

# On the density of ranges of generalized divisor functions

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**Abstract:** The range of the divisor function  $\sigma_{-1}$  is dense in the interval  $[1, \infty)$ . However, although the range of the function  $\sigma_{-2}$  is a subset of the interval  $\left[1, \frac{\pi^2}{6}\right)$ , we will see that the range of  $\sigma_{-2}$  is not dense in  $\left[1, \frac{\pi^2}{6}\right)$ . We begin by generalizing the divisor functions to a class of functions  $\sigma_t$  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  $\sigma_{-r}$  is dense in the interval  $[1, \zeta(r))$  if and only if  $r \leq \eta$ . We end with an open problem.

**Keywords:** Density, Divisor function.

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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  $i^{\text{th}}$  prime number.

For any integer  $t$ , the divisor function  $\sigma_t$  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  $\sigma_{-1}$ , which is often known as the abundancy index. One may show [2] that the range of  $\sigma_{-1}$  is a subset of the interval  $[1, \infty)$  that is dense in  $[1, \infty)$ . If  $t < -1$ , then the range of  $\sigma_t$  is a subset of the interval  $[1, \zeta(-t))$ , where  $\zeta$  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  $\sigma_{-2}$  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  $\sigma_{-2}$  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

$\sigma_{-2}$ . 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  $\sigma_t$  is multiplicative.

## 2 The ranges of functions $\sigma_{-r}$

**Theorem 2.1.** *Let  $r$  be a real number greater than 1. The range of  $\sigma_{-r}$  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  $\sigma_{-r}$  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  $\alpha_n$  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  $\alpha_n$  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  $\gamma$  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  $\alpha_m$  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  $\sigma_{-r}$  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  $\sigma_{-r}$  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  $\sigma_{-r}$  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  $\sigma_{-r}$  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  $\sigma_{-r}$  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  $\sigma_{-r}$  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  $\eta$ , 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  $\eta$  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  $\sigma_{-r}$  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  $\sigma_{-r}$  is dense in  $[1, \zeta(r))$  if and only if  $r \leq \eta$ . We now show that the range of  $\sigma_{-r}$  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  $\sigma_{-r}$  for various  $r$ . For example, for which values of  $r \in (1, \infty)$  is there precisely one gap in the range of  $\sigma_{-r}$ ? More generally, if we are given a positive integer  $L$ , then, for what values of  $r > 1$  is the closure of the range of  $\sigma_{-r}$  a union of exactly  $L$  disjoint subintervals of  $[1, \zeta(r))$ ?

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