

## Common expansions in noninteger bases

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*Dedicated to Professor Zoltán Daróczy on his 75th birthday*

**Abstract.** In this paper we study the existence of simultaneous representations of real numbers in bases  $p > q > 1$  with the digit set  $A = \{-m, \dots, 0, \dots, m\}$ . We prove among others that if  $q < (1 + \sqrt{8m+1})/2$ , then there is a continuum of sequences  $(c_i) \in A^\infty$  satisfying  $\sum_{i=1}^\infty c_i q^{-i} = \sum_{i=1}^\infty c_i p^{-i}$ . On the other hand, if  $q \geq m+1 + \sqrt{m(m+1)}$ , then only the trivial sequence  $(c_i) = 0^\infty$  satisfies the former equality.

### 1. Introduction

Given a finite *alphabet* or *digit set*  $A$  of real numbers and a real *base*  $q > 1$ , by an *expansion* of a real number  $x$  we mean a sequence  $c = (c_i) \in A^\infty$  satisfying the equality

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_i}{q^i} = x.$$

This concept was introduced by RÉNYI [10] as a generalization of the radix representation of integers.

Given two different bases  $p, q$  we wonder whether there exist real numbers having the same expansions in both bases:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_i}{q^i} = x = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_i}{p^i}. \quad (1)$$

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In case  $0 \in A$  a trivial example is  $x = 0$  with  $(c_i) = 0^\infty$ . If the alphabet  $A$  contains no pair of digits with opposite signs, then this is the only such example. Indeed, if for instance all digits are nonnegative and  $0^\infty \neq (c_i) \in A^\infty$ , then for  $p > q$  we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_i}{p^i} < \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_i}{q^i}$$

by an elementary monotonicity argument.

Even if the alphabet  $A$  contains digits of opposite signs, the existence of *common expansions* (1) seems to be a rare event.

Similar phenomena appears with the common radix representation. IN-DLEKOFER, KÁTAI and RACSKÓ [4] called  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{Z}^d$  *simultaneously representable* by  $\mathbf{q} \in \mathbb{Z}^d$ , if there exist integers  $0 \leq m_0, \dots, m_\ell < Q := |q_1 \cdots q_d|$  such that

$$a_i = \sum_{j=0}^{\ell} m_j q_i^j, \quad i = 1, \dots, d.$$

If  $q_1, \dots, q_d > 0$  then apart from the zero vector no integer vectors are simultaneously representable by  $\mathbf{q}$ . If, however, some of the base numbers are negative, then simultaneous representations may appear. For example take  $q_1 = -2$  and  $q_2 = -3$  then we have  $(101)_{10} = (1431335045)_{-2} = (1431335045)_{-3}$ . Changing the sign of the “digits” with odd position we get a common representation of 101 in bases 2 and 3 with digits from  $\{-6, \dots, 0, \dots, 6\}$ . PETHŐ [8] gave a criterion of simultaneous representability on the one hand with the Chinese remainder theorem and, on the other hand with CNS polynomials. A similar result was proved by KANE [7].

No results on simultaneous representability of real numbers in non-integer bases seem to have appeared in the literature. In this paper we start such a study by investigating the case of the special alphabets  $A = \{-m, \dots, 0, \dots, m\}$  for some given integer  $m \geq 1$ . Let us denote by  $C(p, q)$  the set of sequences  $(c_i) \in A^\infty$  satisfying

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_i}{q^i} = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_i}{p^i}. \quad (2)$$

We call  $C(p, q)$  *trivial* if its only element is the null sequence.

Our main result is the following:

**Theorem 1.** *Let  $p > q > 1$ .*

- (i) *If  $q < (1 + \sqrt{8m+1})/2$ , then  $C(p, q)$  has the power of continuum.*
- (ii) *If  $(1 + \sqrt{8m+1})/2 \leq q \leq m+1$ , then  $C(p, q)$  is infinite.*

(iii) Let  $m + 1 < q \leq 2m + 1$ .

(a) If

$$p \leq \frac{(m+1)(q-1)}{q-m-1}, \quad (3)$$

then  $C(p, q)$  is nontrivial.

(b) If

$$p > \frac{(m+1)(q-1)}{q-m-1}, \quad (4)$$

then  $C(p, q)$  is trivial.

(iv) Let  $2m + 1 < q < m + 1 + \sqrt{m(m+1)}$ .

(a)  $C(p, q)$  is a finite set.

(b) There is a continuum of values  $p > q$  for which  $C(p, q)$  is nontrivial.

(c) If  $p > q$  satisfies (4), then  $C(p, q)$  is trivial.

(v) If  $q \geq m + 1 + \sqrt{m(m+1)}$ , then  $C(p, q)$  is trivial.

*Remark 2.*

(i) The proof of (iii) (a) will also show that if  $m + 1 < q \leq 2m + 1$ , and

$$\frac{1}{m} \leq \frac{1}{q-1} + \left( \frac{1}{q-1} - \frac{1}{p-1} \right) \frac{q^n}{p^n - q^n}$$

for some positive integer  $n$ , then  $C(p, q)$  has at least  $n + 1$  elements. For  $n = 1$  this condition reduces to (3).

Furthermore, we show in Remark 7 that the right side of this inequality is a decreasing function of  $p$ , so that the solutions  $p$  of the inequality form a half-closed interval  $(q, p_n]$ . (We have clearly  $p_1 > p_2 > \dots$ .)

(ii) The proof of (iv) (a) will show more precisely that if  $q > m + 1$  and

$$\frac{1}{2m} > \frac{1}{q-1} + \left( \frac{1}{q-1} - \frac{1}{p-1} \right) \frac{q^n}{p^n - q^n}$$

for some positive integer  $n$ , then  $C(p, q)$  has at most  $(2m + 1)^n$  elements.

## 2. Proofs

We begin by establishing some auxiliary results.

Interval filling sequences play an important role in establishing the existence of various kinds of representations of real numbers; see, e.g., DARÓCZY, JÁRAI and KÁTAI [1], DARÓCZY and KÁTAI [2]. We also need such a result here: a variant of a classical theorem of KAKEYA [5], [6] (see also [9], Part 1, Exercise 131):

**Proposition 3.** Let  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} r_k$  be a convergent series of positive numbers, satisfying the inequalities

$$r_n \leq 2m \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} r_k \quad (5)$$

for all  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . Then the sums

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_k r_k, \quad (c_k) \in A^{\infty} \quad (6)$$

fill the interval

$$\left[ -m \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} r_k, m \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} r_k \right]. \quad (7)$$

PROOF. It is clear that all sums (6) belong to the interval (7). Conversely, for each given  $x$  in this interval we define a sequence  $(c_k) \in A^{\infty}$  by the following greedy algorithm. If  $c_1, \dots, c_{n-1}$  are already defined (no assumption if  $n = 1$ ), then let  $c_n$  be the largest element of  $A$  such that

$$\left( \sum_{k=1}^n c_k r_k \right) - m \left( \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} r_k \right) \leq x.$$

Letting  $n \rightarrow \infty$  it follows that  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_k r_k \leq x$ . It remains to prove the converse inequality. This is obvious if  $c_k = m$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  because then

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_k r_k = m \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} r_k \geq x$$

by the choice of  $x$ .

If  $c_n < m$  for infinitely many indices, then

$$\left( \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} c_k r_k \right) + m r_n - m \left( \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} r_k \right) > x$$

for all such indices, and letting  $n \rightarrow \infty$  we conclude that  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_k r_k \geq x$ .

The proof will be complete if we show that  $(c_k)$  cannot have a last term  $c_n < m$ , i.e., an index  $n$  such that  $c_n = j < m$ , and  $c_k = m$  for all  $k > n$ . Assume on the contrary that there exists such an index  $n$ . Then we have

$$\left( \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} c_k r_k \right) + j r_n + m \left( \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} r_k \right) \leq x$$

and

$$\left( \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} c_k r_k \right) + (j+1)r_n - m \left( \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} r_k \right) > x$$

by construction. Hence

$$r_n > 2m \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} r_k,$$

contradicting (5).  $\square$

We also need two technical lemmas.

**Lemma 4.** *If  $1 < q < (1 + \sqrt{8m+1})/2$  and  $p > q$ , then the sequence  $(r_k) := (q^{-i} - p^{-i})_{i \in \mathbb{N} \setminus n\mathbb{N}}$  satisfies (5) for all sufficiently large integers  $n$ .*

PROOF. Fix a sufficiently large integer  $n$  such that

$$\frac{1}{2m} < \frac{1}{q(q-1)} - \frac{1}{q(q^n-1)}.$$

This is possible by our assumption on  $q$ , because we have the following equivalences for  $m > 0$  and  $q > 1$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2m} < \frac{1}{q(q-1)} &\iff 4q(q-1) < 8m \\ &\iff (2q-1)^2 < 8m+1 \\ &\iff 2q-1 < \sqrt{8m+1} \\ &\iff q < (1 + \sqrt{8m+1})/2. \end{aligned}$$

Now, if

$$r_{h'} = q^{-h} - p^{-h} = q^{-h} (1 - (q/p)^h)$$

for some  $h' \geq 1$ , then

$$\sum_{k=h'+1}^{\infty} r_k = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N} \setminus n\mathbb{N}, i > h} (q^{-i} - p^{-i}) = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N} \setminus n\mathbb{N}, i > h} q^{-i} (1 - (q/p)^i).$$

Since  $(1 - (q/p)^i) > (1 - (q/p)^h)$  for all  $i > h$ , it follows that (we use the choice of  $n$  in the last step)

$$\frac{\sum_{k=h'+1}^{\infty} r_k}{r_{h'}} \geq \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N} \setminus n\mathbb{N}, i > h} q^{h-i} = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} q^{-i} \right) - \left( \sum_{i > \frac{h}{n}} q^{h-in} \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\geq \left( \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} q^{-i} \right) - \left( \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} q^{-1-in} \right) = \left( \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} q^{-i} \right) - \left( \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} q^{-1-in} \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{q(q-1)} - \frac{1}{q(q^n-1)} > \frac{1}{2m}. \quad \square
\end{aligned}$$

**Lemma 5.** Let  $p > q > 1$ . The sequence

$$\left( \frac{\sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} (q^{-i} - p^{-i})}{q^{-n} - p^{-n}} \right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$$

is strictly decreasing, and tends to  $1/(q-1)$ .

PROOF. Since  $1 > (q/p)^n \searrow 0$ , the results follow from the identity

$$\frac{\sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} (q^{-i} - p^{-i})}{q^{-n} - p^{-n}} = \frac{1}{q-1} + \frac{p-q}{(q-1)(p-1)} \frac{(q/p)^n}{1 - (q/p)^n}. \quad (8)$$

Setting  $x = q/p$  for brevity, the identity is proved as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} (q^{-i} - p^{-i})}{q^{-n} - p^{-n}} &= \frac{q^{-n}}{(q-1)(q^{-n} - p^{-n})} - \frac{p^{-n}}{(p-1)(q^{-n} - p^{-n})} \\
&= \frac{1}{(q-1)(1-x^n)} - \frac{x^n}{(p-1)(1-x^n)} \\
&= \frac{1-x^n+x^n}{(q-1)(1-x^n)} - \frac{x^n}{(p-1)(1-x^n)} \\
&= \frac{1}{q-1} + \frac{x^n}{1-x^n} \left( \frac{1}{q-1} - \frac{1}{p-1} \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{q-1} + \frac{p-q}{(q-1)(p-1)} \frac{x^n}{1-x^n}. \quad \square
\end{aligned}$$

*Remark 6.* Let us note for further reference the following equivalent form of (8), obtained during the proof:

$$\frac{\sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} (q^{-i} - p^{-i})}{q^{-n} - p^{-n}} = \frac{1}{q-1} + \left( \frac{1}{q-1} - \frac{1}{p-1} \right) \frac{q^n}{p^n - q^n}. \quad (9)$$

Now we are ready to prove our theorem.

PROOF OF THEOREM 1 (1). We adapt the proof of Theorem 3 in [3], which states that if  $1 < q < (1 + \sqrt{5})/2$ , then every  $q < x < 1/(q-1)$  has a continuum of expansions in base  $q$  with digits 0 or 1.

Applying Lemma 4 we fix a large positive integer  $n$  such that the sequence  $(r_k) := (q^{-i} - p^{-i})_{i \in \mathbb{N} \setminus n\mathbb{N}}$  satisfies (5). Next we fix a large positive integer  $N$  such that

$$\left[ -m \sum_{i=N}^{\infty} (q^{-in} - p^{-in}), m \sum_{i=N}^{\infty} (q^{-in} - p^{-in}) \right] \subset \left[ -m \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N} \setminus n\mathbb{N}} (q^{-in} - p^{-in}), m \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N} \setminus n\mathbb{N}} (q^{-in} - p^{-in}) \right]. \quad (10)$$

This is possible because the right side interval contains 0 in its interior. The sets

$$\begin{aligned} B &:= \mathbb{N} \setminus n\mathbb{N}, \\ C &:= \{in : i = N, N+1, \dots\}, \\ D &:= \{in : i = 1, \dots, N-1\} \end{aligned}$$

form a partition of  $\mathbb{N}$ .

Choose an arbitrary sequence  $(c_i)_{i \in C} \in A^C$ ; there is a continuum of such sequences because  $C$  is an infinite set. Since

$$-\sum_{i \in C} c_i (q^{-i} - p^{-i})$$

belongs to the left side interval in (10), applying Proposition 3 there exists a sequence  $(c_i)_{i \in B} \in A^B$  such that

$$\sum_{i \in B \cup C} c_i (q^{-i} - p^{-i}) = 0.$$

Setting  $c_i = 0$  for  $i \in D$  we obtain a sequence  $(c_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \in C(p, q)$ .  $\square$

PROOF OF THEOREM 1 (II). We show that for each positive integer  $n$  there exists a sequence  $(c_i) \in C(p, q)$ , beginning with  $c_1 = \dots = c_{n-1} = 0$  and  $c_n = -1$ . Indeed, since  $q \leq m+1$ , by Lemma 5 we have

$$0 < q^{-n} - p^{-n} < (q-1) \sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} (q^{-i} - p^{-i}) \leq m \sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} (q^{-i} - p^{-i}).$$

Since  $q \leq 2m+1$ , Lemma 5 also shows that the condition (5) of Proposition 3 is satisfied for the alphabet  $A = \{-m, \dots, m\}$  and the sequence  $r_k := q^{-k-n} - p^{-k-n}$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ . Hence there exists a sequence  $(c_i)_{i=n+1}^{\infty} \in A^{\infty}$  satisfying

$$q^{-n} - p^{-n} = \sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} c_i (q^{-i} - p^{-i});$$

setting  $c_1 = \dots = c_{n-1} = 0$  and  $c_n = -1$  this yields (2).  $\square$

PROOF OF THEOREM 1 (III) (A). We show that there is a sequence  $(c_i) \in C(p, q)$ , beginning with  $c_1 = -1$ . Since  $q \leq 2m+1$ , by Proposition 3 and Lemma 5 it is sufficient to show that

$$(0 <) q^{-1} - p^{-1} \leq m \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} (q^{-i} - p^{-i}).$$

By (8) this is equivalent to the inequality

$$\frac{1}{m} \leq \frac{1}{q-1} + \frac{p-q}{(p-1)(q-1)} \frac{\frac{q}{p}}{1 - \frac{q}{p}} = \frac{1}{q-1} + \frac{q}{(p-1)(q-1)},$$

i.e., to  $p \leq (m+1)(q-1)/(q-m-1)$ . Indeed, since  $m > 0$ ,  $q > 1$  and  $p > m+1$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{m} \leq \frac{1}{q-1} + \frac{q}{(p-1)(q-1)} &\iff (p-1)(q-1) \leq m(p-1) + mq \\ &\iff p(q-m-1) \leq (m+1)(q-1) \\ &\iff p \leq \frac{(m+1)(q-1)}{q-m-1}. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

*Remark 7.* Now we prove our statement in Remark 2 (i). If  $m+1 < q \leq 2m+1$  and  $p > q$  is closer to  $q$  so that

$$(0 <) q^{-n} - p^{-n} \leq m \sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} (q^{-i} - p^{-i})$$

or equivalently (see (9))

$$\frac{1}{m} \leq \frac{1}{q-1} + \left( \frac{1}{q-1} - \frac{1}{p-1} \right) \frac{q^n}{p^n - q^n}$$

for some positive integer  $n$ , then the adaptation of the preceding proof shows that for each  $k = 1, \dots, n$  there exists a sequence  $(c_i) \in C(p, q)$ , beginning with  $c_1 = \dots = c_{k-1} = 0$  and  $c_k = -1$ .

The right side of the above inequality is a decreasing function of  $p$  because the function

$$f(p) := \left( \frac{1}{q-1} - \frac{1}{p-1} \right) \frac{1}{p^n - q^n}$$

has a negative derivative for all  $p > q$ .

Indeed, we have

$$f'(p) = \frac{1}{(p-1)^2(p^n - q^n)} - \left( \frac{1}{q-1} - \frac{1}{p-1} \right) \frac{np^{n-1}}{(p^n - q^n)^2},$$

whence

$$\frac{(p-1)^2(p^n - q^n)^2}{p-q} f'(p) = \frac{p^n - q^n}{p-q} - np^{n-1} \frac{p-1}{q-1} < \frac{p^n - q^n}{p-q} - np^{n-1}.$$

We conclude by noticing that  $\frac{p^n - q^n}{p-q} = nr^{n-1}$  by the Lagrange mean value theorem for some  $q < r < p$  and therefore

$$\frac{p^n - q^n}{p-q} - np^{n-1} = n(r^{n-1} - p^{n-1}) \leq 0.$$

PROOF OF THEOREM 1 (IV) (A). Since  $1/(q-1) < 1/2m$ , by Lemma 5 we have

$$q^{-n} - p^{-n} > 2m \sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} (q^{-i} - p^{-i})$$

for all sufficiently large integers  $n$ , say for all  $n > N$ .<sup>1</sup> This implies that if two different sequences  $(c_i), (c'_i) \in A^\infty$  satisfy  $c_i = c'_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, N$ , then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_i(q^{-i} - p^{-i}) \neq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c'_i(q^{-i} - p^{-i}).$$

Indeed, if  $n$  is the first index for which  $c_n \neq c'_n$ , then  $n > N$ , and therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (c_i - c'_i)(q^{-i} - p^{-i}) \right| &\geq |c_n - c'_n| (q^{-n} - p^{-n}) - \sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} |c_i - c'_i| (q^{-i} - p^{-i}) \\ &\geq (q^{-n} - p^{-n}) - 2m \sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} (q^{-i} - p^{-i}) > 0. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that if two different sequences  $(c_i), (c'_i) \in A^\infty$  satisfy

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_i}{q^i} - \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_i}{p^i} = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{c'_i}{q^i} - \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{c'_i}{p^i} = 0,$$

then already their beginning words  $c_1 \dots c_N$  and  $c'_1 \dots c'_N$  must differ. We conclude that there are at most  $(2m+1)^N$  sequences  $(c_i) \in A^\infty$  satisfying (2).  $\square$

<sup>1</sup>If this inequality holds for some  $n$ , then it also holds for all larger integers by the monotonicity property of Lemma 5.

PROOF OF THEOREM 1 (IV) (B). Thanks to (a) it is sufficient to exhibit a continuum of sequences  $(c_i) \in A^\infty$  such that each sequence satisfies (2) for at least one base  $p > q$ .

Our assumption  $q < m + 1 + \sqrt{m(m+1)}$  implies the inequality

$$\frac{1}{q^2} < m \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} \frac{i}{q^{i+1}}. \quad (11)$$

Indeed, differentiating the identity

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{q^i} = \frac{1}{q-1}$$

we get

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{i}{q^{i+1}} = \frac{1}{(q-1)^2},$$

so that, since  $m > 0$  and  $q > 1$ , (11) is equivalent to

$$\frac{m+1}{q^2} < \frac{m}{(q-1)^2}.$$

This inequality can be rewritten as

$$q^2 - 2q(m+1) + m+1 < 0. \quad (12)$$

The polynomial  $x^2 - 2x(m+1) + m+1$  has exactly one root, which is larger than one, namely  $x = m+1 + \sqrt{m(m+1)}$ . Thus (11) holds if and only if  $q < m+1 + \sqrt{m(m+1)}$ .

In view of (11) we may choose a sufficiently large positive integer  $N$  such that

$$\frac{1}{q^2} < m \sum_{i=2}^N \frac{i}{q^{i+1}}. \quad (13)$$

Now fix an arbitrary sequence  $(c_i) \in A^\infty$  satisfying

$$c_1 = -1, \quad c_2 = \cdots = c_N = m \quad \text{and} \quad c_i \geq 0 \text{ for all } i > N. \quad (14)$$

(There is a continuum of such sequences.) We are going to prove that (2) holds for at least one base  $p > q$ .

It is sufficient to show that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_i (q^{-i} - p^{-i}) < 0$$

if  $p > q$  is large enough, and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_i(q^{-i} - p^{-i}) > 0$$

if  $p > q$  is close enough to  $q$ . Indeed, then we will have equality for some intermediate value of  $p$  by continuity.

The first property will follow from the stronger relation

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_i(q^{-i} - p^{-i}) < 0, \quad \text{i.e.,} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_i}{q^i} < 0.$$

The proof is straightforward: since  $c_1 = -1$  and  $q > m + 1$ , we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_i}{q^i} \leq \frac{-1}{q} + \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} \frac{m}{q^i} = \frac{-1}{q} + \frac{m}{q(q-1)} < \frac{-1}{q} + \frac{1}{q} = 0.$$

Since  $c_i \geq 0$  for all  $i > N$ , the second property is weaker than the inequality

$$\sum_{i=1}^N c_i(q^{-i} - p^{-i}) > 0$$

for all  $p$  with  $p > q$  that are close enough, and this is weaker than the relation

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow q} \frac{1}{p - q} \sum_{i=1}^N c_i(q^{-i} - p^{-i}) > 0.$$

The last property follows by using (13) and (14):

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow q} \frac{1}{p - q} \sum_{i=1}^N c_i(q^{-i} - p^{-i}) = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{ic_i}{q^{i+1}} = -\frac{1}{q^2} + m \sum_{i=2}^N \frac{i}{q^{i+1}} > 0. \quad \square$$

PROOF OF THEOREM 1 (III) (B), (IV) (C) AND (V). If  $p > q > m + 1$  satisfy (4), then the proof of (iii) (a) shows that

$$q^{-1} - p^{-1} > m \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} (q^{-i} - p^{-i}).$$

Then by Lemma 5 we also have, more generally,

$$q^{-n} - p^{-n} > m \sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} (q^{-i} - p^{-i})$$

for all positive integers  $n$ .

Now if a sequence  $(c_i) \in A^\infty$  has a first nonzero term  $c_n$ , then

$$\left| \sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} c_i(q^{-i} - p^{-i}) \right| \leq \sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} m(q^{-i} - p^{-i}) < q^{-n} - p^{-n} \leq |c_n(q^{-n} - p^{-n})|,$$

so that (2) cannot hold. This completes the proof of (iii) (b) and (iv) (c).

For the proof of (v) it remains to check that in case  $q \geq m+1 + \sqrt{m(m+1)}$  the condition (4) holds for all  $p > q$ . This is equivalent to

$$q \geq \frac{(m+1)(q-1)}{q-m-1},$$

which can be rewritten as

$$q^2 - 2q(m+1) + m+1 \geq 0.$$

By our observation after (12) this inequality holds if and only if  $q \geq m+1 + \sqrt{m(m+1)}$ .  $\square$

### 3. Open questions

- (1) Find the optimal conditions on  $p$  and  $q$  in Theorem 1. In particular,
  - (a) Can  $C(p, q)$  be infinite for some  $p > q > m+1$ ?
  - (b) In case  $2m+1 < q < m+1 + \sqrt{m(m+1)}$  is  $C(p, q)$  nontrivial for *all*  $p > q$  sufficiently close to  $q$ ?
- (2) Construct an alphabet and three (or more) different bases such that a continuum of (or infinitely many) real numbers have identical expansions in all three bases.
- (3) Given two bases  $p > q > 1$  investigate the set of points of the form

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_i(p^{-i} - q^{-i}), \quad (c_i) \in A^\infty.$$

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