# SOME RELATIONS AMONG ARITHMETICAL FUNCTIONS

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**Abstract.** We consider some possible relations among q-additive and completely multiplicative functions. We proved that if f is completely multiplicative and q-additive function, then either f(n) = n for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  or f(n) is the Dirichlet character (mod  $q_0$ ), where  $q_0|q$ .

#### 1. Notation and some notions

Let, as usual,  $\mathcal{P}$ ,  $\mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{C}$  be the set of primes, positive integers, integers, rational numbers and complex numbers, respectively. Let  $\mathbb{N}_0 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$  be the set of non-negative integers.

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  (resp.  $\mathcal{A}^*$ ) be the class of additive (completely additive) functions,  $\mathcal{M}$  (resp.  $\mathcal{M}^*$ ) be the class of multiplicative (completely multiplicative) functions.

For some integer  $q \geq 2$  let  $\mathcal{A}_q$  be the set of q-additive function. Every  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$  can be uniquely represented in the form

$$n = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} a_r(n)q^r$$
 with  $a_r(n) \in \{0, 1, ..., q-1\} (= A_q)$ 

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and  $a_r(n) = 0$  if  $q^r > n$ . We say that  $f \in \mathcal{A}_q$ , if  $f : \mathbb{N}_0 \to \mathbb{C}$ 

$$f(0) = 0$$
 and  $f(n) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} f(\epsilon_r(n)q^r)$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

These functions were first introduced and studied by A. O. Gelfond [6].

**Definition 1.** (Set of uniqueness for completely additive functions.) We say that  $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  is a set of uniqueness for completely additive functions if  $f \in \mathcal{A}^*$ , f(a) = 0 for every  $a \in A$  implies that f(n) = 0 for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Definition 2.** (Set of uniqueness for completely additive functions (mod 1).) We say that  $B \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  is a set of uniqueness for completely additive functions (mod 1) if  $f \in \mathcal{A}^*$ ,  $f(b) \equiv 0 \pmod{1}$  for all  $b \in B$  implies that  $f(n) \equiv 0 \pmod{1}$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

D. Wolke [16] proved that A is a set of uniqueness if and only if every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  can be written as  $n = \prod_{i=1}^k a_i^{r_i}$ , where  $a_i \in A$  and  $r_i \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

K.-H. Indlekofer [8], [9], P. Hoffman [7], F. Dress and B. Volkmann [2] proved independently that B is a set of uniqueness for completely additive functions (mod 1) if and only if every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  can be written as

$$n = \prod_{j=1}^{k} b_j^{\ell_j}$$
, where  $\ell_j \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $b_j \in B$ .

I. Kátai [11], [12] formulated the conjecture in 1969 that

$$\mathcal{P}_{+1} = \{ p+1 \mid p \in \mathcal{P} \}$$

is a set of uniqueness for additive functions, and proved that there exists such a finite set Q of primes for which  $\mathcal{P}_{+1} \cup Q$  is a set of uniqueness (mod 1). P. D. T. A. Elliott [3] proved that  $Q = \{p \mid p \leq 10^{387}, p \in \mathcal{P}\}$  is an appropriate choice, that is every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  can be written as

$$n = t \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{k} (p_i + 1)^{\epsilon_i}, \quad \epsilon_i \in \{-1, 1\},$$

and t is such a rational number the largest prime factor of which does not exceed  $10^{387}$ .

Furthermore, in [4] he proved that for every rational number r, we can find such primes  $p_1, \dots, p_k$  and  $\epsilon_j \in \{-1, 1\}$   $(j = 1, 2, \dots, k)$ , for which

(1.1) 
$$r^g = \prod_{i=1}^k (p_i + 1)^{\epsilon_i}.$$

Here g is a constant,  $g \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ .

A direct consequence of this assertion is

**Theorem 1.** Let  $f \in \mathcal{M}^*$ ,  $f(p+1) = p+1 \ (\forall p \in \mathcal{P})$ . Then

$$f(n) = nH(n), H \in \mathcal{M}^*, H(n)^g = 1 \text{ for every } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Especially, if f(n) is a positive real number for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then

$$f(n) = n$$
 for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Proof.** Since, for every  $q \in \mathcal{P}$  there is at least one  $p \in \mathcal{P}$  such that q|p+1, therefore  $f(q) \neq 0$ , and so  $f(n) \neq 0$   $(n \in \mathbb{N})$ . From (1.1) we obtain that

$$f(r)^g = \prod_{i=1}^k f(p_i + 1)^{\epsilon_i} = \prod_{i=1}^k (p_i + 1)^{\epsilon_i} = r^g.$$

Thus

$$1 = \left(\frac{f(r)}{r}\right)^g = H(r)^g$$
 for every positive rational number.

The proof of Theorem 1 is complete.

The conjecture that  $\mathcal{P}_{+1}$  is a set of uniqueness (mod 1) is formulated by several mathematicians. It would follow from the conjecture of A. Schinzel and W. Sierpinnski [14], namely that every positive integer has infinitely many representations of the form  $\frac{p+1}{q+1}$   $(p,q\in\mathcal{P})$ .

T. Csajbók, A. Járai and J. Kasza [1] proved that every prime  $Q \in [2, 10^{14}]$  can be written as  $\frac{p+1}{q+1}$   $(p, q \in \mathcal{P})$ , and every  $n \in [2, 10^{11}]$  can be written also as  $\frac{p+1}{q+1}$   $(p, q \in \mathcal{P})$ .

## 2. On *q*-additive functions

**Definition 3.** (Set of uniqueness for q-additive functions.) We say that  $D \subseteq \mathbb{N}_0$  is a set of uniqueness for the set of q-additive functions, if  $f \in \mathcal{A}_q$ , f(d) = 0 for all  $d \in D$  implies that f(n) = 0 for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ .

The functions f(n) = cn belong to  $\mathcal{A}_q$  for every  $q \geq 2$ . J. C. Puchta and J. Spilker [13] gave all the functions belonging to  $\mathcal{A}_{q_1} \cap \mathcal{A}_{q_2}$ .

The following question seems to be interesting. Let  $(q_1, q_2) = 1$ ,  $q_1, q_2 \ge 2$ . Let  $\mathcal{K}$  be such a subset of  $\mathbb{N}_0$  for which the following assertion holds:

If

$$f_1 \in \mathcal{A}_{q_1}, f_2 \in \mathcal{A}_{q_2}$$
 and  $f_1(k) = f_2(k)$  for every  $k \in \mathcal{K}$ ,

then

$$f_1(n) = f_2(n) = cn$$
 for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ ,

where  $c \in \mathbb{C}$  is a suitable number.

Assume that  $q_2 > q_1 \ge 2$ ,

$$E_1 = \{aq_1^n | a = 1, \cdots, q_1 - 1, n = 0, 1, \cdots \}$$

and

$$E_2 = \{bq_2^m | b = 1, \dots, q_2 - 1, m = 0, 1, \dots\}.$$

Let  $bq_2^m \in E_2$  with  $m \ge 1$ . Let  $L(bq_2^m) = aq_1^n$  be the largest element of  $E_1$ , for which

$$aq_1^n < bq_2^m$$
.

Observe that  $aq_1^n = bq_2^m$  or  $(a+1)q_1^n = bq_2^m$  cannot occur. Let

$$J_{bq_2^m} = (bq_2^m, (a+1)q_1^n), \text{ where } L(bq_2^m) = aq_1^n.$$

It is obvious that  $a + 1 = q_1$  can be occur.

We know that the interval  $J_{bq_2^m}$  is quite a large interval. This follows from an important theorem of R. Tijdeman [15], which is stated now as

**Theorem A.** Let p be a prime,  $p \geq 3$  and let  $1 = n_1 < n_2 < \cdots$  be the sequence of all positive integers composed of primes  $\leq p$ . Then there exists an effectively computable constant C = C(p) such that

$$n_{i+1} - n_i > \frac{n_i}{(\log n_i)^C}$$
 for every  $n_i \ge 3$ .

**Corollary.** Let p be the largest prime factor of  $q_2!$ , C = C(p) (defined in Theorem A). Let K be such a set for which

$$\mathcal{K} \cap J_{bq_2^m} \neq \emptyset$$
 if  $bq_2^m > K$ .

Assume that  $g_1 \in \mathcal{A}_{q_1}, g_2 \in \mathcal{A}_{q_2}$ ,

$$g_1(n) = g_2(n)$$
 if  $n \in \mathcal{K}$ 

and

$$g_1(n) = g_2(n) = cn$$
 for every  $n \le K$   $(K > q_2)$ .

Then

$$g_1(n) = g_2(n) = cn$$
 for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ .

**Proof.** We can see it by using induction.

Assume that  $g_1(k) = g_2(k) = ck$  holds for every  $k < bq_2^m$ . Let  $k < (a+1)q_1^n$ . Since

$$g_1(uq_1^{\nu}) = \begin{cases} cuq_1^{\nu} & \text{for } \nu < n \text{ and } u \in \{1, \dots, q_1 - 1\} \\ cuq_1^n & \text{for every } u \le a, \end{cases}$$

therefore

$$g_1(k) = ck$$
 if  $k < (a+1)g_1^n$ .

Let  $\kappa \in \mathcal{K} \cap J_{ba_n^m}$ . Thus

$$g_1(\kappa) = g_2(\kappa) = c\kappa, \kappa = bq_2^m + h, h < q_2^m$$

and so

$$g_2(\kappa) = g_2(bq_2^m) + g_2(h) = g_2(bq_2^m) + ch.$$

Consequently

$$g_2(bq_2^m) = cbq_2^m.$$

**Remark.** Let  $\mathcal{E} = \{a_1 < a_2 < \cdots\}$  be such a sequence of integers for which  $a_{n+1} - a_n < a_n^{1-\epsilon}$  for some  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then  $\mathcal{E}$  is a  $\mathcal{K}$ -sequence, that is, if K is a suitable constant,  $f_1 \in \mathcal{A}_{q_1}$ ,  $f_2 \in \mathcal{A}_{q_2}$ , and

$$f_1(n) = f_2(n) \ (\forall n < K) \text{ and } f_1(a_i) = f_2(a_i) \ (j = 1, 2, \dots),$$

then

$$f_1(n) = f_2(n) = c \cdot n$$
 for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ .

Specially, if  $Q(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ ,

$$\mathcal{E}_1 = \{Q(n) | n = 1, 2, \dots\}$$
 and  $\mathcal{E}_2 = \{Q(p) | p \in \mathcal{P}\},$ 

then both of  $\mathcal{E}_1$  and  $\mathcal{E}_2$  are  $\mathcal{K}$ -sequences.

#### 3. What are the q-additive multiplicative functions?

In this section let I(n) be the identity function and  $\chi_q(n)$  be a Dirichlet character function. It is clear that

$$\{I,\chi_q\}\subseteq \mathcal{M}^*\cap \mathcal{A}_q.$$

We shall prove the following

**Theorem 2.** Let  $\mathcal{M}^*$  the set of all completely multiplicative functions f with f(1) = 1. Then there exists a  $q_0|q$  such that

$$\mathcal{M}^* \cap \mathcal{A}_q \subseteq \{I, \chi_{q_0}\}.$$

**Proof.** Let  $f \in \mathcal{M}^* \cap \mathcal{A}_q$ . First we consider the case f(q) = 0. Let  $q = q_0 q_1$ , where  $f(q_1) \neq 0$  and f(p) = 0 for all primes  $p, p|q_0$ . It is clear that

$$f(q_1)f(q_0m+1) = f(qm+q_1) = f(q_1) + f(qm) = f(q_1) + f(q)f(m) = f(q_1)$$

for every  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . This implies that  $f(q_0m+1)=1$ , which with Lemma 19.3 of [5] proves that  $f=\chi_{q_0}$ .

Now we assume that  $\xi := f(q) \neq 0$ . For each  $a \in \{0, 1, \dots, q-2\}$ , we have

$$f(q+1) = f(1) + f(q) = 1 + \xi, \quad f(q+a) = f(a) + f(q) = f(a) + \xi$$

and

$$(q+1)(q+a) = q^2 + (a+1)q + a.$$

Thus, we infer that

$$f((q+1)(q+a)) = f(q^2 + (a+1)q + a) =$$

$$= f(q^2) + f((a+1)q) + f(a) = \xi^2 + f(a+1)\xi + f(a),$$

consequently

$$(1+\xi)(f(a)+\xi) = \xi^2 + f(a+1)\xi + f(a).$$

This shows that

$$f(a+1) = f(a) + 1$$
 for  $a \in \{0, 1, \dots, q-2\}$ ,

and so

$$f(m) = m$$
 for  $m \in \{0, 1, \dots, q-1\}$ .

Since  $f \in \mathcal{A}_{q^2}$ , therefore the above result shows that

$$f(M) = M$$
 for every  $M < q^2$ ,

and so  $\xi = f(q) = q$ , because  $q < q^2$ .

Theorem 2 is proved.

The following problem seems to be interesting. Characterize those subsets  $\mathcal{D}$  of  $\mathbb{N}_0$  for which if  $f \in \mathcal{M}^*$ ,  $g \in \mathcal{A}_q$ , and

$$f(d) = g(d) \ (\forall d \in \mathcal{D}),$$

then

$$f(n) = g(n)$$
 for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Theorem 3.** Let  $c, N_0$  be given numbers,  $J_N = (2^N, 2^{N+1})$ . Let  $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathbb{N}_0$  be such a set of integers for which if  $N > N_0$ , then there exist  $m_1, m_2 \in J_N \cap \mathcal{D}$ ,  $m_1 \neq m_2$  such that

$$\frac{m_1}{m_2} = \frac{A}{B}, \quad A, B < c, A, B \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Assume that

$$f \in \mathcal{M}^*, g \in \mathcal{A}_2, f(n) = g(n) = n \text{ if } n \le \max(c, 2^{N_0}).$$

Then

$$f(d) = g(d)$$
 for every  $d \in \mathcal{D}$ ,

implies that

$$f(n) = n$$
 for every  $n \in \mathcal{D}$ .

**Proof.** We shall use induction. Assume that

$$g(2^n) = 2^n$$
 for every  $n = 0, 1, \dots, N - 1$ .

Then clearly

$$f(u) = g(u) = u \quad \text{if} \quad u < 2^N.$$

Let  $m_1 = 2^N + l$ ,  $m_2 = 2^N + r$ , 0 < l,  $r < 2^N$ ,  $l \ne r$ . We have

$$g(m_1) = g(2^N) + g(l) = g(2^N) + l,$$

similarly

$$g(m_2) = g(2^N) + g(r) = g(2^N) + r.$$

We can choose  $m_1, m_2$  such that  $\frac{m_1}{m_2} = \frac{A}{B}$ , A, B < c. Thus  $m_1 B = m_2 A$ ,  $Bf(m_1) = Af(m_2)$ ,  $f(m_j) = g(m_j)$ , and so

$$B\Big(g(2^N)+l\Big) = A\Big(g(2^N)+r\Big).$$

Since  $B(2^N + l) = A(2^N + r)$ , the above relation implies that  $g(2^N) = 2^N$ . The proof of Theorem 3 is complete.

We guess that the following conjecture is true.

**Conjecture 1.** There exist such constants c > 0 and  $N_0$  such that if  $N \ge N_0$ ,  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , then in the interval  $[2^N, 2^{N+1})$  there exist p - 1, q - 1  $(p, q \in \mathcal{P})$  for which

$$\frac{p-1}{q-1} = \frac{A}{B}, \quad A, B \in \mathbb{N}, A, B < c.$$

Corollary. Assume that Conjecture 1 is true. Let

$$f \in \mathcal{M}^*, g \in \mathcal{A}_2, f(n) = g(n) = n \text{ if } n \le \max(c, 2^{N_0}).$$

If

$$f(p-1) = g(p-1)$$
 for every  $p \in \mathcal{P}$ ,

then

$$f(p-1) = p-1$$
 for every  $p \in \mathcal{P}$ .

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