### 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  $A=\{-m,\ldots,0,\ldots,m\}$ . Among other results, we prove if m=1 and q<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 m=1 and  $q\geq 2+\sqrt{2}$ , 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:

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

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

Date: Version of 2014-05-08-a.

<sup>1991</sup> Mathematics Subject Classification. 11A63, 11B83.

Key words and phrases. simultaneous Rényi expansion, interval filling sequences. The second author was partially supported by the OTKA grants No. 100339 and 104208.

 $0^{\infty} \neq (c_i) \in A^{\infty}$ , 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. Indlekofer, Kátai and Racskó [4] called  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{Z}^d$  simultaneously representable by  $\mathbf{q} \in \mathbb{Z}^d$ , if there exist integers  $0 \leq m_0, \ldots, m_\ell < Q := |q_1 \cdots q_d|$  such that

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

If  $q_1, \ldots, q_d > 0$  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  $\{-6, \ldots, 0, \ldots, 6\}$ . Pethő [8] gave a criterion of simultaneous representability on the one hand with the Chinese reminder 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 noninteger bases seem to have appeared in the literature. In this paper we start such a study by investigating the case of the special alphabets  $A = \{-m, \ldots, 0, \ldots, m\}$  for some given integer  $m \geq 1$ . Let us denote by C(p,q) the set of sequences  $(c_i) \in A^{\infty}$  satisfying

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

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 cardinality of the continuum.
- (ii) If  $(1+\sqrt{8m+1})/2 \le q \le m+1$ , then C(p,q) is infinite.
- (iii) Let  $m + 1 < q \le 2m + 1$ .

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

then C(p,q) is nontrivial.

(b) *If* 

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

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

Remark 2.

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

(5) 
$$\frac{1}{m} \le \frac{1}{q-1} + \left(\frac{1}{q-1} - \frac{1}{p-1}\right) \frac{q^n}{p^n - q^n}$$

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, say  $(q, p_n]$ . (We have clearly  $p_1 > p_2 > \cdots$ .)

(ii) The proof of (iv) (a) will show more precisely that if q>2m+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  $A = \{-m, \ldots, 0, \ldots, m\}$  and let  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} r_k$  be a convergent series of positive numbers, satisfying the inequalities

$$(6) r_n \le 2m \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} r_k$$

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

(7) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_k r_k, \quad (c_k) \in A^{\infty}$$

fill the interval

(8) 
$$\left[-m\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}r_k, m\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}r_k\right].$$

*Proof.* It is clear that all sums (7) belong to the interval (8). Conversely, for each given x in this interval we define a sequence  $(c_k) \in A^{\infty}$  by the following greedy algorithm. If  $c_1, \ldots, c_{n-1}$  are already defined (no assumption if n = 1), then let  $c_n$  be the largest element of A such that

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

Letting  $n \to \infty$  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

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

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  $n \to \infty$  we conclude that  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_k r_k \ge x$ . 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

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

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 (6).

We also need two technical lemmas.

**Lemma 4.** If  $1 < q < (1 + \sqrt{8m+1})/2$  and p > q, then the sequence  $(r_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}} := (q^{-i} - p^{-i})_{i \in \mathbb{N} \setminus n\mathbb{N}}$  satisfies (6) 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:

$$\frac{1}{2m} < \frac{1}{q(q-1)} \iff 4q(q-1) < 8m$$

$$\iff (2q-1)^2 < 8m+1$$

$$\iff 2q-1 < \sqrt{8m+1}$$

$$\iff q < \left(1 + \sqrt{8m+1}\right)/2.$$

Now, if

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

for some  $h' \geq 1$ , then

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

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)

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

$$= \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} q^{-i}\right) - \left(\sum_{i > \frac{h}{n}} q^{h-in}\right)$$

$$\ge \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} q^{-i}\right) - \left(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} q^{-1-in}\right)$$

$$= \left(\sum_{i=2}^{\infty} q^{-i}\right) - \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} q^{-1-in}\right)$$

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

**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  $1 > (q/p)^n \setminus 0$ , the results follow from the identity

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

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

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

$$= \frac{1}{(q-1)(1-x^n)} - \frac{x^n}{(p-1)(1-x^n)}$$

$$= \frac{1-x^n + x^n}{(q-1)(1-x^n)} - \frac{x^n}{(p-1)(1-x^n)}$$

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

$$= \frac{1}{q-1} + \frac{p-q}{(q-1)(p-1)} \frac{x^n}{1-x^n}.$$

Remark 6. Let us note for further reference the following equivalent form of (9), obtained during the proof:

(10) 
$$\frac{\sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} (q^{-i} - p^{-i})}{q^{-n} - p^{-n}} = \frac{1}{q-1} + \left(\frac{1}{q-1} - \frac{1}{p-1}\right) \frac{q^n}{p^n - q^n}.$$

Now we are ready to prove our theorem.

Proof of Theorem 1 (i). We adapt the proof of Theorem 3 in [3], which states that if  $1 < q < (1 + \sqrt{5})/2$ , then every x satisfying 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  $(r_k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}} := (q^{-i} - p^{-i})_{i\in\mathbb{N}\setminus n\mathbb{N}}$  satisfies (6). Next we fix a large positive integer N such that

$$(11) \quad \left[ -m \sum_{i=N}^{\infty} (q^{-in} - p^{-in}), m \sum_{i=N}^{\infty} (q^{-in} - p^{-in}) \right]$$

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

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

$$B := \mathbb{N} \setminus n\mathbb{N},$$
  
 $C := \{in : i = N, N + 1, ...\},$   
 $D := \{in : i = 1, ..., N - 1\}$ 

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 (11), 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  $(c_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \in C(p, q)$ .

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  $c_1 = \cdots = c_{n-1} = 0$ 

and  $c_n = -1$ . Indeed, since  $q \leq m + 1$ , by Lemma 5 we have

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

Since  $q \leq 2m + 1$ , Lemma 5 also shows that the condition (6) of Proposition 3 is satisfied for the alphabet  $A = \{-m, \ldots, m\}$  and the sequence  $r_k := q^{-k-n} - p^{-k-n}$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \ldots$  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  $c_1 = \cdots = c_{n-1} = 0$  and  $c_n = -1$  this yields (2).

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

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

By (9) this is equivalent to the inequality

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

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

$$\frac{1}{m} \le \frac{1}{q-1} + \frac{q}{(p-1)(q-1)} \iff (p-1)(q-1) \le m(p-1) + mq$$

$$\iff p(q-m-1) \le (m+1)(q-1)$$

$$\iff p \le \frac{(m+1)(q-1)}{q-m-1}.$$

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

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

or equivalently (see (10))

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

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

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

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. This implies that if two different sequences  $(c_i), (c'_i) \in A^{\infty}$  satisfy  $c_i = c'_i$  for  $i = 1, \ldots, N$ , then

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

<sup>&</sup>lt;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.

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

$$\left| \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (c_i - c_i')(q^{-i} - p^{-i}) \right|$$

$$\geq |c_n - c_n'| (q^{-n} - p^{-n}) - \sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} |c_i - c_i'| (q^{-i} - p^{-i})$$

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

$$> 0.$$

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).

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

(12) 
$$\frac{1}{q^2} < m \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} \frac{i}{q^{i+1}}.$$

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, (12) is equivalent to

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

This inequality can be rewritten as

(13) 
$$q^2 - 2q(m+1) + m + 1 < 0.$$

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 (12) holds if and only if  $q < m+1 + \sqrt{m(m+1)}$ .

In view of (12) we may choose a sufficiently large positive integer N such that

(14) 
$$\frac{1}{q^2} < m \sum_{i=2}^{N} \frac{i}{q^{i+1}}.$$

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

(15) 
$$c_1 = -1, c_2 = \dots = c_N = m \text{ and } c_i \ge 0 \text{ for all } i > N.$$

(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

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

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

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

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 > q close enough to q, and this is weaker than the relation

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

The last property follows by using (14) and (15):

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

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

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

$$< q^{-n} - p^{-n} \le |c_n(q^{-n} - p^{-n})|,$$

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  $q \ge m+1+\sqrt{m(m+1)}$  the condition (4) holds for all p>q. This is equivalent to

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

which can be rewritten as

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

By our observation after (13) this inequality holds if and only if  $q \ge m + 1 + \sqrt{m(m+1)}$ .

We end this paper by formulating some 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

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

Acknowledgement. The authors thank the referees for their suggestions to improve the presentation of the paper.

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