## On a class of sums involving the floor function

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For a real number x there is a unique integer n such that  $n \le x < n+1$ . We say that n is the greatest integer less than or equal to x or the floor of x. We denote  $n = \lfloor x \rfloor$ . The difference  $x - \lfloor x \rfloor$  is called the fractional part of x and is denoted by  $\{x\}$ .

The integer  $\lfloor x \rfloor + 1$  is called the *ceiling* of x and is denoted by  $\lceil x \rceil$ . For example,

$$\lfloor 2.1 \rfloor = 2$$
  $\{2.1\} = .1$   $\lceil 2.1 \rceil = 3$   $\lfloor -3.9 \rfloor = -4$   $\{-3.9\} = .1$   $\lceil -3.9 \rceil = -3$ 

The following properties are useful:

- 1) If a and b are integers, b > 0, and q is the quotient when a is divided by b, then  $q = \left\lfloor \frac{a}{b} \right\rfloor$ .
- 2) For any real number x and any integer n,  $\lfloor x+n \rfloor = \lfloor x \rfloor + n$  and  $\lceil x+n \rceil = \lceil x \rceil + n$ .
- 3) For any positive real number x and any positive integer n the number of positive multiples of n not exceeding x is  $\left\lfloor \frac{x}{n} \right\rfloor$ .
  - 4) For any real number x and any positive integer n,

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

We will prove the last two properties. For 3) consider all multiples  $1 \cdot n, 2 \cdot n, \ldots, k \cdot n$ , where  $k \cdot n \leq x < (k+1)n$ . That is  $k \leq \frac{x}{n} < k+1$  and the conclusion follows. For 4) denote  $\lfloor x \rfloor = m$  and  $\{x\} = \alpha$ . From the Division Algorithm and property 1) above it follows that  $m = n \left\lfloor \frac{m}{n} \right\rfloor + r$ , where  $0 \leq r \leq n-1$ . We obtain  $0 \leq r + \alpha \leq n-1 + \alpha < n$ , that is  $\left\lfloor \frac{r+\alpha}{n} \right\rfloor = 0$  and

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

The following result is helpful in proving many relations involving the floor function.

**Theorem.** Let p be an odd prime and let q be an integer that is not divisible by p. If  $f: \mathbb{Z}_+^* \to \mathbb{R}$  is a function such that:

- i)  $\frac{f(k)}{p}$  is not an integer,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, p-1$ ; ii) f(k) + f(p-k) is an integer divisible by  $p, k = 1, 2, \dots, p-1$ , then

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \left[ f(k) \frac{q}{p} \right] = \frac{q}{p} \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} f(k) - \frac{p-1}{2}.$$
 (1)

*Proof.* From ii) it follows that

$$\frac{qf(k)}{p} + \frac{qf(p-k)}{p} \in \mathbb{Z}$$
 (2)

and from i) we obtain that  $\frac{qf(k)}{p} \notin \mathbb{Z}$  and  $\frac{qf(p-k)}{p} \notin \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $k=1,\ldots,p-1$ , hence

$$0 < \left\{ \frac{qf(k)}{p} \right\} + \left\{ \frac{qf(p-k)}{p} \right\} < 2.$$

But, from (1),  $\left\{\frac{qf(k)}{p}\right\} + \left\{\frac{qf(p-k)}{p}\right\} \in \mathbb{Z}$ , thus

$$\left\{\frac{qf(k)}{p}\right\} + \left\{\frac{qf(p-k)}{p}\right\} = 1, \quad k = 1, \dots, p-1.$$

Summing up and dividing by 2 yields

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \left\{ \frac{q}{p} f(k) \right\} = \frac{p-1}{2}.$$

It follows that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{q}{p} f(k) - \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \left\lfloor \frac{q}{p} f(k) \right\rfloor = \frac{p-1}{2}$$

and the conclusion follows.

**Application 1.** The function f(x) = x satisfies both i) and ii) in Theorem, hence

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \left\lfloor k \frac{q}{p} \right\rfloor = \frac{q}{p} \cdot \frac{(p-1)p}{2} - \frac{p-1}{2},$$

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that is

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \left[ k \frac{q}{p} \right] = \frac{(p-1)(q-1)}{2} \quad \text{(Gauss)}.$$
 (3)

**Remark.** From the proof of our Theorem, it follows that the above formula holds for any relatively prime integers p and q.

**Application 2.** The function  $f(x) = x^3$  also satisfies conditions i) and ii), hence

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \left\lfloor k^3 \frac{q}{p} \right\rfloor = \frac{q}{p} \cdot \frac{(p-1)^2 p^2}{4} - \frac{p-1}{2} = \frac{(p-1)(p^2 q - pq - 2)}{4}. \tag{4}$$

For q=1 we obtain the 2002 German Mathematical Olympiad problem:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \left\lfloor \frac{k^3}{p} \right\rfloor = \frac{(p-2)(p-1)(p+1)}{4}.$$
 (5)

**Application 3.** For  $f: \mathbb{Z}_+^* \to \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(s) = (-1)^s s^2$ , conditions i) and ii) in our Theorem are both satisfied. We obtain

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \left\lfloor (-1)^k k^2 \frac{q}{p} \right\rfloor = \frac{q}{p} (-1^2 + 2^2 - \dots + (p-1)^2) - \frac{p-1}{2}$$
$$= \frac{q}{p} \cdot \frac{p(p-1)}{2} - \frac{p-1}{2},$$

hence

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \left\lfloor (-1)^k k^2 \frac{q}{p} \right\rfloor = \frac{(p-1)(q-1)}{2}.$$
 (6)

**Remark.** By taking q = 1 we get

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \left[ (-1)^k \frac{k^2}{p} \right] = 0.$$

Using now the identity  $\lfloor -x \rfloor = -1 - \lfloor x \rfloor$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Z}$ , the last display takes the form

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} (-1)^k \left\lfloor \frac{k^2}{p} \right\rfloor = \frac{1-p}{2}.$$
 (7)

**Application 4.** Similarly, applying our Theorem to  $f: \mathbb{Z}_+^* \to \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(s) = (-1)^s s^4$  yields

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \left\lfloor (-1)^k k^4 \frac{q}{p} \right\rfloor = \frac{q(p-1)(p^2 - p - 1)}{2} - \frac{p-1}{2}.$$
 (8)

Taking q = 1 gives

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \left\lfloor (-1)^k \frac{k^4}{p} \right\rfloor = \frac{(p-2)(p-1)(p+1)}{2}.$$
 (9)

**Application 5.** For  $f(s) = \frac{s^p}{p}$ , conditions i) and ii) in our Theorem are also satisfied and for q=1 we obtain

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \left\lfloor \frac{k^p}{p^2} \right\rfloor = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{k^p}{p} - \frac{p-1}{2} = \frac{1}{p^2} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} k^p - \frac{p(p-1)}{2} \right),$$

hence

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \left\lfloor \frac{k^p}{p^2} \right\rfloor = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{k^p - k}{p}.$$
 (10)

Formula (10) shows that half of the sum of the quotients obtained when  $k^p - k$  is divided by p (Fermat's Little Theorem) is equal to the sum of the quotients obtained when  $k^p$  is divided by  $p^2$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \ldots, p-1$ .

## References

[1] Andreescu, T., Andrica, D., Number Theory and its Mathematical Structures, Birkhäuser, Boston-Basel-Berlin (to appear).

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