

### Appendix 3 Alternative method of factorization

This is based on the idea that the properties of a multiplicative function are strongly dictated by the values on the primes. So given multiplicative  $G$  look through known functions to find, if it exists, a multiplicative function  $g$  satisfying  $g(p) = G(p)$  for all primes. Then we might think of  $G$  as a ‘perturbation’ of  $g$  and look for a multiplicative function  $f$  such that  $G = g * f$ . Note that on primes

$$\begin{aligned} G(p) &= (g * f)(p) = g(p)f(1) + g(1)f(p) \\ &= G(p) + f(p) \end{aligned}$$

since  $g(p) = G(p)$ . Hence  $f(p) = 0$  for all primes. So we can think of  $f$  being, in turn, a perturbation of the zero function,  $0(n) = 0$  for all  $n$  and thus  $f$  a ‘small’ function.

For an example consider  $Q_2$  (even though we already know its factorization). Because  $Q_2(p) = 1$  and  $1(p) = 1$  for all primes  $p$  that we may think that  $Q_2 = 1 * f$  for some ‘small’ function  $f$ .

**Important** If given  $F$  which you suspect can be written as  $1 * f$  for some ‘simpler’  $f$  then, by Möbius inversion,  $f = \mu * F$ . If further  $F$  is multiplicative then  $f$  will be also and you need only calculate the values of  $f$  on prime powers.

$$\begin{aligned} f(p^r) &= \sum_{d|p^r} \mu(d) F\left(\frac{p^r}{d}\right) = \sum_{0 \leq k \leq r} \mu(p^k) F(p^{r-k}) \\ &= \sum_{0 \leq k \leq 1} \mu(p^k) F(p^{r-k}) \quad \text{since } \mu(p^k) = 0 \text{ for } k \geq 2, \\ &= F(p^r) - F(p^{r-1}), \end{aligned} \tag{19}$$

for  $r \geq 1$ . We will use this often so needs to be remembered.

Since  $f$  is multiplicative we will have  $f(1) = 1$  and this need not be calculated. And when  $r = 1$ ,  $f(p^0) = f(1) = 1$  and so  $f(p) = F(p) - 1$ .

**Example 3.42** If  $Q_2 = 1 * f_2$  describe  $f_2$ .

**Solution** The function  $Q_2$  is multiplicative so, by (19), we have

$$\begin{aligned} f_2(p^r) &= Q_2(p^r) - Q_2(p^{r-1}) \\ &= \begin{cases} 0 - 0 & \text{if } r - 1 \geq 2 \\ 0 - 1 & \text{if } r - 1 = 1 \\ 1 - 1 & \text{if } r - 1 = 0 \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } r = 2, \\ 0 & \text{if } r \neq 2. \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, writing  $n = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \dots p_r^{a_r}$ , we find that

$$f_2(n) = \begin{cases} (-1)^r & \text{if } a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_r = 2, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

But  $a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_r = 2$  means that  $n = m^2$  with  $m$  square-free. But  $m$  square-free means that  $\mu(m) = (-1)^r = f_2(n)$ . And if  $n = m^2$  but  $m$  is not square-free then  $\mu(m) = 0 = f_2(n)$ . Hence

$$f_2(n) = \begin{cases} \mu(m) & \text{if } n = m^2, \text{ i.e. } n \text{ is a square,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

■

We may think of  $f_2$  as ‘small’ since  $f_2(p) = 0$  for all primes  $p$  and is thus a perturbation of the 0 function,  $0(n) = 0$  for all  $n$ .

**Notation** In fact in the notes we use  $\mu_2$  in place of  $f_2$ , since this better represents the definition of the function. Thus

$$Q_2 = 1 * \mu_2.$$

We can use the decomposition of  $Q_2$  to factor the Dirichlet series  $D_{Q_2}(s)$ .

**Example 3.43**

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{Q_2(n)}{n^s} = \frac{\zeta(s)}{\zeta(2s)},$$

for  $\text{Re } s > 1$ .

**Proof**

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{Q_2(n)}{n^s} &= D_{Q_2}(s) = D_{1*\mu_2}(s) \\ &= D_1(s) D_{\mu_2}(s) \quad \text{by (2)} \\ &= \zeta(s) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu_2(n)}{n^s} \\ &= \zeta(s) \sum_{\substack{n=1 \\ n=m^2}}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(m)}{n^s} \\ &= \zeta(s) \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(m)}{m^{2s}} \\ &= \frac{\zeta(s)}{\zeta(2s)}.\end{aligned}$$

And this is valid wherever the final Riemann zeta functions are all absolutely convergent, i.e.  $\text{Re } s > 1$ . ■

The method described in the notes turned this around; we first factor the Dirichlet Series to get the factorization of the arithmetic function.