

In this section, we study the arithmetic functions.

Definition: An arithmetic function is a function defined over integers, i.e.  $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ .

Example: (1) The trivial function  $\mathbb{1}: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ .

$$\mathbb{1}(n) = 1 \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

(2) The Euler's Phi function:  $\phi: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$

$$\phi(m) := \# \{ a : 1 \leq a \leq m, \gcd(a, m) = 1 \}$$

(3) The divisor function:  $d: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$

$$d(m) := \# \{ a : a | m \}.$$

(4) The Möbius function:  $\mu: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ .

$$\mu(m) = \begin{cases} (-1)^r & \text{if } m = p_1 p_2 \dots p_r \text{ with } p_i \text{ distinct.} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Definition: An arithmetic function:  $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is multiplicative

if  $f(mn) = f(m)f(n)$  when  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ .

An arithmetic function  $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is

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

Remark:  $f$  completely multiplicative  $\Rightarrow$  multiplicative.

In fact: (1)  $\mathbb{1}(m)$  is completely multiplicative.

(2)  $\phi(m)$  is multiplicative  $\leadsto$  will show later.

but not completely multiplicative.

(counter) example:  $\phi(4) = 2$   $\phi(2) = 1$

$$\phi(4) = \phi(2 \cdot 2) \neq \phi(2) \cdot \phi(2)$$

(3)  $d(m)$  is multiplicative

but not completely multiplicative.

(counter) example:  $d(4) = 3$   $d(2) = 2$

$$d(4) = d(2 \cdot 2) \neq d(2) \cdot d(2)$$

(4)  $\mu(m)$  is multiplicative

but not completely multiplicative.

(counter) example:  $4 = 2 \cdot 2 = 2^2$

$$\mu(4) = 0 \quad \mu(2) = -1.$$

$$\mu(4) = \mu(2 \cdot 2) \neq \mu(2) \cdot \mu(2).$$

Notations:

sum notation:  $\sum$

product notation:  $\prod$

example:  $\sum_{p|n} p$  means: find all primes divides  $n$  and sum them.

$$\sum_{p|10} = 2 + 5 = 7$$

$\prod_{p|n} (1 - \frac{1}{p})$  means: multiply all  $(1 - \frac{1}{p})$  where  $p|n$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{p|6} (1 - \frac{1}{p}) &= (1 - \frac{1}{2})(1 - \frac{1}{3}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3} = \frac{1}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

Question: why the multiplicative functions are important.

Ans: Let  $m = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}$  with  $p_i$  distinct.

Let  $f$  be multiplicative.

$$\text{Then } f(m) = f(p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r})$$

$$= f(p_1^{\alpha_1}) f(p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots f(p_r^{\alpha_r})$$

$$= \prod_{p^\alpha \parallel m} f(p^\alpha)$$

$f$  is totally determined by its values at prime powers.

Moreover, if  $f$  is completely multiplicative.

$$f(m) = f(p_1)^{\alpha_1} f(p_2)^{\alpha_2} \dots f(p_r)^{\alpha_r}$$

$$= \prod_{p^\alpha \parallel m} f(p)^\alpha$$

$f$  is totally determined by its values at primes.

First example: Euler's Phi function.

Theorem (11.1 Euler's Phi function formula)

(a) If  $p$  is a prime and  $k \geq 1$ , then

$$\phi(p^k) = p^k - p^{k-1} = p^k \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)$$

(b) If  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ , then

$$\phi(mn) = \phi(m)\phi(n).$$

(c) For  $m = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}$

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(m) &= p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_r}\right) \\ &= m \cdot \prod_{p|m} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Proof of (c): By (a), (b)

$$\phi(m) = \phi(p_1^{\alpha_1}) \phi(p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots \phi(p_r^{\alpha_r})$$

$$= (p_1^{\alpha_1} - p_1^{\alpha_1-1}) (p_2^{\alpha_2} - p_2^{\alpha_2-1}) \dots (p_r^{\alpha_r} - p_r^{\alpha_r-1})$$

$$= p_1^{\alpha_1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) p_2^{\alpha_2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \dots p_r^{\alpha_r} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_r}\right)$$

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

□.

Proof of (a). Let  $p$  be a prime and  $k \geq 1$ .

$$\phi(p^k) = \#\{a: 1 \leq a \leq p^k, \gcd(a, p^k) = 1\}$$

$$= p^k - \#\{a: 1 \leq a \leq p^k, p|a\}$$

We can show:

$$\{a: 1 \leq a \leq p^k, p|a\} = \{p, 2p, 3p, 4p, \dots, (p^{k-1}-1)p, p^k\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \#\{a: 1 \leq a \leq p^k, p|a\} = p^{k-1}$$

This implies:

$$\phi(p^k) = p^k - p^{k-1}$$

□.

Let  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ .

$$A = \{a: 1 \leq a \leq mn, \gcd(a, mn) = 1\} \quad \phi(mn) = \# A.$$

$$B = \{b: 1 \leq b \leq m, \gcd(b, m) = 1\} \quad \phi(m) = \# B.$$

$$C = \{c : 1 \leq c \leq n, \gcd(c, n) = 1\} \quad \phi(n) = \#C.$$

$$\left( \begin{array}{l} \text{We need to show: } \phi(mn) = \phi(m)\phi(n) \text{ i.e.} \\ \#A = \#B \cdot \#C \end{array} \right)$$

We look at the following set:

$$M = \left\{ (b, c) : \begin{array}{l} 1 \leq b \leq m, \gcd(b, m) = 1 \\ 1 \leq c \leq n, \gcd(c, n) = 1 \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\text{We can show: } \#B \cdot \#C = \#M$$

Therefore, it suffices to show:  $\#A = \#M$ .

Strategy: we construct a bijjective map  
from  $A$  to  $M$ .

Definition: Let  $f: A \rightarrow B$  be a map.

•  $f$  is injective if  $f(b_1) = f(b_2) \Rightarrow b_1 = b_2$

•  $f$  is surjective if for any  $b \in B$ , we can

find  $a \in A$  such that  $f(a) = b$ .

•  $f$  is a bijection if  $f$  is both injective and surjective.

Let  $A, B$  be finite sets. If there is a bijective map  $f: A \rightarrow B$ , then  $\#A = \#B$ .

We construct the following map:

$$f: A \longrightarrow M$$

$$\left\{ a: \begin{array}{l} 1 \leq a \leq mn \\ \gcd(a, mn) = 1 \end{array} \right\} \longrightarrow \left\{ (b, c): \begin{array}{l} 1 \leq b \leq m \quad \gcd(b, m) = 1 \\ 1 \leq c \leq n \quad \gcd(c, n) = 1 \end{array} \right\}$$

$$a \longmapsto (a \pmod{m}, a \pmod{n}).$$

We need to show  $f$  is both injective and surjective.

• injective: let  $a_1, a_2 \in A$  with  $f(a_1) = f(a_2)$

(we need to show:  $a_1 = a_2$ )

$$(a_1 \pmod{m}, a_1 \pmod{n}) = (a_2 \pmod{m}, a_2 \pmod{n})$$

$$\Rightarrow a_1 \equiv a_2 \pmod{m}$$

$$a_1 \equiv a_2 \pmod{n}.$$

$$\gcd(m, n) = 1 \Rightarrow a_1 \equiv a_2 \pmod{mn}$$



$$1 \leq a_1 \leq mn \quad 1 \leq a_2 \leq mn \Rightarrow a_1 = a_2.$$

• surjective:  $\left( \text{let } (b, c) \in M, \text{ then we can find } a \in A \right)$   
such that  $(a \pmod{m}, a \pmod{n}) = (b, c)$ .

We look at the linear congruence equation:

$$my \equiv (c-b) \pmod{n}$$

$\gcd(m, n) = 1 \Rightarrow$  we can find  $y_1$  such that

$$my_1 \equiv (c-b) \pmod{n}.$$

Set  $X = my_1 + b.$

$$X \equiv b \pmod{m}$$

$$X = my_1 + b \equiv (c-b + b) \pmod{n} \equiv c \pmod{n}.$$

Take  $a$  between 1 and  $mn$  such that

$$a \equiv X \pmod{mn}.$$

$$a \equiv X \pmod{m} \equiv b \pmod{m}$$

$$a \equiv X \pmod{n} \equiv c \pmod{n}$$

□.

Proof of (c): We showed: the map between

$$A = \left\{ a : 1 \leq a \leq mn, \gcd(a, mn) = 1 \right\}$$

and

$$M = \left\{ (b, c) : \begin{array}{l} 1 \leq b \leq m \quad \gcd(b, m) = 1 \\ 1 \leq c \leq n \quad \gcd(c, n) = 1 \end{array} \right\}$$

is bijective.

Therefore  $\# A = \# M$

$$\# A = \phi(mn)$$

$$\# M = \# B \cdot \# C = \phi(m) \cdot \phi(n).$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(mn) = \phi(m) \phi(n). \quad \square$$

The "surjective" part can be generalized to the following theorem:

Theorem (11.2 Chinese Remainder Theorem) Let  $m, n$

be integers with  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ . Let  $b, c$  be integers

Then the simultaneous congruences

$$x \equiv b \pmod{m} \quad x \equiv c \pmod{n}$$

has exactly one solution with  $0 \leq x < mn$ .