

On the density of ranges of generalized divisor functions

Colin Defant

Department of Mathematics, University of Florida

1400 Stadium Rd., Gainesville, FL 32611

United States

e-mail: cdefant@ufl.edu

Abstract: The range of the divisor function σ_{-1} is dense in the interval $[1, \infty)$. However, although the range of the function σ_{-2} is a subset of the interval $\left[1, \frac{\pi^2}{6}\right)$, we will see that the range of σ_{-2} is not dense in $\left[1, \frac{\pi^2}{6}\right)$. We begin by generalizing the divisor functions to a class of functions σ_t for all real t . We then define a constant $\eta \approx 1.8877909$ and show that if $r \in (1, \infty)$, then the range of the function σ_{-r} is dense in the interval $[1, \zeta(r))$ if and only if $r \leq \eta$. We end with an open problem.

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1 Introduction

Throughout this paper, we will let \mathbb{N} denote the set of positive integers, and we will let p_i denote the i^{th} prime number.

For any integer t , the divisor function σ_t is a multiplicative arithmetic function defined by $\sigma_t(n) = \sum_{\substack{d|n \\ d>0}} d^t$ for all positive integers n . The value of $\sigma_1(n)$ is the sum of the positive divisors of n , while the value of $\sigma_0(n)$ is simply the number of positive divisors of n .

Another interesting divisor function is σ_{-1} , which is often known as the abundancy index. One may show [2] that the range of σ_{-1} is a subset of the interval $[1, \infty)$ that is dense in $[1, \infty)$. If $t < -1$, then the range of σ_t is a subset of the interval $[1, \zeta(-t))$, where ζ denotes the Riemann zeta function. This is because, for any positive integer n , $\sigma_t(n) = \sum_{\substack{d|n \\ d>0}} d^t < \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} i^t = \zeta(-t)$. For

example, the range of the function σ_{-2} is a subset of the interval $\left[1, \frac{\pi^2}{6}\right)$. However, it is interesting to note that the range of the function σ_{-2} is not dense in the interval $\left[1, \frac{\pi^2}{6}\right)$. To see this,

let n be a positive integer. If $2|n$, then $\sigma_{-2}(n) \geq \frac{1}{1^2} + \frac{1}{2^2} = \frac{5}{4}$. On the other hand, if $2 \nmid n$, then $\sigma_{-2}(n) < \sum_{d \in \mathbb{N} \setminus (2\mathbb{N})} \frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{\zeta(2)}{\left(\frac{1}{1-2^{-2}}\right)} = \frac{\pi^2}{8}$. As $\frac{\pi^2}{8} < \frac{5}{4}$, we see that there is a ‘‘gap’’ in the range of

σ_{-2} . In other words, there are no positive integers n such that $\sigma_{-2}(n) \in \left(\frac{\pi^2}{8}, \frac{5}{4}\right)$.

Our first goal is to generalize the divisor functions to allow for nonintegral subscripts. For example, we might consider the function $\sigma_{-\sqrt{2}}$, defined by $\sigma_{-\sqrt{2}}(n) = \sum_{\substack{d|n \\ d>0}} d^{-\sqrt{2}}$. We formalize this idea in the following definition.

Definition 1.1. For a real number t , define the function $\sigma_t: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $\sigma_t(n) = \sum_{\substack{d|n \\ d>0}} d^t$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Also, we will let $\log \sigma_t = \log \circ \sigma_t$.

In analyzing the ranges of these generalized divisor functions, we will find a constant which serves as a ‘‘boundary’’ between divisor functions with dense ranges and divisor functions with ranges that have gaps. Note that, for any real number t , we may write $\sigma_t = I_0 * I_t$, where I_0 and I_t are arithmetic functions defined by $I_0(n) = 1$ and $I_t(n) = n^t$. As I_0 and I_t are multiplicative, we find that σ_t is multiplicative.

2 The ranges of functions σ_{-r}

Theorem 2.1. *Let r be a real number greater than 1. The range of σ_{-r} is dense in the interval*

$[1, \zeta(r))$ if and only if $1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \leq \prod_{i=m+1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}} \right)$ for all positive integers m .

Proof. First, suppose that $1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \leq \prod_{i=m+1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}} \right)$ for all positive integers m . We will show that the range of $\log \sigma_{-r}$ is dense in the interval $[0, \log(\zeta(r))]$, which will imply that the range of σ_{-r} is dense in $[1, \zeta(r))$. Choose some arbitrary $x \in (0, \log(\zeta(r)))$, and define $X_0 = 0$. For each

positive integer n , we define α_n and X_n in the following manner. If $X_{n-1} + \log\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_n^{jr}}\right) \leq x$, define $\alpha_n = -1$. If $X_{n-1} + \log\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_n^{jr}}\right) > x$, define α_n to be the largest nonnegative integer that satisfies $X_{n-1} + \log\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\alpha_n} \frac{1}{p_n^{jr}}\right) \leq x$. Define X_n by

$$X_n = \begin{cases} X_{n-1} + \log\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\alpha_n} \frac{1}{p_n^{jr}}\right), & \text{if } \alpha_n \geq 0; \\ X_{n-1} + \log\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_n^{jr}}\right), & \text{if } \alpha_n = -1. \end{cases}$$

Also, for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, define D_n by

$$D_n = \begin{cases} \log\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_n^{jr}}\right) - \log\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\alpha_n} \frac{1}{p_n^{jr}}\right), & \text{if } \alpha_n \geq 0; \\ 0, & \text{if } \alpha_n = -1, \end{cases}$$

and let $E_n = \sum_{i=1}^n D_i$. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (X_n + E_n) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(X_n + \sum_{i=1}^n D_i \right) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \log\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}}\right) = \log(\zeta(r)). \end{aligned}$$

Now, because the sequence $(X_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is bounded and monotonic, we know that there exists some real number γ such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = \gamma$. We wish to show that $\gamma = x$.

Notice that we defined the sequence $(X_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ so that $X_n \leq x$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence, we know that $\gamma \leq x$. Now, suppose $\gamma < x$. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n = \log(\zeta(r)) - \gamma > \log(\zeta(r)) - x$. This implies that there exists some positive integer N such that $E_n > \log(\zeta(r)) - x$ for all integers $n \geq N$. Let m be the smallest positive integer that satisfies $E_m > \log(\zeta(r)) - x$. If $\alpha_m = -1$ and $m > 1$, then $D_m = 0$, so $E_{m-1} = E_m > \log(\zeta(r)) - x$. However, this contradicts the minimality of m . If $\alpha_m = -1$ and $m = 1$, then $0 = D_m = E_m > \log(\zeta(r)) - x$, which is also a contradiction. Thus, we conclude that $\alpha_m \geq 0$. This means that $X_m + D_m = X_{m-1} + \log\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_m^{jr}}\right) > x$, so $D_m > x - X_m$. Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned} \log\left(\prod_{i=m+1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}}\right)\right) &= \sum_{i=m+1}^{\infty} \log\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}}\right) \\ &= \log(\zeta(r)) - \sum_{i=1}^m \log\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}}\right) \end{aligned}$$

$$= \log(\zeta(r)) - E_m - X_m < x - X_m < D_m, \quad (1)$$

and we originally assumed that $1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \leq \prod_{i=m+1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}} \right)$. This means that

$$\log \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \right) < D_m = \log \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_m^{jr}} \right) - \log \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\alpha_m} \frac{1}{p_m^{jr}} \right), \text{ or, equivalently,}$$

$$\log \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \right) + \log \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\alpha_m} \frac{1}{p_m^{jr}} \right) < \log \left(\frac{p_m^r}{p_m^r - 1} \right). \text{ If } \alpha_m > 0, \text{ we have}$$

$$\log \left(\left(1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \right)^2 \right) \leq \log \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \right) + \log \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\alpha_m} \frac{1}{p_m^{jr}} \right) < \log \left(\frac{p_m^r}{p_m^r - 1} \right),$$

so $\left(1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \right)^2 < \frac{p_m^r}{p_m^r - 1}$. We may write this as $1 + \frac{2}{p_m^r} + \frac{1}{p_m^{2r}} < 1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r - 1}$, so

$2 < \frac{p_m^r}{p_m^r - 1} = 1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r - 1}$. As $p_m^r > 2$, this is a contradiction. Hence, $\alpha_m = 0$. By the def-

initions of α_m and X_m , this implies that $X_{m-1} + \log \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \right) > x$ and that $X_m = X_{m-1}$.

Therefore, $\log \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \right) > x - X_{m-1} = x - X_m$. However, recalling from (1) that

$$\sum_{i=m+1}^{\infty} \log \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}} \right) < x - X_m,$$

we find that

$$\sum_{i=m+1}^{\infty} \log \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}} \right) < \log \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \right),$$

which is a contradiction because we originally assumed that $1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \leq \prod_{i=m+1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}} \right)$. Therefore, $\gamma = x$.

We now know that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = x$. To show that the range of $\log \sigma_{-r}$ is dense in $[0, \log(\zeta(r))]$, we need to construct a sequence $(C_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ of elements of the range of $\log \sigma_{-r}$ that satisfies

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} C_n = x$. We do so in the following fashion. For each positive integer n , write

$$Y_n = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \alpha_n \geq 0; \\ 0, & \text{if } \alpha_n = -1, \end{cases}$$

$$Z_n = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } \alpha_n \geq 0; \\ 1, & \text{if } \alpha_n = -1, \end{cases}$$

and

$$\beta_n = \begin{cases} \alpha_n, & \text{if } \alpha_n \geq 0; \\ 0, & \text{if } \alpha_n = -1. \end{cases}$$

Now, for each positive integer n , define C_n by

$$C_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \left(Y_k \log \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\beta_k} \frac{1}{p_k^{jr}} \right) + Z_k \log \left(\sum_{j=0}^n \frac{1}{p_k^{jr}} \right) \right).$$

Notice that, by the way we defined X_n , we have

$$X_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \left(Y_k \log \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\beta_k} \frac{1}{p_k^{jr}} \right) + Z_k \log \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_k^{jr}} \right) \right).$$

Therefore, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} C_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = x$. All we need to do now is show that each C_n is in the range of $\log \sigma_{-r}$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} C_n &= \sum_{k=1}^n \left(Y_k \log \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\beta_k} \frac{1}{p_k^{jr}} \right) + Z_k \log \left(\sum_{j=0}^n \frac{1}{p_k^{jr}} \right) \right) \\ &= \sum_{\substack{k \in \mathbb{N} \\ k \leq n \\ \alpha_k \geq 0}} \log \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\alpha_k} \frac{1}{p_k^{jr}} \right) + \sum_{\substack{k \in \mathbb{N} \\ k \leq n \\ \alpha_k = -1}} \log \left(\sum_{j=0}^n \frac{1}{p_k^{jr}} \right) \\ &= \log \left[\left(\prod_{\substack{k \in \mathbb{N} \\ k \leq n \\ \alpha_k \geq 0}} \sigma_{-r}(p_k^{\alpha_k}) \right) \left(\prod_{\substack{k \in \mathbb{N} \\ k \leq n \\ \alpha_k = -1}} \sigma_{-r}(p_k^n) \right) \right] \\ &= \log \sigma_{-r} \left(\left(\prod_{\substack{k \in \mathbb{N} \\ k \leq n \\ \alpha_k \geq 0}} p_k^{\alpha_k} \right) \left(\prod_{\substack{k \in \mathbb{N} \\ k \leq n \\ \alpha_k \geq 0}} p_k^n \right) \right). \end{aligned}$$

We finally conclude that if $1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \leq \prod_{i=m+1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}} \right)$ for all positive integers m , then the range of σ_{-r} is dense in the interval $[1, \zeta(r))$.

Conversely, suppose that there exists some positive integer m such that

$1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} > \prod_{i=m+1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}} \right)$. Fix some $N \in \mathbb{N}$, and let $N = \prod_{i=1}^v q_i^{\gamma_i}$ be the canonical prime factorization of N . If $p_s | N$ for some $s \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$, then

$$\sigma_{-r}(N) \geq 1 + \frac{1}{p_s^r} \geq 1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r}.$$

On the other hand, if $p_s \nmid N$ for all $s \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$, then

$$\sigma_{-r}(N) = \prod_{i=1}^v \sigma_{-r}(q_i^{\gamma_i}) = \prod_{i=1}^v \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\gamma_i} \frac{1}{q_i^{jr}} \right)$$

$$< \prod_{i=1}^v \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{q_i^{jr}} \right) < \prod_{i=m+1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}} \right).$$

Because N was arbitrary, this shows that there is no element of the range of σ_{-r} in the interval $\left[\prod_{i=m+1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}} \right), 1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \right)$, which means that the range of σ_{-r} is not dense in $[1, \zeta(r))$. \square

Theorem 2.1 provides us with a method to determine values of $r > 1$ with the property that the range of σ_{-r} is dense in $[1, \zeta(r))$. However, doing so is still a somewhat difficult task. Luckily, for $r \in (1, 2]$, we may greatly simplify the problem with the help of the following theorem. First, we need a short lemma.

Lemma 2.1. *If $j \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{1, 2, 4\}$, then $\frac{p_{j+1}}{p_j} < \sqrt{2}$.*

Proof. Pierre Dusart [1] has shown that, for $x \geq 396\,738$, there must be at least one prime in the interval $\left[x, x + \frac{x}{25 \log^2 x} \right]$. Therefore, whenever $p_j > 396\,738$, we may set $x = p_j + 1$ to get $p_{j+1} \leq (p_j + 1) + \frac{p_j + 1}{25 \log^2(p_j + 1)} < \sqrt{2} p_j$. Using Mathematica 9.0 [3], we may quickly search through all the primes less than 396 738 to conclude the desired result. \square

Theorem 2.2. *Let r be a real number in the interval $(1, 2]$. The range of σ_{-r} is dense in the interval $[1, \zeta(r))$ if and only if $1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \leq \prod_{i=m+1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}} \right)$ for all $m \in \{1, 2, 4\}$.*

Proof. Let $F(m, r) = \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \right) \prod_{i=1}^m \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}} \right)$ so that the inequality

$1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \leq \prod_{i=m+1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}} \right)$ is equivalent to $F(m, r) \leq \zeta(r)$. In light of Theorem 2.1, it suffices to show that if $F(m, r) \leq \zeta(r)$ for all $m \in \{1, 2, 4\}$, then $F(m, r) \leq \zeta(r)$ for all $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Thus, let us assume that r is such that $F(m, r) \leq \zeta(r)$ for all $m \in \{1, 2, 4\}$. If $m \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{1, 2, 4\}$, then Lemma 2.1 tells us that $\frac{p_{m+1}}{p_m} < \sqrt{2} \leq \sqrt[2]{2}$, which implies that $\frac{2}{p_{m+1}^r} > \frac{1}{p_m^r}$. We then have

$$\begin{aligned} F(m+1, r) &= \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_{m+1}^r} \right) \prod_{i=1}^{m+1} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}} \right) > \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_{m+1}^r} \right)^2 \prod_{i=1}^m \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}} \right) \\ &> \left(1 + \frac{2}{p_{m+1}^r} \right) \prod_{i=1}^m \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}} \right) > \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_m^r} \right) \prod_{i=1}^m \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_i^{jr}} \right) = F(m, r) \end{aligned}$$

for all $m \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{1, 2, 4\}$. This means that $F(3, r) < F(4, r) \leq \zeta(r)$. Furthermore, $F(m, r) < \zeta(r)$ for all integers $m \geq 5$ because $(F(m, r))_{m=5}^{\infty}$ is a strictly increasing sequence and $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} F(m, r) = \zeta(r)$. \square

We have seen that, for $r \in (1, 2]$, the range of σ_{-r} is dense in $[1, \zeta(r))$ if and only if $F(m, r) \leq \zeta(r)$ for all $m \in \{1, 2, 4\}$. Using Mathematica 9.0, one may plot a function $g_m(r) = F(m, r) - \zeta(r)$ for each $m \in \{1, 2, 4\}$. It is then easy to verify that g_2 has precisely one root, say η , in the interval $(1, 2]$ (for anyone seeking a more rigorous proof of this fact, we mention that it is fairly simple to show that $g_2'(r) > 0$ for all $r \in (1, 2]$). Furthermore, one may confirm that $g_1(r), g_2(r), g_4(r) \leq 0$ for all $r \in (1, \eta]$ and that $g_2(r) > 0$ for all $r \in (\eta, 3]$. Hence, we have proven (or at least left the reader to verify) the first part of the following theorem.

Theorem 2.3. *Let η be the unique number in the interval $(1, 2]$ that satisfies the equation*

$$\left(\frac{2^\eta}{2^\eta - 1}\right) \left(\frac{3^\eta + 1}{3^\eta - 1}\right) = \zeta(\eta).$$

If $r \in (1, \infty)$, then the range of the function σ_{-r} is dense in the interval $[1, \zeta(r))$ if and only if $r \leq \eta$.

Proof. In virtue of the preceding paragraph, we know from the fact that

$$g_2(\eta) = F(2, \eta) - \zeta(\eta) = \left(\frac{2^\eta}{2^\eta - 1}\right) \left(\frac{3^\eta + 1}{3^\eta - 1}\right) - \zeta(\eta) = 0$$

that if $r \in (1, 3]$, then the range of σ_{-r} is dense in $[1, \zeta(r))$ if and only if $r \leq \eta$. We now show that the range of σ_{-r} is not dense in $[1, \zeta(r))$ if $r > 3$. To do so, we merely need to show that $F(1, r) > \zeta(r)$ for all $r > 3$. For $r > 3$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} F(1, r) &= \left(1 + \frac{1}{2^r}\right) \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{jr}} > \left(1 + \frac{1}{2^r}\right)^2 = 1 + \frac{1}{2^r} + \frac{3}{4} \left(\frac{1}{2^{r-1}}\right) \\ &> 1 + \frac{1}{2^r} + \frac{1}{(r-1)2^{r-1}} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^r} + \int_2^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^r} dx > \zeta(r). \end{aligned}$$

□

3 An open problem

We end by acknowledging that it might be of interest to consider the number of “gaps” in the range of σ_{-r} for various r . For example, for which values of $r \in (1, \infty)$ is there precisely one gap in the range of σ_{-r} ? More generally, if we are given a positive integer L , then, for what values of $r > 1$ is the closure of the range of σ_{-r} a union of exactly L disjoint subintervals of $[1, \zeta(r))$?

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