# A NOTE ON almost flat NUMBERS 

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Dedicated to Herman J. J. te Riele on the occasion of his retirement from the CWI in January 2012

In this note we present a solution of the following
Problem. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ let $\beta(n)$ be the product of all prime divisors of $n$ ( not counting multiplicities ).

So, in the notation of Hardy $\mathcal{F}$ Wright, if $n=\prod p^{e}$ then $\beta(n)=\prod p$ with $\beta(1)=1$.

A positive integer $n$ is called flat iff $n=\beta(n)$ (or, equivalently, iff $|\mu(n)|=1$, where $\mu(n)$ is the Möbius function ).

A positive integer is called almost flat iff $n / \beta(n)$ is prime.
(A) Show that the sequence of almost flat numbers has a positive natural density (denoted by $d_{1}$ ), and indicate how this density can be computed to any degree of accuracy. ( This is the case $k=1$ in the next, more general problem (B).)
(B) Let $\omega(n)$ denote the number of different prime divisors of $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ( not counting multiplicities ), and let $k$ be any (fixed) positive integer.

Show that the sequence of all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $q:=q(n):=n / \beta(n)$ is flat with $\omega(q)=k$, has positive natural density (denoted by $d_{k}$ ), and indicate how this density can be computed to any degree of accuracy.
(B1) Solve this problem for $k=2$.
(B2) How to proceed for $k \geq 3$ ? Compute $d_{3}, d_{4}$ and $d_{5}$.

## Solution of (A), the case $k=1$.

The generating Dirichlet series of the almost flat numbers is obtained by expanding
(1) $\sum_{q \text { prime }} \frac{1}{q^{2 s}} \frac{\prod_{p \text { prime }}\left(1+\frac{1}{p^{s}}\right)}{1+\frac{1}{q^{s}}}=\frac{\zeta(s)}{\zeta(2 s)} \sum_{q \text { prime }} \frac{1}{q^{s}\left(q^{s}+1\right)}$,

$$
(s=\sigma+i t, \sigma>1)
$$

Invoking the well-known Wiener-Ikehara Tauberian theorem (which applies indeed see [3, p. 259-266] ), we find that the required natural

## A NOTE ON $A L M O S T$ FLAT NUMBERS

density $d_{1}$ exists and equals

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{1}=\frac{6}{\pi^{2}} \sum_{q \text { prime }} \frac{1}{q(q+1)} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The sum of the last series may be approximated by observing that

$$
\begin{align*}
\sigma_{1}:=\sum_{q \text { prime }} \frac{1}{q(q+1)} & =\sum_{q \text { prime }} \frac{1}{q^{2}} \frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{q}}=\sum_{q \text { prime }} \frac{1}{q^{2}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n}}{q^{n}}=  \tag{3}\\
& =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} \sum_{q \text { prime }} \frac{1}{q^{2+n}}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} P(n+2)
\end{align*}
$$

where, for $s>1$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(s):=\sum_{p \text { prime }} \frac{1}{p^{s}}=\sum_{r=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(r)}{r} \log \zeta(r s) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

( see Titchmarsh [4, p. 12, formula (1.6.1)] ) and that, also for $s>1$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\frac{\mu(r)}{r} \log \zeta(r s)\right| \leq \frac{1}{r} \log \zeta(r s)<\frac{1}{r} \log (1+ & \left.\frac{1}{2^{r s}}+\int_{2}^{+\infty} \frac{d x}{x^{r s}}\right)< \\
& <\frac{1}{r} \log \left(1+\frac{3}{2^{r s}}\right)<\frac{3}{2^{r s}}
\end{aligned}
$$

so that, for $n \geq 2$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(n)<\sum_{r=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{r} \log \zeta(r s)<\sum_{r=1}^{\infty} \frac{3}{2^{r s}}<\frac{3}{2^{n}-1} \leq \frac{4}{2^{n}} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

A combination of these ingredients is sufficient for a high precision computation of $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} P(n)$.

For $n \geq 2$ we may approximate $P(n)$ by evaluating $\sum_{r=1}^{R} \frac{\mu(r)}{r} \log \zeta(r n)$ for a sufficiently large $R$.

If we want an accuracy of $\varepsilon$ then it suffices to take $R$ such that $\sum_{r=R+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{r} \log \zeta(r n)<\varepsilon$. It is easily seen that

$$
\begin{equation*}
R=\left\lfloor\frac{1}{n} \frac{\log \left(\frac{4}{\varepsilon}\right)}{\log 2}\right\rfloor \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

suffices. Using Mathematica we find $\sigma_{1} \approx 0.33022992626420324101509458808674476064425941947407 \ldots$ so that ( recall that $d_{1}=\frac{6}{\pi^{2}} \sigma_{1}$ )
$d_{1} \approx 0.20075572201926598699625072311440476585353555535256 \ldots$

Solution of (B1), the case $k=2$.
Similarly as in (A) the required density $d_{2}$ equals

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{2}=\frac{6}{\pi^{2}} \sum_{p<q} \frac{1}{p(p+1) q(q+1)} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

( $p$ and $q$ denoting primes ).
The last series may also be written as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sigma_{2}:=\sum_{p<q} \frac{1}{p(p+1) q(q+1)}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\sum_{p<q} \frac{1}{p(p+1) q(q+1)}+\sum_{q<p} \frac{1}{q(q+1) p(p+1)}\right)= \\
& =\frac{1}{2} \sum_{p \neq q} \frac{1}{p(p+1) q(q+1)}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\sum_{p, q} \frac{1}{p(p+1) q(q+1)}-\sum_{p=q} \frac{1}{p(p+1) q(q+1)}\right)= \\
& \quad=\frac{1}{2}\left[\left(\sum_{p} \frac{1}{p(p+1)}\right)^{2}-\sum_{p} \frac{1}{p^{2}(p+1)^{2}}\right]=\frac{\sigma_{1}^{2}}{2}-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{p} \frac{1}{p^{4}\left(1+\frac{1}{p}\right)^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

( with $\sigma_{1}=\frac{\pi^{2}}{6} d_{1}$ ) and this in its turn may be reduced to a form "only" containing $P(n)$ 's, so that we can compute $\sigma_{2}$ ( and hence $d_{2}$ ) to any degree of accuracy. Indeed, it is easily verified that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma_{2}=\frac{1}{2} \sigma_{1}^{2}-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{n+1} n P(n+3) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using Mathematica we find that
$\sigma_{2} \approx 0.07278693253120878610025049397054318644318060075841 \ldots$
so that
$d_{2} \approx 0.02212457447327116398001200235594831757886781598850 \ldots$

## Solution of (B2), the case $k \geq 3$.

For $k \geq 3$ we make use of the well-known (Girard-) Newton formulas. We briefly recall some pertinent details :

We consider ( formally ) the equation $f(x)=\sum_{n}(-1)^{n} \sigma_{n} x^{n}=0$ with roots $\frac{1}{\alpha_{k}}$. In our application we will have $\alpha_{n}=\frac{1}{p_{n}\left(p_{n}+1\right)}$ where $p_{n}$ is the $n$-th prime. Then we have
$\sum_{n}(-1)^{n} \sigma_{n} x^{n}=\prod_{n}\left(1-\alpha_{n} x\right)=0, \quad$ with $\quad \sigma_{n}=\sum_{j_{1}<j_{2}<\cdots<j_{n}} \alpha_{j_{1}} \alpha_{j_{2}} \cdots \alpha_{j_{n}}$
( we assume here that $\sigma_{0}=1$ ). We define

$$
S_{k}:=\sum_{n} \alpha_{n}^{k}
$$

Although the (Girard-) Newton formulas usually express the sums $S_{n}$ in terms of the coefficients $\sigma_{n}$, we will turn things around and express the ( elementary symmetric functions) $\sigma_{n}$ in terms of the ( exponential sums ) $S_{n}$. In order to do so we compute $f^{\prime}(x)$ in two different ways :

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=\sum_{n}(-1)^{n} n \sigma_{n} x^{n-1}
$$

and
$f^{\prime}(x)=-f(x) \sum_{n} \frac{\alpha_{n}}{1-\alpha_{n} x}=-f(x) \sum_{n} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \alpha_{n}^{k+1} x^{k}=-f(x) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} S_{k+1} x^{k}$.
Comparing coefficients we find that ( see [1, Chap. 8, p. 166], [2, p. 140] or [5, p. 99] )

$$
\begin{equation*}
(-1)^{m} m \sigma_{m}=-\sum_{n=0}^{m-1}(-1)^{n} \sigma_{n} S_{m-n} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

which leads directly to the recurrence ( with $\sigma_{0}=1$ )
$\sigma_{m}=\frac{(-1)^{m+1}}{m}\left(S_{m}-\sigma_{1} S_{m-1}+\sigma_{2} S_{m-2}-\cdots+(-1)^{m-1} \sigma_{m-1} S_{1}\right), \quad(m \geq 1)$.
In this way we easily obtain, for example,
$\sigma_{1}=S_{1}$
$\sigma_{2}=\frac{1}{2}\left(S_{1}^{2}-S_{2}\right)$
$\sigma_{3}=\frac{1}{6}\left(S_{1}^{3}-3 S_{1} S_{2}+2 S_{3}\right)$
$\sigma_{4}=\frac{1}{24}\left(S_{1}^{4}-6 S_{1}^{2} S_{2}+3 S_{2}^{2}+8 S_{1} S_{3}-6 S_{4}\right)$
$\sigma_{5}=\frac{1}{120}\left(S_{1}^{5}-10 S_{1}^{3} S_{2}+15 S_{1} S_{2}^{2}+20 S_{1}^{2} S_{3}-20 S_{2} S_{3}-30 S_{1} S_{4}+24 S_{5}\right)$.
For $k=3$ we have to deal with the sum

$$
\sigma_{3}:=\sum_{p} \frac{1}{p(p+1)} \sum_{p<q} \frac{1}{q(q+1)} \sum_{q<r} \frac{1}{r(r+1)}, \quad(p, q, r \text { primes })
$$

In this case we have :

$$
\begin{align*}
& \alpha_{n}=\frac{1}{p_{n}\left(p_{n}+1\right)}, \quad \sigma_{3}=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_{n} \sum_{n<m} \alpha_{m} \sum_{m<r} \alpha_{r}=  \tag{10}\\
&= \sum_{n} \frac{1}{p_{n}\left(p_{n}+1\right)} \sum_{n<m} \frac{1}{p_{m}\left(p_{m}+1\right)} \sum_{m<r} \frac{1}{p_{r}\left(p_{r}+1\right)}
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\sigma_{3}=\frac{1}{6}\left(S_{1}^{3}-3 S_{1} S_{2}+2 S_{3}\right)
$$

Note that we can compute the $S_{n}=\sum_{p} \frac{1}{p^{n}(p+1)^{n}}$ by the formula

$$
\begin{gather*}
S_{n}=\sum_{p} \frac{1}{p^{n}(1+p)^{n}}=\sum_{p} \frac{1}{p^{2 n}}\left(1+\frac{1}{p}\right)^{-n}=\sum_{p} \frac{1}{p^{2 n}} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\binom{-n}{k} \frac{1}{p^{k}}=  \tag{11}\\
=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\binom{-n}{k} \sum_{p} \frac{1}{p^{2 n+k}}=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{k}\binom{n+k-1}{k} P(2 n+k) .
\end{gather*}
$$

Proceeding similarly for $k>3$ we find ( using Mathematica )
$d_{1}=0.20075572201926598699625072311440476585353555535256 \ldots$
$d_{2}=0.02212457447327116398001200235594831757886781598850 \ldots$
$d_{3}=0.00107282792166161493759718417905112998547080207983 \ldots$
$d_{4}=0.00002675935151889275774197228447437877805157715943 \ldots$
$d_{5}=0.00000038349005273872234879455501789109215013442743 \ldots$
$d_{6}=0.00000000344999551430858038744469936300859120389312 \ldots$
$d_{7}=0.00000000002082589566176650564631943168564945749335 \ldots$
$d_{8}=0.00000000000008875408100160712534284102344454925913 \ldots$
$d_{9}=0.00000000000000027791299446558096311346945089946028 \ldots$
$d_{10}=0.00000000000000000066033144111209475278993022631397 \ldots$

## References

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