

ARITHMETIC FUNCTIONS SATISFYING A  
CONGRUENCE PROPERTY

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1. Introduction. This note proves (in the theorem below) a conjecture made by the author last year through the pages of the Departmental Problem Book. This arose in connection with some other investigations of arithmetic functions.

**THEOREM.** Let  $f(n)$  be an integer-valued arithmetic function satisfying:

$$(1.1) \quad f(mn) = f(m)f(n) \text{ for all } (m, n) = 1;$$

$$(1.2) \quad f(n+k) \equiv f(n) \pmod{k} \text{ for all positive integers } n \text{ and } k$$

Then either  $f(n) \equiv 0$  or  $f(n) = n^r$  for a non-negative integer  $r$ .

Recently Leo Moser showed the author a proof, sent him by Ron Graham and credited [2] to Jon Folkman for the special case when  $f(n)$  is a completely multiplicative function (i. e.,  $f(mn) = f(m)f(n)$  for all  $m$  and  $n$ ). Our proof given here naturally involves some arguments the need for which do not arise in Folkman's special case.\*

2. Proof of the theorem. If  $f(1) = 0$ , then  $f(n) = f(n)f(1) = 0$  for all  $n$ . If  $f(k) = 0$  for  $k > 1$ , given an integer  $m$ , there exist an infinity of primes  $p$  satisfying  $(p, k) = (p, m) = 1$ . For each such  $p$ , by Dirichlet's theorem, there exists an infinity of primes  $q$  so that  $(q, k) = 1$  and  $kq \equiv m \pmod{p}$ . Hence  $0 = f(k)f(q) = f(kq) \equiv f(m) \pmod{p}$ ,

\* After completing this paper, the author received from Folkman a proof of the theorem when  $f$  is multiplicative. His proof is however on somewhat different lines.

giving  $f(m) = 0$ .

Suppose now that  $f(n)$  never vanishes. From (1.1) we have  $f(1) = 1$ . For a prime  $p$  and  $a > 0$  we can set

$f(p^a) = mp^r$  where  $r \geq 0$  and  $(m, p) = 1$ . Clearly  $m \equiv \pm 1$ , for otherwise, if  $q$  is any prime divisor of  $|m|$ , there is by Dirichlet's theorem a prime  $t$  for which  $(t, p) = (t, q) = 1$  and  $p^a t \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$ , and this leads to the absurdity that

$$1 = f(1) = f(p^a t) \equiv mp^r f(t) \pmod{q}.$$

We next show that for  $p$  fixed, the value of  $m$  is independent of  $a$ . Writing, for  $a > 0, b > 0$ ,  $f(p^a) = m_a p^{r_a}$ ;  $f(p^b) = m_b p^{r_b}$ ,  $d = |a - b|$ ,  $R = |r_a - r_b|$ , the relation  $f(p^a) \equiv f(p^b) \pmod{|p^a - p^b|}$  shows that  $r_a$  and  $r_b$  are both  $= 0$  or both  $> 0$ , and further either  $p^r m_a - m_b$  or  $m_a - p^R m_b$  is  $\equiv 0 \pmod{p^d - 1}$ . It follows that  $m_a = m_b$  for all  $a, b$  for which  $|a - b| > 2$ , and hence for all positive  $a$  and  $b$ .

Keep the prime  $p$  fixed. Corresponding to every prime  $q \nmid p$ , there is a prime  $t$  such that  $(t, p) = (t, q) = 1$  and  $pt \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} m_1^2 p^{2a_1} (f(t))^2 &= (f(pt))^2 \equiv (f(1))^2 = 1 \\ &\equiv f(p)f(t) \equiv f(p^2 t)f(t) = f(p^2)(f(t))^2 \\ &\equiv m_2 p^{a_2} (f(t))^2 \pmod{q}, \end{aligned}$$

so that for every prime  $q \nmid p$ ,

$$m_2 p^{a_2} - m_1^2 p^{2a_1} \equiv 0 \pmod{q}.$$

It follows that  $m_2 p^{a_2} = m_1^2 p^{2a_1}$ . Since we already know that  $m_1 = m_2$ , this shows that  $m_2 = m_1^2$  and hence  $m_1 = m_2 = 1$ .

We also have  $a_2 = 2a_1$ . If now we suppose  $a_n = na_1$  for an integer  $n \geq 1$  where  $f(p^n) = p^{a_n}$ , we have for all primes  $q \neq p$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} p^{a_{n+1}} (f(t))^{n+1} &= f(p^{n+1} t) (f(t))^n \\ &\equiv f(p^n)(f(t))^n = p^{na_1} (f(t))^n = (f(pt))^n \\ &\equiv 1 \equiv (f(pt))^{n+1} \equiv p^{(n+1)a_1} (f(t))^{n+1} \pmod{q}. \end{aligned}$$

This gives  $a_{n+1} = (n+1)a_1$  and proves by induction on  $k$  that  $a_k = ka_1$  for all  $k \geq 1$ .

To prove the theorem it only remains to show that if, for any two distinct primes  $p$  and  $q$ ,  $f(p) = p^a$  and  $f(q) = q^b$ , then  $b = a$ . Assuming, for definiteness,  $p > q$  and writing  $d = |a - b|$ , and  $N = p^{d+k}q - 1 > 1$ , where  $k$  is any integer  $\geq 1$ , we have  $p^{d+k}q \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ , giving

$$p^{a(d+k)}q^b = f(p^{d+k}q) \equiv f(1) = 1 \equiv p^{(d+k)a}q^a \pmod{N}.$$

Hence  $q^d \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ . Now  $0 \leq q^d - 1 < N$  so that  $d = 0$ , and the theorem follows.

3. Remarks. I. Property (1.2) is equivalent to

$$(3.1) \quad f(n+p^a) \equiv f(n) \pmod{p^a},$$

for  $a, n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ , and all primes  $p$ .

For, if  $p$  and  $q$  are distinct primes and  $a \geq 0, b \geq 0$ , we have, on using (3.1),

$$f(n) \equiv f(n+p^a) \equiv f(n+2p^a) \equiv f(n+3p^a) \equiv \dots \equiv f(n+p^a q^b) \pmod{p^a}$$

and similarly

$$f(n) \equiv f(n+p^a q^b) \pmod{q^b}.$$

Hence  $f(n) \equiv f(n+p^a q^b) \pmod{p^a q^b}$ . An easy induction process extends this property to (1.2). The reverse implication is trivial.

II. The theorem fails if the multiplicative property of  $f(n)$  is replaced by the property that  $f(1) = 1$  and  $f(mn) \geq f(m) f(n)$  for all  $m, n \geq 1$ . This is shown by the counter example  $f(n) = n^a (2n^a - 1)$  where  $a$  is any positive integer. It is of interest to know if one can formulate a property weaker than multiplicativity for which the theorem still holds.

In Memory of my Teacher, Professor K. Ananda Rau.

#### REFERENCES

1. J. Folkman, Private communication.
2. M. V. Subbarao, A Class of Arithmetical Equations, (to appear).

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