# Notes on the book: $A postol, \ Introduction \ to \ Analytic \\ Number \ Theory$

Meng-Gen Tsai plover@gmail.com

September 25, 2021

## Contents

Chapter 1: The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic 3
Exercise 1.1
Exercise 1.2 4
Exercise 1.3
Exercise 1.11
Exercise 1.15
Exercise 1.16. (Mersenne primes) 6
Exercise 1.17. (Fermat primes) 6
Exercise 1.30
Chapter 2: Arithmetical functions and Dirichlet multiplication 8
Exercise 2.1 8
Exercise 2.2
Exercise 2.3
Supplement 2.3.1. (Chinese remainder theorem)
Exercise 2.4
Exercise 2.5
Exercise 2.6
Exercise 2.7
Exercise 2.8
Exercise 2.9
Exercise 2.10
Exercise 2.11
Exercise 2.12
Exercise 2.18

Chapter 3: Average of arithmetical functions	19
Exercise 3.1	19
Exercise 3.2	20
Exercise 3.3	21
Exercise 3.5	22
Chapter 6: Finite Abelian Groups and Their Characters	24
Supplement (Serre, A Course in Arithmetic)	24
Supplement (Serre, Linear Representations of Finite Groups)	24
Exercise 6.1	25
Exercise 6.2	25
Exercise 6.3	26
Chapter 7: Dirichlet's Theorem on Primes in Arithmetic Progression	ons 2'
Supplement	27

# Chapter 1: The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

In these exercises lower case latin letters  $a, b, c, \ldots, x, y, z$  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

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

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

Proof (Theorem 1.12).

(1) Write

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

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

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

$$c = \prod p_i^{a_i'}, \qquad d = \prod p_i^{b_i'}$$

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

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

(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

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

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

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

(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  $n \ge 1$ ,  $k \ge 1$ .

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

$$1 = (ax + by)^{n+k-1}$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n+k-1} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n+k-1-i}$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n+k-1-i}$$

$$+ \sum_{i=n}^{n+k-1} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n+k-1-i}$$

$$= b^{k} y^{k} \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n-1-i}$$

$$= b^{k} y^{k} \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n-1-i}$$

$$= b^{k} y^{k} \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n-1-i}$$

$$= b^{k} y^{k} \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n-1-i}$$

$$= b^{k} y^{k} \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n-1-i}$$

$$= b^{k} y^{k} \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n-1-i}$$

$$= b^{k} y^{k} \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n-1-i}$$

$$= b^{k} y^{k} \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n-1-i}$$

$$= b^{k} y^{k} \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n-1-i}$$

$$= b^{k} y^{k} \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n-1-i}$$

$$= b^{k} y^{k} \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n-1-i}$$

$$= b^{k} y^{k} \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n-1-i}$$

$$= b^{k} y^{k} \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n-1-i}$$

$$= b^{k} y^{k} \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n-1-i}$$

$$= b^{k} y^{k} \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n-1-i}$$

$$= b^{k} y^{k} \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n+k-1 \choose i} (ax)^{i} (by)^{n-1-i}$$

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

Proof (Theorem 1.12).

(1) Write

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

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

(2) Observe that

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

Here  $\min\{na_i, kb_i\} = 0$  (since  $a_i = 0 \Longrightarrow na_i = 0$  and  $b_i = 0 \Longrightarrow kb_i = 0$ ). 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  $1<(2^{2^a(b-1)}-\cdots+1)<2^n+1$  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

$$2^{s-1}H = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{2^{s-1}}{k}$$
$$= 2^{s-1} + 2^{s-2} + \frac{2^{s-1}}{3} + 2^{s-3} + \frac{2^{s-1}}{5} + \frac{2^{s-2}}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{2} + \dots$$

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  $2\mid d$  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  $\varphi(n) = \varphi(2n)$ .

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  $2 = \varphi(\frac{n}{7})$ . 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|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  $(\varphi(5),\varphi(13))=(4,12)=4$ .  $\square$ 

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

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)

$$\sum_{d|p^a} \frac{\mu(d)^2}{\varphi(d)} = \frac{\mu(1)^2}{\varphi(1)} + \frac{\mu(p)^2}{\varphi(p)} + \frac{\mu(p^2)^2}{\varphi(p^2)} + \dots + \frac{\mu(p^a)^2}{\varphi(p^a)}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{1}{p-1} + 0 + \dots + 0$$

$$= \frac{p}{p-1}.$$

(4) Or apply Theorems 2.4 and 2.18 to get

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

#### Supplement 2.3.1. (Chinese remainder theorem)

(Exercise I.3.5 in the textbook: Jörgen 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  $\mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^n, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}^{n-1}/\mathfrak{p}^n$ . 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  $\mathfrak{p}^{\nu} = \mathcal{O}\pi^{\nu} + \mathfrak{p}^n$   $(\nu = 1, ..., n-1)$  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)

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

$$\geq n \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{1}{3} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{1}{5} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{1}{7} \right)$$

$$\left( 1 - \frac{1}{11} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{1}{13} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{1}{17} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{1}{19} \right)$$

$$= \frac{55296}{323323} n$$

$$> \frac{n}{6}.$$
(Theorem 2.4)

(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).  $\square$ 

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

#### Exercise 2.6.

Prove that

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

and, more generally

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

The last sum is extended over all positive divisors d of n whose kth 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  $\sum_{d^2|n} \mu(n) = \mu(1) = 1$ .

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

$$\sum_{d^{2}|n} \mu(d) = \mu(1) + \mu(p_{1}) + \cdots + \mu(p_{r})$$

$$+ \mu(p_{1}p_{2}) + \cdots + \mu(p_{r-1}p_{r}) + \cdots + \mu(p_{1} \cdots p_{r})$$

$$= 1 + \binom{r}{1}(-1) + \binom{r}{2}(-1)^{2} + \cdots + \binom{r}{r}(-1)^{r}$$

$$= (1-1)^{k}$$

$$= 0$$

(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

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

Proof.

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

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

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

$$h(p^a) = \mu(1)\mu(p, 1) + \mu(p)\mu(p, p) = 1 \cdot 1 + (-1) \cdot (-1) = 2,$$
  
$$h(q^b) = \mu(1)\mu(p, 1) + \mu(q)\mu(p, q) = 1 \cdot 1 + (-1) \cdot 1 = 0$$

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

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

- (3) Show that  $\mu(p,n)$  is multiplicative. Suppose (m,n)=1. There are two possible cases:  $p\nmid mn$  and p|mn.
  - (a) If  $p \neq mn$ , then all  $\mu(p, mn), \mu(p, m), \mu(p, n)$  are equal to  $\mu(1) = 1$ .
  - (b) If p|mn, then p|m or p|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

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

if  $m \ge 1$  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

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

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

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

$$\sum_{d|n} \mu(d)(\log d)^{m_0}$$

$$= \sum_{d|n'} \sum_{i=0}^{a} \mu(p^i d)(\log p^i d)^{m_0}$$

$$= \sum_{d|n'} [\mu(d)(\log d)^{m_0} + \mu(pd)(\log pd)^{m_0}]$$

$$= \sum_{d|n'} [\mu(d)(\log d)^{m_0} + \underbrace{\mu(p)}_{=-1} \mu(d)(\log p + \log d)^{m_0}]$$

$$= \sum_{d|n'} \mu(d)[(\log d)^{m_0} - (\log p + \log d)^{m_0}]$$

$$= \sum_{d|n'} \mu(d)[-(\log p)^{m_0} - \dots - m_0 \log p(\log d)^{m_0-1}]$$

$$= -(\log p)^{m_0} \sum_{d|n'} \mu(d) - \dots - m_0 \log p \sum_{d|n'} \mu(d)(\log d)^{m_0-1}$$

$$= 0.$$

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

#### Exercise 2.9.

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

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

Proof.

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

$$\varphi(x,n) = \sum_{1 \le k \le x} \left[ \frac{1}{(n,k)} \right],$$

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

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

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

$$\varphi(x,n) = \sum_{d|n} \sum_{1 \le q \le \left[\frac{x}{d}\right]} \mu(d) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \sum_{1 \le q \le \left[\frac{x}{d}\right]} 1 = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \left[\frac{x}{d}\right].$$

(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  $\{1, 2, \ldots, [x]\}$ . We distribute the integers of S into disjoint sets as follows. For each divisor d of n, let

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

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

#### 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  $0 \le x_i \le \alpha_i$   $(i = 1, \dots, r)$ . So

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

#### 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

$$d(n) = (\alpha_1 + 1) \cdots (\alpha_r + 1)$$
 is odd (Exercise 2.10)  
 $\iff \alpha_1 + 1, \dots, \alpha_r + 1$  are odd  
 $\iff \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_r$  are even  
 $\iff n$  is a square.

#### 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

$$f(p^{a}) = \sum_{t|p^{a}} d(t)^{3}$$

$$= d(1)^{3} + d(p)^{3} + \dots + d(p^{a})^{3}$$

$$= 1^{3} + 2^{3} + \dots + (a+1)^{3}$$

$$= \left(\frac{(a+1)(a+2)}{2}\right)^{2}$$

and

$$g(p^{a}) = \left(\sum_{t|p^{a}} d(t)\right)^{2}$$

$$= (d(1) + d(p) + \dots + d(p^{a}))^{2}$$

$$= (1 + 2 + \dots + (a+1))^{2}$$

$$= \left(\frac{(a+1)(a+2)}{2}\right)^{2}$$

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.

- (1) Since  $2^a 1$  is prime,  $a \ge 2$ . So  $2^{a-1} < 2^a 1$  and thus  $(2^{a-1}, 2^a 1) = 1$ .
- (2) Since  $\sigma$  is a multiplicative,

$$\begin{split} \sigma(2^{a-1}(2^a - 1)) &= \sigma(2^{a-1})\sigma(2^a - 1) \\ &= (1 + 2 + \dots + 2^{a-1})\{1 + (2^a - 1)\} \\ &= (2^a - 1) \cdot 2^a \\ &= 2 \cdot 2^{a-1}(2^a - 1). \end{split}$$

That is,  $2^{a-1}(2^a - 1)$  is perfect.

## Chapter 3: Average of arithmetical functions

#### Exercise 3.1.

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

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

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

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

- (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

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

(4) Therefore

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

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

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

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

(4) Therefore

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

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

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

where C is Euler's constant.

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

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

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

$$\sum_{n \le x} \frac{d(n)}{n} = \sum_{d \le x} \frac{1}{d} \left\{ \log x - \log d + C + O\left(\frac{d}{x}\right) \right\}$$

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

$$= (\log x + C) \left\{ \log x + C + O\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) \right\}$$

$$- \left\{ \frac{1}{2} (\log x)^2 + A + O\left(\frac{\log x}{x}\right) \right\} + O(1)$$

$$= (\log x)^2 + 2C \log x - \frac{1}{2} (\log x)^2 + O(1)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (\log x)^2 + 2C \log x + O(1).$$

#### Exercise 3.3.

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

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

Proof.

(1) Similar to Exercise 3.2.

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

Now we use Theorem 3.2(b) to obtain

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

Using this along with Theorem 3.2 we find

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

#### Exercise 3.5.

If  $x \ge 1$  prove that:

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

(b) 
$$\sum_{n \le x} \frac{\varphi(n)}{n} = \sum_{n \le x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n} \left[ \frac{x}{n} \right].$$

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

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

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

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

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

Proof of (b).

(1)

$$\sum_{n \le x} \frac{\varphi(n)}{n} = \sum_{n \le x} \sum_{d|n} \frac{\mu(d)}{d}$$
 (Theorem 2.3)
$$= \sum_{n \le x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n} \left[ \frac{x}{n} \right].$$
 (Theorem 3.11)

## 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  $\chi_1, \ldots, \chi_h$ ; their degrees are written  $n_1, \ldots, n_h$ , we have  $n_i = \chi_i(1)$ . The degrees  $n_i$  satisfy the relation  $\sum_{i=1}^{i=h} n_i^2 = g$ .
- (2) (Exercise 2.3.1) Show directly, using Schur's lemma, that each irreducible representation of an abelian group, finite of not, has degree 1. Proof.
  - (a) (Schur's lemma) Let  $\rho^1: G \to \mathsf{GL}(V_1)$  and  $\rho^2: G \to \mathsf{GL}(V_2)$  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  $\rho^1$  and  $\rho^2$  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  $\rho:G\to \mathsf{GL}(V)$  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  $\rho_s$  is a homothety for any  $s \in G$ . Since  $\rho$  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 nth roots of a nonzero complex number. If G is a group under multiplication, prove that G is the group of nth 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  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$  are n elements of G, not necessarily distinct, prove that there are integers p and q with  $1 \le p \le q \le n$  such that  $a_p a_{p+1} \cdots a_q = e$ .

Proof.

(1) Consider the set

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

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

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

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

#### Exercise 6.3.

Let G be the set of all  $2 \times 2$  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.

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

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:

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

for  $s \to 1$ .

Outline of the proof.

(1) Theorem 4.10 says that

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

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

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

(2) By the orthogonality relation for Dirichlet characters,

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

Hence it suffices to consider  $\sum_{\substack{p \leq x \ p \in P_k}} \frac{\log p}{p}$  and  $\sum_{\substack{p \leq x \ p}} \frac{\chi_r(p) \log p}{p}$ . 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

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

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

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

(4) Show that

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

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  $s \to 1$ .

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

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

and we write the sum as

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

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

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

for 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.