### ANALYTIC NUMBER THEORY

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### 1. Arithmetical functions

### 1.1. Some basic arithmetical functions.

**Definition 1.1.** The *Möbius function*, denoted  $\mu$ , is defined as

$$\mu(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ (-1)^k & \text{if } n = p_1 \dots p_k, \text{ where } p_1, \dots, p_k \text{ are distinct primes,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Note that  $\mu$  is the signed characteristic function of the squarefree integers. The definition of  $\mu$  seems to be unmotivated right now but later we will see that  $\mu$  is the inverse of the unit function in some group of arithmetical functions. Knowing that the inverse of unit function exists one can recover this definition.

## **Proposition 1.2.** If $n \ge 1$ , then

$$\sum_{d\mid n} \mu(d) = e(n).$$

*Proof.* If n=1, then the formula clearly holds as  $\mu(1)=1$ . Now suppose that  $n=\prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{a_i}$ . Because  $\mu(d)$  is nonzero if and only if d is squarefree, we can restrict the sum to divisors of the form  $\prod_{i\in I} p_i$ , where I is a subset of  $\{1,\ldots,k\}$ . Hence, we get

$$\sum_{d|n} \mu(d) = \sum_{I \subset \{1,\dots,n\}} \mu\left(\prod_{i \in I} p_i\right) = \sum_{I \subset \{1,\dots,n\}} (-1)^{|I|}.$$

Since for each  $0 \le r \le k$  there are precisely  $\binom{k}{r}$  subsets of  $\{1, \ldots, k\}$  containing r elements, we therefore deduce that

$$\sum_{d|n} \mu(d) = \sum_{r=0}^{k} {k \choose r} (-1)^r = (-1+1)^k = 0.$$

**Problem 1.1.** Show that for every  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  there are infinitely many n such that

$$\mu(n+1) = \dots = \mu(n+k).$$

Solution. Let  $p_1, \ldots, p_k$  be distinct primes. Then by Chinese remainder theorem there are infinitely many n with  $n \equiv -j \pmod{p_j^2}$  for  $1 \leqslant j \leqslant k$  and so  $p_j^2 | (n+j)$  and  $\mu(n+j) = 0$ .

**Definition 1.3.** The *Euler's totient function*, denoted  $\varphi$ , is defined to be the number of positive integers not exceeding n which are relatively prime to n, i.e.,

$$\varphi(n) = |\{1 \leqslant k \leqslant n : (k, n) = 1\}|$$

We can rewrite  $\varphi(n)$  in the summation notation as

$$\varphi(n) = \sum_{\substack{k=1\\(k,n)=1}}^{n} 1 = \sum_{k=1}^{n} e((k,n))$$

**Proposition 1.4.** If  $n \ge 1$ , then

$$\sum_{d|n} \varphi(d) = n.$$

*Proof.* The key idea behind the proof is to partition the set  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$  into sets  $A_d = \{1 \le k \le n : (k, n) = d\}$ , where d is a divisor of n, and to note that there is a one-to-one bijection between elements of  $A_d$  and integers  $1 \le r \le n/d$  satisfying (r, n/d) = 1. This then implies that

$$n = \sum_{d|n} |A_d| = \sum_{d|n} \varphi(n/d) = \sum_{d|n} \varphi(d),$$

where the last equality follows by the bijection  $d \mapsto n/d$  between the divisors of n.

**Proposition 1.5.** If  $n \ge 1$ , then we have

$$\varphi(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \frac{n}{d}.$$
(1.1)

*Proof.* We use the formula for the divisor sum of  $\mu$  to obtain

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

Changing the order of summation we get

$$\varphi(n) = \sum_{\substack{d|n \ k=1 \\ d|k}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \mu(d) = \sum_{\substack{d|n \ d|k}} \mu(d) \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ d|k}} 1 = \sum_{\substack{d|n \ d|k}} \mu(d) \frac{n}{d},$$

completing the proof.

**Proposition 1.6.** For  $n \ge 1$  we have

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

*Proof.* If n = 1, then the product on the right hand side is empty and so the formula trivially holds. Now let  $p_1, \ldots, p_k$  be the prime divisors of n let  $[k] := \{1, \ldots, k\}$ . Then expanding the product, we get

$$\prod_{i=1}^{k} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{p_i} \right) = \sum_{I \subset [k]} \prod_{i \in I} \left( -\frac{1}{p_i} \right) = \sum_{I \subset [k]} \frac{(-1)^{|I|}}{\prod_{i \in I} p_i} = \sum_{d \mid n} \frac{\mu(d)}{d} = \frac{\varphi(n)}{n}.$$

We now obtain some interesting properties of  $\varphi$ .

**Proposition 1.7.** The Euler's totient function has the following properties:

- (a)  $\varphi(p^a) = p^a p^{a-1}$  for prime p and  $a \ge 1$ .
- (b)  $\varphi(mn) = \varphi(m)\varphi(n)(d/\varphi(d))$ , where d = (m, n).
- (c)  $\varphi(mn) = \varphi(m)\varphi(n)$  if (m, n) = 1.
- (d) n|m implies  $\varphi(n)|\varphi(m)$ .
- (e)  $\varphi(n)$  is even for  $n \ge 3$ . Moreover, if n has r distinct odd prime factors, then  $2^r | \varphi(n)$ .

*Proof.* (a): Follows immediately from the product formula.

(b): Note that

$$\begin{split} \frac{\varphi(mn)}{mn} &= \prod_{p|mn} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{p} \right) = \prod_{p|m} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{p} \right) \prod_{\substack{p|n\\p \nmid m}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{p} \right) \\ &= \prod_{p|m} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{p} \right) \prod_{\substack{p|n\\p \mid m}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{p} \right) \prod_{\substack{p|n\\p \mid m}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{p} \right)^{-1} \\ &= \frac{\varphi(m)}{m} \frac{\varphi(n)}{n} \prod_{\substack{p|(n,m)}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{p} \right)^{-1} \\ &= \frac{\varphi(m)}{m} \frac{\varphi(n)}{n} \frac{d}{\varphi(d)}, \end{split}$$

where d = (m, n).

- (c): Follows immediately from part (b).
- (d): Let  $n = p_1^{a_1} \cdots p_k^{a_k}$  and  $m = p_1^{b_1} \cdots p_k^{b_k}$ , where  $a_i$  are nonnegative. Because  $a_i \leq b_i$ , we have  $\varphi(p_i^{a_i})|\varphi(p_i^{b_i})$  due to part (i). This coupled with the fact that  $\varphi$  is multiplicative (due to part (c)) gives us the desired result.
- (e): Observe that if  $n \ge 3$  and  $n = 2^a$  for some positive integer a then a must be at least 2 and so  $\varphi(2^a) = 2^a 2^{a-1} = 2(2^{a-1} 2^{a-2})$  is even. Now note that

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

where the factor  $n(\prod_{p|n}p)^{-1}$  is an integer. If n is not of the form  $2^a$ , then an odd prime p divides n, and so the factor on the right must be even which implies that  $\varphi(n)$  is even. Finally, if n has r distinct odd prime factors then  $2^r|\prod_{p|n}(p-1)$  and hence  $2^r|\varphi(n)$ .  $\square$ 

**Definition 1.8.** The *von-Mangoldt function* (usually referred to as simply Mangoldt function), denoted  $\Lambda$ , is defined as

$$\Lambda(n) = \begin{cases} \log p & \text{if } n = p^a \text{ for some prime } p \text{ and integer } a \geqslant 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Claim 1.9. If  $n \ge 1$ , then we have

$$\log n = \sum_{d|n} \Lambda(d).$$

## 1.2. Dirichlet multiplication.

**Definition 1.10.** If f and g are two arithmetical functions we define their *Dirichlet product* (or *Dirichlet convolution*) to be the arithmetical function f \* g defined by

$$(f * g)(n) = \sum_{d|n} f(d)g\left(\frac{n}{d}\right).$$

Claim 1.11. Dirichlet multiplication is commutative and associative, i.e., for any arithmetical functions f, g, h we have

$$f * g = g * f$$
 and  $(f * g) * h = f * (g * h)$ .

Claim 1.12. For any arithmetical function f, we have e \* f = f \* e = f.

Claim 1.13. If f is an arithmetical function with  $f(1) \neq 0$ , then there is a unique arithmetical function g such that

$$g * f = f * g = e.$$

The function g is given by

$$g(1) = \frac{1}{f(1)}, \qquad g(n) = -\frac{1}{f(1)} \sum_{\substack{d \mid n \\ d < n}} g(d) f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \quad \text{for } n > 1.$$

The above results show that the set of all arithmetical functions f satisfying  $f(1) \neq 0$  form an abelian group under Dirichlet multiplication.

Using the notation of Dirichlet product, we can write the identities in Proposition 1.2 and Proposition 1.4 in compact form as

$$\mu * 1 = e$$
 and  $\varphi * 1 = N$ .

Thus  $\mu$  and 1 are Dirichlet inverses of each other. Also note that the identity (1.1) follows seamlessly from  $\varphi * 1 = N$  by multiplying by  $\mu$  on both sides;  $\varphi = N * \mu$ .

**Proposition 1.14** (Möbius inversion formula). Let f and g be arithmetical functions. Then

$$f(n) = \sum_{d|n} g(d)$$

if and only if

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

The Möbius inversion formula has already been illustrated by a pair of identities in Proposition 1.4 and Proposition 1.5:

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

# 1.3. Multiplicative functions.

**Definition 1.15.** An arithmetical function f is called *multiplicative* if  $f \not\equiv 0$  and

$$f(mn) = f(m)f(n)$$
 whenever  $(m, n) = 1$ .

A multiplicative function f is called *completely multiplicative* (or *totally multiplicative*) if  $f \not\equiv 0$  and

$$f(mn) = f(m)f(n)$$
 for all  $m, n$ .

**Example 1.16.** We note some common examples of multiplicative functions.

- (a) The power function  $N^{\alpha}$  is completely multiplicative.
- (b) The identity function E is completely multiplicative.
- (c) The Möbius function  $\mu$  is multiplicative. However, it is not completely multiplicative as  $\mu(4) = 0 \neq 1 = \mu(2)^2$ .
- (d) The Euler totient function  $\varphi$  is multiplicative. However, it is not completely multiplicative as  $\varphi(4) = 2 \neq 1 = \varphi(2)^2$ .

Claim 1.17. If f is multiplicative, then f(1) = 1.

From this property of multiplicative functions it immediately follows that  $\Lambda$  is not multiplicative.

**Proposition 1.18.** Let f be an arithmetical function with f(1) = 1.

(a) f is multiplicative if and only if

$$f(p_1^{a_1}\cdots p_k^{a_k}) = f(p_1^{a_1})\cdots f(p_k^{a_k}),$$

where  $p_1, \ldots, p_k$  are distinct primes.

(b) If f is multiplicative, then f is completely multiplicative if and only if

$$f(p^a) = f(p)^a$$

for all primes p and all integers  $a \ge 1$ .

The above result shows that a multiplicative function is uniquely determined by its values on prime powers, and a completely multiplicative function is uniquely determined by its values on primes.

Claim 1.19. If f and g are multiplicative, then so is their Dirichlet product f \* g.

*Proof.* Let m and n be relatively prime integers. Then observe that

$$(f * g)(mn) = \sum_{\substack{d \mid mn \\ b \mid n}} f(d)g\left(\frac{mn}{d}\right) = \sum_{\substack{a \mid m \\ b \mid n}} f(ab)g\left(\frac{mn}{ab}\right)$$

as every divisor of mn can be uniquely written as ab, where a|m and b|n. Using the multiplicativity of f and g we obtain

$$(f * g)(mn) = \sum_{\substack{a|m\\b|n}} f(a)f(b)g\left(\frac{m}{a}\right)g\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) = \sum_{\substack{a|m\\b|n}} \sum_{\substack{b|n}} f(a)f(b)g\left(\frac{m}{a}\right)g\left(\frac{n}{b}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{\substack{a|m\\b|n}} f(a)g\left(\frac{m}{a}\right)\sum_{\substack{b|n\\b|n}} f(b)g\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) = (f * g)(m)(f * g)(n). \qquad \Box$$

This completes the proof.

The Dirichlet product of two completely multiplicative functions need not be completely multiplicative. For instance, the divisor function d = 1 \* 1 is not completely multiplicative as  $d(4) = 3 \neq 4 = d(2)^2$  whereas 1 clearly is.

Claim 1.20. If f is multiplicative, then so is it's Dirichlet inverse  $f^{-1}$ .

*Proof.* Suppose for the sake of contradiction that  $f^{-1}$  is not multiplicative. Then there exist positive integers m and n with (m, n) = 1 such that

$$f^{-1}(mn) \neq f^{-1}(m)f^{-1}(n).$$

We choose such a pair m and n for which the product mn is the smallest. Since f is multiplicative therefore  $f^{-1}(1) = 1/f(1) = 1$  and hence neither m nor n can be 1. In particular, mn > 1. By the construction of the product mn, f(ab) = f(a)f(b) for all positive integers a and b with (a, b) = 1 and ab < mn. It now follows that

$$f^{-1}(mn) = -\sum_{\substack{a \mid m \\ b \mid n \\ ab < mn}} f^{-1}(ab) f\left(\frac{mn}{ab}\right)$$

$$= -\sum_{\substack{a \mid m \\ b \mid n \\ ab < mn}} f^{-1}(a) f^{-1}(b) f\left(\frac{m}{a}\right) f\left(\frac{n}{b}\right)$$

$$= -f^{-1}(n) \sum_{\substack{a \mid m \\ a < m}} f^{-1}(a) f\left(\frac{m}{a}\right) - f^{-1}(m) \sum_{\substack{b \mid n \\ b < n}} f^{-1}(b) f\left(\frac{n}{b}\right)$$

$$- \sum_{\substack{a \mid m \\ a < m}} \sum_{\substack{b \mid n \\ b < n}} f^{-1}(a) f^{-1}(b) f\left(\frac{m}{a}\right) f\left(\frac{n}{b}\right)$$

$$= f^{-1}(n) f^{-1}(m) + f^{-1}(m) f^{-1}(n) - f^{-1}(m) f^{-1}(n)$$

$$= f^{-1}(m) f^{-1}(n).$$

This contradiction proves the result.

Second Proof. Let g be an arithmetical function defined as

$$g(n) = \prod_{p^a||n} f^{-1}(p^a).$$

Then g is a multiplicative function by definition and so it suffices to show that  $f^{-1} = g$ . Note that

$$(g * f)(p^k) = \sum_{d|p^k} g(d)f(p^k/d) = \sum_{i=0}^k g(p^i)f(p^{k-i})$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^k f^{-1}(p^i)f(p^{k-i}) = \sum_{d|p^k} f^{-1}(d)f(p^k/d) = (f^{-1} * f)(p^k) = E(p^k).$$

Because g \* f and E are both multiplicative functions and agree on prime powers, it follows that g \* f = E and so  $g = f^{-1}$ .

**Proposition 1.21.** Let f be multiplicative. Then f is completely multiplicative if and only if  $f^{-1} = \mu f$ .

*Proof.* Suppose f is completely multiplicative. Then observe that

$$(f * \mu f)(n) = \sum_{d \mid n} \mu(d) f(d) f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) = f(n) \sum_{d \mid n} \mu(d) = f(n) E(n) = E(n).$$

Conversely, assume that  $f^{-1} = \mu f$ . Then observe that

$$\sum_{d|n} \mu(d)f(d)f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) = 0$$

for n > 1. Let  $n = p^a$ , where  $a \ge 1$ . Then, we get

$$\mu(1)f(1)f(p^a) + \mu(p)f(p)f(p^{a-1}) = 0.$$

It then follows that

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

This implies that  $f(p^a) = f(p)^a$ . Thus f is completely multiplicative.

**Example 1.22.** Since  $\varphi = \mu * N$  we have  $\varphi^{-1} = \mu^{-1} * N^{-1}$ . But  $N^{-1} = \mu N$  since N is completely multiplicative, so

$$\varphi^{-1} = \mu^{-1} * \mu N = 1 * \mu N.$$

Thus we have

$$\varphi^{-1}(n) = \sum_{d \mid n} d\mu(d).$$

**Proposition 1.23.** If f is a multiplicative arithmetical function then

$$\sum_{d|n} \mu(d) f(d) = \prod_{p|n} (1 - f(p)).$$

*Proof.* Let  $g = 1 * \mu f$ . Then g is a multiplicative function. Thus, it suffices to know the value of g at prime powers. We observe that

$$g(p^{a}) = \sum_{d|p^{a}} \mu(d)f(d) = \mu(1)f(1) + \mu(p)f(p) = 1 - f(p).$$

Hence, we obtain

$$g(n) = \prod_{p|n} g(p^a) = \prod_{p|n} (1 - f(p)).$$

as desired.

We earlier gave a product formula for  $\varphi(n)$  in Proposition 1.6. This formula also follows from Proposition 1.5 and above proposition by taking f(n) = 1/n.