

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

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Contents

Chapter 1: The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic	4
Exercise 1.1.	4
Exercise 1.2.	5
Exercise 1.3.	5
Exercise 1.11.	6
Exercise 1.15.	7
Exercise 1.16. (Mersenne primes)	7
Exercise 1.17. (Fermat primes)	7
Exercise 1.30.	7
Chapter 2: Arithmetical functions and Dirichlet multiplication	9
Exercise 2.1.	9
Exercise 2.2.	10
Exercise 2.3.	11
Exercise 2.4.	12
Exercise 2.5.	12
Exercise 2.6.	13
Exercise 2.7.	14
Exercise 2.8.	15
Exercise 2.9.	16
Exercise 2.10.	17
Exercise 2.11.	17
Exercise 2.12.	18
Exercise 2.13. (Product form of the Möbius inversion formula) .	18
Exercise 2.14.	19
Supplement 2.14.1. (Related exercises)	20
Exercise 2.15. ($\varphi_k(n)$ function)	20
Exercise 2.16.	21

Exercise 2.17. (Jordan's totient function)	22
Exercise 2.18.	24
Exercise 2.19.	24
Exercise 2.20.	25
Exercise 2.21.	26
Exercise 2.23.	26
Exercise 2.24.	27
Supplement 2.24.1. (Related exercises)	27
Exercise 2.25.	28
Exercise 2.26.	30
Exercise 2.27.	30
Exercise 2.28.	31
Exercise 2.30.	32
Exercise 2.33.	32
Chapter 3: Average of arithmetical functions	34
Exercise 3.1.	34
Exercise 3.2.	35
Exercise 3.3.	36
Exercise 3.4.	37
Exercise 3.5.	39
Exercise 3.6.	41
Exercise 3.7.	42
Exercise 3.8.	44
Exercise 3.9.	45
Properties of the greatest-integer function	47
Exercise 3.17	47
Supplement 3.17.1. (Related exercises)	48
Exercise 3.18. (Replicative function)	48
Exercise 3.20.	50
Chapter 4: Some Elementary Theorems on the Distribution of Prime Numbers	51
Exercise 4.5.	51
Exercise 4.18.	51
Exercise 4.19. (Logarithmic integral)	52
Chapter 5: Congruences	55
Supplement. (Chinese remainder theorem)	55
Chapter 6: Finite Abelian Groups and Their Characters	56
Supplement. (Serre, A Course in Arithmetic)	56
Supplement. (Serre, Linear Representations of Finite Groups) . .	56
Exercise 6.1.	57
Exercise 6.2.	57
Exercise 6.3.	58

Chapter 7: Dirichlet's Theorem on Primes in Arithmetic Progressions	59
Supplement.	59

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

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 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 $2 = \varphi\left(\frac{n}{7}\right)$. 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 $3 \nmid 12$. 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 $n\varphi(m) = m\varphi(n)$.

\square

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

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

□

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). \square

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 $\sum_{d^2|n} \mu(n) = \mu(1) = 1$.
- (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

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

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

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

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

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

(a) If $p \nmid mn$, then all $\mu(p, mn), \mu(p, m), \mu(p, n)$ are equal to $\mu(1) = 1$.

(b) If $p | mn$, 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 $m \geq 1$ 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

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

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

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

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 $\sum_{d|n} \varphi\left(\frac{x}{d}, \frac{n}{d}\right) = \lfloor x \rfloor$. Similar to the proof of Theorem 2.2. Let S denote the set $\{1, 2, \dots, \lfloor x \rfloor\}$. 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

$$\sum_{d|n} f(d) = \lfloor x \rfloor.$$

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

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

□

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

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

□

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 2.13. (Product form of the Möbius inversion formula)

Product form of the Möbius inversion formula. If $f(n) > 0$ for all n and if $a(n)$ is real, $a(1) \neq 0$, prove that

$$g(n) = \prod_{d|n} f(d)^{a\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)} \quad \text{if, and only if,} \quad f(n) = \prod_{d|n} g(d)^{b\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)}$$

where $b = a^{-1}$, the Dirichlet inverse of a .

Proof. As $f(n) > 0$ for all n , $a(n)$ is real, and $a(1) \neq 0$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\underbrace{\log g(n)}_{\text{well-defined}} &= \sum_{d|n} a\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \underbrace{\log f(d)}_{\text{well-defined}} \\
\iff \log g &= a * \log f \\
\iff \log f &= b * \log g \\
\iff \log f(n) &= \sum_{d|n} b\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \log g(d) \\
\iff f(n) &= \prod_{d|n} g(d)^{b(\frac{n}{d})}.
\end{aligned}$$

□

Exercise 2.14.

Let $f(x)$ be defined for all rational x in $0 \leq x \leq 1$ and let

$$F(n) = \sum_{1 \leq k \leq n} f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right), \quad F^*(n) = \sum_{\substack{1 \leq k \leq n \\ (k,n)=1}} f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right).$$

- (a) Prove that $F^* = \mu * F$, the Dirichlet product of μ and F .
- (b) Use (a) or some other means to prove that $\mu(n)$ is the of the primitive n th roots of unity:

$$\mu(n) = \sum_{\substack{1 \leq k \leq n \\ (k,n)=1}} e^{\frac{2\pi i k}{n}}.$$

Proof of (a). As $\mu * u = I$, it suffices to show that $u * F^* = F$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned}
(u * F^*)(n) &= \sum_{d|n} F^*(d) \\
&= \sum_{d|n} \sum_{\substack{1 \leq k \leq d \\ (k,d)=1}} f\left(\frac{k}{d}\right) \\
&= \sum_{\substack{d|n \\ 1 \leq k \leq d \\ (k,d)=1}} f\left(\frac{k}{d}\right) \\
&= \sum_{1 \leq k \leq n} f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) \\
&= F(n).
\end{aligned}$$

□

Proof of (b). Let $f(x) = e^{2\pi i x}$ defined on $[0, 1]$. Then

$$F(n) = \sum_{1 \leq k \leq n} f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) = \sum_{1 \leq k \leq n} e^{\frac{2\pi i k}{n}} = I(n).$$

Hence

$$\sum_{\substack{1 \leq k \leq n \\ (k,n)=1}} e^{\frac{2\pi i k}{n}} = F^*(n) = (\mu * F)(n) = (\mu * I)(n) = \mu(n).$$

□

Supplement 2.14.1. (Related exercises)

Show that

$$\varphi(n) = \sum_{1 \leq k \leq n} \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p} \sum_{1 \leq a \leq p} e^{\frac{2\pi i k a}{p}}\right).$$

Exercise 2.15. ($\varphi_k(n)$ function)

Let $\varphi_k(n)$ denote the sum of the k th powers of the numbers $\leq n$ and relatively prime to n . Note that $\varphi_0(n) = \varphi(n)$. Use Exercise 2.14 or some other means to prove that

$$\sum_{d|n} \frac{\varphi_k(n)}{d^k} = \frac{1^k + \cdots + n^k}{n^k}.$$

Proof.

(1) Let $f(x) = x^k$ defined on $[0, 1]$. Then

$$F(n) = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} f\left(\frac{i}{n}\right) = \frac{1^k + \cdots + n^k}{n^k}.$$

(2) The proof of Exercise 2.14 shows that

$$F(n) = (u * F^*)(n) = \sum_{d|n} \sum_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq d \\ (i,d)=1}} f\left(\frac{i}{d}\right) = \sum_{d|n} \frac{1}{d^k} \underbrace{\sum_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq d \\ (i,d)=1}} i^k}_{=\varphi_k(n)}.$$

(3) Hence the result is established by (1)(2).

□

Exercise 2.16.

Invert the formula in Exercise 2.15 to obtain, for $n > 1$,

$$\varphi_1(n) = \frac{1}{2}n\varphi(n), \quad \text{and } \varphi_2(n) = \frac{1}{3}n^2\varphi(n) + \frac{n}{6} \prod_{p|n} (1-p).$$

Derive a corresponding formula for $\varphi_3(n)$.

Proof.

(1) Exercise 2.15 shows that

$$\sum_{d|n} \varphi_k(n) \underbrace{\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)^k}_{:=f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)} = \underbrace{1^k + \cdots + n^k}_{:=S_k(n)} \iff \varphi_k * f = S_k.$$

Here $f(n) = N(n)^k = n^k$ and $S_k(n) = 1^k + \cdots + n^k$.

(2) As $f(n)$ is completely multiplicative, Theorem 2.17 implies that $f^{-1}(n) = \mu(n)f(n)$ for all $n \geq 1$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_k(n) &= (S_k * f^{-1})(n) \\ &= (S_k * (\mu f))(n) \\ &= \sum_{d|n} S_k(d) \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \left(\frac{n}{d}\right)^k. \end{aligned}$$

(3) Show that $\varphi_1(n) = \frac{1}{2}n\varphi(n)$. Note that $S_1(d) = \frac{d(d+1)}{2}$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi_1(n) &= \sum_{d|n} \frac{d(d+1)}{2} \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \frac{n}{d} \\ &= \frac{n}{2} \sum_{d|n} d \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) + \frac{n}{2} \sum_{d|n} \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \\ &= \frac{n}{2} \varphi(n) + \frac{n}{2} \left\lfloor \frac{1}{n} \right\rfloor \quad (\text{Theorems 2.1, 2.3})\end{aligned}$$

for all $n \geq 1$. So the result is established if $n > 1$.

(4) Show that $\varphi_2(n) = \frac{1}{3}n^2\varphi(n) + \frac{1}{6}n \prod_{p|n} (1-p)$. Note that $S_2(d) = \frac{d(d+1)(2d+1)}{6}$. Hence Theorem 2.1, 2.3 and 2.18 imply that

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi_2(n) &= \sum_{d|n} \frac{d(d+1)(2d+1)}{6} \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \left(\frac{n}{d}\right)^2 \\ &= \underbrace{\frac{n^2}{3} \sum_{d|n} d \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)}_{=\varphi(n)} + \underbrace{\frac{n^2}{2} \sum_{d|n} \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)}_{=\lfloor \frac{1}{n} \rfloor} + \underbrace{\frac{n}{6} \sum_{d|n} \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \left(\frac{n}{d}\right)}_{=\prod_{p|n} (1-p)}\end{aligned}$$

for all $n \geq 1$. So the result is established if $n > 1$.

(4) Show that

$$\varphi_3(n) = \frac{1}{4}n^3\varphi(n) + \frac{1}{4}n^2 \prod_{p|n} (1-p).$$

Note that $S_3(d) = \frac{d^2(d+1)^2}{4}$. Hence Theorem 2.1, 2.3 and 2.18 imply that

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi_3(n) &= \sum_{d|n} \frac{d^2(d+1)^2}{4} \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \left(\frac{n}{d}\right)^3 \\ &= \underbrace{\frac{n^3}{4} \sum_{d|n} d \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)}_{=\varphi(n)} + \underbrace{\frac{n^3}{2} \sum_{d|n} \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)}_{=\lfloor \frac{1}{n} \rfloor} + \underbrace{\frac{n^2}{4} \sum_{d|n} \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \left(\frac{n}{d}\right)}_{=\prod_{p|n} (1-p)}\end{aligned}$$

for all $n \geq 1$. So the result is established if $n > 1$.

□

Exercise 2.17. (Jordan's totient function)

Jordan's totient J_k is a generalization of Euler's totient defined by

$$J_k(n) = n^k \prod_{p|n} (1 - p^{-k}).$$

(a) *Prove that*

$$J_k(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \left(\frac{n}{d}\right)^k \quad \text{and} \quad n^k = \sum_{d|n} J_k(d).$$

(b) *Determine the Bell series for J_k .*

Proof of (a).

- (1) *Show that $J_k(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \left(\frac{n}{d}\right)^k$.* Similar to Exercise 2.7. Note that J_k is multiplicative. Theorem 2.14 shows that the Dirichlet product $n \mapsto \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \left(\frac{n}{d}\right)^k$ is multiplicative. Hence it suffices to show that

$$J_k(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \left(\frac{n}{d}\right)^k$$

for $n = p^a$ where p is prime and $a \geq 1$. It is easy since

$$\begin{aligned} p^a \mapsto \sum_{d|p^a} \mu(d) \left(\frac{p^a}{d}\right)^k &= \mu(1)p^{ak} + \mu(p)p^{(a-1)k} \\ &= p^{ak} - p^{(a-1)k} \\ &= J_k(p^a). \end{aligned}$$

- (2) *Show that $n^k = \sum_{d|n} J_k(d)$.* Note that $\mu * u = I$ by Theorem 2.1. So Theorem 2.9 (Möbius inversion formula) implies that

$$n^k = J_k * u = \sum_{d|n} J_k(d).$$

□

Proof of (b).

- (1) Since $J_k(1) = 1$ and $J_k(p^n) = p^{nk} - p^{(n-1)k}$ for $n \geq 1$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (J_k)_p(x) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} J_k(p^n) x^n \\ &= 1 + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (p^{nk} - p^{(n-1)k}) x^n \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p^{nk} x^n - x \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p^{nk} x^n \\ &= (1-x) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p^{nk} x^n \\ &= \frac{1-x}{1-p^k x}. \end{aligned}$$

- (2) Another proof by using Theorem 2.25. Note that $\mu_p(x) = 1 - x$ and $N_p^k(x) = \frac{1}{1-p^kx}$. Theorem 2.25 implies $(J_k)_p(x) = \mu_p(x)N_p^k(x) = \frac{1-x}{1-p^kx}$ too.

□

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 2.20.

Let $P(n)$ be the product of the positive integers which are $\leq n$ and relatively prime to n . Prove that

$$P(n) = n^{\varphi(n)} \prod_{d|n} \left(\frac{d!}{d^d} \right)^{\mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)}.$$

Proof.

(1) To prove $\frac{P(n)}{n^{\varphi(n)}} = \prod_{d|n} \left(\frac{d!}{d^d} \right)^{\mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)}$, it suffices to show that

$$\frac{n!}{n^n} = \prod_{d|n} \frac{P(d)}{d^{\varphi(d)}}$$

by product form of the Möbius inversion formula (Exercise 2.13).

(2) Similar to Exercise 2.14,

$$\frac{n!}{n^n} = \prod_{1 \leq k \leq n} \frac{k}{n} = \prod_{d|n} \prod_{\substack{1 \leq k \leq d \\ (k,d)=1}} \frac{k}{d} = \prod_{d|n} \frac{P(d)}{d^{\varphi(d)}}.$$

□

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).

□

Exercise 2.23.

Prove the following statement or exhibit a counter example. If f is multiplicative, then $F(n) = \prod_{d|n} f(d)$ is multiplicative.

Proof.

- (1) False.
- (2) Take a completely multiplicative function $f = N$ defined by $f(n) = n$. Then F is not multiplicative since $pq = F(p)F(q) \neq F(pq) = p^2q^2$ for any two distinct primes p, q .
- (3) Or take a multiplicative function $f = \varphi$. Then F is not multiplicative since $(p-1)(q-1) = F(p)F(q) \neq F(pq) = (p-1)^2(q-1)^2$ for any two distinct primes p, q .

□

Exercise 2.24.

Let $A(x)$ and $B(x)$ be formal power series. If the product $A(x)B(x)$ is the zero series, prove that at least one factor is zero. In other words, the ring of formal power series has no zero divisors.

Proof.

- (1) Write $A(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a(n)x^n$ and $B(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b(n)x^n$ where the coefficients $a(n)$ and $b(n)$ are in \mathbb{C} (or any integral domain).
- (2) (Reductio ad absurdum) Suppose $A(x) \neq 0$ and $B(x) \neq 0$. Let r (resp. s) be the smallest integer such that $a(r) \neq 0$ (resp. $b(s) \neq 0$). Hence

$$A(x)B(x) = a(r)b(s)x^{r+s} + \dots$$

Here there is no x^n term if $n < r + s$. So $A(x)B(x) = 0$ implies that $a(r)b(s) = 0$. Hence $a(r) = 0$ or $b(s) = 0$ (as \mathbb{C} is an integral domain), which is absurd.

□

Supplement 2.24.1. (Related exercises)

- (1) (Exercise 1.2 in the textbook: Atiyah and Macdonald, *Introduction to Commutative Algebra*.) Let A be a ring and let $A[x]$ be the ring of polynomials in an indeterminate x , with coefficients in A . Let $f = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n \in A[x]$. Prove that
 - (i) f is a unit in $A[x]$ if and only if a_0 is a unit in A and a_1, \dots, a_n are nilpotent. (Hint: If $b_0 + b_1x + \dots + b_mx^m$ is the inverse of f , prove by induction on r that $a_n^{r+1}b_{m-r} = 0$. Hence show that a_n is nilpotent, and then use Exercise 1.1.)
 - (ii) f is nilpotent if and only if a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n are nilpotent.
 - (iii) f is a zero-divisor if and only if there exists $a \neq 0$ such that $af = 0$. (Hint: Choose a polynomial $g = b_0 + b_1x + \dots + b_mx^m$ of least degree m such that $fg = 0$. Then $a_nb_m = 0$, hence $a_ng = 0$ (because a_ng annihilates f and has degree $< m$). Now show by induction that $a_{n-r}g = 0$ ($0 \leq r \leq n$).)
 - (iv) f is said to be **primitive** if $(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) = (1)$. Prove that if $f, g \in A[x]$, then fg is primitive if and only if f and g are primitive.
- (2) (Exercise 1.3 in the textbook: Atiyah and Macdonald, *Introduction to Commutative Algebra*.) Generalize the results of Exercise 1.2 to a polynomial ring $A[x_1, \dots, x_r]$ in several indeterminates.

- (3) (Exercise 1.5 in the textbook: Atiyah and Macdonald, *Introduction to Commutative Algebra*.) Let A be a ring and let $A[[x]]$ be the ring of formal power series $f = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ with coefficients in A . Show that
- (i) f is a unit in $A[[x]]$ if and only if a_0 is a unit in A .
 - (ii) If f is nilpotent, then a_n is nilpotent for all $n \geq 0$. Is converse true? (See Exercise 7.2.)
 - (iii) f belongs to the Jacobson radical of $A[[x]]$ if and only if a_0 belongs to the Jacobson radical of A .
 - (iv) The contraction of a maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} of $A[[x]]$ is a maximal ideal of A , and \mathfrak{m} is generated by \mathfrak{m}^c and x .
 - (v) Every prime ideal of A is the contraction of a prime ideal of $A[[x]]$.
- (4) (Exercise II.1.2 in the textbook: Jrgen Neukirch, *Algebraic Number Theory*.) A p -adic integer $a = a_0 + a_1 p + a_2 p^2 + \cdots$ is a unit in the ring \mathbb{Z}_p if and only if $a_0 \neq 0$.

Exercise 2.25.

Assume f is multiplicative. Prove that:

- (a) $f^{-1}(n) = \mu(n)f(n)$ for every squarefree n .
- (b) $f^{-1}(p^2) = f(p)^2 - f(p^2)$ for every prime p .

Proof of (a).

- (1) A direct calculation shows that

$$\begin{aligned}
 ((\mu f) * f)(n) &= \sum_{d|n} \mu(d)f(d)f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \\
 &= \sum_{d|n} \mu(d)f(n) \\
 &= f(n) \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \\
 &= f(n)I(n) \\
 &= I(n).
 \end{aligned}$$

The second equality holds since f is multiplicative and $(d, \frac{n}{d}) = 1$ as n is squarefree. The last equality holds since $f(1) = 1$ as f is multiplicative.

- (2) Or we can apply Theorem 2.8 with induction. If $n = 1$, the conclusion holds trivially. Suppose the conclusion holds for every squarefree less than n where $n > 1$. Then Theorem 2.8 implies that

$$\begin{aligned}
f^{-1}(n) &= \frac{-1}{f(1)} \sum_{\substack{d|n \\ d < n}} f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) f^{-1}(d) \\
&= \frac{-1}{f(1)} \sum_{\substack{d|n \\ d < n}} f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \mu(d) f(d) && \text{(Induction hypothesis)} \\
&= - \sum_{\substack{d|n \\ d < n}} \mu(d) \underbrace{f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) f(d)}_{=f(n)} \\
&= -f(n) \sum_{\substack{d|n \\ d < n}} \mu(d) \\
&= -f(n)(I(n) - \mu(n)) \\
&= f(n)\mu(n).
\end{aligned}$$

□

Proof of (b).

- (1) Note that $f(1) = f^{-1}(1) = 1$ since f is multiplicative. Theorem 2.8 shows that

$$\begin{aligned}
f^{-1}(p^2) &= \frac{-1}{f(1)} \{f(p^2)f^{-1}(1) + f(p)f^{-1}(p)\} \\
&= -f(p^2) - f(p)f^{-1}(p) \\
&= -f(p^2) - f(p) \underbrace{\mu(p)}_{=-1} f(p) && \text{(Part (a))} \\
&= f(p)^2 - f(p^2).
\end{aligned}$$

- (2) Note that Theorem 2.8 also shows that

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

Thus we can prove part (b) without using part (a).

□

Exercise 2.26.

Assume f is multiplicative. Prove that f is completely multiplicative if, and only if, $f^{-1}(p^a) = 0$ for all primes p and $a \geq 2$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
& f^{-1}(p^a) = 0 \text{ for all primes } p \text{ and } a \geq 2 \\
\iff & f^{-1}(n) = 0 \text{ for all non-squarefree } n && \text{(Theorem 2.16)} \\
\iff & f^{-1}(n) = \underbrace{\mu(n)}_{=0} f(n) \text{ for all non-squarefree } n \\
\iff & f^{-1}(n) = \mu(n)f(n) \text{ for all } n && \text{(Exercise 2.25(a))} \\
\iff & f \text{ is completely multiplicative.} && \text{(Theorem 2.17)}
\end{aligned}$$

□

Exercise 2.27.

(a) If f is completely multiplicative, prove that

$$f \cdot (g * h) = (f \cdot g) * (f \cdot h)$$

for all arithmetical functions g and h , where $f \cdot g$ denotes the ordinary product, $(f \cdot g)(n) = f(n)g(n)$.

(b) If f is multiplicative and if the relation in (a) holds for $g = \mu$ and $h = \mu^{-1}$, prove that f is completely multiplicative.

Proof of (a).

$$\begin{aligned}
& ((f \cdot g) * (f \cdot h))(n) \\
&= \sum_{d|n} f(d)g(d)f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)h\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \\
&= \sum_{d|n} \underbrace{f(d)f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)}_{=f(n)} g(d)h\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) && (f \text{ is completely multiplicative}) \\
&= f(n) \sum_{d|n} g(d)h\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \\
&= (f \cdot (g * h))(n).
\end{aligned}$$

□

Proof of (b).

$$\begin{aligned}
f \cdot \underbrace{(\mu * \mu^{-1})}_{=I} &= (f \cdot \mu) * \underbrace{(f \cdot \mu^{-1})}_{=u} \\
\iff I &= f \cdot I = (f \cdot \mu) * f && (f \text{ is multiplicative}) \\
\iff f &\text{ is completely multiplicative.} && (\text{Theorem 2.17})
\end{aligned}$$

□

Exercise 2.28.

(a) *If f is completely multiplicative, prove that*

$$(f \cdot g)^{-1} = f \cdot g^{-1}$$

for every arithmetical function g with $g(1) \neq 0$.

(b) *If f is multiplicative and the relation in (a) holds for $g = \mu^{-1}$, prove that f is completely multiplicative.*

Proof of (a).

(1) Note that g^{-1} is existed since $g(1) \neq 0$.

(2) Exercise 2.27 (a) implies that

$$\begin{aligned}
f \cdot (g * g^{-1}) &= (f \cdot g) * (f \cdot g^{-1}) \\
\implies f \cdot I &= (f \cdot g) * (f \cdot g^{-1}) \\
\implies I &= (f \cdot g) * (f \cdot g^{-1}).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence the Dirichlet inverse of $f \cdot g$ is $f \cdot g^{-1}$.

(3) Surely, we can prove it directly as the proof of Exercise 2.27 (a).

□

Proof of (b). It is the same as Exercise 2.27 (b).

$$\left(\underbrace{f \cdot \underbrace{\mu^{-1}}_{=u}}_{=f} \right)^{-1} = f \cdot \mu \iff f \text{ is completely multiplicative}$$

by Theorem 2.17. □

Exercise 2.30.

Let f be multiplicative and let g be any arithmetical function. Assume that

$$(a) \quad f(p^{n+1}) = f(p)f(p^n) - g(p)f(p^{n-1})$$

for all primes p and all $n \geq 1$.

Prove that for each prime p the Bell series for f has the form

$$(b) \quad f_p(x) = \frac{1}{1 - f(p)x + g(p)x^2}.$$

Conversely, prove that (b) implies (a).

Proof.

(1) Given any prime p . Note that

$$\begin{aligned} & f_p(x)(1 - f(p)x + g(p)x^2) \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f(p^n)x^n - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f(p)f(p^n)x^{n+1} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g(p)f(p^n)x^{n+2} \\ &= \left\{ 1 + f(p)x + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(p^{n+1})x^{n+1} \right\} - \left\{ f(p)x + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(p)f(p^n)x^{n+1} \right\} \\ &\quad + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} g(p)f(p^{n-1})x^{n+1} \\ &= 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \{ f(p^{n+1}) - f(p)f(p^n) + g(p)f(p^{n-1}) \} x^{n+1}. \end{aligned}$$

(2) Hence $f_p(x)(1 - f(p)x + g(p)x^2) = 1$ if and only if $f(p^{n+1}) - f(p)f(p^n) + g(p)f(p^{n-1}) = 0$ for all $n \geq 1$.

□

Exercise 2.33.

Prove that Liouville's function is given by the formula

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

Proof. The Möbius inversion formula (Theorem 2.9) of

$$g(n) := \sum_{d|n} \lambda(d) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \text{ is a square,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(Theorem 2.19) implies that

$$\lambda(n) = \sum_{d|n} g(d) \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) = \sum_{d^2|n} \mu\left(\frac{n}{d^2}\right).$$

□

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 3.4.

If $x \geq 2$ prove that:

(a)

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n) \left\lfloor \frac{x}{n} \right\rfloor^2 = \frac{x^2}{\zeta(2)} + O(x \log x).$$

(b)

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n} \left\lfloor \frac{x}{n} \right\rfloor = \frac{x}{\zeta(2)} + O(\log x).$$

Proof of (a).

(1)

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n) \left\lfloor \frac{x}{n} \right\rfloor^2 &= 2 \sum_{n \leq x} \varphi(n) - 1 && \text{(Exercise 3.5(a))} \\
&= 2 \left\{ \frac{1}{2\zeta(2)} x^2 + O(x \log x) \right\} - 1 && \text{(Theorem 3.7)} \\
&= \frac{x^2}{\zeta(2)} + O(x \log x)
\end{aligned}$$

(Here $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(n)}{n^2} = \frac{1}{\zeta(2)}$ is followed by Example 1 to Theorem 11.5.) Note that this proof cannot establish the result of Exercise 3.5 since it is a typical circular argument.

- (2) To establish the result of Exercise 3.5 later, we should not use Theorem 3.7. Similar to Theorem 3.13, write

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n) \left\lfloor \frac{x}{n} \right\rfloor^2 &= \sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n) \left(\frac{x}{n} - \left\{ \frac{x}{n} \right\} \right)^2 \\ &= x^2 \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n^2} - 2x \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n} \left\{ \frac{x}{n} \right\} + \sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n) \left\{ \frac{x}{n} \right\}^2.\end{aligned}$$

- (3) Since $\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n^2} = \frac{1}{\zeta(2)} + O(x^{-1})$ (by page 61), $x^2 \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n^2} = \frac{x^2}{\zeta(2)} + O(x)$.

- (4) Since $\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n} \left\{ \frac{x}{n} \right\}$ is bounded by $\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{1}{n} = \log x + C + O(x^{-1}) = O(\log x)$, $x \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n} \left\{ \frac{x}{n} \right\} = O(x \log x)$.

- (5) $\sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n) \left\{ \frac{x}{n} \right\}^2$ is bounded by $\sum_{n \leq x} 1 = O(x)$.

- (6) (3)(4)(5) imply that

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n) \left\lfloor \frac{x}{n} \right\rfloor^2 &= \frac{x^2}{\zeta(2)} + O(x) + O(x \log x) + O(x) \\ &= \frac{x^2}{\zeta(2)} + O(x \log x).\end{aligned}$$

□

Proof of (b).

- (1) Similar to the proof of (a).

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n} \left\lfloor \frac{x}{n} \right\rfloor &= \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n} \left(\frac{x}{n} - \left\{ \frac{x}{n} \right\} \right) \\ &= x \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n^2} - \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n} \left\{ \frac{x}{n} \right\} \\ &= \frac{x}{\zeta(2)} + O(1) + O(\log x) \\ &= \frac{x}{\zeta(2)} + O(\log x).\end{aligned}$$

(2) Or use part (a) to get

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{x^2}{\zeta(2)} + O(x \log x) &= \sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n) \left\lfloor \frac{x}{n} \right\rfloor^2 \\
&= \sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n) \left\lfloor \frac{x}{n} \right\rfloor \left(\frac{x}{n} - \left\{ \frac{x}{n} \right\} \right) \\
&= x \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n} \left\lfloor \frac{x}{n} \right\rfloor - \sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n) \left\lfloor \frac{x}{n} \right\rfloor \left\{ \frac{x}{n} \right\}.
\end{aligned}$$

Here $\sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n) \left\lfloor \frac{x}{n} \right\rfloor \left\{ \frac{x}{n} \right\}$ is bounded by $\sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n) \left\lfloor \frac{x}{n} \right\rfloor = 1$. Hence

$$x \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n} \left\lfloor \frac{x}{n} \right\rfloor = \frac{x^2}{\zeta(2)} + O(x \log x) = x \left(\frac{x}{\zeta(2)} + O(\log x) \right).$$

The result is established too.

□

Exercise 3.5.

If $x \geq 1$ prove that:

$$(a) \sum_{n \leq x} \varphi(n) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n) \left\lfloor \frac{x}{n} \right\rfloor^2 + \frac{1}{2}.$$

$$(b) \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\varphi(n)}{n} = \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n} \left\lfloor \frac{x}{n} \right\rfloor.$$

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).

(1) Prove by using the proof of Theorem 3.7.

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

(2) Prove by Theorem 3.10. Similar to Theorem 3.11. If $g(n) = n$ for all n then

$$G(x) = \sum_{n \leq x} g(n) = \frac{1}{2} [x]^2 + \frac{1}{2} [x]$$

in the sense of Theorem 3.10. Hence if $g(n) = 2n - 1$ for all n then $G(x) = [x]^2$. If $h = \mu * g = \mu * (2N - u) = 2\varphi - I$ then theorem 3.10 implies that

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n) \left\lfloor \frac{x}{n} \right\rfloor^2 = \sum_{n \leq x} h(n) = \sum_{n \leq x} (2\varphi(n) - I(n)) = 2 \sum_{n \leq x} \varphi(n) - 1$$

as $x \geq 2$. The result is established.

□

Proof of (b).

(1)

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

□

Exercise 3.6.

If $x \geq 2$ prove that

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

where C is Euler's constant and

$$A = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(n) \log n}{n^2}.$$

Proof.

(1) Similar to the proof of Exercise 3.2, we have

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\varphi(n)}{n^2} = \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \frac{n}{d} = \sum_{\substack{q, d \\ qd \leq x}} \frac{\mu(d)}{d^2} \cdot \frac{1}{q} = \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{\mu(d)}{d^2} \sum_{q \leq \frac{x}{d}} \frac{1}{q}.$$

Now we use Theorem 3.2(a) to obtain

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

Hence

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

(2) Since $\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n^2} = \frac{1}{\zeta(2)} + O(x^{-1})$ (by page 61),

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

(3) Write

$$\sum_{d \leq x} \frac{\mu(d) \log d}{d^2} = \underbrace{\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(n) \log n}{n^2}}_{=A} - \underbrace{\sum_{n > x} \frac{\mu(n) \log n}{n^2}}_{\text{dominated by } \sum \frac{\log n}{n^2}}.$$

- (a) Similar to the proof of Theorem 3.2. We take $f(t) = \frac{\log t}{t^2}$ in Euler's summation formula to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n>x} \frac{\log n}{n^2} &= \underbrace{\int_x^\infty \frac{\log t}{t^2} dt}_{=\frac{\log x + 1}{x}} + \underbrace{\int_x^\infty (t - \lfloor t \rfloor) f'(t) dt}_{\text{dominated by } \int_x^\infty |f'(t)| dt} \\ &\quad + \underbrace{\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log N}{N^2} (\lfloor N \rfloor - N)}_{=0} - \underbrace{\frac{\log x}{x^2} (\lfloor x \rfloor - x)}_{=O\left(\frac{\log x}{x^2}\right)}. \end{aligned}$$

- (b) If $x > e^{\frac{1}{2}}$ then

$$\int_x^\infty |f'(t)| dt = \frac{\log x}{x^2}.$$

- (c) Therefore

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

Hence

$$\sum_{d \leq x} \frac{\mu(d) \log d}{d^2} = A + O\left(\frac{\log x}{x}\right).$$

- (4) Theorem 3.2(a) implies that

$$\frac{1}{x} \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{|\mu(d)|}{d} = O\left(\frac{\log x}{x}\right).$$

- (5) By (2)(3)(4),

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

□

Exercise 3.7.

In a later chapter we will prove that $\sum_{n=1}^\infty \mu(n)n^{-\alpha}$ if $\alpha > 1$. Assuming this, prove that for $x \geq 2$ and $\alpha > 1$, $\alpha \neq 2$, we have

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

Proof.

(1) Similar to Exercise 3.6, we have

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\varphi(n)}{n^\alpha} = \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{\mu(d)}{d^\alpha} \sum_{q \leq \frac{x}{d}} \frac{1}{q^{\alpha-1}}.$$

Now we use Theorem 3.2(b) to obtain

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

Hence

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

(2) Similar to Exercise 3.6, we have

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

(3) Write

$$\sum_{d \leq x} \frac{\mu(d)}{d^\alpha} = \underbrace{\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(n)}{n^\alpha}}_{=\frac{1}{\zeta(\alpha)}} - \sum_{n > x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n^\alpha}$$

by Example 1 to Theorem 11.5. The term $\sum_{n > x} \frac{\mu(n)}{n^\alpha}$ is bounded by

$$\sum_{n > x} \frac{1}{n^\alpha} = O(x^{1-\alpha})$$

(Theorem 3.2(c)). Hence

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

(4) Theorem 3.2(a) implies that

$$x^{1-\alpha} \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{|\mu(d)|}{d} = O(x^{1-\alpha} \log x).$$

(5) By (2)(3)(4),

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\varphi(n)}{n^\alpha} &= \frac{x^{2-\alpha}}{2-\alpha} \frac{1}{\zeta(2)} + O(x^{1-\alpha}) + \frac{\zeta(\alpha-1)}{\zeta(\alpha)} + O(x^{1-\alpha}) + O(x^{1-\alpha} \log x) \\ &= \frac{x^{2-\alpha}}{2-\alpha} \frac{1}{\zeta(2)} + \frac{\zeta(\alpha-1)}{\zeta(\alpha)} + O(x^{1-\alpha} \log x). \end{aligned}$$

□

Exercise 3.8.

If $\alpha \leq 1$ and $x \geq 2$ prove that

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

Proof. It is exactly the same as Exercise 3.7 except we use Theorem 3.2(d) to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{q \leq \frac{x}{d}} \frac{1}{q^{\alpha-1}} &= \sum_{q \leq \frac{x}{d}} q^{1-\alpha} \\ &= \frac{\left(\frac{x}{d}\right)^{(1-\alpha)+1}}{(1-\alpha)+1} + O\left(\left(\frac{x}{d}\right)^{1-\alpha}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2-\alpha} \frac{x^{2-\alpha}}{d^{2-\alpha}} + O\left(\frac{x^{1-\alpha}}{d^{1-\alpha}}\right). \end{aligned}$$

□

Exercise 3.9.

In a later chapter we will prove that the infinite product $\prod_p (1 - p^{-2})$, extended over all primes, converges to the value $\frac{1}{\zeta(2)} = \frac{6}{\pi^2}$. Assuming this result, prove that

(a)

$$\frac{\sigma(n)}{n} < \frac{n}{\varphi(n)} < \frac{\pi^2}{6} \frac{\sigma(n)}{n}$$

if $n \geq 2$.

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

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{n}{\varphi(n)} = O(x).$$

Proof of (a).

(1) Write $n = \prod_p p^\alpha$ with $\alpha \geq 1$ uniquely as a product of prime numbers, up to the order of the factors. Note that

$$\frac{n}{\varphi(n)} = \prod_p (1 - p^{-1})^{-1} = \prod_p \frac{p}{p-1}$$

(Theorem 2.4) and

$$\frac{\sigma(n)}{n} = \prod_p p^{-\alpha} \cdot \frac{p^{\alpha+1} - 1}{p - 1} = \prod_p \frac{p^{\alpha+1} - 1}{p^{\alpha+1}} \cdot \frac{p}{p - 1}.$$

(on page 39).

(2) Hence

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{\sigma(n)}{n} < \frac{n}{\varphi(n)} < \frac{\pi^2}{6} \frac{\sigma(n)}{n} \\ \iff & \prod_p \frac{p^{\alpha+1} - 1}{p^{\alpha+1}} \cdot \frac{p}{p - 1} < \prod_p \frac{p}{p - 1} < \frac{\pi^2}{6} \prod_p \frac{p^{\alpha+1} - 1}{p^{\alpha+1}} \cdot \frac{p}{p - 1} \\ \iff & 1 < \prod_p \frac{p^{\alpha+1}}{p^{\alpha+1} - 1} < \frac{\pi^2}{6} = \prod_p \frac{p^2}{p^2 - 1}. \end{aligned}$$

It is clear that

$$1 < \frac{p^{\alpha+1}}{p^{\alpha+1} - 1} < \frac{p^2}{p^2 - 1}$$

since $\alpha \geq 1$. Thus the result holds.

□

Proof of (b).

(1) By part (a), it suffices to show that

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\sigma(n)}{n} = O(x).$$

(2) Similar to the proof Theorem 3.3,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\sigma(n)}{n} &= \sum_{\substack{q, d \\ qd \leq x}} \frac{q}{qd} \\ &= \sum_{d \leq x} \sum_{q \leq \frac{x}{d}} \frac{1}{d} \\ &= \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d} \left\lfloor \frac{x}{d} \right\rfloor \\ &= \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d} \left(\frac{x}{d} - \left\{ \frac{x}{d} \right\} \right) \\ &= x \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d^2} - \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d} \left\{ \frac{x}{d} \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

(3) Note that Theorem 3.2(b) implies that

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

Also $\sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d} \left\{ \frac{x}{d} \right\}$ is bounded by $\sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d} = O(\log x)$ (Theorem 3.2(a)).
Therefore,

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{\sigma(n)}{n} = O(x) + O(\log x) = O(x).$$

□

Properties of the greatest-integer function

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 $\lfloor \frac{m+x}{n} \rfloor = \lfloor \frac{m+\lfloor x \rfloor}{n} \rfloor$ 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 3.17.1. (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 4.18.

Prove that the following two relations are equivalent:

(a)

$$\pi(x) = \frac{x}{\log x} + O\left(\frac{x}{\log^2 x}\right).$$

(b)

$$\vartheta(x) = x + O\left(\frac{x}{\log x}\right).$$

Proof.

(1) ((a) \implies (b)).

$$\begin{aligned} & \vartheta(x) \\ &= \pi(x) \log x - \int_2^x \frac{\pi(t)}{t} dt && \text{(Theorem 4.3)} \\ &= x + O\left(\frac{x}{\log x}\right) - \int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log t} + O\left(\int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log^2 t}\right) \\ &= x + O\left(\frac{x}{\log x}\right) + O\left(\frac{x}{\log x}\right) + O\left(\frac{x}{\log^2 x}\right) && \text{(Exercise 4.19(b))} \\ &= x + O\left(\frac{x}{\log x}\right). \end{aligned}$$

(2) ((b) \implies (a)).

$$\begin{aligned}
& \pi(x) \\
&= \frac{\vartheta(x)}{\log x} + \int_2^x \frac{\vartheta(t)}{t \log^2 t} dt && \text{(Theorem 4.3)} \\
&= \frac{x}{\log x} + O\left(\frac{x}{\log^2 x}\right) + \int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log^2 t} + O\left(\int_2^x \frac{dt}{\log^3 t}\right) \\
&= \frac{x}{\log x} + O\left(\frac{x}{\log^2 x}\right) + O\left(\frac{x}{\log^2 x}\right) + O\left(\frac{x}{\log^3 x}\right) && \text{(Exercise 4.19(b))} \\
&= \frac{x}{\log x} + O\left(\frac{x}{\log^2 x}\right).
\end{aligned}$$

□

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 5: Congruences

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.

□

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.