

## ON FRIENDLY-PAIRS OF ARITHMETIC FUNCTIONS

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1. In [1] it is shown that there exists a "friendly-pair" of multiplicative functions  $\{f, g\}$  such that

$$(1.1) \quad f(n^\alpha) = g(n), \quad g(n^\alpha) = f(n), \quad f(n)g(n) = 1$$

for a fixed integer  $\alpha \geq 2$ . It is clear that  $f$  and  $g$  must satisfy the functional relation,

$$(1.2) \quad F(n^{\alpha^2}) = F(n) \text{ for all natural numbers } n.$$

Hence, it is natural to examine whether pairs of functions  $\{f, g\}$ , not necessarily multiplicative, exist so that

$$(1.3) \quad f(n^\alpha) = g(n), \quad g(n^\beta) = f(n)$$

for a given pair  $\alpha, \beta \geq 1$ . Relation (1.3) implies that  $f$  and  $g$  must both satisfy the following functional equation where  $r = \alpha \cdot \beta$ .

$$(1.4) \quad F(n^r) = F(n) \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ (the set of all natural numbers).}$$

Conversely, if  $F$  satisfying (1.4) for some  $r$  exists, then for any factorization of  $r$  as  $\alpha \cdot \beta$  we could define

$$(1.5) \quad f(n) = F(n), \quad g(n) = F(n^\alpha) \text{ so that } g(n^\beta) = f(n)$$

and so  $f$  and  $g$  satisfy (1.3). N.B. If  $r$  is prime, then both  $f$  and  $g$  are the same as  $F$  defined by (1.4).

Thus, it suffices to look for arithmetic functions  $F$  that satisfy what may be called the "power-periodicity" expressed in (1.4).

2. A complete characterization of such a power-periodic function  $F$  is more straightforward than when  $F$  is required to be multiplicative: Given a natural number  $r > 1$ , define  $F(m)$  arbitrarily for every  $m$  that is not an  $r^{\text{th}}$  power of a natural number. Every natural number  $n$  that is an  $r^{\text{th}}$  power is uniquely expressible as

$$(2.1) \quad n = m^{r^i}, \quad m \text{ a non-}r^{\text{th}} \text{ power and } i \text{ a natural number.}$$

So  $F(n)$  with power-period  $r$  is easily characterized by its values at non- $r^{\text{th}}$  powers.

3. Suppose  $F$  is required to be multiplicative. Then (1.4) implies:

$$(3.1) \quad \prod_{p|n} F(p^{ra}) = \prod_{p|n} F(p^a) \text{ where } n = \prod p^a$$

in the standard form of unique factorization into powers of primes. Writing  $F(p^a)$  as  $G_p(a)$  and considering  $G$  as an arithmetic function of  $a$ , we are led to the following property of  $G$  that would suffice to ensure the power-periodicity of  $F$ .

Define a "multiplicatory-periodic" arithmetic function with period  $r$  by the relation

$$(3.2) \quad G(rn) = G(n) \text{ for all } n \text{ and a given integer } r > 1.$$

An infinity of such functions  $G$  exists. For we can define  $G(n)$  arbitrarily for every  $n$  that is not a multiple of  $r$ , and then every  $n$  that is a multiple of  $r$  can be uniquely expressed as

$$(3.3) \quad n = m \cdot r^i \text{ where } r \nmid m \text{ and } i \geq 1.$$

Taking a countable infinity of such functions  $G$  and labelling each of them with a unique prime number suffix  $p$ , set up a function  $F(n)$  defined as

$$(3.4) \quad F(n) = \prod_{p|n} G(a) \text{ when } n = \prod p \text{ in the standard form.}$$

It is easily found that this  $F$  satisfies (1.4).

4. We are, in turn, led to finding multiplicative functions that have a multiplicative-period as defined in (3.2). In such a case

$$(4.1) \quad \prod_p G(p^{a+i}) = \prod_p G(p^a), \quad n = \prod_p p^a, \quad r = \prod_p p^i,$$

where  $p$  runs through all the primes so that  $a, i \geq 0$ . Writing  $G(p^a)$  as  $H_p(a)$ , we see that a sufficient condition for (4.1) to hold is that  $H_p$  be periodic in  $a$  with period  $i$  (in the normal sense of periodicity). That is, for every prime  $p$  and the corresponding  $i$  such that

$$(4.2) \quad p^i | r, \quad p^{i+1} \nmid r$$

we should have

$$(4.3) \quad H_p(a+i) = H_p(a) \quad \forall a \in \mathbb{N}.$$

A function  $H_p(a)$  satisfying (4.2) and (4.3) can be easily constructed by (i) defining  $H_p(0)$  as an arbitrary function of the prime argument  $p$  and (ii) further defining arbitrary values for  $H(a)$  for the values of  $a$  in the interval  $0 < a < i$ , where  $i$  is the unique integer corresponding to  $p$  given by (4.2). These arbitrary values completely determine the values of  $H_p(a)$  for every prime  $p$  and every nonnegative integer  $a$ , in order that (4.2) and (4.3) hold. Hence, a function  $G$  defined by

$$(4.4) \quad G(n) = \prod_p H(a), \quad n = \prod_p p^a,$$

where  $p$  is a variable prime, is multiplicative and multiplicative-periodic with  $n$  as that period.

### 5. Special Solutions

The preceding general solution notwithstanding, the particular pairs of functions given in [1] are still of interest. They show how certain simple expressions of known arithmetic functions exhibit the power-periodic relation (1.4), and hence generate friendly-pairs.

The two instances given in [1] actually can be shown to be representatives of two classes of such arithmetic functions.

Write P-periodic for power-periodic, which is the property expressed by (1.4) and M-periodic for the multiplicative-periodic property expressed in (3.2).

#### Class I:

Consider the  $m^{\text{th}}$  root of unity,  $\omega = \exp(2\pi i/m)$  for a given  $m > 1$ . Obviously

$$(5.1) \quad k \equiv 1 \pmod{m} \Rightarrow \omega^{kr} = \omega^r.$$

That is,  $\omega^r$  as a function of  $r$  is M-periodic with  $k$  as an M-period. Construct the multiplicative  $f(n)$  defined by its values for powers of primes as  $f(p^r) = \omega^r$ . Clearly,  $f(n) = \omega^{\Omega(n)}$  where  $\Omega(n)$  is the total number of prime divisors, repetition reckoned, in the factorization of  $n$ . It is also clear that  $f(n)$  is P-periodic, with P-period  $k$ , i.e.,  $f(n^k) = f(n) \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

When  $k$  happens to be a square, say  $k = \alpha^2$ , we have

$$f(n^\alpha) = g(n), \quad g(n^\alpha) = f(n).$$

In the first friendly-pair given in [1],  $m$  is taken as  $\alpha + 1$  so that  $\alpha \equiv -1 \pmod{m}$ , so  $\omega^{\alpha r} = \omega^r$  and hence  $f(n)g(n) = 1$ .

**Class II:**

The concluding pair of functions given in [1], "friendly" except for the fact that they are not reciprocals of each other, is

$$(5.2) \quad f(n) = \sum_{dt^3=n} \mu(d); \quad g(n) = \sum_{d^2t^3=n} \mu(d)$$

so that

$$(5.3) \quad f(n^2) = g(n); \quad g(n^2) = f(n); \quad f(n)g(n) = 1 \text{ if } n \text{ is a cube} \\ = 0 \text{ if not.}$$

The summand  $\mu$  is the Möbius function. The first summation is over divisors  $d$  of  $n$  such that  $n/d$  is a perfect cube. The other summation is over the divisors  $d$  of  $n$  such that  $d^2|n$  and  $n/d^2$  is a perfect cube.

The general class, of which the given example turns out to be representative, is given below.

Take a multiplicative function  $c(n)$  that vanishes when  $n$  is divisible by an  $r^{\text{th}}$  power (for a fixed  $r$ ). There are infinitely many such functions, since  $c(p^\lambda)$  can be defined arbitrarily for every prime  $p$  and  $1 \leq \lambda \leq r - 1$ . Set

$$(5.4) \quad F(n) = \sum_{dt^r=n} c(d) \quad \text{and} \quad G(n) = \sum_{d^l t^r=n} c(d)$$

where  $r$  and  $c$  are as just assumed and  $l$  is any integer such that

$$\exists k: kl \equiv 1 \pmod{r}.$$

The summations are over divisors  $d$  of  $n$  such that  $n/d$  is an  $r^{\text{th}}$  power in the first case and  $d^l|n$  and  $n/d^l$  is an  $r^{\text{th}}$  power in the second case.

$F$  and  $G$  can be proved to be multiplicative. Define

$$(5.5) \quad T_r(n) = 1 \text{ if } n \text{ is an } r^{\text{th}} \text{ power} \\ = 0 \text{ if not.}$$

Observe that  $T_r(n)$  is multiplicative.  $F$  and  $G$  can now be written as divisor-convolution products.

$$(5.6) \quad F(n) = \sum_{d|n} c(d)T_r(n/d) \quad \text{and} \quad G(n) = \sum_{d|n} c(d^{1/l})T_l(d)T_r(n/d),$$

where, in the second summation,  $c$  is understood to be zero when  $d^{1/l}$  is not an integer. Such convolution products of multiplicative functions are multiplicative. Hence,  $F$  and  $G$  are multiplicative and are consequently characterized by their values for powers of primes. For every prime  $p \geq 2$  and  $\alpha \geq 1$ , we have, by virtue of (5.6),

$$(5.7) \quad F(p^\alpha) = \sum_{i=0}^{\text{Min}(r-1, \alpha)} c(p^i)T(p^{\alpha-i}),$$

where "Min" denotes the minimum value from among the arguments within the parentheses. By the nature of the function  $T_r$ , it is clear that all the terms but one on the right-hand side of (5.6) have to be zero. The result is that

$$(5.8) \quad F(p^\alpha) = c(p^{\alpha \bmod r}),$$

where " $\alpha \bmod r$ " stands for the remainder left when  $\alpha$  is divided by  $r$ .

If  $k$  and  $\ell$  are two integers such that  $k\ell \equiv 1 \pmod{r}$ , then

$$(5.9) \quad F(p^{k\ell\alpha}) = c(p^{k\ell\alpha \bmod r}) = c(p^{\alpha \bmod r})$$

which, by (5.8) =  $F(p^\alpha)$ .

Hence

$$(5.10) \quad F(n^{k\ell}) = \prod_{p|n} F(p^{k\ell\alpha}) \quad [\text{where } n = \prod p^\alpha] \\ = \prod F(p^\alpha) = F(n).$$

That is,  $F$  defined in (5.4) is P-periodic, with  $k\ell$  for a P-period. So, if we set  $F(n^k) = G^*(n)$ , then  $G^*(n^k) = F(n)$ . We prove below that  $G^*$  is the same as  $G$  defined in (5.4).

$$(5.11) \quad F(p^{k\alpha}) = \sum_{i=0}^{\text{Min}(r-1, k\alpha)} c(p^i) T_r(p^{k\alpha-i}).$$

Now note that

$$(5.12) \quad T_r(p^{k\alpha-i}) = T_r(p^{k(\alpha-\ell i)})$$

since the indices on both of the sides differ by a multiple of  $r$  and  $T_r$  is not affected thereby.

Using (5.11) and (5.12), we deduce

$$(5.13) \quad F(n^k) = \prod_p F(p^{k\alpha}) \quad \text{where } n = \prod p^\alpha \text{ in the standard form} \\ = \prod_p [T_r(p^{k\alpha}) + c(p)T_r(p^{k(\alpha-\ell)}) + c(p^2)T_r(p^{k(\alpha-2\ell)}) \\ + \dots \text{ until the index on } p \text{ becomes negative}] \\ = \sum_{d^k t^r = n} c(d) \quad (\text{multiplied out})$$

which =  $G(n)$  as defined.

## 6. Three Points and an Open Problem

Before concluding, we make three observations and indicate a promising problem.

**Note (i):** Pair-wise "friendliness" being found only on off-shoots of power-periodicity, one could study friendly-pairs defined on the basis of M-periodicity and normal periodicity also: Say

$$(6.1) \quad f(kn) = g(n), \quad g(\ell n) = f(n), \text{ so that} \\ f(k\ell n) = f(n) \quad \text{and} \quad g(k\ell n) = g(n);$$

$$(6.2) \quad f(n+k) = g(n), \quad g(n+\ell) = f(n), \text{ so that} \\ f(n+k+\ell) = f(n) \quad \text{and} \quad g(n+k+\ell) = g(n).$$

The former of these cases does not appear to be as trivial as the latter, as seen from the construction of M-periodic functions given earlier.

Note (ii): The definitions of P- and M-periodicities, leading to interesting consequences in the case of arithmetic functions, would seem to degenerate into trivialities in the case of functions of a continuous variable.

For instance, defining  $f(kx) = f(x)$  for all real  $x$  or  $f(x^k) = f(x)$  for all real  $x$  leads only to  $f$  being a constant, if  $f$  is to be continuous at zero in the first case and at one in the second case.

Note (iii): Why pairs only? one could ask for  $r$ -tuples of functions  $f_i$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq r - 1$ , satisfying the mutual relation.

$$(6.3) \quad f_i(n (\cdot) k_i) = f_{i+1 \bmod r}(n),$$

where  $(\cdot)$  stands for multiplication or "to the power of." Obviously, every  $f_i$  is " $(\cdot)$ "-periodic; with  $\prod_i k_i$  for a " $(\cdot)$ "-period.

Note (iv): In the case of normal periodicity it is well known that if  $k$  is a period then there is a divisor of  $k$  that is the minimal period (considering arithmetic functions), and a function cannot have more than one fundamental period. That is not true for M- and P-periodic arithmetic functions. It appears promising to study the set of integers

$$\{k^r \ell^s : r, s \in \mathbb{N} + \{0\}\}$$

for a given pair of natural numbers  $k$  and  $\ell$ .

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#### Reference

1. N. Balasubramanian & R. Sivaramakrishnan. "Friendly-Pairs of Multiplicative Functions." *Fibonacci Quarterly* 25.4 (1987):320-321.

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