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Composition of Arithmetical functions with generalization of perfect and related numbers

Abstract. In this paper we have studied the deficient and abundant numbers connected with the composition of $\phi, \phi^*, \sigma, \sigma^*$ and ψ arithmetical functions, where ϕ is Euler totient, ϕ^* is unitary totient, σ is sum of divisor, σ^* is unitary sum of divisor and ψ is Dedekind's function. In 1988, J. Sandor conjectured that $\psi(\phi(m)) \geq m$, for all odd m and proved that this conjecture is equivalent to $\psi(\phi(m)) \geq \frac{m}{2}$ for all m , we have studied this equivalent conjecture. Further, a necessary and sufficient conditions of primitivity for unitary r -deficient numbers and unitary totient r -deficient numbers have been obtained. We have discussed the generalization of perfect numbers for an arithmetical function E_α .

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1. Numbers connected with composition of arithmetical functions.

Let $\sigma(n)$ is the sum of divisors of the positive integer n , then $\sigma(n)$ is defined as

$$\sigma(n) = \sum_{d/n} d \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma(p^\alpha) = \frac{p^{\alpha+1} - 1}{p - 1}, \quad (1.1)$$

$$\sigma(n) \geq n, \quad \text{with equality for } n = 1 \quad (1.2)$$

and

$$\sigma(mn) \geq m\sigma(n) \quad \forall m, n \geq 1, \quad (1.3)$$

$$\sigma(n) \geq n + 1, \quad \text{with equality only for } n = \text{prime}. \quad (1.4)$$

Further, $\phi(n)$ is Euler totient function defined as

$$\phi(n) = n \prod_{p/n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad \phi(p^\alpha) = p^\alpha - p^{\alpha-1}, \quad (1.5)$$

$$\phi(n) \leq n, \quad \text{with equality for } n = 1. \quad (1.6)$$

In J. Sandor [2] it has been proved that

$$\phi(mn) \leq m\phi(n), \quad \text{for any } m, n \geq 2, \quad (1.7)$$

with equality only if $pr\{m\} \subset pr\{n\}$, where $pr\{m\}$ denotes the set of distinct prime factors of m .

Now ψ is called Dedekind's function defined as

$$\psi(n) = n \prod_{p/n} \left(1 + \frac{1}{p}\right) \quad \text{and } \psi(p^\alpha) = p^\alpha + p^{\alpha-1}, \quad (1.8)$$

$$\psi(n) \geq n, \quad \text{with equality for } n = 1, \quad (1.9)$$

$$\psi(n) \geq n + 1, \quad \text{for all } n \geq 1, \text{ with equality only for } n = \text{prime}. \quad (1.10)$$

Further, Sandor [2], has also proved that

$$\psi(mn) \geq m\psi(n), \quad \text{for any } m, n \geq 1. \quad (1.11)$$

Let d is the divisor of n , then d is called unitary divisor of n if $d|n$ and $(d, \frac{n}{d}) = 1$. It is denoted by $d||n$. For these unitary divisors we can define unitary totient and divisor functions. Let σ^* is the sum of all unitary divisors of the positive integers defined as-

$$\sigma^*(n) = \prod_{p^\alpha || n} (p^\alpha + 1), \quad \text{where } \alpha \geq 1$$

or

$$\sigma^*(n) = (p_1^{\alpha_1} + 1)(p_2^{\alpha_2} + 1)\dots(p_r^{\alpha_r} + 1), \quad \text{for } n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdot p_3^{\alpha_3} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r} \quad (1.12)$$

and

$$\sigma^*(n) \geq n \quad \text{with equality for } n = 1. \quad (1.13)$$

Let ϕ^* is unitary totient function defined as

$$\phi^*(n) = \prod_{p^\alpha || n} (p^\alpha - 1)$$

or

$$\phi^*(n) = (p_1^{\alpha_1} - 1)(p_2^{\alpha_2} - 1)\dots(p_r^{\alpha_r} - 1), \quad \text{for } n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r} \quad (1.14)$$

and

$$\phi^*(n) \leq n, \quad \text{with equality for } n = 1. \quad (1.15)$$

All these functions mentioned above are multiplicative satisfying

$$f(mn) = f(m)f(n) \quad \forall(m, n) = 1.$$

In Mladen V. Vassilev- Missana and Krassimir T. Atanassov [4] it has been defined that a number n is called a unitary perfect number if $\sigma^*(n) = 2n$ and it

has been conjectured that there are only a finite number of even ones. The first few unitary perfect numbers are 6, 60, 90, 87360.... Also, n is called unitary super perfect number if

$$\sigma^*(\sigma^*(n)) = 2n.$$

The first few unitary super perfect numbers are 2, 9, 165, 238, 1640..... Similarly a number $n \geq 1$ is called ϕ^* -perfect number if

$$\phi^*(n) = 2n$$

and n is called $\phi^*o\phi^*$ -perfect if $\phi^*(\phi^*(n)) = 2n$.

Now some basic properties of certain arithmetical functions have been defined by the following lemmas-

LEMMA 1 Let n be a k -full number where $k \geq 2$. then $\phi^*(n) \geq n/2$.

PROOF Let $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}$, where $\alpha_i \geq k$ for all $i = \overline{1, r}$.

Now using (1.14), we have

$$\phi^*(n) = (p_1^{\alpha_1} - 1)(p_2^{\alpha_2} - 1) \dots (p_r^{\alpha_r} - 1),$$

so,

$$\begin{aligned} \phi^*(n) &= p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1^{\alpha_1}}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2^{\alpha_2}}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_r^{\alpha_r}}\right) \\ &\geq p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1^k}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2^k}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_r^k}\right) \\ &> n \prod_{p \text{ prime}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^k}\right) = \frac{n}{\zeta(k)}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\phi^*(n) \geq \frac{n}{\zeta(k)} > \frac{n}{2},$$

since

$$\frac{1}{\zeta(k)} > \frac{1}{2},$$

as for $n = 2$, $\frac{1}{\zeta(2)} = \frac{6}{\pi^2} = 0.60792 \dots$ ■

LEMMA 2 Let n be a k -full number where $k \geq 2$, then $\sigma^*(n) < 2n$.

PROOF Let $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}$, where $\alpha_i \geq k$ for all $i = \overline{1, r}$.

Now using (1.12), we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sigma^*(n) &= (p_1^{\alpha_1} + 1)(p_2^{\alpha_2} + 1) \dots (p_r^{\alpha_r} + 1) \\
 &= p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r} \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_1^{\alpha_1}}\right) \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_2^{\alpha_2}}\right) \dots \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_r^{\alpha_r}}\right) \\
 &\leq n \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_1^{\alpha_1}}\right) \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_2^{\alpha_2}}\right) \dots \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_r^{\alpha_r}}\right) \\
 &< n \prod_p \left(1 + \frac{1}{p^k}\right) = \frac{n \prod_p \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^{2k}}\right)}{\prod_p \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^k}\right)} \\
 &= \frac{n \cdot \zeta(k)}{\zeta(2k)} < 2n, \quad \blacksquare
 \end{aligned}$$

since,

$$\frac{n \cdot \zeta(k)}{\zeta(2k)} < 2,$$

as for

$$k = 2, \frac{\zeta(2)}{\zeta(4)} = \frac{15}{\pi^2} = 1.51859504\dots$$

THEOREM 1.1 *Let n is k -full number where $k \geq 2$, then*

- (i) $\sigma^*(\phi^*(n)) > n/2$
- (ii) $\phi^*(\sigma^*(n)) < 2n$

PROOF (i) Let n is k -full number, where $k \geq 2$ using (1.13) and lemma 1, we have

$$\sigma^*(\phi^*(n)) \geq \phi^*(n) > n/2.$$

(ii) Using (1.15) and lemma 2, we have

$$\phi^*(\sigma^*(n)) \leq \sigma^*(n) < 2n.$$

n is called f -abundant and f -deficient if $f(n) > 2n$ and $f(n) < 2n$, where f is an arithmetic function. Further, we have discussed about f -deficient and f -abundant numbers, where $f = hog$ and $h, g : N \rightarrow N$ be two arithmetical functions.

THEOREM 1.2 *Let n be a positive integer and $h, g : N \rightarrow N$ be two arithmetical functions such that $h(g(n)) \leq n$, for any $n \geq 1$, then n is a hog -deficient number.*

PROOF Let n be a positive integer such that $h(g(n)) \leq n < 2n$. So,

$$h(g(n)) < 2n.$$

Hence n is hog -deficient number. \blacksquare

COROLLARY 1.2.1 *There are infinitely many $\phi\psi$ -deficient numbers.*

Let $n = 3 \cdot 2^\alpha$ for any $\alpha \geq 1$, then

$$\psi(3 \cdot 2^\alpha) = 3 \cdot 2^{\alpha+1}$$

and

$$\phi(2^{\alpha+1} \cdot 3) = 2^{\alpha+1},$$

so,

$$\phi(\psi(3 \cdot 2^\alpha)) = \frac{2}{3}n < n.$$

Put $n = 2^\alpha \cdot 5^\beta$ ($\beta \geq 2$), then

$$\phi(\psi(2^\alpha \cdot 5^\beta)) = 2^{\alpha+2} \cdot 3 \cdot 5^{\beta-2} = \frac{12}{25}n < n.$$

Put $n = 3^\alpha$ ($\alpha \geq 1$), then

$$\phi(\psi(3^\alpha)) = \phi(3^{\alpha-1} \cdot 2^2) = \frac{4}{9}n < n.$$

Let $n = 2^\alpha \cdot 7^\beta$ ($\beta \geq 2$), then

$$\phi(\psi(n)) = \frac{24}{49}n < n.$$

In J. Sandor [2] it has been proved that for n is a squarefull number $\phi(\psi(n)) \leq n$ and if n is a product of Mersenne primes then also $\phi(\psi(n)) \leq n$.

Hence by theorem 1.2, there are infinitely many $\phi\psi$ -deficient numbers.

PROPOSITION 1.2.2 *All k -full ($k \geq 2$) positive integers are $\phi^* \sigma \sigma^*$ -deficient numbers.*

PROOF It can be proved easily by theorem- 1.1(ii)

THEOREM 1.3 Let $h, g : N \rightarrow N$ be two arithmetical functions and $n \geq 1$ such that n is g -deficient i.e. $g(n) < 2n$ and $h(m) \leq m$ for all $m \geq 1$, with equality only for $m = 1$ then n is hog -deficient number.

PROOF Let n is a g -deficient number. Since, $h(m) \leq m$ and $g(n) \geq 1$, for all $n \geq 1$ therefore, $h(g(n)) \leq g(n) < 2n$. Hence n is hog -deficient number.

COROLLARY 1.3.1 *All ψ -deficient positive integers which are greater than equal to 3 are $\phi\psi$ -deficient number.*

Let $n \geq 3$ and $\psi(n) < 2n$. In J. Sandor [2] it has been proved by Theorem 3.7 that $\phi(\psi(n)) < n$. Now by theorem 1.2, n is a $\phi\psi$ -deficient number.

THEOREM 1.4 Let $h, g : N \rightarrow N$ be two arithmetic functions such that

- (i) $g(mn) = g(m)g(n) \quad \forall(m, n) = 1$
 - (ii) $h(ab) \leq ah(b)$ for all $a, b \geq 1$
 - (iii) $g(m) \leq m$ with equality for $m = 1$
 - (iv) $h(g(2^\alpha)) < 2^{\alpha+1}$
- then for all even n $h(g(n)) < 2n$.

PROOF Let $n = 2^\alpha m$, with $m = \text{odd}$ and $\alpha \geq 1$. Now, using properties (i), (ii), (iii) and (iv) we have

$$h(g(2^\alpha m)) = h(g(2^\alpha).g(m)) \leq g(m)h(g(2^\alpha)) < m.2^{\alpha+1} = 2n.$$

Hence $h(g(n)) < 2n$. ■

COROLLARY 1.4.1 All even numbers are $\phi o \phi^*$ -deficient.

Let $n = 2^\alpha m$, with $m = \text{odd}$ and $\alpha \geq 1$. Since ϕ^* is multiplicative function, $\phi(ab) \leq a\phi(b)$ for any $m, n \geq 2$, also $\phi^*(m) \leq m$ with equality only for $m = 1$. Further, using (1.14) and (1.6)

$$\phi(\phi^*(2^\alpha)) = \phi(2^\alpha - 1) \leq 2^\alpha - 1 < 2^{\alpha+1} \quad \forall \alpha \geq 1.$$

Hence by theorem 1.4, n is a $\phi o \phi^*$ -deficient number.

COROLLARY 1.4.2 All even $\psi o \sigma$ -abundent numbers n have the form $n = 2^\alpha m$ with $m = \text{odd}$ and where $m > 1, \alpha \geq 1$ such that $\alpha + 1$ is not prime.

On putting $h(m) = \psi(m)$ and $g(n) = \sigma(n)$ in theorem 1.4 and using (1.11) and (1.2), properties (ii) and (iii) are followed. Since, $\sigma(n)$ is a multiplicative function therefore, property (i) is known. Further, using (1.1) and (1.10), we have

$$\psi(\sigma(2^\alpha)) = \psi(2^{\alpha+1} - 1) \geq 2^{\alpha+1},$$

with equality for $2^{\alpha+1} - 1 = \text{prime}$. Using property (i) and equation (1.11), (1.2), (1.1) and (1.10), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(\sigma(2^\alpha m)) &= \psi(\sigma(2^\alpha)\sigma(m)) \geq \sigma(m)\psi(\sigma(2^\alpha)) \\ &\geq m\psi(2^{\alpha+1} - 1) \geq m.2^{\alpha+1} = 2n, \end{aligned}$$

with equality for $m = 1$ and $2^{\alpha+1} - 1 = \text{prime}$.

Since, $2^{\alpha+1} - 1 = \text{prime}$ if $\alpha + 1 = \text{prime}$ therefore, $\psi(\sigma(2^\alpha m)) > 2n$ for $m > 1$ and $\alpha \geq 1$ such that $\alpha + 1$ is not prime.

COROLLARY 1.4.3 Set of all even numbers except 2 are $\sigma o \psi$ -abundent numbers.

Let $n = 2^\alpha m$, with $m = \text{odd}$ and $\alpha \geq 1$, put $h(n) = \sigma(n)$ and $g(n) = \psi(n)$ in theorem 1.4. Now, $\psi(n)$ is multiplicative and using (1.3), (1.9), (ii) and (iii) are followed. Further,

$$\sigma(\psi(2^\alpha)) = \sigma(2^{\alpha-1}.3) = (2^\alpha - 1).4 \geq 2^{\alpha+1},$$

using (1.8), (1.1) and (1.2), we have

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma(\psi(2^\alpha \cdot m)) &= \sigma(2^{\alpha-1} \cdot 3 \cdot m) \geq \sigma(m)\sigma(2^{\alpha-1} \cdot 3) \\ &\geq m(2^\alpha - 1) \cdot 4 \geq m \cdot 2^{\alpha+1},\end{aligned}$$

with equality for only $m = 1$ and $\alpha = 1$.

Hence $n = 2^\alpha \cdot m$, for $\alpha > 1$ and $m > 1$ is $\sigma\psi$ -abundant number.

2. Study of Conjecture. In 1988, J. Sandor [3] conjectured that

$$\phi(\psi(n)) \leq n, \quad \text{for any } n \geq 2. \quad (2.1)$$

In 2005, Sandor [2] also studied the conjecture (2.1) and its properties.

Beside these Sandor [1], [3] also conjectured that

$$\psi(\phi(n)) \geq n, \quad \text{for all odd } n \quad (2.2)$$

and showed that this is equivalent to

$$\psi(\phi(n)) \geq \frac{n}{2}, \quad \text{for all } n. \quad (2.3)$$

Now we will study the conjecture (2.3).

THEOREM 2.1 *Let n is squarefull. Then inequality (2.3) holds true.*

PROOF Let $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdot p_3^{\alpha_3} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}$, where $p_i \geq 2$ and $\alpha_i \geq 2$ for $i = \overline{1, r}$. Now using (1.5)

$$\psi(\phi(n)) = \psi\left(p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_r}\right)\right)$$

using (1.9) and (1.8), we have

$$\begin{aligned}&\psi\left(p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdot p_3^{\alpha_3} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_r}\right)\right) \geq \\ &\left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_r}\right) \psi\left(p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdot p_3^{\alpha_3} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}\right) \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_r}\right) p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r} \\ &\quad \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(1 + \frac{1}{p_r}\right) \\ &= p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1^2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2^2}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_r^2}\right) \\ &= n \prod_{i=1}^r \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i^2}\right) > n \prod_{p \text{ prime}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^2}\right) = \frac{n}{\zeta(2)} = \frac{n \cdot 6}{\pi^2} > \frac{n}{2}, \quad \blacksquare\end{aligned}$$

since,

$$\prod_{p \text{ prime}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^2}\right) = \frac{1}{\zeta(2)} = \frac{6}{\pi^2} = 0.60792\dots$$

Hence

$$\psi(\phi(n)) \geq \frac{n}{2}.$$

THEOREM 2.2 *If $\phi(n) = \frac{\psi(n)}{2}$, then inequality (2.3) holds true.*

PROOF Since, $\phi(n) = \frac{\psi(n)}{2}$ therefore using (1.9)

$$\psi(\phi(n)) = \psi\left(\frac{\psi(n)}{2}\right) \geq \frac{\psi(n)}{2} \geq \frac{n}{2}.$$

Hence inequality (2.3) holds true.

THEOREM 2.3 *There are infinitely many n such that $\psi(\phi(n)) \geq \frac{n}{2}$*

PROOF Let $n = 2^a \cdot 3^b$, for any $a \geq 1$ and $b \geq 2$

$$\phi(n) = \phi(2^a \cdot 3^b) = 2^{a-1} 3^{b-1} 2 = 2^a 3^{b-1}.$$

now

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(\phi(n)) &= \psi(2^a \cdot 3^{b-1}) = 2^{a-1} 3 \cdot 3^{b-2} 2^2 \\ &= 2^{a+1} 3^{b-1} \\ &= \frac{2}{3} n \geq \frac{n}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Let $n = 2^a \cdot 5^b$, for any $a \geq 1$ and $b \geq 2$

$$\phi(n) = \phi(2^a \cdot 5^b) = 2^{a-1} 5^{b-1} 2^2 = 2^{a+1} 5^{b-1}.$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(\phi(n)) &= 2^a \cdot 3 \cdot 5^{b-2} \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \\ &= 2^{a+1} 5^{b-2} \cdot 3^2 \\ &= \frac{18}{25} \cdot n \geq \frac{n}{2}. \end{aligned} \quad \blacksquare$$

We can see that for $n = 3^k$, where $k \geq 1$

$$\phi(n) = \frac{\psi(n)}{2}.$$

So,

$$\psi(\phi(n)) \geq \frac{n}{2}.$$

Further, let $n = 2^a \cdot 7^b$ for $a \geq 1$ and $b \geq 2$

$$\psi(\phi(n)) = \frac{48}{49} \cdot n \geq \frac{n}{2}.$$

For $n = 5^a \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 7$, with $a \geq 2$

$$\phi(n) = 2^4 \cdot 3 \cdot 5^{a-1},$$

now,

$$\psi(\phi(n)) = \psi(2^4 \cdot 3 \cdot 5^{a-1}) = \frac{96}{175} \cdot n \geq \frac{n}{2}.$$

For $n = 7^a \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$, with $a \geq 2$

$$\phi(n) = 2^4 \cdot 3 \cdot 7^{a-1},$$

$$\psi(\phi(n)) = \frac{128}{245} \cdot n \geq \frac{n}{2}.$$

THEOREM 2.4 *There exist so many n for which inequality (2.3) does not hold, true.*

PROOF For many value of n we have found that inequality (2.3) does not hold true.

Let $n = 2^a \cdot 3 \cdot 5$, with $a \geq 1$

$$\psi(\phi(n)) = \frac{2}{5} \cdot n < \frac{n}{2}.$$

Let

$$n = 3^a \cdot 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 7, \quad \text{with } a \geq 1, \psi(\phi(n)) = \frac{16}{35} \cdot n < \frac{n}{2}.$$

Let

$$n = 3^a \cdot 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 11, \quad \text{with } a \geq 1, \psi(\phi(n)) = \frac{192}{385} \cdot n < \frac{n}{2}.$$

Now for $n = 39270$, $n = 82110$ or $n = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 17 \cdot 23 \cdot M$, where M is a Mersenne prime greater than or equal to 31, then (2.3) is not true.

So many other counter examples of n are found for which inequality (2.3) is not true, given as following -

71610, 78540, 117810, 143220, 157080, 164010, 164220, 214830, 235620, 246330, 286440, 314160, 328440, 353430. ■

REMARK For $m = 217140$ and $n = 214830$, $\psi(\phi(m)) = \psi(\phi(n))$ but $\psi(\phi(m)) \geq \frac{m}{2}$.

THEOREM 2.5 *Let $n = 2^k m$, where m is odd and $(2^k, m) = 1$ with $k \geq 1$ such that inequality (2.2) is true for m . Then inequality (2.3) holds true for n .*

PROOF Let $n = 2^k m$, where m is odd and $(2^k, m) = 1$ with $k \geq 1$, then

$$\phi(n) = \phi(2^k m) = \phi(2^k)\phi(m).$$

Using (1.11), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(\phi(n)) &= \psi(2^{k-1}\phi(m)) \geq 2^{k-1}\psi(\phi(m)) \\ &\geq 2^{k-1}m = \frac{n}{2}, \end{aligned} \quad \blacksquare$$

since, inequality (2.2) is true for m .

Hence

$$\psi(\phi(n)) \geq \frac{n}{2}.$$

THEOREM 2.6 Let $n \geq 2$, then inequality (2.3) is true for n if it is true for squarefree part of $n \geq 2$.

PROOF Let $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}$ and square free part of n is m . Then, $m = p_1 \cdot p_2 \dots p_r$. Using (1.5), (1.11), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(\phi(n)) &= \psi(\phi(p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r})) \\ &= \psi(p_1^{\alpha_1-1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2-1} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r-1} (p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1) \dots (p_r - 1)) \\ &\geq p_1^{\alpha_1-1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2-1} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r-1} \psi((p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1) \dots (p_r - 1)) \\ &= \frac{n}{m} \psi(\phi(m)). \end{aligned} \quad \blacksquare$$

So,

$$\psi(\phi(n)) \geq \frac{n}{m} \psi(\phi(m)).$$

Thus,

$$\frac{\psi(\phi(n))}{n} \geq \frac{\psi(\phi(m))}{m}.$$

Since, inequality (2.3) is true for square free part m of n therefore,

$$\psi(\phi(n)) \geq \frac{n}{2}.$$

3. Primitive Unitary Deficient Numbers. In V.Siva Rama Prasad and D. Ram Reddy [5] primitive abundant numbers have been defined as-

An abundant number $n \geq 1$ is said to be primitive if each of its divisor, other than n is deficient.

A positive integer n is called unitary abundant or deficient if $\sigma^*(n) > 2n$ or $\sigma^*(n) < 2n$. Further, n is called unitary r -abundant or unitary r -deficient for a real number $r \geq 2$ if

$$\sigma^*(n) > rn \quad \text{or} \quad \sigma^*(n) < rn.$$

For a real number $r \geq 2$ a unitary r -abundent number is said to be primitive if each of its unitary divisor other than n is unitary r -deficient.

V. Siva Rama Prasad and D. Ram Reddy [5] have given a necessary and sufficient condition for a unitary r -abundent number to be primitive. Further, primitive unitary r -deficient numbers have been defined as-

An unitary r -deficient number is said to be primitive if each of its unitary divisor other than n is unitary r -abundent.

Now, for a real number $r \geq 2$ primitive unitary totient r -abundent and primitive unitary totient r -deficient numbers have been defined as-

A positive integer n is called unitary totient r -abundent if

$$\phi^*(n) > rn, \quad (3.1)$$

n is called unitary totient r -deficient if

$$\phi^*(n) < rn. \quad (3.2)$$

An unitary totient r -abundent number is called primitive if all of its unitary divisors other than n are unitary totient r -deficient.

An unitary totient r -deficient number is called primitive if all of its unitary divisors other than n are unitary totient r -abundent.

A necessary sufficient condition of primitivity for unitary r -deficient and unitary totient r -deficient numbers have been given by the following theorems-

Let p^α be a unitary divisor of $n \geq 1$ then it can be proved very easily that a unitary r -deficient number n is primitive if and only if

$$\frac{\sigma^*\left(\frac{n}{p^\alpha}\right)}{\frac{n}{p^\alpha}} > r,$$

p being a prime and $\alpha \geq 1$ is an integer.

THEOREM 3.1: *If a natural number $n \geq 1$ is a unitary r -deficient number. Then n is primitive if and only if*

$$\sigma^*(n) - rn > \frac{rn}{q^\gamma},$$

where $r \geq 2$ is a real number and q^γ is the largest prime power such that $q^\gamma || n$.

PROOF If a natural number $n \geq 1$ is a unitary r -deficient number then n is primitive if and only if

$$\frac{\sigma^*\left(\frac{n}{p^\alpha}\right)}{\frac{n}{p^\alpha}} > r, \quad \text{for } p^\alpha || n, \quad (3.3)$$

with p being a prime and $\alpha \geq 1$ an integer.

As $\sigma^*(n)$ is a multiplicative function so, using (3.3), we have

$$\frac{\sigma^*(n)}{\sigma^*(q^\gamma)} = \sigma^*\left(\frac{n}{q^\gamma}\right) > r \frac{n}{q^\gamma},$$

for $q^\gamma || n$, with q being a prime and $\gamma \geq 1$

Further, using (1.12), we have

$$\sigma^*(n)q^\gamma > rn(q^\gamma + 1),$$

which implies.

$$\sigma^*(n) - rn > \frac{rn}{q^\gamma}.$$

Now conversely for a real number $r \geq 2$ and natural number $n \geq 1$.

Let

$$\sigma^*(n) - rn > \frac{rn}{q^\gamma},$$

this implies that

$$\sigma^*(n)q^\gamma > rn(q^\gamma + 1),$$

using (1.12), we have

$$\frac{\sigma^*(n)}{\sigma^*(q^\gamma)} = \sigma^*\left(\frac{n}{q^\gamma}\right) > \frac{rn}{q^\gamma},$$

where $q^\gamma || n$ with q prime and $r \geq 1$ a integer.

Hence the theorem. ■

THEOREM 3.2 *Let n is unitary totient r -deficient number. Then n is primitive if and only if*

$$\phi^*(n) + \frac{rn}{q^\gamma} > rn$$

where $r \geq 2$ be a real number and q^γ is the largest prime power such that $q^\gamma || n$.

PROOF Let n is primitive unitary totient r -deficient number then we have

$$\frac{\phi^*(rn/p^\alpha)}{\frac{n}{p^\alpha}} > r, \quad \text{for each } p^\alpha || n \quad (3.4)$$

using (3.4) and (1.14), we have

$$\frac{\phi^*(n)}{\phi^*(q^\gamma)} = \phi^*\left(\frac{n}{q^\gamma}\right) > \frac{rn}{q^\gamma},$$

this implies that

$$\phi^*(n)q^\gamma > rn(q^\gamma - 1),$$

so,

$$\phi^*(n) + \frac{rn}{q^\gamma} > rn.$$

Conversely, for $r \geq 2$, being a real number and $n \geq 1$, be a natural number let $\phi^*(n) + \frac{rn}{q^\gamma} > rn$ which implies that $\phi^*\left(\frac{n}{q^\gamma}\right) > r\frac{n}{q^\gamma}$, where $q^\gamma || n$.

Hence n is an unitary totient r -deficient number. ■

THEOREM 3.3

$$\lim_{\substack{n \rightarrow \infty \\ n \in D_r}} \frac{\phi^*(n)}{n} = r,$$

where D_r denotes the set of all primitive unitary totient r -deficient numbers.

PROOF Since $\phi^*(n) \leq rn$ for $n \in D_r$, we have

$$\lim_{\substack{n \rightarrow \infty \\ n \in D_r}} \frac{\phi^*(n)}{n} \leq r \quad (3.5)$$

If strict inequality holds in (3.5), then we have

$$\lim_{\substack{n \rightarrow \infty \\ n \in D_r}} \frac{\phi^*(n)}{n} = r - \epsilon \quad \text{for } \epsilon > 0.$$

Now, by the definition of limit infimum, there are infinitely many n in D_r for which

$$\frac{\phi^*(n)}{n} \leq r + \frac{\epsilon}{2}. \quad (3.6)$$

But for every $n \in D_r$ by theorem 3.2, we have

$$\frac{\phi^*(n)}{n} > r - \frac{r}{q^\gamma}, \quad \text{where } q^\gamma || n, \quad (3.7)$$

using (3.6) and (3.7), we have

$$r - \frac{r}{q^\gamma} < r + \frac{\epsilon}{2},$$

which gives $q^\gamma < \frac{2r}{\epsilon}$ which shows that possible values of n are finite which contradicts (3.6). Hence

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\phi^*(n)}{n} = r.$$

4. Generalization of Perfect Numbers for Certain Arithmetical Functions. Here we will discuss some arithmetical functions and their properties given by Mladen V. Vassilev Missana and Krassimir T. Atanassov [4] as following:-

For $n \in N$ and $n \geq 1$, we define a function $\sigma_\alpha(n)$ is the sum of α -th power of all divisors of $n \in N$, where α is a real number and

$$\sigma_\alpha(1) = 1 \quad \text{i.e.}$$

$$\sigma_\alpha(n) = \sum_{d|n} d^\alpha, \quad (4.1)$$

$\sigma_\alpha(n)$ is multiplicative and σ_0 is denoted by d .

$d(n)$ is the number of all different divisors of $n \in N$ and

$$d(n) = \prod_{i=1}^k (\alpha_i + 1) \quad \text{if } n = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{\alpha_i}$$

also,
$$d(n) = \sum_{d/n} 1.$$

Now $d(1) = 1$. As usually σ_1 is denoted by σ . Where $\sigma(n)$ is the sum of all divisors of n .

$$d(n) \geq 2 \quad \text{if } n > 1, \quad (4.2)$$

with equality holds for only $n = p$, where p is prime.

E_α is the completely multiplicative function given by

$$E_\alpha(n) = n^\alpha, \quad \text{for } n \in N, \quad (4.3)$$

where α is a fixed real number

$$E_\alpha(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \alpha = 0 \\ n & \text{if } \alpha = 1 \end{cases}, \quad (4.4)$$

e is the unit function defined by $e(n) = 1$ for all $n \in N$,

now we obtain

$$\sigma_\alpha = E_\alpha * e. \quad (4.5)$$

Mladen V. Vassilevi and Krassimir T. Atanassov [4] have defined generalization of perfect numbers as follows:-

Perfect Numbers- A number $n \in N$ is called perfect number if $\sigma(n) = 2n$, where $\sigma(n)$ denotes the sum of all divisors of n .

f -perfect numbers- Let f be a fixed arithmetic function. A number $n \in N$ is said to be f -perfect iff

$$\sum_{d/n} f(d) = 2f(n). \quad (4.6)$$

fg - perfect numbers- Let f and g are two arithmetic functions then a number $n \in N$ is said to be fg -perfect number iff

$$(g * f)(n) = 2f(n), \quad (4.7)$$

where $(g * f)(n) = \sum_{d/n} g(d)f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)$.

Ω_G -perfect numbers- For a given arithmetic function G , $n \in N$ is said to be Ω_G -perfect number if

$$G(n) = n. \quad (4.8)$$

If $G = \frac{1}{2}\sigma$ i.e. for each $n \in N$

$$G(n) = \frac{1}{2}\sigma(n),$$

then Ω_G -perfect numbers coincide with ordinary perfect numbers.

It is seen that if $f(n) > 0$ for each $n \in N$, then f -perfect numbers are Ω_G -perfect numbers too, because we can write for each $n \in N$

$$G(n) = \frac{n \sum_{d/n} f(d)}{2f(n)}.$$

Also, it is seen that if $G(n) > 0$ for each $n \in N$, then fg -perfect numbers are Ω_G -perfect numbers too for G that is given for each $n \in N$ by

$$G(n) = \frac{n(g * f)(n)}{2f(n)}.$$

[F, S] perfect numbers- Let F be a given arithmetic function and $S \neq 0$ be a real number. A number $n \in N$ is said to be $[F, S]$ perfect number iff n satisfies

$$F(n) = S.n. \quad (4.9)$$

It is seen that if n is $[F, S]$ perfect number then n is Ω_G -perfect number too, for G that is given for each $n \in N$ by

$$G(n) = \frac{1}{S}F(n). \quad (4.10)$$

It is seen that if n is Ω_G -perfect number then n is a $[F, S]$ - perfect number too because we can write for each $n \in N$

$$F(n) = S.G(n). \quad (4.11)$$

It is seen that if $f(n) > 0$ for each $n \in N$ then $[F, 2]$ perfect numbers coincide with f -perfect numbers.

Where F is the function given by

$$F(n) = \frac{n \sum_{d/n} f(d)}{f(n)}. \quad (4.12)$$

$[F, 2]$ - perfect numbers coincide with fg -perfect numbers, where F is the function given for each $n \in N$ by

$$F(n) = \frac{n(g * f)(n)}{f(n)}. \quad (4.13)$$

Here we have generalized all the perfect numbers given above for arithmetic function E_α .

PROPOSITION 4.1. For $\alpha = \beta$, $E_{\beta-\alpha}$ -perfect numbers coincide with the set of all prime numbers.

PROOF Since,

$$\sum_{d/n} E_{\beta-\alpha}(d) = \sum_{d/n} E_0(d), \quad \text{for } \alpha = \beta.$$

Therefore, using (4.4) and (4.2), we get

$$\sum_{d/n} E_0(d) = \sum_{d/n} 1 = d(n) \geq 2E_0(n), \quad \text{for } n > 1,$$

since, equality holds for $n = p$, where p is a prime number.

Therefore, $\sum_{d/n} E_0(d) = 2E_0(n)$ only for $n = p$, where p is a prime number.

Hence, for $\alpha = \beta$, $E_{\beta-\alpha}$ -perfect numbers coincide with the set of all prime numbers. ■

THEOREM 4.2. *Let $\alpha = \beta - 1$ and $\beta \geq 1$ be a fixed real number. Then $E_{\beta-\alpha}$ perfect numbers coincide with ordinary perfect numbers.*

PROOF Let n is a $E_{\beta-\alpha}$ perfect number. Using (4.3) and (4.1), we get

$$\sum_{d/n} E_{\beta-\alpha}(d) = \sum_{d/n} d^{\beta-\alpha} = \sum_{d/n} d = \sigma(n), \quad \text{for } \alpha = \beta - 1 \text{ and } \beta \geq 1.$$

Using (4.6), we have

$$\sum_{d/n} E_{\beta-\alpha}(d) = 2E_{\beta-\alpha}(n) = 2n^{\beta-\alpha} = 2n, \quad \text{for } \alpha = \beta - 1 \text{ and } \beta \geq 1.$$

So, $\sigma(n) = 2n$. Hence n is a perfect number. ■

PROPOSITION 4.3. *If $G(n) = E_{\beta-\alpha}$, where $\alpha = \beta - 1$ and $\beta \geq 1$ then n is Ω_G -perfect number.*

PROOF Using (4.8) and (4.4)

$$E(n) = n \quad \text{for } \alpha = \beta - 1.$$

Hence n is a Ω_G -perfect number. ■

THEOREM 4.4. *If $F(n) = E_{\alpha}\sigma_{\beta-\alpha}$, where $\alpha = \beta - 1$ and $\beta \geq 1$ be a fixed real number then for a real number $S = 2n^{\alpha}$, $[F, S]$ - perfect numbers coincide with $E_{\beta-\alpha}$ perfect numbers.*

PROOF Let n is a $[F, S]$ -perfect number, using (4.9), $E_{\alpha}\sigma_{\beta-\alpha}(n) = S.n = 2n^{\alpha}n = 2n^{\beta}$, where $S = 2n^{\alpha}$ and $\alpha = \beta - 1$. Using (4.3) and (4.1),

$$E_{\alpha}\sigma_{\beta-\alpha}(n) = n^{\alpha} \sum_{d/n} d^{\beta-\alpha} = 2n^{\beta},$$

so, $\sum_{d/n} d^{\beta-\alpha} = 2n^{\beta-\alpha}$. Thus, $\sum_{d/n} E_{\beta-\alpha}(d) = 2E_{\beta-\alpha}(n)$. Hence n is a $E_{\beta-\alpha}$ - perfect number. ■

THEOREM 4.5. *If $F = E_\alpha \sigma_{\beta-\alpha}$, where $\alpha = \beta - 1$ and $\beta \geq 1$ be fixed real number then for a real number $S = 2n^\alpha$, $[F, S]$ perfect numbers coincide with the set of perfect numbers.*

PROOF Let n is a $[F, S]$ - perfect number. Using (4.9), we get

$$E_\alpha \sigma_{\beta-\alpha}(n) = 2n^\beta,$$

using (4.3)

$$\sigma_{\beta-\alpha}(n) = 2n^{\beta-\alpha}.$$

Since, $\alpha = \beta - 1$ therefore, $\sigma(n) = 2n$. Hence n is a perfect number. ■

THEOREM 4.6. *$[E_\alpha \sigma_{\beta-\alpha}, S]$ -perfect numbers coincide with $(E_{\beta-\alpha})e$ -perfect numbers, where $S = 2n^\alpha$, $\alpha = \beta - 1$ and $\beta \geq 1$.*

PROOF Let n is $[E_\alpha \sigma_{\beta-\alpha}, S]$ -perfect number, using (4.9), we get

$$E_\alpha \sigma_{\beta-\alpha}(n) = S.n = 2n^\alpha.n.$$

Since, $E_\alpha \sigma_{\beta-\alpha}(n) = E_\alpha(n)\sigma_{\beta-\alpha}(n) = n^\alpha \sigma_{\beta-\alpha}(n)$ therefore, $\sigma_{\beta-\alpha}(n) = 2n$. Since, $\sigma_{\beta-\alpha}(n) = (E_{\beta-\alpha} * e)(n) = (e * E_{\beta-\alpha})(n) = 2n$ (using, (4.5)) therefore,

$(E_{\beta-\alpha} * e)(n) = 2n^{\beta-\alpha} = 2E_{\beta-\alpha}$, for $\alpha = \beta - 1$. Hence n is $(E_{\beta-\alpha})e$ -perfect number. ■

THEOREM 4.7. *For $\alpha = \beta - 1$, $(E_{\beta-\alpha})e$ -perfect numbers coincide with the set of all perfect numbers.*

PROOF Let n is a $(E_{\beta-\alpha})e$ -perfect number. Then, $(e * E_{\beta-\alpha})(n) = 2E_{\beta-\alpha}(n) = 2n^{\beta-\alpha}$. Since, $(e * E_{\beta-\alpha})(n) = (E_{\beta-\alpha} * e)(n) = \sigma_{\beta-\alpha}(n)$ (using, (4.5)) therefore, $\sigma_{\beta-\alpha}(n) = 2n^{\beta-\alpha}$. For $\alpha = \beta - 1$, we can write $\sigma(n) = 2n$. Hence n is a perfect number. ■

We have concluded that if $F(n) = E_\alpha \sigma_{\beta-\alpha}$, $f(n) = E_{\beta-\alpha}$ and $g(n) = e(n)$ then for $\alpha = \beta$, f -perfect numbers coincide with the set of all prime numbers. If $\alpha = \beta - 1$ and $\beta \geq 1$ and $S = 2n^\alpha$ be a fixed real number then f -perfect numbers, $[F, S]$ -perfect numbers and fg -perfect numbers coincide with ordinary perfect numbers.

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