

## An Short Note on the Sequence $\Omega(n)$

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### Abstract

We shall denote ( see [1]) with  $\Omega(n)$  the number of prime factors in the prime factorization of  $n$ . Hence

$$\Omega(1) = 0, \Omega(2) = 1, \Omega(3) = 1, \Omega(4) = 2, \Omega(5) = 1, \Omega(6) = 2, \dots$$

In this note we study the sequence

$$S(n) = \frac{\Omega(n+r-1) + \dots + \Omega(n+1) + \Omega(n)}{\Omega(n-1) + \Omega(n-2) + \dots + \Omega(n-t)}$$

where  $r \geq 1$  and  $t \geq 1$  are fixed. In a short elementary proof we find that

$$\liminf S(n) = 0 \quad \limsup S(n) = \infty$$

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## 1 Main Results

**Theorem 1.1** *Let  $r \geq 1$  and  $t \geq 1$  fixed. Let us consider the sequence*

$$S(n) = \frac{\Omega(n+r-1) + \dots + \Omega(n+1) + \Omega(n)}{\Omega(n-1) + \Omega(n-2) + \dots + \Omega(n-t)}$$

*Then the following limits hold*

$$\liminf S(n) = 0 \quad \limsup S(n) = \infty$$

*In particular if  $r = 1$  and  $t = 1$  we have*

$$\liminf \frac{\Omega(n)}{\Omega(n-1)} = 0 \quad \limsup \frac{\Omega(n)}{\Omega(n-1)} = \infty$$

Proof. In the proof,  $p_n$  is the  $n$ -th prime number and  $\pi(x)$  is the number of primes not exceeding  $x$ .

Let us consider the primes not exceeding  $k$  ( $k \geq 2$ ), that is  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_h$  where  $h = \pi(k)$ .

Now, let us consider the following number  $N$  which depend of  $n$  and  $s$  (where  $n$  and  $s$  are large)

$$N = (p_1 p_2 \dots p_h)^n p_{h+1} p_{h+2} \dots p_s$$

We have

$$\Omega(N) = \pi(k)n + s - \pi(k)$$

On the other hand

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega(N-1) + \Omega(N-2) + \dots + \Omega(N-k) &= \Omega((N-1) \dots (N-k)) \\ &= \Omega(k!) + \Omega\left((N-1) \left(\frac{N}{2} - 1\right) \dots \left(\frac{N}{k} - 1\right)\right) \leq \\ \Omega(k!) + \log_{p_{s+1}}\left((N-1) \left(\frac{N}{2} - 1\right) \dots \left(\frac{N}{k} - 1\right)\right) &\leq \Omega(k!) + \log_{p_{s+1}} N^k \\ &= k \frac{\log(p_1 p_2 \dots p_h)}{\log p_{s+1}} n + k \log_{p_{s+1}}(p_{h+1} p_{h+2} \dots p_s) + \Omega(k!) \end{aligned}$$

Clearly, if  $M > 0$  then there exist  $s$  and  $n$  sufficiently large such that

$$\frac{\Omega(N)}{\Omega(N-1) + \Omega(N-2) + \dots + \Omega(N-k)} > M$$

Therefore

$$\limsup S(n) = \limsup \frac{\Omega(n+r-1) + \dots + \Omega(n+1) + \Omega(n)}{\Omega(n-1) + \Omega(n-2) + \dots + \Omega(n-t)} = \infty$$

In the same way we obtain if  $\epsilon > 0$  then there exist  $s$  and  $n$  sufficiently large such that

$$\frac{\Omega(N+k) + \dots + \Omega(N+2) + \Omega(N+1)}{\Omega(N)} < \epsilon$$

Therefore

$$\liminf S(n) = \liminf \frac{\Omega(n+r-1) + \dots + \Omega(n+1) + \Omega(n)}{\Omega(n-1) + \Omega(n-2) + \dots + \Omega(n-t)} = 0$$

The theorem is thus proved.

**Corollary 1.2** *Let  $r \geq 1$  and  $k \geq 1$  fixed. Then the inequality*

$$\Omega(n+r-1) + \dots + \Omega(n+1) + \Omega(n) > \Omega(n-1) + \Omega(n-2) + \dots + \Omega(n-k)$$

has infinitely many solutions. That is, it is true for infinite  $n$ . Analogously, the contrary inequality

$$\Omega(n+r-1) + \dots + \Omega(n+1) + \Omega(n) < \Omega(n-1) + \Omega(n-2) + \dots + \Omega(n-k)$$

has infinitely many solutions.

**Definition 1.3** Let us consider a set of  $k$  consecutive integer numbers  $n+1, n+2, \dots, n+k$  ( $k \geq 1$ ). We shall call this set of numbers an integer interval  $I = [n+1, n+k]$  of amplitude  $A(I) = k$ , where  $n+1$  is the first number of the interval and  $n+k$  is the last number. On the other hand, the notation  $\Omega(I)$  mean  $\Omega(n+1) + \dots + \Omega(n+k)$ . Two integer intervals  $I$  and  $J$  in this order are consecutives when the first number of the second interval is the consecutive of the last number of the first interval. For example  $[1,8]$  and  $[9,24]$  are consecutive integer intervals.

Let us consider a partition of the positive integers in consecutive integer intervals.

$$I_1 = [1, n], I_2 = [n+1, n+a_1], I_3 = [n+a_1+1, n+a_2], \dots$$

Clearly the inequality  $\Omega(I_n) < \Omega(I_{n+1})$  has infinitely many solutions since  $\limsup \Omega(n) = \infty$ .

It is easy to build partitions such that

$$\Omega(I_1) < \Omega(I_2) < \Omega(I_3) < \dots \tag{1}$$

That is,  $\Omega(I_n) < \Omega(I_{n+1})$  for all  $n$ .

In the next theorem we shall prove that (1) is impossible if there exists  $B$  such that  $A(I_n) \leq B$  for all  $n$  ( for example if  $A(I_n) = B$  for all  $n$ ).

**Theorem 1.4** Let us consider a partition of the positive integers in consecutive integers intervals

$$I_1 = [1, n], I_2 = [n+1, n+a_1], I_3 = [n+a_1+1, n+a_2], \dots$$

such that  $A(I_n) \leq B$  for all  $n$ , then the inequality  $\Omega(I_n) > \Omega(I_{n+1})$  has infinitely many solutions.

Proof. It is well known [1] that

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \Omega(n) \sim x \log \log x$$

Therefore

$$\sum_{x < n \leq 2x} \Omega(n) \sim x \log \log x$$

If  $x = 2^{k-1}$  we have

$$\sum_{2^{k-1} < n \leq 2^k} \Omega(n) \sim 2^{k-1} \log k \quad (2)$$

The integer interval  $[2^{k-1}, 2^k]$  include a number  $C(k)$  of consecutive intervals  $I_s$ . Clearly

$$C(k) \geq \left\lfloor \frac{2^{k-1}}{N} \right\rfloor - 1$$

Suppose that from a certain  $n$ ,  $\Omega(I_n) \leq \Omega(I_{n+1})$ , then for each of the  $C(k)$  intervals  $I_s$  we have  $\Omega(I_s) \geq k - 1$ . Therefore

$$\sum_{2^{k-1} < n \leq 2^k} \Omega(n) \geq \left( \left\lfloor \frac{2^{k-1}}{N} \right\rfloor - 1 \right) (k - 1) \quad (3)$$

If  $k$  is large (2) and (3) are an evident contradiction. The theorem is thus proved.

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## References

- [1] G.H. Hardy and E. M. Wright, *An introduction to the theory of numbers*, Oxford, 1960.

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