$  or, equivalently, the proportion of natural numbers which are square-free and divisible by 2 is  $2/\pi^2$  [2]. The conjecture was proven in 2010 by G. J. O. Jameson, in an argument adapted from one computing the natural density of the set of all square-free numbers [3]. In this note we give a simple elementary argument which uses the classical result for all square-free numbers to reprove Jameson’s result and in fact to generalise it:

*Theorem:* Let  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k$  be distinct primes and  $0 \leq i \leq k$ . Then the proportion of all natural numbers which are square-free and for all  $1 \leq j \leq k$  are divisible by  $p_j$  if, and only if,  $j \leq i$  is

$$\frac{6}{\pi^2} \prod_{1 \leq j \leq k} \frac{1}{p_j + 1} \prod_{k \geq j > i} p_j.$$

The term *numbers* will always refer to positive integers. Empty products, such as  $\prod_{k > j > k} p_j$ , are understood to equal 1.

*Example 1:* Set  $k = 1$  and  $p_1 = 2$ . Setting  $i = 0$  in the theorem we see that the natural density of the set of odd square-free numbers is  $\frac{6}{\pi^2} \frac{2}{2+1} = \frac{4}{\pi^2}$ ; taking  $i = 1$  we see that the natural density of the set of even square-free numbers is  $\frac{6}{\pi^2} \frac{1}{2+1} = \frac{2}{\pi^2}$ . Thus one third of the square-free numbers are even and two thirds are odd. (These are Jameson’s results of course.)

*Example 2:* Set  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k = 2, 3, 5, 7$  and  $i = 3$  in the theorem. Then the theorem says that the natural density of the set of square-free numbers divisible by 30 but not by 7 is  $\frac{6}{\pi^2} \frac{1}{2+1} \frac{1}{3+1} \frac{1}{5+1} \frac{7}{7+1}$ , so the proportion of square-free numbers which are divisible by 30 but not by 7 is  $\frac{1}{2+1} \frac{1}{3+1} \frac{1}{5+1} \frac{7}{7+1} = \frac{7}{576}$ .

For any real number  $x$  and set  $B$  of numbers, we let  $B[x]$  denote the number of elements  $t$  of  $B$  with  $t \leq x$ . Recall that if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{B[x]}{x}$  exists, then it is by definition the *natural density* of  $B$  [4, Definition 11.1].

Let  $A$  denote the set of square-free numbers. Suppose  $r$  and  $s$  are relatively prime square-free numbers. Then we let  $A(r, s)$  denote the set of

elements of  $A$  which are divisible by  $r$  and relatively prime to  $s$  (so, for example,  $A = A(1, 1)$ ). The set of square-free numbers analysed in the theorem is  $A(p_1 p_2 \dots p_i, p_{i+1} p_{i+2} \dots p_k)$ .

*Lemma 1:* For  $r, s$  and  $x$  as above, we have  $A(r, s)[x] = A(rs, 1)[xs]$ .

*Proof:* This is immediate from the fact that multiplication by  $s$  gives a bijection from the set of elements of  $A(r, s)$  less than or equal to  $x$  to the set of elements of  $A(rs, 1)$  less than or equal to  $xs$ .

This lemma implies that the calculation of the natural density of the sets  $A(r, s)$  reduces to the calculation of the natural density of the sets of the form  $A(t, 1)$ . More precisely we have

*Lemma 2:* If the set  $A(rs, 1)$  has natural density  $D$ , then the set  $A(r, s)$  has natural density  $sD$ .

*Proof:* The previous lemma tells us that

$$\frac{A(r, s)[x]}{x} = s \frac{A(rs, 1)[xs]}{xs}$$

The lemma follows from taking the limit as  $x$  (and hence  $xs$ ) goes to infinity.

The theorem itself will follow from the previous lemma if we can prove the theorem in the case of sets of the form  $A(t, 1)$ . The theorem in this case is proved by induction on  $k$ ; thus the next lemma completes the proof of the theorem since it gives the required induction step.

*Lemma 3:* Let  $p$  be a prime number not dividing the square-free number  $t$ . If the set  $A(t, 1)$  has natural density  $D$ , then the set  $A(pt, 1)$  has natural density  $\frac{1}{p+1}D$ .

*Proof:* For any real number  $x$  we set  $E(x) = A(pt, 1)[x]$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . The lemma says that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{E(x)}{x} = \frac{1}{p+1}D$$

Therefore it suffices to show for all choices of  $\epsilon$  above that, for all sufficiently large  $x$  (depending on  $\epsilon$ ),

$$\left| \frac{E(x)}{x} - \frac{1}{p+1}D \right| < \epsilon$$

Note that  $A(t, 1)$  is the disjoint union of  $A(tp, 1)$  and  $A(t, p)$ . Hence by Lemma 1 for any real number  $x$ ,

$$A(t, 1)\left[\frac{x}{p}\right] = E\left(\frac{x}{p}\right) + E(x)$$

and so by the definition of  $D$  there exists a number  $M$  such that if  $x > M$

then

$$\left| \frac{E(x)}{x/p} + \frac{E(x/p)}{x/p} - D \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}.$$

We next pick an even integer  $k$  such that  $\frac{1}{p^k} < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$ . Then

$$\left| E\left(\frac{x}{p^k}\right) \right| \leq \frac{x}{p^k} < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}x \tag{1}$$

and also (using the usual formula for summing a geometric series)

$$\begin{aligned} \left| -Dx \sum_{i=1}^k \left(-\frac{1}{p}\right)^i - Dx \frac{1}{p+1} \right| &= Dx \left| \frac{\left(-\frac{1}{p}\right) - \left(-\frac{1}{p}\right)^{k+1}}{1 - \left(-\frac{1}{p}\right)} + \frac{1}{p+1} \right| \\ &= Dx \left| \frac{-1 + \frac{1}{p^k}}{p+1} + \frac{1}{p+1} \right| < \frac{1}{p^k} Dx < \frac{\varepsilon}{3} Dx < \frac{\varepsilon}{3} x. \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

Now suppose that  $x > p^k M$ . Then for all  $i \leq k$  we have  $x/p^i > M$  and hence (applying the choice of  $M$  above),

$$\left| E(x) + E\left(\frac{x}{p}\right) - D\frac{x}{p} \right| < \frac{\varepsilon x}{3p} \tag{3}$$

and similarly

$$\left| -E\left(\frac{x}{p}\right) - E\left(\frac{x}{p^2}\right) + D\frac{x}{p^2} \right| < \frac{\varepsilon x}{3p^2}$$

and

$$\left| E\left(\frac{x}{p^2}\right) + E\left(\frac{x}{p^3}\right) - D\frac{x}{p^3} \right| < \frac{\varepsilon x}{3p^3}$$

and

$$\left| -E\left(\frac{x}{p^3}\right) - E\left(\frac{x}{p^4}\right) + D\frac{x}{p^4} \right| < \frac{\varepsilon x}{3p^4}$$

⋮

$$\left| -E\left(\frac{x}{p^{k-1}}\right) - E\left(\frac{x}{p^k}\right) + D\frac{x}{p^k} \right| < \frac{\varepsilon x}{3p^k}. \tag{4}$$

Using the triangle inequality to combine the inequalities (1) and (2) together with all those between (3) and (4) (inclusive) and dividing through by  $x$ , we can conclude that

$$\left| \frac{E(x)}{x} - \frac{1}{p+1} D \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3} \left( \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{p^i} \right) + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} < \varepsilon,$$

which was to be proved.

*Remark 1:* In the language of probability theory, the theorem says that the probability that a number in  $A$  is divisible by a prime  $p$  is  $1/(p + 1)$  (so the probability that it is not is  $p/(p + 1)$ ) and, moreover, for any finite set  $S$  of primes not equal to  $p$ , being divisible by  $p$  is independent of being divisible by all of the elements of  $S$ .

*Remark 2:* If we only know that  $A$  has a natural density (but not its value  $6/\pi^2$ ), then the arguments above can still be used to compute the proportion of square-free numbers which are in  $A(r, s)$  for any numbers  $r, s$  which are relatively prime.

*Remark 3:* One can generalise the Theorem and give a simple formula for the natural density of the set of square-free numbers which are divisible by each of the elements in a finite set of primes and not divisible by any of the elements in a possibly infinite second set of primes (disjoint from the first of course). For example, the formula would imply that the set of square-free numbers which are not divisible by any of the infinite number of primes congruent to 1 modulo 4 has natural density 0 [5].

### References

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## 106.32 Pentagonal numbers and their relationships to other figurate numbers

*Proposition:* Where  $P_n, T_n, h_n$  and  $S_n$  stand for the  $n$ th pentagonal number, the  $n$ th triangular number, the  $n$ th hexagonal number, and the  $n$ th star number, respectively; for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , the following identities hold:

$$\begin{array}{lll} 2P_n = h_n + (2n - 1) & P_n + P_{n+1} + n = h_{n+1} & 3P_n = T_{3n-1} \\ 4P_n + n = P_{2n} & 6P_n = h_{2n} - h_n & 12P_n = S_{2n} - S_n \end{array}$$