

Notes on the book: *Apostol, Introduction to Analytic Number Theory*

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Contents

Chapter 1: The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic	3
Exercise 1.1.	3
Exercise 1.2.	4
Exercise 1.3.	4
Exercise 1.11.	5
Exercise 1.15.	6
Exercise 1.16. (Mersenne primes)	6
Exercise 1.17. (Fermat primes)	6
Exercise 1.30.	6
Chapter 2: Arithmetical functions and Dirichlet multiplication	8
Exercise 2.1.	8
Exercise 2.2.	9
Exercise 2.3.	10
Supplement. (Chinese remainder theorem)	11
Exercise 2.4.	11
Exercise 2.5.	12
Exercise 2.6.	12
Exercise 2.7.	13
Exercise 2.8.	14
Exercise 2.9.	15
Exercise 2.10.	16
Exercise 2.11.	17
Exercise 2.12.	17
Exercise 2.18.	18
Exercise 2.19.	18
Exercise 2.21.	19

Chapter 3: Average of arithmetical functions	21
Exercise 3.1.	21
Exercise 3.2.	22
Exercise 3.3.	23
Exercise 3.5.	24
Properties of the greatest-integer function	25
Exercise 3.17	26
Supplement. (Related exercises)	27
Exercise 3.18. (Replicative function)	27
Exercise 3.20.	29
Chapter 4: Some Elementary Theorems on the Distribution of Prime Numbers	30
Exercise 4.5.	30
Exercise 4.19. (Logarithmic integral)	30
Chapter 6: Finite Abelian Groups and Their Characters	33
Supplement. (Serre, A Course in Arithmetic)	33
Supplement. (Serre, Linear Representations of Finite Groups) . .	33
Exercise 6.1.	34
Exercise 6.2.	34
Exercise 6.3.	35
Chapter 7: Dirichlet's Theorem on Primes in Arithmetic Progressions	36
Supplement.	36

Chapter 1: The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

In these exercises lower case latin letters a, b, c, \dots, x, y, z represent integers. Prove each of the statement in Exercise 1.1 through 1.6.

Exercise 1.1.

If $(a, b) = 1$ and if $c|a$ and $d|b$, then $(c, d) = 1$.

Proof (Theorem 1.2).

- (1) $(a, b) = 1$ if and only if there are $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$ax + by = 1$$

(Theorem 1.2). As $c|a$ and $d|b$, there exist $c', d' \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $cc' = a$ and $dd' = b$.

- (2) Hence

$$\underbrace{c(c'x)}_{:=x'} + \underbrace{d(d'y)}_{:=y'} = 1$$

for some $x', y' \in \mathbb{Z}$. That is, $(c, d) = 1$.

□

Proof (Theorem 1.12).

- (1) Write

$$a = \prod p_i^{a_i}, \quad b = \prod p_i^{b_i}.$$

Here $\min\{a_i, b_i\} = 0$ since $(a, b) = 1$ (Theorem 1.12).

- (2) As $c|a$ and $d|b$,

$$c = \prod p_i^{a'_i}, \quad d = \prod p_i^{b'_i}$$

where $a'_i \leq a_i$ and $b'_i \leq b_i$. As $0 \leq \min\{a'_i, b'_i\} \leq \min\{a_i, b_i\} = 0$, $\min\{a'_i, b'_i\} = 0$. Hence $(c, d) = \prod p_i^{\min\{a'_i, b'_i\}} = 1$ (Theorem 1.12).

□

Exercise 1.2.

If $(a, b) = (a, c) = 1$, then $(a, bc) = 1$.

Proof (Theorem 1.2).

- (1) $(a, b) = (a, c) = 1$ implies that there are $x, y, z, w \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$ax + by = 1, \quad az + cw = 1$$

(Theorem 1.2).

- (2) So

$$1 = (ax + by)(az + cw) = a \underbrace{(axz + byz + cxw)}_{:=x'} + bc \underbrace{(yw)}_{:=y'}$$

for some $x', y' \in \mathbb{Z}$. That is, $(a, bc) = 1$.

□

Proof (Theorem 1.12).

- (1) Write

$$a = \prod p_i^{a_i}, \quad b = \prod p_i^{b_i}, \quad c = \prod p_i^{c_i}.$$

Here $\min\{a_i, b_i\} = \min\{a_i, c_i\} = 0$ since $(a, b) = (a, c) = 1$ (Theorem 1.12). Observe that $bc = \prod p_i^{b_i + c_i}$.

- (2) Show that for all i , $\min\{a_i, b_i + c_i\} = 0$ if $\min\{a_i, b_i\} = \min\{a_i, c_i\} = 0$. Nothing to do if $a_i = 0$. So if $a_i > 0$, we have

$$b_i = c_i = 0 \implies b_i + c_i = 0 \implies \min\{a_i, b_i + c_i\} = 0.$$

- (3) Therefore, $(a, bc) = \prod p_i^{\min\{a_i, b_i + c_i\}} = 1$ (Theorem 1.12).

□

Exercise 1.3.

If $(a, b) = 1$, then $(a^n, b^k) = 1$ for all $n \geq 1, k \geq 1$.

Proof (Theorem 1.2).

- (1) $(a, b) = 1$ implies that there are $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$ax + by = 1$$

(Theorem 1.2).

(2) Hence

$$\begin{aligned}
1 &= (ax + by)^{n+k-1} \\
&= \sum_{i=0}^{n+k-1} \binom{n+k-1}{i} (ax)^i (by)^{n+k-1-i} \\
&= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \binom{n+k-1}{i} (ax)^i (by)^{n+k-1-i} \\
&\quad + \sum_{i=n}^{n+k-1} \binom{n+k-1}{i} (ax)^i (by)^{n+k-1-i} \\
&= b^k y^k \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n+k-1}{i} (ax)^i (by)^{n-1-i}}_{:=y'} \\
&\quad + a^n x^n \underbrace{\sum_{i=n}^{n+k-1} \binom{n+k-1}{i} (ax)^{i-n} (by)^{n+k-1-i}}_{:=x'}
\end{aligned}$$

for some $x', y' \in \mathbb{Z}$. That is, $(a^n, b^k) = 1$.

□

Proof (Theorem 1.12).

(1) Write

$$a = \prod p_i^{a_i}, \quad b = \prod p_i^{b_i}.$$

Here $\min\{a_i, b_i\} = 0$ since $(a, b) = 1$ (Theorem 1.12).

(2) Observe that

$$a^n = \prod p_i^{na_i}, \quad b^k = \prod p_i^{kb_i}.$$

Here $\min\{na_i, kb_i\} = 0$ (since $a_i = 0 \implies na_i = 0$ and $b_i = 0 \implies kb_i = 0$).
Therefore $(a^n, b^k) = 1$.

□

Exercise 1.11.

Prove that $n^4 + 4$ is composite if $n > 1$.

Proof.

$$n^4 + 4 = \underbrace{((n-1)^2 + 1)}_{>1} \underbrace{((n+1)^2 + 1)}_{>1}$$

since $n > 1$. \square

Exercise 1.15.

Prove that every $n \geq 12$ is the sum of two composite numbers.

Proof. Write $n = 2m$ (resp. $n = 2m + 1$) where $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, $m \geq 6$. Then $n = 8 + 2(m - 4)$ (resp. $n = 9 + 2(m - 4)$) is the sum of two composite numbers. \square

Exercise 1.16. (Mersenne primes)

Prove that if $2^n - 1$ is prime, then n is prime.

Proof. Suppose n is a composite number, then we can write $n = ab$ with $a > 1$, $b > 1$. Hence

$$2^n - 1 = 2^{ab} - 1 = 2^{ab} - 1 = \underbrace{(2^a - 1)}_{>1} \underbrace{\{(2^a)^{b-1} + \dots + 1\}}_{>1}$$

is also a composite number. \square

Exercise 1.17. (Fermat primes)

Prove that if $2^n + 1$ is prime, then n is a power of 2.

Proof. Write $n = 2^a b$ where a is a nonnegative integer and b is odd. Suppose n is not a power of 2, then $b > 1$. Hence

$$2^n + 1 = 2^{2^a b} + 1 = \underbrace{(2^{2^a} + 1)}_{>1} \underbrace{\{2^{2^a(b-1)} - \dots + 1\}}_{>1}$$

is a composite number. (Note that $1 < 2^{2^a(b-1)} < 2^n + 1$ implies that $1 < (2^{2^a(b-1)} - \dots + 1) < 2^n + 1$ too.) \square

Exercise 1.30.

If $n > 1$ prove that the sum

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k}$$

is not an integer.

Proof.

(1) (Reductio ad absurdum) Suppose

$$H := \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k}$$

were an integer.

(2) Let s be the largest integer such that $2^s \leq n$. So the integer number

$$\begin{aligned} 2^{s-1}H &= \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{2^{s-1}}{k} \\ &= 2^{s-1} + 2^{s-2} + \frac{2^{s-1}}{3} + 2^{s-3} + \frac{2^{s-1}}{5} + \frac{2^{s-2}}{3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2} + \cdots . \end{aligned}$$

has only one term of even denominators (as $n > 1$) if we write all terms in irreducible fractions. That is,

$$2^{s-1}H = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{c}{d} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

where $\frac{c}{d}$ is an irreducible fraction with odd d . Hence it suffices to show that $2 \nmid d$ to get a contradiction.

(3) By

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{d+2c}{2d} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

we have $d+2c = 2dd'$ for some $d' \in \mathbb{Z}$. Note that 2 is a prime. So $2 \mid (d+2c)$ or $2 \mid d$, which is absurd.

□

Chapter 2: Arithmetical functions and Dirichlet multiplication

Exercise 2.1.

Find all integers n such that

- (a) $\varphi(n) = \frac{n}{2}$,
- (b) $\varphi(n) = \varphi(2n)$,
- (c) $\varphi(n) = 12$.

Proof of (a).

$$\varphi(n) = n \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) = \frac{n}{2}$$

(Theorem 2.4) implies that $n = 2$. \square

Proof of (b).

- (1) $\varphi(n) = \varphi(2n)$ implies that

$$n \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) = 2n \prod_{p|(2n)} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right).$$

- (2) If $2|n$, then $n = 2n$ or $n = 0$, which is absurd.
- (3) If $2 \nmid n$, then

$$n \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) = 2n \prod_{p|(2n)} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) = \underbrace{2n \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right)}_{=n} \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)$$

is always true. Hence n is odd if $\varphi(n) = \varphi(2n)$.

\square

Proof of (c).

- (1) Show that the solutions of $\varphi(n) = 12$ are $n = 13, 26, 21, 28, 42, 36$. Write $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r}$ where $p_1 < p_2 < \dots$. Then

$$12 = \varphi(n) = \prod_{i=1}^r p_i^{\alpha_i-1} (p_i - 1).$$

(Theorem 2.5). It implies that $p_i \in \{2, 3, 5, 7, 13\}$ if $\alpha_i > 0$. Consider all possible cases of the greatest prime divisor p_r of n as follows.

(2) If $p_r = 13$, then $\alpha_r = 1$ since $13 \nmid 12$. So

$$12 = \varphi(n) = \underbrace{\varphi(13)}_{=12} \varphi\left(\frac{n}{13}\right)$$

or $1 = \varphi\left(\frac{n}{13}\right)$. Hence $\frac{n}{13} = 1, 2$. In this case $n = 13, 26$.

(3) If $p_r = 7$, then $\alpha_r = 1$ since $7 \nmid 12$. So

$$12 = \varphi(n) = \underbrace{\varphi(7)}_{=6} \varphi\left(\frac{n}{7}\right)$$

or $2 = \varphi\left(\frac{n}{7}\right)$. Hence $\frac{n}{7} = 3, 4, 6$. In this case $n = 21, 28, 42$.

(5) If $p_r = 5$, then $\alpha_r = 1$ since $5 \nmid 12$. So $12 = \varphi(5)\varphi\left(\frac{n}{5}\right)$ or $3 = \varphi\left(\frac{n}{5}\right)$, which is impossible.

(6) If $p_r = 3$, then $\alpha_r = 1, 2$. $\alpha_r = 1$ is impossible since $3 \mid 12$. So

$$12 = \varphi(n) = \underbrace{\varphi(3^2)}_{=6} \varphi\left(\frac{n}{3^2}\right)$$

or $2 = \varphi\left(\frac{n}{3^2}\right)$. Hence $\frac{n}{3^2} = 4$. (By assumption $\frac{n}{3^2}$ cannot have any prime factor > 3 .) In this case $n = 36$.

□

Exercise 2.2.

For each of the following statements either give a proof or exhibit a counter example.

- (a) If $(m, n) = 1$ then $(\varphi(m), \varphi(n)) = 1$.
- (b) If n is composite, then $(n, \varphi(n)) > 1$.
- (c) If the same primes divide m and n , then $n\varphi(m) = m\varphi(n)$.

Proof of (a). It is false since $(5, 13) = 1$ and $(\varphi(5), \varphi(13)) = (4, 12) = 4$. □

Proof of (b). It is false since $(15, \varphi(15)) = (15, 8) = 1$. □

Proof of (c).

- (1) It is true.

(2) If the same primes divide m and n , then

$$\frac{\varphi(n)}{n} = \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) = \prod_{p|m} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) = \frac{\varphi(m)}{m}$$

(Theorem 2.4). Hence $n\varphi(m) = m\varphi(n)$.

□

Exercise 2.3.

Prove that

$$\frac{n}{\varphi(n)} = \sum_{d|n} \frac{\mu(d)^2}{\varphi(d)}.$$

Proof.

(1) Note that fg , f/g and $f * g$ are multiplicative if f and g are multiplicative (Example 5 on page 34 and Theorem 2.14). Hence $\frac{n}{\varphi(n)}$ and $\sum_{d|n} \frac{\mu^2(d)}{\varphi(d)}$ are multiplicative. Hence it might assume that $n = p^a$ for some prime p and integer $a \geq 1$. (The case $n = 1$ is trivial.)

(2)

$$\frac{p^a}{\varphi(p^a)} = \frac{p^a}{p^a - p^{a-1}} = \frac{p}{p-1}.$$

(3)

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{d|p^a} \frac{\mu(d)^2}{\varphi(d)} &= \frac{\mu(1)^2}{\varphi(1)} + \frac{\mu(p)^2}{\varphi(p)} + \overbrace{\frac{\mu(p^2)^2}{\varphi(p^2)}}^{=0} + \cdots + \overbrace{\frac{\mu(p^a)^2}{\varphi(p^a)}}^{=0} \\ &= 1 + \frac{1}{p-1} + 0 + \cdots + 0 \\ &= \frac{p}{p-1}. \end{aligned}$$

(4) Or apply Theorems 2.4 and 2.18 to get

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{d|n} \frac{\mu(d)^2}{\varphi(d)} &= \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{\mu(p)}{\varphi(p)}\right) \\ &= \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{-1}{p-1}\right) \\ &= \prod_{p|n} \frac{p}{p-1} \\ &= \frac{n}{\varphi(n)}. \end{aligned}$$

□

Supplement. (Chinese remainder theorem)

(Exercise I.3.5 in the textbook: *Jürgen Neukirch, Algebraic Number Theory*.)
The quotient ring \mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{a} of a Dedekind domain by an ideal $\mathfrak{a} \neq 0$ is a principal ideal domain. (Hint: For $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{p}^n$ the only proper ideals of \mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{a} are given by $\mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^n, \dots, \mathfrak{p}^{n-1}/\mathfrak{p}^n$. Choose $\pi \in \mathfrak{p} \setminus \mathfrak{p}^2$ and show that $\mathfrak{p}^\nu = \mathcal{O}\pi^\nu + \mathfrak{p}^n$.)

Proof.

- (1) By the Chinese remainder theorem, it suffices to show the case $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{p}^n$ where \mathfrak{p} is prime.
- (2) There is a natural correspondence between

$$\{\text{ideals of } \mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{p}^n\} \longleftrightarrow \{\text{ideals of } \mathcal{O} \text{ containing } \mathfrak{p}^n\}.$$

Hence the proper ideals of $\mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{p}^n$ are given by $\mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^n, \dots, \mathfrak{p}^{n-1}/\mathfrak{p}^n$.

- (3) Similar to Exercise I.3.4, choose $\pi \in \mathfrak{p} \setminus \mathfrak{p}^2$ and thus $\mathfrak{p}^\nu = \mathcal{O}\pi^\nu + \mathfrak{p}^n$ ($\nu = 1, \dots, n-1$) since they have the same prime factorization. Hence $\mathfrak{p}^\nu/\mathfrak{p}^n = (\pi^\nu + \mathfrak{p}^n)$ is principal.

□

Exercise 2.4.

Prove that $\varphi(n) > \frac{n}{6}$ for all n with at most 8 distinct prime factors.

Proof.

- (1)

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(n) &= n \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) && \text{(Theorem 2.4)} \\ &\geq n \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{3}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{5}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{7}\right) \\ &\quad \left(1 - \frac{1}{11}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{13}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{17}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{19}\right) \\ &= \frac{55296}{323323} n \\ &> \frac{n}{6}. \end{aligned}$$

(2) The conclusion does not hold if n has more than 9 distinct prime factors.

□

Exercise 2.5.

Define $\nu(1) = 0$, and for $n > 1$ let $\nu(n)$ be the number of distinct prime factors of n . Let $f = \mu * \nu$ and prove that $f(n)$ is either 0 or 1.

Proof. It is easy to verify that

$$f(n) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \text{ is prime,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

satisfies $\sum_{d|n} f(d) = \nu(n)$. Hence $f = \mu * \nu$ holds by the Möbius inversion formula (Theorem 2.9). □

Note. We can calculate $f(n)$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots, 10$ to find the pattern of f .

Exercise 2.6.

Prove that

$$\sum_{d^2|n} \mu(d) = \mu(n)^2$$

and, more generally

$$\sum_{d^k|n} \mu(d) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } m^k|n \text{ for some } m > 1, \\ 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The last sum is extended over all positive divisors d of n whose k th power also divide n .

Proof.

(1) Write $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r} q_1^{\beta_1} \cdots q_s^{\beta_s}$ where $\alpha_i \geq 2$ and $\beta_j = 1$. The proof is similar to Theorem 2.1.

(2) If $p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r} = 1$, then $\sum_{d^2|n} \mu(d) = \mu(1) = 1$.

(3) If $p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r} > 1$, then

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{d^2|n} \mu(d) &= \mu(1) + \mu(p_1) + \cdots + \mu(p_r) \\
&\quad + \mu(p_1 p_2) + \cdots + \mu(p_{r-1} p_r) + \cdots + \mu(p_1 \cdots p_r) \\
&= 1 + \binom{r}{1}(-1) + \binom{r}{2}(-1)^2 + \cdots + \binom{r}{r}(-1)^r \\
&= (1-1)^r \\
&= 0.
\end{aligned}$$

(4) By (2)(3), $\sum_{d^2|n} \mu(d) = \mu(n)^2$. Besides, we have

$$\sum_{d^k|n} \mu(d) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } m^k|n \text{ for some } m > 1, \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

by the same argument as (1)(2)(3).

□

Exercise 2.7.

Let $\mu(p, d)$ denote the value of the Möbius function at the gcd of p and d . Prove that for every prime p we have

$$\sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \mu(p, d) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 2 & \text{if } n = p^a, a \geq 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Proof.

(1) It suffices to show that $\mu(p, n)$ is multiplicative. If so, then

$$h(n) := \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \mu(p, d)$$

is also multiplicative by taking $f(n) := \mu(n) \mu(p, n)$ and $g(n) := 1$ in Theorem 2.14.

(2) A direct calculation shows that $h(1) = 1$ (or by Theorem 2.12) and

$$\begin{aligned}
h(p^a) &= \mu(1) \mu(p, 1) + \mu(p) \mu(p, p) = 1 \cdot 1 + (-1) \cdot (-1) = 2, \\
h(q^b) &= \mu(1) \mu(p, 1) + \mu(q) \mu(p, q) = 1 \cdot 1 + (-1) \cdot 1 = 0
\end{aligned}$$

where $q \neq p$ and $a, b \geq 1$. Hence (1) and Theorem 2.13 show that

$$h(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 2 & \text{if } n = p^a, a \geq 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

(3) Show that $\mu(p, n)$ is multiplicative. Suppose $(m, n) = 1$. There are two possible cases: $p \nmid mn$ and $p \mid mn$.

- (a) If $p \nmid mn$, then all $\mu(p, mn), \mu(p, m), \mu(p, n)$ are equal to $\mu(1) = 1$.
- (b) If $p \mid mn$, then $p \mid m$ or $p \mid n$. Note that $(m, n) = 1$ and thus p cannot be a common divisor of m, n . Hence $\mu(p, mn) = \mu(p) = -1$ and $\mu(p, m)\mu(p, n) = \mu(p)\mu(1) = -1$.

In any case $\mu(p, mn) = \mu(p, m)\mu(p, n)$ if $(m, n) = 1$.

□

Exercise 2.8.

Prove that

$$\sum_{d \mid n} \mu(d) (\log d)^m = 0$$

if $m \geq 1$ and n has more than m distinct prime factors. [Hint: Induction.]

Proof.

- (1) Induction.
- (2) (Base case) Suppose $m = 1$. Theorem 2.11 implies that

$$\sum_{d \mid n} \mu(d) \log(d) = -\Lambda(n) = 0$$

since n has at least 2 distinct prime factors.

- (3) (Inductive step) Suppose the conclusion holds for $m < m_0$ and n has more than m distinct prime factors. Given n having more than m_0 distinct prime factors. Write $n = p^a n'$ where $a > 0$ and $p \nmid n'$. (Here q has more than $m_0 - 1$ distinct prime factors.) So by the induction hypothesis and

$\sum_{d|n'} \mu(d) = 0$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{d|n} \mu(d)(\log d)^{m_0} \\
&= \sum_{d|n'} \sum_{i=0}^a \mu(p^i d)(\log p^i d)^{m_0} \\
&= \sum_{d|n'} [\mu(d)(\log d)^{m_0} + \mu(pd)(\log pd)^{m_0}] \\
&= \sum_{d|n'} [\mu(d)(\log d)^{m_0} + \underbrace{\mu(p)}_{=-1} \mu(d)(\log p + \log d)^{m_0}] \\
&= \sum_{d|n'} \mu(d)[(\log d)^{m_0} - (\log p + \log d)^{m_0}] \\
&= \sum_{d|n'} \mu(d)[-(\log p)^{m_0} - \dots - m_0 \log p (\log d)^{m_0-1}] \\
&= -(\log p)^{m_0} \sum_{d|n'} \mu(d) - \dots - m_0 \log p \sum_{d|n'} \mu(d)(\log d)^{m_0-1} \\
&= 0.
\end{aligned}$$

(4) By (2)(3), the conclusion holds for all $m \geq 1$.

□

Exercise 2.9.

If x is real, $x \geq 1$, let $\varphi(x, n)$ denote the number of positive integers $\leq x$ that are relatively prime to n . [Note that $\varphi(n, n) = \varphi(n)$.] Prove that

$$\varphi(x, n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \left\lfloor \frac{x}{d} \right\rfloor, \quad \sum_{d|n} \varphi\left(\frac{x}{d}, \frac{n}{d}\right) = [x].$$

Proof.

(1) Show that $\varphi(x, n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \left\lfloor \frac{x}{d} \right\rfloor$. Similar to the proof of Theorem 2.3. $\varphi(x, n)$ can be written in the form

$$\varphi(x, n) = \sum_{1 \leq k \leq x} \left\lfloor \frac{1}{(n, k)} \right\rfloor,$$

where now k runs through all integers $\leq x$. Now we use Theorem 2.1 with n replaced by (n, k) to obtain

$$\varphi(x, n) = \sum_{1 \leq k \leq x} \sum_{d|(n, k)} \mu(d) = \sum_{1 \leq k \leq x} \sum_{\substack{d|n \\ d|k}} \mu(d).$$

For a fixed divisor d of n we must sum over all those k in the range $1 \leq k \leq x$ which are multiples of d . If we write $k = qd$ then $1 \leq k \leq x$ if and only if $1 \leq q \leq \left\lfloor \frac{x}{d} \right\rfloor$. Hence the last sum for $\varphi(x, n)$ can be written as

$$\varphi(x, n) = \sum_{d|n} \sum_{1 \leq q \leq \left\lfloor \frac{x}{d} \right\rfloor} \mu(d) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \sum_{1 \leq q \leq \left\lfloor \frac{x}{d} \right\rfloor} 1 = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \left\lfloor \frac{x}{d} \right\rfloor.$$

- (2) Show that $\sum_{d|n} \varphi\left(\frac{x}{d}, \frac{n}{d}\right) = [x]$. Similar to the proof of Theorem 2.2. Let S denote the set $\{1, 2, \dots, [x]\}$. We distribute the integers of S into disjoint sets as follows. For each divisor d of n , let

$$A(d) = \{k : (k, n) = d, 1 \leq k \leq x\}.$$

That is, $A(d)$ contains those elements of S which have the gcd d with n . The sets $A(d)$ form a disjoint collection whose union is S . Therefore if $f(d)$ denotes the number of integers in $A(d)$ we have

$$\sum_{d|n} f(d) = [x].$$

But $(k, n) = d$ if and only if $\left(\frac{k}{d}, \frac{n}{d}\right) = 1$, and $0 < k \leq x$ if and only if $0 < \frac{k}{d} \leq \frac{x}{d}$. Therefore, if we let $q = \frac{k}{d}$, there is a one-to-one correspondence between the elements in $A(d)$ and those integers q satisfying $0 < q \leq \frac{x}{d}$, $\left(q, \frac{n}{d}\right) = 1$. The number of such q is $\varphi\left(\frac{x}{d}, \frac{n}{d}\right)$. Hence $f(d) = \varphi\left(\frac{x}{d}, \frac{n}{d}\right)$ and thus

$$\sum_{d|n} \varphi\left(\frac{x}{d}, \frac{n}{d}\right) = [x].$$

□

In Exercise 2.10, 2.11 and 2.12, $d(n)$ denotes the number of positive divisors of n .

Exercise 2.10.

Prove that $\prod_{t|n} t = n^{\frac{d(n)}{2}}$.

Proof.

- (1) Note that $d(1) = 1$ and

$$d(p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r}) = (\alpha_1 + 1) \cdots (\alpha_r + 1) = d(p_1^{\alpha_1}) \cdots d(p_r^{\alpha_r}).$$

Hence $d(n)$ is multiplicative (Theorem 2.13).

- (2) Show that $\prod_{t|n} t = n^{\frac{d(n)}{2}}$. $n = 1$ is trivial. Assume $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r} > 1$. Then $t|n$ if and only if $t = p_1^{x_1} \cdots p_r^{x_r}$ with $0 \leq x_i \leq \alpha_i$ ($i = 1, \dots, r$). So

$$\begin{aligned}
\prod_{t|n} t &= \prod_{\substack{0 \leq x_1 \leq \alpha_1 \\ \dots \\ 0 \leq x_r \leq \alpha_r}} p_1^{x_1} \cdots p_r^{x_r} \\
&= p_1^{(0+1+\cdots+\alpha_1)(\alpha_2+1)\cdots(\alpha_r+1)} \cdots p_r^{(\alpha_1+1)\cdots(\alpha_{r-1}+1)(0+1+\cdots+\alpha_r)} \\
&= p_1^{\frac{\alpha_1(\alpha_1+1)}{2} \cdot (\alpha_2+1)\cdots(\alpha_r+1)} \cdots p_r^{(\alpha_1+1)\cdots(\alpha_{r-1}+1) \cdot \frac{\alpha_r(\alpha_r+1)}{2}} \\
&= p_1^{\alpha_1 \frac{d(n)}{2}} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r \frac{d(n)}{2}} \\
&= (p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r})^{\frac{d(n)}{2}} \\
&= n^{\frac{d(n)}{2}}.
\end{aligned}$$

□

Exercise 2.11.

Prove that $d(n)$ is odd if, and only if, n is a square.

Proof. $n = 1$ is trivial. Assume $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r} > 1$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
d(n) &= (\alpha_1 + 1) \cdots (\alpha_r + 1) \text{ is odd} && \text{(Exercise 2.10)} \\
\iff &\alpha_1 + 1, \dots, \alpha_r + 1 \text{ are odd} \\
\iff &\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_r \text{ are even} \\
\iff &n \text{ is a square.}
\end{aligned}$$

□

Exercise 2.12.

Prove that $\sum_{t|n} d(t)^3 = \left(\sum_{t|n} d(t) \right)^2$.

Proof.

- (1) Exercise 2.10 shows that $d(n)$ is multiplicative. Similar to the proof of Exercise 2.7, both $f(n) := \sum_{t|n} d(t)^3$ and $g(n) := \left(\sum_{t|n} d(t) \right)^2$ are multiplicative. So it suffices to show that $f(p^a) = g(p^a)$ (Theorem 2.13).

(2) A direct calculation shows that

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(p^a) &= \sum_{t|p^a} d(t)^3 \\
 &= d(1)^3 + d(p)^3 + \cdots + d(p^a)^3 \\
 &= 1^3 + 2^3 + \cdots + (a+1)^3 \\
 &= \left(\frac{(a+1)(a+2)}{2} \right)^2
 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 g(p^a) &= \left(\sum_{t|p^a} d(t) \right)^2 \\
 &= (d(1) + d(p) + \cdots + d(p^a))^2 \\
 &= (1 + 2 + \cdots + (a+1))^2 \\
 &= \left(\frac{(a+1)(a+2)}{2} \right)^2
 \end{aligned}$$

are equal.

□

Exercise 2.18.

Prove that every number of the form $2^{a-1}(2^a - 1)$ is perfect if $2^a - 1$ is prime.

Proof. Write $n := 2^{a-1}(2^a - 1)$. Here $(2^{a-1}, 2^a - 1) = 1$ since $2^a - 1$ is always odd and Exercise 1.3. Hence

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sigma(n) &= \sigma(2^{a-1})\sigma(2^a - 1) && (\sigma \text{ is a multiplicative}) \\
 &= (1 + 2 + \cdots + 2^{a-1})\{1 + (2^a - 1)\} && (2^a - 1 \text{ is prime}) \\
 &= (2^a - 1) \cdot \underbrace{(2^a)}_{=2^{a-1} \cdot 2} \\
 &= 2n.
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore n is perfect. □

Exercise 2.19.

Prove that if n is even and perfect then $n = 2^{a-1}(2^a - 1)$ for some $a \geq 2$. It is not known if any odd perfect numbers exist. It is known that there are no odd

perfect numbers with less than 7 distinct prime factors.

Proof.

- (1) Suppose n is even and perfect. We might write $n = 2^{a-1}q$ for some $a \geq 2$ and $2 \nmid q$. As n is perfect, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 2n &= \sigma(n) \\
 \implies \underbrace{2 \cdot 2^{a-1}q}_{=2^a q} &= 2n = \sigma(2^{a-1}q) = \underbrace{\sigma(2^{a-1})}_{=2^a-1} \sigma(q) \\
 \implies 2^a q &= (2^a - 1)\sigma(q) \\
 \implies q &= (2^a - 1)q_1 \text{ for some } q_1 \text{ since } (2^a - 1, 2^a) = 1 \\
 \implies 2^a(2^a - 1)q_1 &= (2^a - 1)\sigma(q) \\
 \implies 2^a q_1 &= \sigma(q) = \sigma((2^a - 1)q_1).
 \end{aligned}$$

- (2) If $q_1 > 1$, then

$$\begin{aligned}
 2^a q_1 &= \sigma(q) \\
 &= \sigma((2^a - 1)q_1) \\
 &\geq (2^a - 1)q_1 + (2^a - 1) + q_1 + 1 \\
 &= 2^a q_1 + 2^a,
 \end{aligned}$$

which is absurd. Therefore $q_1 = 1$. So $q = 2^a - 1$ and thus $n = 2^a(2^a - 1)$.

- (3) Pace P. Nielsen shows that

- (a) An odd perfect number n is shown to have at least 9 distinct prime factors.
- (b) Moreover, if $3 \nmid n$ then n must have at least 12 distinct prime divisors.

See [Pace P. Nielsen, *Odd perfect numbers have at least nine distinct prime factors*, 2006].

□

Exercise 2.21.

Let $f(n) = \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor - \lfloor \sqrt{n-1} \rfloor$. Prove that f is multiplicative but not completely multiplicative.

Proof.

- (1) Show that

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \text{ is a square,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- (a) Write $m = \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$. So $m^2 \leq n < (m+1)^2$.
 - (b) Suppose $n = m^2$ is a square. Since $m \geq 1$ and $(m-1)^2 \leq m^2 - 1 = n - 1 < m^2$, $\lfloor \sqrt{n-1} \rfloor = m - 1$. Therefore $f(n) = 1$.
 - (c) Suppose n is not a square. So $m^2 < n < (m+1)^2$. So $\lfloor \sqrt{n-1} \rfloor = m$ since $m^2 \leq n - 1 < n < (m+1)^2$. Therefore $f(n) = 0$.
- (2) It is easy to see that f is multiplicative but not completely multiplicative (since $f(p^2) \neq f(p)^2$ for all prime p).

□

Chapter 3: Average of arithmetical functions

Exercise 3.1.

Use Euler's summation formula to deduce the following for $x \geq 2$:

- (a) $\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\log n}{n} = \frac{1}{2}(\log x)^2 + A + O\left(\frac{\log x}{x}\right)$, where A is a constant.
- (b) $\sum_{2 \leq n \leq x} \frac{1}{n \log n} = \log \log x + B + O\left(\frac{1}{x \log x}\right)$, where B is a constant.

Proof of (a).

- (1) Similar to the proof of Theorem 3.2. We take $f(t) = \frac{\log t}{t}$ in Euler's summation formula to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\log n}{n} &= \int_1^x \frac{\log t}{t} dt + \int_1^x (t - [t]) \frac{1 - \log t}{t^2} dt \\ &\quad + \frac{\log x}{x}([x] - x) - \underbrace{\frac{\log(1)}{1}([1] - 1)}_{=0} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\log x)^2 + \int_1^x (t - [t]) \frac{1 - \log t}{t^2} dt + O\left(\frac{\log x}{x}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\log x)^2 + \int_1^\infty (t - [t]) \frac{1 - \log t}{t^2} dt \\ &\quad - \int_x^\infty (t - [t]) \frac{1 - \log t}{t^2} dt + O\left(\frac{\log x}{x}\right). \end{aligned}$$

- (2) The improper integral $\int_1^\infty (t - [t]) \frac{1 - \log t}{t^2} dt$ exists since it is dominated by $\int_1^e \frac{1 - \log t}{t^2} dt + \int_e^\infty \frac{\log t - 1}{t^2} dt = 2e^{-1}$.
- (3) Might assume that $x \geq e$. So

$$0 \leq - \int_x^\infty (t - [t]) \frac{1 - \log t}{t^2} dt \leq \int_x^\infty \frac{\log t - 1}{t^2} dt = \frac{\log x}{x}.$$

- (4) Therefore

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\log n}{n} = \frac{1}{2}(\log x)^2 + A + O\left(\frac{\log x}{x}\right)$$

where $A = \int_1^\infty (t - [t]) \frac{1 - \log t}{t^2} dt$ is a constant.

□

Proof of (b).

(1) We take $f(t) = \frac{1}{t \log t}$ in Euler's summation formula to obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{2 \leq n \leq x} \frac{1}{n \log n} &= \int_2^x \frac{1}{t \log t} dt + \int_2^x -(t - [t]) \frac{\log t + 1}{t^2 (\log t)^2} dt \\
&\quad + \frac{1}{x \log x} ([x] - x) - \underbrace{\frac{1}{2 \cdot \log(2)} ([2] - 2)}_{=0} \\
&= \log \log x - \log \log 2 - \int_2^x (t - [t]) \frac{\log t + 1}{t^2 (\log t)^2} dt \\
&\quad + O\left(\frac{1}{x \log x}\right) \\
&= \log \log x - \log \log 2 - \int_2^\infty (t - [t]) \frac{\log t + 1}{t^2 (\log t)^2} dt \\
&\quad + \int_x^\infty (t - [t]) \frac{\log t + 1}{t^2 (\log t)^2} dt + O\left(\frac{1}{x \log x}\right).
\end{aligned}$$

(2) The improper integral $\int_2^\infty (t - [t]) \frac{\log t + 1}{t^2 (\log t)^2} dt$ exists since it is dominated by $\int_2^\infty \frac{\log t + 1}{t^2 (\log t)^2} dt = \frac{1}{2 \log 2} < \infty$.

(3)

$$0 \leq \int_x^\infty (t - [t]) \frac{\log t + 1}{t^2 (\log t)^2} dt \leq \int_x^\infty \frac{\log t + 1}{t^2 (\log t)^2} dt = \frac{1}{x \log x}.$$

(4) Therefore

$$\sum_{2 \leq n \leq x} \frac{1}{n \log n} = \log \log x + B + O\left(\frac{1}{x \log x}\right)$$

where $B = -\log \log 2 - \int_2^\infty (t - [t]) \frac{\log t + 1}{t^2 (\log t)^2} dt$ is a constant.

□

Exercise 3.2.

If $x \geq 2$ prove that

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{d(n)}{n} = \frac{1}{2} (\log x)^2 + 2C \log x + O(1),$$

where C is Euler's constant.

Proof. Similar to the proof of Theorem 3.3, we have

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{d(n)}{n} = \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{d|n} 1 = \sum_{\substack{q, d \\ qd \leq x}} \frac{1}{qd} = \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d} \sum_{q \leq \frac{x}{d}} \frac{1}{q}.$$

Now we use Theorem 3.2(a) to obtain

$$\sum_{q \leq \frac{x}{d}} \frac{1}{q} = \log \frac{x}{d} + C + O\left(\frac{d}{x}\right) = \log x - \log d + C + O\left(\frac{d}{x}\right).$$

Using this along with Theorem 3.2(a) and Exercise 3.1 we find

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{d(n)}{n} &= \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d} \left\{ \log x - \log d + C + O\left(\frac{d}{x}\right) \right\} \\ &= (\log x + C) \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d} - \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{\log d}{d} + \sum_{d \leq x} O\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) \\ &= (\log x + C) \left\{ \log x + C + O\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) \right\} \\ &\quad - \left\{ \frac{1}{2}(\log x)^2 + A + O\left(\frac{\log x}{x}\right) \right\} + O(1) \\ &= (\log x)^2 + 2C \log x - \frac{1}{2}(\log x)^2 + O(1) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\log x)^2 + 2C \log x + O(1). \end{aligned}$$

□

Exercise 3.3.

If $x \geq 2$ and $\alpha > 0$, $\alpha \neq 1$, prove that

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{d(n)}{n^\alpha} = \frac{x^{1-\alpha} \log x}{1-\alpha} + \zeta(\alpha)^2 + O(x^{1-\alpha}).$$

Proof.

(1) Similar to Exercise 3.2.

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{d(n)}{n^\alpha} = \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{1}{n^\alpha} \sum_{d|n} 1 = \sum_{\substack{q, d \\ qd \leq x}} \frac{1}{q^\alpha d^\alpha} = \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d^\alpha} \sum_{q \leq \frac{x}{d}} \frac{1}{q^\alpha}.$$

Now we use Theorem 3.2(b) to obtain

$$\sum_{q \leq \frac{x}{d}} \frac{1}{q^\alpha} = \frac{1}{d^{1-\alpha}} \cdot \frac{x^{1-\alpha}}{1-\alpha} + \zeta(\alpha) + O\left(\frac{d^\alpha}{x^\alpha}\right).$$

Using this along with Theorem 3.2 we find

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{d(n)}{n^\alpha} &= \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d^\alpha} \left\{ \frac{1}{d^{1-\alpha}} \cdot \frac{x^{1-\alpha}}{1-\alpha} + \zeta(\alpha) + O\left(\frac{d^\alpha}{x^\alpha}\right) \right\} \\
&= \frac{x^{1-\alpha}}{1-\alpha} \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d} + \zeta(\alpha) \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d^\alpha} + \sum_{d \leq x} O(x^{-\alpha}) \\
&= \frac{x^{1-\alpha}}{1-\alpha} \{\log x + C + O(x^{-1})\} \\
&\quad + \zeta(\alpha) \left\{ \frac{x^{1-\alpha}}{1-\alpha} + \zeta(\alpha) + O(x^{-\alpha}) \right\} + O(x^{1-\alpha}) \\
&= \frac{x^{1-\alpha} \log x}{1-\alpha} + \zeta(\alpha)^2 + O(x^{1-\alpha}).
\end{aligned}$$

□

Exercise 3.5.

If $x \geq 1$ prove that:

- (a) $\sum_{n \leq x} \varphi(n) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n) \left[\frac{x}{n} \right]^2 + \frac{1}{2}.$
- (b) $\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\varphi(n)}{n} = \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n} \left[\frac{x}{n} \right].$

These formulas, together with those in Exercise 3.4, show that, for $x \geq 2$,

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \varphi(n) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{x^2}{\zeta(2)} + O(x \log x), \quad \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\varphi(n)}{n} = \frac{x}{\zeta(2)} + O(\log x).$$

The last two formulas are trivial and we omit the proof.

Proof of (a). Same as the proof of Theorem 3.7.

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{n \leq x} \varphi(n) &= \sum_{n \leq x} \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \frac{n}{d} \\
&= \sum_{\substack{q, d \\ qd \leq x}} \mu(d) q \\
&= \sum_{d \leq x} \mu(d) \sum_{q \leq \frac{x}{d}} q \\
&= \sum_{d \leq x} \mu(d) \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{x}{d} \right] \left(1 + \left[\frac{x}{d} \right] \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{d \leq x} \mu(d) \left[\frac{x}{d} \right]^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{d \leq x} \mu(d) \left[\frac{x}{d} \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{d \leq x} \mu(d) \left[\frac{x}{d} \right]^2 + \frac{1}{2} \quad (\text{Theorem 3.12})
\end{aligned}$$

□

Proof of (b).

(1)

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\varphi(n)}{n} &= \sum_{n \leq x} \sum_{d|n} \frac{\mu(d)}{d} \quad (\text{Theorem 2.3}) \\
&= \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n} \left[\frac{x}{n} \right]. \quad (\text{Theorem 3.11})
\end{aligned}$$

□

Properties of the greatest-integer function

Note. We might define

$$\begin{aligned}
\lfloor x \rfloor &= \text{the greatest integer less than or equal to } x; \\
\lceil x \rceil &= \text{the least integer greater than or equal to } x.
\end{aligned}$$

Kenneth E. Iverson introduced this notation, as well as the names “floor” and “ceiling,” early in the 1960s [Kenneth E. Iverson, *A Programming Language*. Wiley, 1962. page 12].

Exercise 3.17.

Prove that $\lfloor x \rfloor + \lfloor x + \frac{1}{2} \rfloor = \lfloor 2x \rfloor$ and more generally,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left\lfloor x + \frac{k}{n} \right\rfloor = \lfloor nx \rfloor.$$

Proof.

(1) Show that

$$m = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left\lfloor \frac{m+k}{n} \right\rfloor$$

for $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $n > 0$. Note that

$$m+k = n \left\lfloor \frac{m+k}{n} \right\rfloor + \underbrace{\{(m+k) \bmod n\}}_{:=r(m+k)}$$

for $k = 0, \dots, n-1$ where $0 \leq r(m+k) < n$ is an integer. Note that $\{r(m+k) : k = 0, \dots, n-1\}$ is a rearrangement of $\{0, \dots, n-1\}$. So

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (m+k) &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} n \left\lfloor \frac{m+k}{n} \right\rfloor + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} r(m+k) \\ \implies nm + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} k &= n \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left\lfloor \frac{m+k}{n} \right\rfloor + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} k \\ \implies m &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left\lfloor \frac{m+k}{n} \right\rfloor. \end{aligned}$$

(2) Show that $\left\lfloor \frac{m+x}{n} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{m+\lfloor x \rfloor}{n} \right\rfloor$ if $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n > 0$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Similar to (1), we write

$$m + \lfloor x \rfloor = n \left\lfloor \frac{m + \lfloor x \rfloor}{n} \right\rfloor + r$$

where $0 \leq r < n$ is an integer. So

$$m + x = n \left\lfloor \frac{m + \lfloor x \rfloor}{n} \right\rfloor + (r + x - \lfloor x \rfloor).$$

Note that $0 \leq r + x - \lfloor x \rfloor < n$. Hence

$$\left\lfloor \frac{m+x}{n} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{m + \lfloor x \rfloor}{n} \right\rfloor.$$

(3) Now take $m := \lfloor nx \rfloor$ in (1) and apply (2) to get the desired conclusion.

□

Supplement. (Related exercises)

Related exercises are quoted from the book: Ronald L. Graham, Donald E. Knuth and Oren Patashnik, *Concrete Mathematics: A Foundation for Computer Science*, 2nd edition.

(1) Show that $\lceil \frac{m+x}{n} \rceil = \left\lceil \frac{m+\lceil x \rceil}{n} \right\rceil$ if $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n > 0$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

(2) Show that

$$m = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left\lceil \frac{m-k}{n} \right\rceil$$

for $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $n > 0$.

(3) Prove that $\lceil x \rceil + \lceil x - \frac{1}{2} \rceil = \lceil 2x \rceil$ and more generally,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left\lceil x + \frac{k}{n} \right\rceil = \lceil nx \rceil.$$

(4) Show that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left\lfloor \frac{mk+x}{n} \right\rfloor = g \left\lfloor \frac{x}{g} \right\rfloor + \frac{1}{2}(mn - m - n + g)$$

if $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n > 0$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $g = \gcd(m, n)$.

(5) (Reciprocity law) Hence

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left\lfloor \frac{mk+x}{n} \right\rfloor = \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \left\lfloor \frac{nk+x}{m} \right\rfloor$$

if $m, n > 0$.

(6) Prove that, for all real x and y with $y > 0$

$$\sum_{0 \leq k < y} \left\lfloor x + \frac{k}{y} \right\rfloor = \lfloor xy + \lfloor x+1 \rfloor (\lceil y \rceil - y) \rfloor.$$

Exercise 3.18. (Replicative function)

Let $f(x) = x - \lfloor x \rfloor - \frac{1}{2}$. Prove that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f\left(x + \frac{k}{n}\right) = f(nx)$$

and deduce that

$$\left| \sum_{n=1}^m f\left(2^n x + \frac{1}{2}\right) \right| \leq 1 \quad \text{for all } m \geq 1 \text{ and all real } x.$$

Proof.

- (1) Exercise 3.17 shows that $x \mapsto \lfloor x \rfloor$ is replicative. Besides, $x \mapsto x - \frac{1}{2}$ is also replicative. (It is easy to check.) Hence $f : x \mapsto x - \lfloor x \rfloor - \frac{1}{2}$ is replicative.
- (2) In particular, we have

$$f(2^n x) + f\left(2^n x + \frac{1}{2}\right) = f(2^{n+1} x).$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^m f\left(2^n x + \frac{1}{2}\right) &= \sum_{n=1}^m \{f(2^{n+1} x) - f(2^n x)\} \\ &= f(2^{m+1} x) - f(2x) \\ &= \underbrace{(2^{m+1} x - \lfloor 2^{m+1} x \rfloor)}_{:=r_1} - \underbrace{(2x - \lfloor 2x \rfloor)}_{:=r_2}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $0 \leq r_1, r_2 < 1$, $-1 < r_1 - r_2 < 1$. Therefore

$$\left| \sum_{n=1}^m f\left(2^n x + \frac{1}{2}\right) \right| < 1.$$

□

Note.

- (1) The function $f(x)$ is said to be **replicative** if it satisfies

$$f(nx) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f\left(x + \frac{k}{n}\right).$$

- (2) The function $x \mapsto f(x - \lfloor x \rfloor)$ is replicative if f is replicative.
- (3) It may be interesting to study more general class of functions for which

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f\left(x + \frac{k}{n}\right) = a_n f(nx) + b_n$$

(where a_n, b_n do not depend on x).

- (4) Let B_n be the Bernoulli polynomial. Suppose n and F are integers and $n, F > 0$. Show that

$$B_n(Fx) = F^{n-1} \sum_{a=0}^{F-1} B_n\left(x + \frac{a}{F}\right).$$

- (5) Note that

$$\frac{1}{\exp(nz) - 1} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{\exp\left(z + \frac{2k\pi i}{n}\right) - 1}.$$

Thus

$$\cot(z) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \cot \frac{z + k\pi}{n}.$$

Now $x \mapsto \cot(\pi x)$ is replicative.

Exercise 3.20.

If n is a positive integer prove that $\lfloor \sqrt{n} + \sqrt{n+1} \rfloor = \lfloor \sqrt{4n+2} \rfloor$.

Proof.

- (1) Note that

$$\begin{aligned} (\sqrt{n} + \sqrt{n+1})^2 &= 2n + 1 + 2\sqrt{n(n+1)} \\ \implies 4n + 1 &< (\sqrt{n} + \sqrt{n+1})^2 < 4n + 2 \end{aligned}$$

since

$$n = \sqrt{n^2} < \sqrt{n(n+1)} < \sqrt{(n+1)^2} = n + 1.$$

- (2) Hence to show $\lfloor \sqrt{n} + \sqrt{n+1} \rfloor = \lfloor \sqrt{4n+2} \rfloor$, it suffices to show that there is no integers in

$$[\sqrt{n} + \sqrt{n+1}, \sqrt{4n+2}] \subseteq (\sqrt{4n+1}, \sqrt{4n+2}] \subseteq \mathbb{R}^1.$$

So it suffices to show that there is no squares of \mathbb{Z} in the subset

$$(4n + 1, 4n + 2] \subseteq \mathbb{R}^1.$$

Note that $4n + 2$ cannot be an integer square. So the last statement holds. Therefore $\lfloor \sqrt{n} + \sqrt{n+1} \rfloor = \lfloor \sqrt{4n+2} \rfloor$.

□

Chapter 4: Some Elementary Theorems on the Distribution of Prime Numbers

Exercise 4.5.

Prove that for every $n > 1$ there exist n consecutive composite numbers.

Proof.

$$\underbrace{(n + 8964)! + 2}_{\text{is divided by 2}}, \underbrace{(n + 8964)! + 3}_{\text{is divided by 3}}, \dots, \underbrace{(n + 8964)! + (n + 1)}_{\text{is divided by } (n + 1)}$$

are n consecutive composite numbers. \square

Exercise 4.19. (Logarithmic integral)

If $x \geq 2$, let

$$\text{Li}(x) = \int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log t}$$

(the **logarithmic integral** of x).

(a) Prove that

$$\text{Li}(x) = \frac{x}{\log x} + \int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log^2 t} - \frac{2}{\log 2},$$

and that, more generally,

$$\text{Li}(x) = \frac{x}{\log x} \left(1 + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{k!}{\log^k x} \right) + n! \int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log^{n+1} t} + C_n,$$

where C_n is independent of x .

(b) If $x \geq 2$ prove that

$$\int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log^n t} = O\left(\frac{x}{\log^n x}\right).$$

Proof of (a).

(1) Integration by parts gives

$$\text{Li}(x) = \frac{t}{\log t} \Big|_{t=2}^{t=x} + \int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log^2 t} = \frac{x}{\log x} + \int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log^2 t} - \frac{2}{\log 2}.$$

(2) We use induction to prove the general case. Suppose

$$\text{Li}(x) = \frac{x}{\log x} \left(1 + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{k!}{\log^k x} \right) + n! \int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log^{n+1} t} + C_n$$

holds. Similar to part (1), we apply integration by parts to $\int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log^{n+1} t}$ to get

$$\begin{aligned} \int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log^{n+1} t} &= \frac{t}{\log^{n+1} t} \Big|_{t=2}^{t=x} + (n+1) \int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log^{n+2} t} \\ &= \frac{x}{\log^{n+1} x} + (n+1) \int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log^{n+2} t} - \frac{2}{\log^{n+1} 2}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Li}(x) &= \frac{x}{\log x} \left(1 + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{k!}{\log^k x} \right) \\ &\quad + n! \left(\frac{x}{\log^{n+1} x} + (n+1) \int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log^{n+2} t} - \frac{2}{\log^{n+1} 2} \right) + C_n \\ &= \frac{x}{\log x} \left(1 + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k!}{\log^k x} \right) + (n+1)! \int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log^{n+2} t} \\ &\quad + \underbrace{C_n - \frac{2 \cdot n!}{\log^{n+1} 2}}_{:=C_{n+1}}. \end{aligned}$$

By induction, the general case holds.

(3) Here

$$C_n = - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{2 \cdot (k-1)!}{\log^k 2}$$

actually.

□

Proof of (b).

(1) Similar to the proof of Theorem 4.4.

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log^n t} &= \int_2^{\sqrt{x}} \frac{dt}{\log^n t} + \int_{\sqrt{x}}^x \frac{dt}{\log^n t} \\
&\leq \frac{\sqrt{x}}{\log^n 2} + \frac{x - \sqrt{x}}{\log^n \sqrt{x}} \\
&\leq \frac{1}{\log^n 2} \cdot \sqrt{x} + 2^n \cdot \frac{x}{\log^n x} \\
&= O\left(\frac{x}{\log^n x}\right) + O\left(\frac{x}{\log^n x}\right) \quad \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{\sqrt{x}}{\log^n x} = +\infty\right) \\
&= O\left(\frac{x}{\log^n x}\right)
\end{aligned}$$

if $x \geq \sqrt{x}$ or $x \geq 4$.

(2) We can apply L'Hospital's rule to give another proof.

□

Chapter 6: Finite Abelian Groups and Their Characters

Supplement. (Serre, A Course in Arithmetic)

- (1) (Proposition VI.1) *Let H be a subgroup of a finite abelian group G . Every character of H extends to a character of G .*
- (2) (Proposition VI.2) *The group \widehat{G} is a finite abelian group of the same order of G .*
- (3) Worth the time and effort to read this book.

□

Supplement. (Serre, Linear Representations of Finite Groups)

- (1) (Proposition 2.5) The irreducible characters of a finite abelian G are denoted χ_1, \dots, χ_h ; their degrees are written n_1, \dots, n_h , we have $n_i = \chi_i(1)$. *The degrees n_i satisfy the relation $\sum_{i=1}^h n_i^2 = g$.*
- (2) (Exercise 2.3.1) *Show directly, using Schur's lemma, that each irreducible representation of an abelian group, finite or not, has degree 1. Proof.*
 - (a) (Schur's lemma) Let $\rho^1 : G \rightarrow \text{GL}(V_1)$ and $\rho^2 : G \rightarrow \text{GL}(V_2)$ be two irreducible representations of G , and let f be a linear mapping of V_1 into V_2 such that $\rho_s^2 \circ f = f \circ \rho_s^1$ for all $s \in G$. Then:
 - (i) If ρ^1 and ρ^2 are not isomorphic, we have $f = 0$.
 - (ii) If $V_1 = V_2$ and $\rho^1 = \rho^2$, f is a homothety (i.e., a scalar multiple of the identity).
 - (b) Let $\rho : G \rightarrow \text{GL}(V)$ be an irreducible representations of G . Since G is abelian,

$$\rho_s \circ \rho_t = \rho_t \circ \rho_s.$$

Schur's lemma implies that ρ_s is a homothety for any $s \in G$. Since ρ is irreducible, $\dim V$ cannot be strictly larger than 1.

□

- (3) (Proposition 2.7) *The number of irreducible representations of G (up to isomorphism) is equal to the number of classes of G .*
- (4) (1)(3) or (2)(3) implies Theorem 6.8. Again the book is good to read.

□

Exercise 6.1.

Let G be a set of n th roots of a nonzero complex number. If G is a group under multiplication, prove that G is the group of n th roots of unity.

Proof.

- (1) Write

$$G = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : z^n = w\}$$

where $w \in \mathbb{C}^\times$. It suffices to show that $w = 1$.

- (2) Since the multiplication is the binary operation on G , $z_1 \cdot z_2 \in G$ whenever $z_1, z_2 \in G$. Hence $w = (z_1 \cdot z_2)^n = (z_1)^n \cdot (z_2)^n = w \cdot w = w^2$ or $w = 1$. Note that G is nonempty and thus there exists an identity element of G .

□

Exercise 6.2.

Let G be a finite group of order n with identity element e . If a_1, \dots, a_n are n elements of G , not necessarily distinct, prove that there are integers p and q with $1 \leq p \leq q \leq n$ such that $a_p a_{p+1} \cdots a_q = e$.

Proof.

- (1) Consider the set

$$S = \{s_k := a_1 \cdots a_k : 1 \leq k \leq n\}.$$

- (2) There is nothing to do when $e \in S$ ($p = 1$).
- (3) Suppose $e \notin S$. The pigeonhole principle implies that there exists two distinct elements $s_p, s_q \in S$ such that $s_p = s_q$. Might assume $p < q$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} s_p = s_q &\iff a_1 \cdots a_p = a_1 \cdots a_p a_{p+1} \cdots a_q \\ &\iff e = a_{p+1} \cdots a_q = s_p^{-1} s_q \end{aligned}$$

for some $1 \leq p < q \leq n$.

□

Exercise 6.3.

Let G be the set of all 2×2 matrices $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$, where a, b, c, d are integers with $ad - bc = 1$. Prove that G is a group under matrix multiplication. This group is sometimes called the **modular group**.

Proof.

- (1) (Binary operation) Note that \mathbb{Z} is a ring and $\det(st) = \det(s)\det(t) = 1 \cdot 1 = 1$ whenever $s, t \in G$.
- (2) (Associativity) It is followed from the associativity of $M_2(\mathbb{C}) \supseteq G$.
- (3) (Identity element) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is the identity element of G .
- (4) (Inverse element) The inverse of $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in G$ is $\begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix} \in G$.

□

Chapter 7: Dirichlet's Theorem on Primes in Arithmetic Progressions

Supplement.

Let $k > 0$ and $(h, k) = 1$. Let P be the set of primes numbers. Let P_h be the set of primes numbers such that $p \equiv h \pmod{k}$.

Theorem 7.3.

$$\sum_{\substack{p \leq x \\ p \in P_h}} \frac{\log p}{p} = \frac{1}{\varphi(k)} \log x + O(1)$$

for all $x > 1$.

We deal with the series $\sum p^{-1} \log p$ rather than $\sum p^{-1}$ to simplify the proof. Compare to the book *Serre, A Course in Arithmetic* for a classical proof of Dirichlet's Theorem:

$$\sum_{p \in P_h} \frac{1}{p^s} \sim \frac{1}{\varphi(k)} \log \frac{1}{s-1}.$$

for $s \rightarrow 1$.

Outline of the proof.

(1) Theorem 4.10 says that

$$\sum_{p \leq x} \frac{\log p}{p} = \log x + O(1).$$

Compare to Corollary 2 to Proposition VI.10 in *Serre, A Course in Arithmetic*:
When $s \rightarrow 1$, one has

$$\sum_p p^{-s} \sim \log \frac{1}{s-1}.$$

(2) By the orthogonality relation for Dirichlet characters,

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(k) \sum_{\substack{p \leq x \\ p \in P_h}} \frac{\log p}{p} &= \overline{\chi_1}(h) \sum_{p \leq x} \frac{\chi_1(p) \log p}{p} + \sum_{r=2}^{\varphi(k)} \overline{\chi_r}(h) \sum_{p \leq x} \frac{\chi_r(p) \log p}{p} \\ &= \sum_{\substack{p \leq x \\ p \in P_k}} \frac{\log p}{p} + \sum_{r=2}^{\varphi(k)} \overline{\chi_r}(h) \sum_{p \leq x} \frac{\chi_r(p) \log p}{p}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence it suffices to consider $\sum_{\substack{p \leq x \\ p \in P_k}} \frac{\log p}{p}$ and $\sum_{p \leq x} \frac{\chi_r(p) \log p}{p}$. Compare to Lemma VI.9 in *Serre, A Course in Arithmetic*: Let

$$f_\chi(s) = \sum_{p \nmid k} \frac{\chi(p)}{p^s}.$$

Then

$$\sum_{p \in P_h} \frac{1}{p^s} = \frac{1}{\varphi(k)} \sum_{\chi} \chi(h)^{-1} f_\chi(s).$$

Again it suffices to consider two cases $\chi = 1$ and $\chi \neq 1$.

(3) Show that

$$\sum_{\substack{p \leq x \\ p \in P_k}} \frac{\log p}{p} = \sum_{p \leq x} \frac{\log p}{p} + O(1).$$

Compare to Lemma VI.7 in *Serre, A Course in Arithmetic*: If $\chi = 1$, then for $s \rightarrow 1$

$$f_\chi(s) \sim \log \frac{1}{s-1}.$$

(4) Show that

$$\sum_{p \leq x} \frac{\chi(p) \log p}{p} = O(1)$$

for each $\chi \neq \chi_1$. Compare to Lemma VI.8 in *Serre, A Course in Arithmetic*: If $\chi \neq 1$, $f_\chi(s)$ remains bounded when $s \rightarrow 1$.

(5) To prove part (4), consider the sum

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\chi(n) \Lambda(n)}{n}$$

and we write the sum as

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\chi(n) \Lambda(n)}{n} = \sum_{p \leq x} \frac{\chi(p) \log p}{p} + \underbrace{\sum_{p \leq x} \sum_{1 \leq a \leq \frac{\log x}{\log p}} \frac{\chi(p^a) \log p}{p^a}}_{=O(1)}.$$

Hence it suffices to show that $\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\chi(n) \Lambda(n)}{n} = O(1)$. The proof is elementary and worth reading too. Compare to the proof of Lemma VI.8 in *Serre, A Course in Arithmetic*: we consider the L function

$$L(s, \chi) = \sum \frac{\chi(n)}{n^s} = \prod \frac{1}{1 - \frac{\chi(p)}{p^s}}$$

for $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 1$. Write

$$\underbrace{\log L(s, \chi)}_{=O(1)} = f_\chi(s) + \underbrace{\sum_{\substack{p \\ m \geq 2}} \frac{\chi(p)^m}{mp^{ms}}}_{=O(1)}$$

to get $f_\chi(s) = O(1)$. To prove $\log L(s, \chi) = O(1)$, we need some knowledge about complex analysis.