A CONVOLUTION RELATED TO GOLOMB'S ROOT FUNCTION

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The root function $\gamma(n)$ is defined by Golomb for n>1 as the number of distinct representations $n=a^b$ with positive integers a and b. In this paper we define a convolution Vsuch that γ is the V-analog of the (Dirichlet) divisor function τ . The structure of the ring of arithmetic functions under addition and V is discussed. We compute and interpret Vanalogs of the Moebius function and Euler's Φ -function. Formulas and an algorithm for computing the number of distinct representations of an integer $n \ge 2$ in the form $n = a_1^{a_2}$, with a_i a positive integer, $i=1, \dots, k$, are given.

1. Introduction. Let Z denote the set of positive integers, let A denote the set of arithmetic functions (complex-valued functions with domain Z), and let F denote the set of elements of Z which are not kth powers of any positive integer for $k > 1(k \in Z)$. Note that $1 \notin F$. The divisor function τ can be defined as $\tau = \nu_0 * \nu_0$, where $\nu_0 \in A$, $\nu_0(n) = 1$ for all $n \in Z$, and * is the Dirichlet convolution defined for α , $\beta \in A$ by $(\alpha * \beta)(n) = \sum_{d \mid n} \alpha(d)\beta(n/d)$.

Any integer $n \ge 2$ having canonical form $n = p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_r^{e_r}$ is uniquely expressible as $n = m^g$, where g = g.c.d. (e_1, \dots, e_r) and $m \in F$. Golomb [1] defines the root function $\gamma(n)$ for $n \in Z$, n > 1, as the number of distinct representations $n = a^b$ with $a, b \in Z$; and he notes that $\gamma(n) = \tau(g)$ for $n = m^g$, $m \in F$, $g \in Z$. We let $\gamma(1)=1$.

For $\alpha, \beta \in A, n = m^g$, with $m \in F, g \in Z$, we define the G-convolution ("Golomb" convolution), \mathcal{V} , by

(1.1)
$$(\alpha \nabla \beta)(n) = \sum_{d \mid g} \alpha(m^d) \beta(m^{g/d}) .$$

We define $(\alpha \nabla \beta)(1) = 1$. This G-convolution is not of the Narkiewicz type [2, 4].

In §2, we show that $\{A, +, F\}$ (where $(\alpha + \beta)(n) = \alpha(n) + \beta(n)$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}$) is a commutative ring with unity and we characterize the units and the divisors of zero. We define a G-multiplicative function and note that the set of G-multiplicative units in $\{A, +, F\}$ forms an Abelian group under the operation F.

We choose to define V as in (1.1) because then $(\nu_0 V \nu_0)(n)$ equals $\gamma(n)$, the number of distinct representations of n as a^b , $a, b \in Z$;

this is an analog of $\tau(n) = (\nu_0 * \nu_0)(n)$ which is the number of distinct representations of n as $a \cdot b$, a, $b \in Z$. In §3, Γ -analogs of the Moebius function μ , the sum of divisors function σ , and Euler's ϕ -function are computed and interpreted.

In §4, we state formulas and an algorithm for computing the number of distinct representations of an integer $n \ge 2$ in the form

$$(1.2) n = a_1^{a_2} \cdot \frac{a_k}{a_1}$$

with $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}$, $i = 1, \dots, k$.

2. The ring $\{A, +, \nu\}$. First we state some properties related to the G-convolution.

THEOREM 2.1. (i) The system $\{A, +, V\}$ is a commutative ring with unity $\varepsilon_{\mathcal{F}}$ (where $\varepsilon_{\mathcal{F}}(n) = 1$ if n = 1 or $n \in F$, $\varepsilon_{\mathcal{F}}(n) = 0$ otherwise).

(ii) α is a unit in $\{A, +, \nabla\}$ if and only if $\alpha(1) \neq 0$ and $\alpha(m) \neq 0$ for all $m \in F$.

(iii) A nonzero arithmetic function α is a nonzerodivisor in $\{A, +, V\}$ if and only if $\alpha(1) \neq 0$ and for each $m \in F$ there is a positive integer g such that $\alpha(m^g) \neq 0$.

Proof. (i) The associativity of V follows from (1.1) and the associativity of the Dirichlet convolution *. The commutativity of V and the distributivity of V over + follow directly from the definition of the G-convolution. If $n = m^g$, $g \in Z$, $m \in F$, then $(\varepsilon_{\mathbb{P}} \Gamma \alpha)(n) = \sum_{d \mid g} \varepsilon_{\mathbb{P}}(m^d) \alpha(m^{g/d}) = \alpha(m^g) = \alpha(n); \quad (\varepsilon_{\mathbb{P}} \Gamma \alpha)(1) = \alpha(1).$ Therefore, $\varepsilon_{\mathbb{P}}$ is the unity element in $\{A, +, V\}$.

(ii) An element β in A such that $\alpha \Gamma \beta = \varepsilon_{\Gamma}$ is defined if and only if $\alpha(1)\beta(1)=1$, $\alpha(m)\beta(m)=1$ for $m \in F$, and $\sum_{d\mid g} \alpha(m^d)\beta(m^{g/d})=0$ for $m \in F$, $g \in Z$, g > 1. Thus, $\alpha(1) \neq 0$, $\alpha(m) \neq 0$ for $m \in F$, if and only if α is a unit in $\{A, +, \Gamma\}$.

(iii) If $\alpha(1) = 0$, define $\beta \in A$ by $\beta(1) = 1$, $\beta(n) = 0$ if n > 1. Then $(\alpha \nabla \beta)(n) = 0$ for every $n \in Z$ and α is a divisor of zero. If there exists an $m \in F$ such that $\alpha(m^g) = 0$ for every $g \in Z$, define $\beta \in A$ by $\beta(m) = 1$, $\beta(n) = 0$ for $n \in Z$, $n \neq m$. Then $(\alpha \nabla \beta)(n) = 0$ for all $n \in Z$ and α is a divisor of zero.

Assume that α is a zero divisor in $\{A, +, F\}$. Then there is some $\beta \in A$, $\beta \neq \overline{O}$ (where $\overline{O}(n)=0$ for all $n \in Z$), such that $\alpha F \beta = \overline{O}$. (1) If $\beta(1) \neq 0$ then $\alpha F \beta = \overline{O}$ implies that $\alpha(1)\beta(1) = 0$ and that $\alpha(1) = 0$. (2) If $\beta(1) = 0$, let n be the smallest positive integer such that $\beta(n) \neq 0$; if $n = m^*$, $m \in F$, $v \in Z$, we show that $\alpha(m^*) = 0$ for all $w \in Z$. First, $(\alpha F \beta)(m^*) = \sum_{d \mid v} \alpha(m^d)\beta(m^{*/d}) = 0$ implies that

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 $\alpha(m)\beta(m^{v}) = 0$ and that $\alpha(m) = 0$. And $(\alpha \Gamma \beta)(m^{2v}) = 0$ implies that $\alpha(m)\beta(m^{2v}) + \alpha(m^{2})\beta(m^{v}) = 0$ and so $\alpha(m^{2}) = 0$. Assume that $\alpha(m^{t}) = 0$, $1 \leq t < r$. Then $(\alpha \Gamma \beta)(m^{rv}) = \sum_{d \mid rv} \alpha(m^{d})\beta(m^{rv/d}) = 0$ implies that $\alpha(m^{r})\beta(m^{v}) = 0$ and $\alpha(m^{r}) = 0$. Therefore, $\alpha(m^{w}) = 0$ for all $w \in Z$ by induction. This completes the proof of the theorem.

We define $\alpha \in A$ to be G-multiplicative if $\alpha(1) = 1$, and whenever (a, b) = 1 and $m \in F$, $\alpha(m^{ab}) = \alpha(m^a)\alpha(m^b)$.

THEOREM 2.2. The set of G-multiplicative functions which are units in $\{A, +, \nabla\}$ form an abelian group under ∇ .

Proof. If α and β are G-multiplicative, then $\alpha \nabla \beta$ is also; the proof is similar to that of the multiplicativity of $\alpha * \beta$ given that α and β are multiplicative [3, p. 93]. It is then easy to verify the required group properties.

3. The functions $\sigma_{\mathbb{F}}$, $\mu_{\mathbb{F}}$, $\phi_{\mathbb{F}}$. As noted earlier, $\gamma = \nu_0 \mathbb{F} \nu_0$ is the \mathbb{F} -analog of $\tau = \nu_0 * \nu_0$. For example, $\gamma(64) = \gamma(2^6) = \tau(6) = 4$, and 64 can be represented in the form a^b for $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ in four ways: $(2^1)^6 = 2^6$, $(2^2)^3 = 4^3$, $(2^3)^2 = 8^2$, and $(2^6)^1 = 64^1$.

If we define σ_r by $\sigma_r = \nu_0 \nabla \nu_1$, then for $n = m^g$, $m \in F$, $g \in Z$, $\sigma_r(n) = \sum_{d \mid g} m^d$. So $\sigma_s(n)$ is the sum of the *a*'s such that $a^b = n$, whereas $\sigma(n) = (\nu_0 * \nu_1)(n)$ is the sum of the *a*'s such that $a \cdot b = n(a, b \in Z)$.

An analog $\mu_{\mathbb{F}}$ of the Moebius function μ (where μ satisfies $\nu_0 * \mu = \varepsilon$ with $\varepsilon(1) = 1$, $\varepsilon(n) = 0$ otherwise) is defined by $\nu_0 \mathbb{F} \mu_{\mathbb{F}} = \varepsilon_{\mathbb{F}}$. Then $\mu_{\mathbb{F}}(n) = 1$ if n = 1, $\mu_{\mathbb{F}}(n) = \mu(g)$ if $n = m^g$, $m \in F$, $g \in Z$.

Euler's ϕ -function, which satisfies $\phi = \mu * \nu_1$ (where $\nu_1(n) = n$ for all $n \in Z$), has an analog ϕ_{Γ} with $\phi_{\Gamma}(1) = 1$, $\phi_{\Gamma}(n) = (\mu_{\Gamma} \nabla \nu_1)(n) =$ $\sum_{d \mid g} \mu(d) m^{g/d}$ for $n = m^g$, $m \in F$, $g \in Z$. Thus, $\phi_{\Gamma}(m) = m$ for $m \notin F$ and $\phi_{\Gamma}(m^p) = m^p - m$ for $m \in F$, p prime. If $n = m^g$, $m \in F$, $g \in Z$, then $\phi_{\Gamma}(n)$ is n minus the number of positive integers less than or equal to n which are expressible as r^d , $r \in Z$, $d \mid g, d > 1$. Here, nand r^d have a common power d > 1 (since $n = a^d$ with $a = m^{g/d}$); this corresponds, in the computation of $\phi(n)$, to nonrelativity-prime n and m having a common divisor d > 1. To illustrate, $\phi_{\Gamma}(64) =$ $2^6 - 2^3 - 2^2 + 2^1 = 64 - 10 = 54$. The ten integers of the form r^d , $r \in Z$, $d \mid 6$, d > 1, $r^d \leq 64$, are

$$1^2$$
, 2^2 , 3^2 , 4^2 , 5^2 , 6^2 , 7^2 , $8^2 = 4^3 = 2^6$, 2^3 , 3^3 .

And, for example, 3^2 and $n = 8^2$ have common power 2, while 2^3 and $n = 4^3$ have common power 3.

It can be verified that $\gamma, \varepsilon_{\rm F}, \nu_{\rm o}$, and $\mu_{\rm F}$ are G-multiplicative functions whereas $\nu_{\rm i}, \sigma_{\rm F}$, and $\phi_{\rm F}$ are not.

If $n = m^g$, $m \in F$, $g \in Z$, then $\sigma_{\nu}(n) = 2n$ has no solutions. But if we define a G-perfect number $n = m^g$, $m \in F$, $g \in Z$, as one such that $\prod_{d \mid g} m^d = n^2$, then n is G-perfect if and only if g is perfect if and only if $(\nu_0 * \nu_1)(g) = 2g$.

4. Power representations of *n*. If $n = m^g$, $m \in F$, $g \in Z$, define $\rho \in A$ by $\rho(n) = g$; define $\rho(1) = 1$. Then $\gamma(n) = \tau(\rho(n)) = (\nu_0 \nabla \nu_0)(n) = ((\nu_0 * \nu_0) \circ \rho)(n)$ (where $(\alpha \circ \beta)(n) = \alpha(\beta(n))$). We note that $\mu_{\nabla}(n) = \mu(\rho(n))$ and $\varepsilon_{\mathcal{L}}(n) = \varepsilon(\rho(n))$.

Let $R_k(n)$ denote the number of distinct representations of $n = m^g$, $m \in F$, $g \in Z$, in the form given in (1.2). (Assume that $R_k(1) = 1$ for all $k \in Z$.) We have the following formulas.

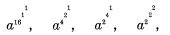
$$\begin{split} R_1(n) &= 1. \\ R_2(n) &= \gamma(n) = \tau(\rho(n)) = (\nu_0 \nabla \nu_0)(n) \ . \\ R_3(n) &= \sum_{d \mid g} \gamma(d) = \sum_{d \mid \rho(n)} \tau(\rho(d)) = (\nu_0 * (\tau \circ \rho))(\rho(n)) \\ &= ((\nu_0 * (\nu_0 \nabla \nu_0)) \circ \rho)(n) \ . \\ R_4(n) &= \sum_{d \mid g} \sum_{r \mid \rho(d)} \gamma(r) = \sum_{d \mid \rho(n)} \sum_{r \mid \rho(d)} \tau(\rho(r)) = (\nu_0 * ((\nu_0 * (\tau \circ \rho)) \circ \rho))(\rho(n)) \\ &= ((\nu_0 * ((\nu_0 * (\nu_0 \nabla \nu_0)) \circ \rho)) \circ \rho)(n) \ . \end{split}$$

Similar formulas can be written for $R_k(n)$ for any $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

If n > 1, then $R_k(n)$ can be computed as follows. List d_1 such that $d_1|g$, list $\rho(d_1)$, list d_2 such that $d_2|\rho(d_1)$, list $\rho(d_2)$, \cdots , list d_{k-2} such that $d_{k-2}|\rho(d_{k-3})$, list $\rho(d_{k-2})$; and $R_k(n)$ is the sum of the number of divisors of the entries in the final list.

For example, if $n = 20^{400}$, $g = \rho(n) = 2^4 \cdot 5^2$. For $d_1 | g, d_2 | \rho(d_1)$, $d_3 | \rho(d_2)$, we have these lists.

Then $R_3(20^{400}) = 2\tau(1) + \tau(2) + \tau(3) + \tau(4) + 5\tau(1) + \tau(2) + \tau(1) + \tau(2) + \tau(1) + \tau(2) = 22$. And $R_4(20^{400}) = 23$, $R_5(20^{400}) = 23$; in fact, $R_k(20^{400}) = 23$ for $k \ge 4$. There are four representations of $n = 20^{400}$ in the form given in (1.2) for k = 4 which correspond to $d_1 = 16$ (since $\tau(1) + \tau(1) + \tau(2) = 4$). They are



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