# Investigations of the Number Derivative 

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#### Abstract

This paper explores the number derivative, $n^{\prime}$, which is defined in terms of the prime factorization of a positive integer $n$. We find an explicit formula and bounds for the function and investigate how the prime factorizations of $n$ and $n^{\prime}$ are related. We then extend the function (originally defined only on $\mathbb{Z}^{+} \cup\{0\}$ ) to the rational numbers and discuss its limits and continuity. Finally, we analyze several equations involving the derivative and seek the conditions under which they have a solution.


## 1 Introduction

The prime factorizations of the integers provide an interesting field of study. The following function, called the number derivative, was proposed at the 14th Summer Conference of International Tournament of Towns [1], and is defined as follows:

$$
\left.\begin{array}{l}
\text { Let }{ }^{\prime}: \mathbb{Z}^{+} \cup\{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{+} \cup\{0\} \\
\text { 1. } p^{\prime}=1 \text { for all primes } p . \\
\text { 2. }(n m)^{\prime}=n^{\prime} m+m^{\prime} n  \tag{1}\\
\text { 3. } 0^{\prime}=0
\end{array}\right\}
$$

The number derivative's second rule is analogous to the product rule from calculus, and this relationship earns the number derivative its name. This function was defined only recently and its properties have not been extensively studied. It is interesting because of its relation to the prime numbers, and because its complexity is masked by its simple definition.

Many unsolved problems of number theory can be posed in the context of the number derivative. For example, is it true that for each $b \in \mathbb{Z}$, there exists an $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n^{\prime}=2 b$ ? Since the number derivative of the product of two primes is the sum of those primes, a proof of Goldbach's Conjecture would also prove the truth of this statement. Similarly, a proof of the twin primes conjecture would imply that there are infinitely many $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n^{\prime \prime}=1$. Proving these statements about the number derivative would provide another context from which to view Goldbach's conjecture or the twin primes conjecture, and might provide further insight into these famous problems.

In section 2, we verify that the function is well-defined by deriving its explicit formula. In Section 3 we find the bounds of the function. In Section 4 we extend the function and the concept of a unique prime factorization to the rational numbers. In Section 5 we extend to the negative rationals and explore higher order derivatives. In Section 6 we discuss rational solutions to the equation $x^{\prime}=a$. In Section 7 we discuss limits of the function. In Section 8
we find the values of $\alpha$ for which the equation $x^{\prime}=\alpha x$ has a solution. Finally, in Section 9 we look at values of $\alpha$ for which $n^{\prime}=\alpha n$ has a solution, $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

## 2 Definition and Explicit Form

Using the definition of the number derivative (1), we will show that the function is welldefined by confirming its explicit formula.

Theorem 1. If $n=p_{1}^{a_{1}} \ldots p_{k}^{a_{k}}$, then $n^{\prime}=n \sum_{i} \frac{a_{i}}{p_{i}}$.
First let us express $n$ as $n=p_{1} \ldots p_{m}$, with the $p_{i}$ not necessarily distinct.
We will show by induction on $m$ that $n^{\prime}=n \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{p_{i}}$. If $m=1$ the statement is trivial.
Assuming that $n^{\prime}=n \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{p_{i}}$, we will show that $\left(n p_{m+1}\right)^{\prime}=n p_{m+1} \sum_{i=1}^{m+1} \frac{1}{p_{i}}$. Thus

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(n p_{m+1}\right)^{\prime} & =n p_{m+1}^{\prime}+n^{\prime} p_{m+1} \\
& =n+n p_{m+1} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{p_{i}} \\
& =n p_{m+1} \sum_{i=1}^{m+1} \frac{1}{p_{i}} . \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore, if $n=p_{1} \ldots p_{m}$, then $n^{\prime}=n \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{p_{i}}$. Now if we represent $n$ as $n=p_{1}^{a_{1}} \ldots p_{k}^{a_{k}}$, the formula translates to

$$
\begin{equation*}
n^{\prime}=n \sum_{i} \frac{a_{i}}{p_{i}} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is the explicit formula for the number derivative.

## 3 Bounds for the Number Derivative

A plot of the number derivative function (Figure 1) suggests that it might be bounded based on the size of $n$ for a composite $n$.

We find a lower bound for the function based on $n$ and the number of prime factors of $n$. For an $n$ with $k$ factors,

$$
\begin{equation*}
n^{\prime}=n\left(\frac{1}{p_{i}}+\cdots+\frac{1}{p_{k}}\right) \text { where } p_{1} \cdots p_{k}=n \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

This expression is smallest when each $p_{k}=\sqrt[k]{n}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
n^{\prime} \geq n \frac{k}{\sqrt[k]{n}}=k n^{\frac{k-1}{k}} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

We prove that $\frac{n \log _{2}(n)}{2}$ is an upper bound for the number derivative over all $n$. Indeed,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{n \log _{2}(n)}{2} & =\frac{n \log _{2}\left(p_{1}^{a_{1}} \ldots p_{k}^{a_{k}}\right)}{2} \\
& \geq \frac{n \log _{2}\left(2^{a_{1}+\cdots+a_{k}}\right)}{2} \\
& =n \frac{a_{1}+\cdots+a_{k}}{2} \\
& \geq n\left(\frac{a_{1}}{p_{1}}+\cdots+\frac{a_{k}}{p_{k}}\right)=n^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

We can also find different upper bounds for the function when we limit the number of factors of $n$ as in the last subsection. If we limit $n$ to $k$ factors, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
n^{\prime} & =\frac{n}{p_{1}}+\cdots+\frac{n}{p_{k}} \\
& \leq(k-1) \frac{n}{2}+\frac{n}{n / 2^{k-1}} \\
& =\frac{k-1}{2} n+2^{k-1} . \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore, for any $n$ with $k$ factors,

$$
\begin{equation*}
k n^{\frac{k-1}{k}} \leq n^{\prime} \leq 2^{k-1}+\frac{k-1}{2} n . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

These bounding functions divide the graph of $n$ vs. $n^{\prime}$ into regions corresponding to the number of factors of $n$.


Figure 1: The Number Derivative for $n \leq 120$

## 4 Extension to the Rational Numbers

The number derivative has a meaningful extension to the rational numbers, which can be derived as follows for $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$, so that $\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}^{+}$. Express $a^{\prime}$ as $\left(b \cdot \frac{a}{b}\right)^{\prime}$. Then, by (1):

$$
\begin{align*}
a^{\prime}=\left(b \cdot \frac{a}{b}\right)^{\prime} & =b\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^{\prime}+\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) b^{\prime} \\
b\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^{\prime} & =a^{\prime}-\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) b^{\prime} \\
\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^{\prime} & =\frac{b a^{\prime}-a b^{\prime}}{b^{2}} \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

Before we derive the explicit formula for the number derivative, we will extend the concept of a unique prime factorization into $\mathbb{Q}^{+}$. First, instead of writing the prime factorization of an integer as $p_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{a_{k}}$, where $p_{i}$ denotes an arbitrary prime and $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$, let us write it as an infinite product $p_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{a_{k}} \cdots$, where $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}^{+} \cup\{0\}$ and $p_{i}$ denotes the $i$ th prime. Then consider a rational number $\frac{a}{b}$ such that $a=p_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{a_{k}} \cdots$ and $b=p_{1}^{b_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{b_{k}} \cdots$. Then we define the prime factorization of a rational number $c=\frac{a}{b}$ as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
c=\frac{a}{b}=p_{1}^{a_{1}-b_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{a_{k}-b_{k}} \cdots=p_{1}^{c_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{c_{k}} \cdots \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $p_{i}$ is the $i$ th prime and $c_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 2. The derivative of a rational number c whose prime factorization is $p_{1}^{c_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{c_{k}} \cdots$ is given by $c^{\prime}=c \sum_{i} \frac{c_{i}}{p_{i}}$.

Proof. We find the explicit form by using the recursive formula from (8), where $a=p_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{a_{k}}$ and $b=p_{1}^{b_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{b_{k}}$. The explicit formula for integers (3) still applies to an integer expressed as an infinite product $p_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{a_{k}} \cdots$, since $\sum_{i} \frac{a_{i}}{p_{i}}=\sum_{i \mid a_{i} \neq 0} \frac{a_{i}}{p_{i}}+\sum_{i \mid a_{i}=0} \frac{a_{i}}{p_{i}}=\sum_{i \mid a_{i} \neq 0} \frac{a_{i}}{p_{i}}=n^{\prime}$. Therefore,

$$
\begin{align*}
c^{\prime}=\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^{\prime} & =\frac{b^{\prime} a-a b^{\prime}}{b^{2}} \\
& =\frac{b a \sum_{i} \frac{a_{i}}{p_{i}}-a b \sum_{i} \frac{b_{i}}{p_{i}}}{b^{2}} \\
& =\frac{a}{b}\left(\sum_{i} \frac{a_{i}}{p_{i}}-\sum_{i} \frac{b_{i}}{p_{i}}\right) \\
& =\frac{a}{b}\left(\sum_{i} \frac{a_{i}-b_{i}}{p_{i}}\right)=c \sum_{i} \frac{c_{i}}{p_{i}} . \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

This is the explicit form for the number derivative on $\mathbb{Q}^{+}$.

## 5 Higher Order Derivatives on Rational Numbers

Because many rational derivatives are negative, we are interested in an extension of the number derivative to the negative numbers. The extension is derived as follows. First we seek the derivative of $(-1)$. Because $((-1)(-1))^{\prime}=2(-1)(-1)^{\prime}=0\left(\right.$ using $\left.(1), 1^{\prime}=0\right)$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
(-1)^{\prime}=0 . \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, by applying the product rule to an arbitrary $a \in \mathbb{Q}$ we have

$$
\begin{align*}
((-1)(a))^{\prime}=(-1)^{\prime} a+a^{\prime}(-1) & =(-a)^{\prime} \\
-a^{\prime} & =(-a)^{\prime} \tag{12}
\end{align*}
$$

which is the extension to the negative rationals.
Theorems 3 and 4 relate the prime q-factorization of a rational number $x=p_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{a_{k}} \cdots$ with its derivative $x^{\prime}=p_{1}^{b_{i}} \cdots p_{k}^{b_{k}} \cdots$.

Theorem 3. If $p_{i} \nmid a_{i}$ for some $i$, then $b_{i}=a_{i}-1$.
Proof. Express $x$ as $x=p_{i}^{a_{i}} \frac{k}{s}, k, s \in \mathbb{Z}, p_{i} \nmid k, p_{i} \nmid s$. Then we have

$$
\begin{align*}
x^{\prime} & =p_{i}^{a_{i}}\left(\frac{k}{s}\right)^{\prime}+\left(p_{i}^{a_{i}}\right)^{\prime} \frac{k}{s} \\
& =p_{i}^{a_{i}}\left(\frac{s k^{\prime}-k s^{\prime}}{s^{2}}\right)+\left(p_{i}^{a_{i}} \frac{a_{i}}{p_{i}}\right) \frac{k}{s} \\
& =p_{i}^{a_{i}-1} \frac{p_{i}\left(s k^{\prime}-k s^{\prime}\right)+a_{i} k s}{s^{2}} . \tag{13}
\end{align*}
$$

Now $p_{i} \mid p_{i}\left(s k^{\prime}-k s^{\prime}\right)$, but $p_{i} \nmid a_{i} k s$, so $p_{i} \nmid\left(p_{i}\left(s k^{\prime}-k s^{\prime}\right)+a_{i} k s\right)$, which means $b_{i} \leq a_{i}-1$. But, since $p_{i} \nmid s, b_{i} \geq a_{i}-1$. Therefore, $b_{i}=a_{i}-1$.

Theorem 4. If $p_{i} \mid a_{i}$ for some $i$, then $b_{i} \geq a_{i}$.

Proof. Express $x$ as $x=p_{i}^{a_{i}} \frac{k}{s}$, where $k, s \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $p_{i} \nmid k, p_{i} \nmid s$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
x^{\prime} & =p_{i}^{a_{i}}\left(\frac{k}{s}\right)^{\prime}+\left(p_{i}^{a_{i}}\right)^{\prime} \frac{k}{s} \\
& =p_{i}^{a_{i}-1} \frac{p_{i}\left(s k^{\prime}-k s^{\prime}\right)+a_{i} k s}{s^{2}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

But $p_{i} \mid a_{i}$, so $a_{i}=m p_{i}$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{\prime}=p_{i}^{a_{i}} \frac{s k^{\prime}-k s^{\prime}+m k s}{s^{2}} . \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now the power of $p_{i}$ could increase if $p_{i} \mid\left(s k^{\prime}-k s^{\prime}+m k s\right)$. However, it could not be less than $a_{i}$ because $p_{i} \nmid s$. Therefore, $b_{i} \geq a_{i}$.

## 6 Rational Solutions to $x^{\prime}=a$

We are interested in rational solutions of the equation $x^{\prime}=a$. The question of whether there is a solution for every $a$ is still unsolved. We present the nonzero solutions to the equation $x^{\prime}=0$ in the following theorem.

Theorem 5. $x^{\prime}=0$ if and only if $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ is of the form $p_{1}^{a_{1} p_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{a_{k} p_{k}} \cdots, a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$, such that $\sum_{i} a_{i}=0$.

Proof. The first property of the form $p_{1}^{a_{1} p_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{a_{k} p_{k}} \ldots$ is that each prime factor divides its exponent. Suppose there is some rational number $x=p_{1}^{x_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{x_{k}} \cdots$ such that $p_{i} \nmid x_{i}$ for some $p_{i}$. Then

$$
\begin{align*}
x & =p_{i}^{x_{i}}\left(\frac{k}{s}\right), \quad k, s \in \mathbb{Z}, p_{i} \nmid k, p_{i} \nmid s \\
& =p_{i}^{x_{i}}\left(\frac{k}{s}\right)^{\prime}+\left(p_{i}^{x_{i}}\right)^{\prime} \frac{k}{s} \\
& =p_{i}^{x_{i}-1} \frac{p_{i}\left(s k^{\prime}-k s^{\prime}\right)+x_{i} k s}{s^{2}} . \tag{15}
\end{align*}
$$

Now since $p_{i} \mid p_{i}\left(s k^{\prime}-k s^{\prime}\right)$ but $p_{i} \nmid x_{i} k s,\left(p_{i}\left(s k^{\prime}-k s^{\prime}\right)+x_{i} k s\right) \neq 0$. It follows that $x^{\prime} \neq 0$. Therefore, in order for $x^{\prime}=0$, each of the factors of $x$ must divide its exponent.

It is clear that if $x=p_{1}^{a_{1} p_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{a_{k} p_{k}} \cdots, a \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $x^{\prime}=0$ if and only if $\sum_{i} a_{i}=0$, since

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{\prime}=x \sum_{i} \frac{a_{i} p_{i}}{p_{i}}=x \sum_{i} a_{i} \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $x \neq 0$. Equation 16 also demonstrates that any rational number of the stated form will have a derivative of 0 . This completes the proof.

## 7 Behavior of the Number Derivative

In this section we will investigate the behavior of $x^{\prime}$ as a rational $x$ approaches a rational a. We prove that the number derivative is discontinuous at every point, with the aid of the following lemma:

Lemma 6. For all primes $p>3,\left(\frac{p}{p+1}\right)^{\prime}<0$ and $\left(\frac{p-1}{p}\right)>\frac{1}{2}$.
Proof. Consider the derivative of $\frac{p-1}{p}$, using (8):

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{p-1}{p}\right)^{\prime}=\frac{p(p-1)^{\prime}-(p-1) p^{\prime}}{p^{2}} . \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, since $p>3, p-1$ is even. Since $2 \mid p-1$, it follows that $(p-1)^{\prime} \geq \frac{p-1}{2}+2$. Therefore,

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(\frac{p-1}{p}\right)^{\prime} & \geq \frac{p\left(\frac{p-1}{2}+2\right)-(p-1)}{p^{2}} \\
& =\frac{p^{2}-p+2 p+2}{2 p^{2}} \\
& >\frac{p^{2}}{2 p^{2}} \\
& =\frac{1}{2} . \tag{18}
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore $\left(\frac{p-1}{p}\right)^{\prime}>\frac{1}{2}$. The derivative of $\frac{p}{p+1}$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{p}{p+1}\right)^{\prime}=\frac{(p+1) p^{\prime}-p(p+1)^{\prime}}{(p+1)^{2}} \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Again we have $(p+1)$ even and so $(p+1)^{\prime}>\frac{p+1}{2}$. Then it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{p}{p+1}\right)^{\prime}<\frac{(p+1)-p \frac{p+1}{2}}{(p+1)^{2}} \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

But since $p>3, \frac{p}{2}>1$, so $\frac{p}{2}(p+1)>(p+1)$. Therefore, the expression in (20) is always negative, so $\left(\frac{p}{p+1}\right)^{\prime}<0$.

Using this lemma, we can prove that $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} x^{\prime}$ does not exist for any rational $a$.

Theorem 7. $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} x^{\prime}$ does not exist for any $a \in \mathbb{Q}$.

Proof. Since $(-a)^{\prime}=-a^{\prime}$, we need only to prove this for nonnegative $a$. By Lemma 6 we know that $\left(\frac{p-1}{p}\right)^{\prime}>\frac{1}{2}$ and $\left(\frac{p}{p+1}\right)^{\prime}<0$ for all primes $p>3$. Consider numbers of the form $a \frac{p-1}{p}$ and $a \frac{p}{p+1}$. As $p$ approaches infinity, both of the above approach $a$. Now consider the limit as $p$ approaches infinity of their derivatives:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lim _{p \rightarrow \infty}\left(a \frac{p-1}{p}\right)^{\prime} & =\lim _{p \rightarrow \infty} a^{\prime} \frac{p-1}{p}+\left(\frac{p-1}{p}\right)^{\prime} a \\
& >\lim _{p \rightarrow \infty} a^{\prime} \frac{p-1}{p}+\frac{1}{2} a \\
& =a^{\prime}+\frac{1}{2} a \\
\lim _{p \rightarrow \infty}\left(a \frac{p}{p+1}\right)^{\prime} & =\lim _{p \rightarrow \infty} a^{\prime} \frac{p}{p+1}+\left(\frac{p}{p+1}\right)^{\prime} a \\
& <\lim _{p \rightarrow \infty} a^{\prime} \frac{p}{p+1} \\
& =a^{\prime} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus we have $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} x^{\prime}>a^{\prime}+\frac{1}{2} a$, and also $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} x^{\prime}<a^{\prime}$. Therefore the limit does not exist for nonzero $a$. It remains only to prove that $\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} x^{\prime}$ does not exist.

First we will define two functions on $\mathbb{Z}^{+}, a(x)$ and $p(x)$, as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(x)=\log _{2}\left(2+\sum_{k=1}^{x} \frac{1}{p_{k}}\right), \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $p_{i}$ is the $i$ th prime. We define $p(x)$ as the smallest prime larger than $a(x) \prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}$. Note that such a prime $p(x)$ obeys $a(x) \prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m} \leq p(x)<2 a(x) \prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}$, because by Bertrand's Postulate, there is a prime between $n$ and $2 n$ for every $n$. Note also that because $\sum_{k=0}^{x} \frac{1}{p_{k}}$ diverges, $\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} a(x)=\infty$.

Consider the sequence whose general term is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}}{p(x)} . \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

This series approaches 0 as $x \rightarrow \infty$. Since $a(x) \prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m} \leq p(x)<2 a(x) \prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}}{2 a(x) \prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}} & \leq \lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}}{p(x)}<\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}}{a(x) \prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}} \\
\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2 a(x)} & \leq \lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}}{p(x)}<\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{a(x)}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since the two bounding functions of the sequence approach 0 , the sequence in (22) also approaches 0 . The general term for the derivative of this sequence is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}}{p(x)}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{x} \frac{1}{p_{k}}-\frac{1}{p(x)}\right) . \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now we will find the limit of this sequence as $x$ approaches infinity:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}}{p(x)}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{x} \frac{1}{p_{k}}-\frac{1}{p(x)}\right) & =\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}}{p(x)}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{x} \frac{1}{p_{k}}\right)-\frac{\prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}}{p(x)}\left(\frac{1}{p(x)}\right) \\
& =\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}}{p(x)}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{x} \frac{1}{p_{k}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Using the bounding functions, we find

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}}{2 a(x) \prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}}\left(\sum_{k=0}^{x} \frac{1}{p_{k}}\right) & \leq \lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}}{p(x)}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{x} \frac{1}{p_{k}}\right)
\end{aligned}<\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}}{a(x) \prod_{m=1}^{x} p_{m}}\left(\sum_{k=0}^{x} \frac{1}{p_{k}}\right) .
$$

Because the two bounding functions of the sequence approach infinity, so does the series. Therefore $x^{\prime}$ diverges as $x$ approaches 0 , and this completes the proof.

## 8 Ensuring Solutions for $x^{\prime}=\alpha x$

Consider the equation $x^{\prime}=\alpha x$, where $\alpha$ and $x$ are rational numbers. We are interested in values of $\alpha$ for which this equation has a solution.

First we will prove the following lemma:

Lemma 8. Any rational number $\frac{m}{p_{1} p_{2} \ldots p_{k}}$, whose denominator is a product of distinct primes, can be expressed as a sum $\sum_{i} \frac{a_{i}}{p_{i}}$, with $p_{i}$ prime and $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. The proof is by induction on $k$.
For $k=1$ the assertion is trivial.
Let us assume that any number of the form $\frac{m}{p_{1} \ldots p_{k}}$ can be expressed as a sum $\sum_{i} \frac{a_{i}}{p_{i}}$. We
will show that any number $\frac{m}{p_{1} \ldots p_{k} p_{k+1}}$ can also be expressed as such a sum. Consider the sum

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{m}{p_{1} \ldots p_{k} p_{k+1}}+\frac{a_{k+1}}{p_{k+1}} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a_{k+1}$ is chosen to be an integer such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(a_{k+1}\right)\left(p_{1} \ldots p_{k}\right) \equiv-m \quad\left(\bmod p_{k+1}\right) \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

Such a number must exist because the integers $\bmod p$ form a group with respect to addition in which every number not congruent to zero $(\bmod p)$ is a generator. Now if we evaluate the sum in (24), we find that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{m}{p_{1} \ldots p_{k} p_{k+1}}+\frac{a_{k+1}}{p_{k+1}}=\frac{m+a_{k+1} p_{1} \ldots p_{k}}{p_{1} \ldots p_{k+1}} . \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

But since $a_{k+1} p_{1} \ldots p_{k} \equiv-m\left(\bmod p_{k+1}\right)$, we have $m+a_{k+1} p_{1} \ldots p_{k} \equiv 0\left(\bmod p_{k+1}\right)$. Therefore, the numerator of the result is divisible by $p_{k+1}$ and we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{m}{p_{1} \ldots p_{k} p_{k+1}}+\frac{a_{k+1}}{p_{k+1}}=\frac{\left(\frac{m+a_{k+1} p_{1} \ldots p_{k}}{p_{k+1}}\right)}{p_{1} \ldots p_{k}} \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\frac{m+a_{k+1} p_{1} \ldots p_{k}}{p_{k+1}} \in \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{m}{p_{1} \ldots p_{k+1}}=\frac{-a_{k+1}}{p_{k+1}}+\frac{\left(\frac{m+a_{k+1} p_{1} \ldots p_{k}}{p_{k+1}}\right)}{p_{1} \ldots p_{k}} \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

The final term can be expressed as a sum of rational numbers with prime denominators by the induction hypothesis. This completes the proof.

Now we can prove the following theorem:

Theorem 9. The equation $x^{\prime}=\alpha x$ has a solution if and only if $\alpha$ is a rational number (in lowest terms) whose denominator squarefree.

Proof. First we will show that if $x^{\prime}=\alpha x$ has a solution, then $\alpha$ has a squarefree denominator. Let $x$ be a rational number with prime q-factorization $p_{1}^{x_{1}} \cdots p_{k}^{x_{k}} \cdots$ and suppose $x^{\prime}=\alpha x$. Then, by (10),

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha=\frac{x_{1}}{p_{1}}+\cdots+\frac{x_{k}}{p_{k}}+\cdots \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is clear that when these terms are expressed as a single fraction, their common denominator is squarefree. Therefore $\alpha$ could not have primes of degree greater than 1 in its denominator.

By Lemma 8, any rational number with a squarefree denominator can be expressed as a sum of rational numbers with prime denominators. The equality (29) implies that the equation $x^{\prime}=\alpha x$ will have a solution, namely $p_{1}^{x_{i}} \cdots p_{k}^{x_{k}} \cdots$, if $\alpha$ is such a number. This completes the proof.

Theorem 10. If the equation $x^{\prime}=\alpha x$ has one nonzero solution, it has infinitely many.

Proof. This is equivalent to saying that any $\alpha$ which can be expressed as the sum of rational numbers with prime denominators can be thus expressed in infinitely many ways.

Let $\alpha=\sum_{i} \frac{a_{i}}{p_{i}}$. Then it is also true that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha=\sum_{i} \frac{a_{i}}{p_{i}}+\frac{c p_{h}}{p_{h}}-\frac{c p_{j}}{p_{j}}, \text { where } c \in \mathbb{Z}, a_{h}=a_{j}=0 \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

This is a new way to express $\alpha$ and the corresponding new $x$ is: $p_{1}^{a_{1}} \cdots p_{h}^{c} \cdots p_{j}^{-c} \cdots p_{k}^{a_{k}} \cdots$. Since there are infinitely many $c$, there are infinitely many solutions.

## 9 Ensuring solutions for $n^{\prime}=\alpha n$

Consider the equation $n^{\prime}=\alpha n$ where $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$. We are interested in values of $\alpha$ for which this equation has a solution. Since $\mathbb{Z}^{+}$is in $\mathbb{Q}$, the necessary condition for the rational numbers holds for the natural numbers: $\alpha$ 's denominator must be the product of distinct primes. However, this condition is not sufficient if $n \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$. For example, $n^{\prime}=\frac{1}{p_{1} p_{2}} n, n \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$ has no solution for any primes $p_{1}, p_{2}$. We manipulate (3) to obtain the form of $\alpha$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha=\frac{a_{1} p_{2} \ldots p_{k}+\cdots+a_{k} p_{1} \ldots p_{k-1}}{p_{1} \ldots p_{k}} . \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let the denominator of $\alpha$, which has $k$ distinct factors, be denoted $d_{k}$. The numerator of this fraction contains $k$ terms of the form $a_{i} \frac{d_{k}}{p_{i}}$.

The allowable numerators for $\alpha$ are precisely those which can be formed by a linear combination $\sum_{i} a_{i} \frac{d_{k}}{p_{i}}$, with each $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}^{+} \cup\{0\}$. We will refer to such a combination (where the linear coefficients are all nonnegative integers) as a positive linear combination.

First we state the following lemma [5].

Lemma 11. Given any two numbers $m_{1}$ and $m_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$such that $\left(m_{1}, m_{2}\right)=1$, there exists an integer $n$ such that all integers greater than or equal to $n$ can be expressed as a positive linear combination of $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$. Furthermore, the smallest such $n$ is equal to $m_{1} m_{2}-m_{1}-m_{2}+1$.

We are now prepared to prove the following theorem.

Theorem 12. Consider an integer $d_{k}$ with $k$ distinct prime factors $\left(d_{k}=p_{1} \ldots p_{k}\right)$. For the set of positive integers $\left\{m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k}\right\}$, where each $m_{i}=\frac{d_{k}}{p_{i}}$, any integer $c$ such that $c \geq$ $(k-1) d_{k}-d_{k}^{\prime}+1$ can be expressed as a positive linear combination of these $m_{i}$. Furthermore, $(k-1) d_{k}-d_{k}^{\prime}+1$ is the smallest expression for which this is true.

Proof. The proof is by induction on $k$. If $k=1$, the statement is trivial.

Assume that for an arbitrary $d_{k} \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$, any $c$ such that $c \geq(k-1) d_{k}-d_{k}^{\prime}+1$ can be expressed as a positive linear combination of $m_{i}$ 's (i.e. as a sum $\sum_{i} a_{i} \frac{d_{k}}{p_{i}}, a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}^{+} \cup\{0\}$ ). We will show that for an arbitrary $d_{k+1}$ with $k+1$ distinct prime factors, any $c$ such that $c \geq k d_{k+1}-d_{k+1}^{\prime}+1$ can be expressed as a sum $\sum_{i} a_{i} \frac{d_{k+1}}{p_{i}}, a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}^{+} \cup\{0\}$.

Let $d_{k+1}=p_{k+1} d_{k}$, and consider the set $\left\{p_{k+1} m_{1}, \ldots, p_{k+1} m_{k}\right\}$, generated by multiplying each member of $\left\{m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k}\right\}$ by $p_{k+1}$. There are infinitely many numbers which cannot be formed as a positive linear combination of this set, since the set is no longer relatively prime. However, by the induction hypothesis, this set can generate every multiple of $p_{k+1}$ greater than or equal to $p_{k+1}\left((k-1) d_{k}-d_{k}^{\prime}+1\right)$. Therefore we know that there exist $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{k+1} \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{i} m_{i}=p_{k+1}\left((k-1) d_{k}-d_{k}^{\prime}+1\right)+r p_{k+1} \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $r \in \mathbb{Z}^{+} \cup\{0\}$. By adding $a_{k+1} d_{k}$ to both sides we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{k+1} \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{i} m_{i}+a_{k+1} d_{k}=p_{k+1}\left((k-1) d_{k}-d_{k}^{\prime}+1\right)+\left(a_{k+1} d_{k}+r p_{k+1}\right) \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a_{k+1} \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$. Note that the left-hand side of the equation is now a positive linear combination of numbers $\frac{d_{k+1}}{p_{i}}$, with each $p_{i}$ in the prime factorization of $d_{k+1}$. Now consider the right-hand side. By Lemma 11, we know that for appropriate choices of $r$ and $a_{k+1}$, we can obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{k+1} d_{k}+r p_{k+1}=\left(d_{k} p_{k+1}-d_{k}-p_{k+1}+1\right)+g \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any $g \in \mathbb{Z}^{+} \cup\{0\}$. This in turn implies that there exist $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k+1} \in \mathbb{Z}^{+} \cup\{0\}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} a_{i} \frac{d_{k+1}}{p_{i}}=p_{k+1}\left((k-1) d_{k}-d_{k}^{\prime}+1\right)+\left(d_{k} p_{k+1}-d_{k}-p_{k+1}+1\right)+g \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any $g \in \mathbb{Z}^{+} \cup\{0\}$. This allows us to obtain the following:

$$
\begin{aligned}
p_{k+1}\left((k-1) d_{k}-d_{k}^{\prime}+1\right) & +\left(d_{k} p_{k+1}-d_{k}-p_{k+1}+1\right)+g \\
& =k p_{k+1} d_{k}-p_{k+1} d_{k}-p_{k+1} d_{k}^{\prime}+p_{k+1}+d_{k} p_{k+1}-d_{k}-p_{k+1}+1+g \\
& =k p_{k+1} d_{k}-\left(p_{k+1} d_{k}^{\prime}+d_{k}\right)+1+g .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now since $d_{k+1}=p_{k+1} d_{k}$, and $p_{k+1} d_{k}^{\prime}+d_{k}=d_{k+1}^{\prime}$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
k p_{k+1} d_{k}-\left(p_{k+1} d_{k}^{\prime}+d_{k}\right)+1+g=k d_{k+1}-d_{k+1}^{\prime}+1+g . \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, there exist $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} a_{i} \frac{d_{k+1}}{p_{i}}=k d_{k+1}-d_{k+1}^{\prime}+1+g \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $g \in \mathbb{Z}^{+} \cup\{0\}$. It remains only to prove that $(k-1) d_{k}-d_{k}^{\prime}+1$ is the smallest $c$ such that all $n \geq c$ can be made as a positive linear combination of $m_{i}=\frac{d_{k}}{p_{i}}$. This is true if $(k-1) d_{k}-d_{k}^{\prime}$ cannot be expressed as such a linear combination. Assume that it can. Then we have

$$
\begin{align*}
(k-1) d_{k}-d_{k}^{\prime} & =a_{1} p_{2} \ldots p_{k}+\cdots+a_{k} p_{1} \ldots p_{k-1} \\
(k-1) d_{k} & =\left(a_{1}+1\right) p_{2} \ldots p_{k}+\cdots+\left(a_{k}+1\right) p_{1} \ldots p_{k_{1}} . \tag{38}
\end{align*}
$$

Because each $p_{i}$ must divide the right-hand side of the equation, we must have $p_{i} \mid\left(a_{i}+1\right)$ for each $i$. However, this yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
(k-1) p_{1} \ldots p_{k} \geq k p_{1} \ldots p_{k} \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is a contradiction. Therefore, $(k-1) d_{k}-d_{k}^{\prime}$ cannot be formed as a positive linear combination of $\frac{d_{k}}{p_{i}}$. This completes the proof.

From this we conclude that $n^{\prime}=\alpha n$ has a solution if $\alpha=\frac{c}{d_{k}}$ with $c \geq(k-1) d_{k}-d_{k}^{\prime}+1$.
There exist $\alpha$ such that $c<(k-1) d_{k}-d_{k}^{\prime}+1$ and $n^{\prime}=\alpha n$ has a solution. A stronger result would include these $\alpha$. This may be the topic of further research.

## 10 Concluding Remarks and Open Questions

We have explicitly defined the number derivative for $\mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Q}$, found bounds for the function, extended the concept of a unique prime factorization, discussed relationships between $x$ and $x^{\prime}$, studied $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} x^{\prime}$ for rational $a$, and found conditions under which $x^{\prime}=\alpha x$ has a solution for $x \in \mathbb{Q}^{+}$and $x \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$. Further research on this topic might address such questions as: Do there exist an $n$ and $k$ such that $n^{(k)}=n, n \neq n^{\prime}$ ? What are all the $\alpha$ less than $(k-1) d_{k}-d_{k}^{\prime}+1$ for which $n^{\prime}=\alpha n$ has a solution, $n \in \mathbb{Z}^{+} ?$ Is there a rational solution to $x^{\prime}=a$ for every rational $a$ ? Other than the positive primes, which rational numbers $x$ have the property that $x^{\prime}=1$ ?

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