

## A NOTE ON CHARACTERIZING COMPLETELY MULTIPLICATIVE FUNCTIONS USING GENERALIZED MÖBIUS FUNCTIONS

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Dedicated to the memory of Professor Temba Shonhiwa

**ABSTRACT.** In 1997, Haukkanen showed that, if  $f$  is a completely multiplicative arithmetic function, then  $f^\alpha = \mu_{-\alpha}f$  for any real number  $\alpha$ , where  $\mu_\alpha$  is the Souriau-Hsu-Möbius function. In 2002, Laohakosol, Pabhapote and Wech-wiriyakul established that the converse holds (under certain conditions). In the present paper, we provide a very short and simple proof for this converse result using the ideas of Haukkanen from 1997.

**1. Introduction.** An *arithmetic function* is a complex-valued function defined on the set of positive integers  $\mathbf{Z}^+$ . Let  $\mathbf{A}$  denote the set of arithmetic functions. The *Dirichlet product* (or *convolution*) of  $f, g \in \mathbf{A}$ , denoted by  $f * g \in \mathbf{A}$ , is defined by

$$(1.1) \quad (f * g)(n) = \sum_{ab=n} f(a)g(b)$$

for all  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ , where the sum on the right-hand side of (1.1) runs over all ordered pairs  $(a, b)$  of positive integers satisfying  $ab = n$ . The *usual product* of  $f, g \in \mathbf{A}$ , denoted by  $fg \in \mathbf{A}$ , is defined by

$$(1.2) \quad (fg)(n) = f(n)g(n)$$

for all  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ .

An arithmetic function  $f$  with  $f(1) = 1$  is said to be *multiplicative* if  $f(mn) = f(m)f(n)$  for all  $m, n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$  with  $(m, n) = 1$ . Here, as usual,  $(m, n)$  denotes the greatest common divisor of  $m$  and  $n$ .

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A multiplicative function  $f$  is said to be *completely multiplicative* if  $f(mn) = f(m)f(n)$  for all  $m, n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ .

In 1966, Lambek [14] showed that  $f \in \mathbf{A}$  with  $f(1) \neq 0$  is completely multiplicative if and only if  $f$  *distributes* over every Dirichlet product; that is,  $f \in \mathbf{A}$  with  $f(1) \neq 0$  is completely multiplicative if and only if  $f(g * h) = fg * fh$  for all  $g, h \in \mathbf{A}$ .

Subsequently, several mathematicians showed interest in characterizing completely multiplicative functions involving distributivity. In 1970, Sivaramakrishnan [27] showed that a multiplicative function  $f$  is completely multiplicative if and only if  $f$  distributes over  $\varphi * 1$ , where  $\varphi$  is the Euler totient function and  $1$  denotes the constant function 1 defined by  $1(n) = 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ . In 1971, Carlitz [3] showed that  $f \in \mathbf{A}$  with  $f(1) \neq 0$  is completely multiplicative if and only if  $f$  distributes over  $1 * 1$ . In the same year, Apostol [1, Theorem 2] proved, among other results, that a multiplicative function  $f$  is completely multiplicative if and only if  $f^{-1} = \mu f$ , where  $\mu$  is the Möbius function and  $f^{-1}$  denotes the inverse of  $f$  with respect to the Dirichlet convolution  $*$ , or equivalently, a multiplicative function  $f$  is completely multiplicative if and only if  $f$  distributes over  $\mu * 1$ .

In 1973, Langford [19] obtained sufficient conditions on distributivity, which ensure the complete multiplicativity of an arithmetic function. His [19] results contain the results of Lambek [14], Sivaramakrishnan [27], Carlitz [3] and Apostol [1] as particular cases.

It is also interesting to note that there are certain other characterizations of completely multiplicative functions that appear in the literature. For example, Carroll [5] characterized completely multiplicative functions by using Rearick's [21] logarithmic operator; Haukkanen [10] characterized these functions by using Ivić's [12] extended von Mongoldt's function. It may be noted that Haukkanen [8] also characterized completely multiplicative functions by using the logarithmic operator of Carlitz and Subbarao [4]. Further, Ivić [13] found necessary and sufficient conditions for a multiplicative function to be completely multiplicative in terms of Ramanujan's sum. The results of Ivić [13] have been generalized by Redmond [23] and Haukkanen [7]. For further, recent papers on characterizations of completely multiplicative functions involving distributivity, logarithmic operators and extended von Mongoldt's function, we refer to [15, 16, 25, 26, 29].

For any real number  $\alpha$ , let  $\mu_\alpha$  denote the multiplicative function defined by  $\mu_\alpha(1) = 1$  and

$$(1.3) \quad \mu_\alpha(p^k) = (-1)^k \binom{\alpha}{k}$$

for all primes  $p$  and  $k \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ , where

$$(1.4) \quad \binom{\alpha}{k} = \frac{\alpha(\alpha - 1) \cdots (\alpha - k + 1)}{k!}.$$

The function  $\mu_\alpha$  has been studied by the authors in [2, 11], and it is called the generalized Möbius function. The authors in [18] refer to this Möbius function as the *Souriau-Hsu-Möbius function*, see [28]. Clearly,  $\mu_1 = \mu$ , the usual Möbius function,  $\mu_{-1} = 1$ , the constant function 1, and  $\mu_0 = e$ , the identity under the Dirichlet convolution, where  $e \in \mathbf{A}$  is defined by

$$(1.5) \quad e(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } n > 1. \end{cases}$$

A basic property of the function  $\mu_\alpha$  is

$$(1.6) \quad \mu_\alpha * \mu_\beta = \mu_{\alpha+\beta}$$

for all real numbers  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  (see [2]). It appears that Popovici [20] introduced and studied  $\mu_\alpha$  when  $\alpha$  is a positive integer (see also Sándor and Bege [24]).

In [6], among other results, Carroll and Gioia explicitly evaluated the  $r$ th roots of completely multiplicative functions. Surprisingly, Haukkanen [9] found in a simple way the value of  $f^\alpha$  for any completely multiplicative function  $f$ . He [9] proved that

$$(1.7) \quad f^\alpha = \mu_{-\alpha} f$$

for all real numbers  $\alpha$  (for the definition of  $f^\alpha$  we refer to Section 2 of the present paper). In 2002, the authors in [17] investigated the converse of (1.7). They [17] established the following interesting results.

**Theorem.** *Let  $f$  be a multiplicative function.*

(a) *Let  $\alpha \in \mathbf{R} \setminus \{0\}$  be fixed. Then  $f$  is completely multiplicative if and only if  $(\mu_\alpha f)^{-1} = \mu_{-\alpha} f$ , the inverse being under the Dirichlet convolution.*

(b) *Let  $\alpha \in \mathbf{R} \setminus \{0, 1\}$  be fixed. If  $f^\alpha = \mu_{-\alpha} f$  and if, in addition,  $f(p^{-\alpha-1}) = (f(p))^{-\alpha-1}$  for all primes  $p$  in the case  $\alpha$  is an even integer  $\leq -4$ , then  $f$  is completely multiplicative.*

The proofs of parts (a) and (b) in [17] involve large calculations in binomial coefficients and Rearick's [21] logarithmic operator. Also, the proof of part (b) is divided into many cases: integral and nonintegral etc.

As an easy consequence of the above theorem and the property  $(f^\alpha)^{-1} = f^{-\alpha}$  (see (2.13)), we note that for a fixed  $\alpha \in \mathbf{R} \setminus \{-1, 0\}$ , a multiplicative function  $f$  is completely multiplicative if and only if  $f^\alpha = (\mu_\alpha f)^{-1}$  and, in addition,  $f(p^{\alpha-1}) = (f(p))^{\alpha-1}$  for all primes  $p$  in the case where  $\alpha$  is an even integer  $\geq 4$ . This property has not previously been presented in the literature.

The purpose this note is to provide a more simple proof for the above theorem (see Section 3) without tedious calculations. This is accomplished by invoking a result of Langford [19] and an idea of Haukkanen [9].

In Section 2 we present preliminaries and in Section 3 the proof of the theorem.

**2. Preliminaries.** Let

$$(2.1) \quad \mathbf{A}_1 = \{f \in \mathbf{A} : f(1) \in \mathbf{R}\}$$

and

$$(2.2) \quad P' = \{f \in \mathbf{A}_1 : f(1) > 0\}.$$

Let  $L : (P', *) \rightarrow (\mathbf{A}_1, +)$  be defined by

$$(2.3) \quad (Lf)(1) = \log f(1),$$

and, for  $n > 1$ ,

$$(2.4) \quad (Lf)(n) = \sum_{ab=n} f(a)(\log a)f^{-1}(b),$$

the inverse of  $f$  being with respect to the Dirichlet convolution  $*$ . In (2.3),  $\log$  denotes the usual real logarithm function.

Rearick [21] showed that the operator  $L$  is an isomorphism. Let  $E$  denote the inverse of  $L$ . For  $f \in P'$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbf{R}$ , Rearick [21] defined  $f^\alpha$  by

$$(2.5) \quad f^\alpha = E(\alpha Lf).$$

On the other hand, for  $r \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ ,  $f^r$  is defined by  $f^1 = f$  and  $f^r = f^{r-1} * f$  if  $r \geq 2$ . As usual,  $f^0 = e$ . Further,  $f^{-r} = (f^{-1})^r$  if  $r \geq 1$ . It is not difficult to see that, for any integer  $r$ ,  $f^r$  coincides with  $f^\alpha$  defined by (2.5) when  $\alpha = r$ .

Let  $\text{Log} : (P', *) \rightarrow (\mathbf{A}_1, +)$  be defined by

$$(2.6) \quad (\text{Log } f)(1) = \log f(1),$$

and, for  $n > 1$ ,

$$(2.7) \quad (\text{Log } f)(n) = \frac{1}{\log n} \sum_{ab=n} f(a)(\log a)f^{-1}(b).$$

From (2.4) it is clear that  $Lf(n) = (\log n)\text{Log } f(n)$  if  $n > 1$ . Thus,  $\text{Log}$  is also an isomorphism. Let  $\text{Exp}$  denote the inverse of the isomorphism  $\text{Log}$ . Then  $f^\alpha$  can also be defined by

$$(2.8) \quad f^\alpha = \text{Exp}(\alpha \text{Log } f),$$

where  $\alpha \in \mathbf{R}$  and  $f \in P'$  (see [22]).

It has been shown by Rearick [22, Theorem 6] that  $\text{Exp}(\alpha \text{Log } f)$  and  $E(\alpha Lf)$  are the same. Therefore,  $f^\alpha$  can either be defined by (2.5) or (2.8). The latter definition (that is, (2.8)) has been used by Haukkanen [9] to establish (1.7). The advantage in using (2.8) lies in the fact that the  $\text{Exp}$  operator can be written inductively (see [22]):

For  $f \in \mathbf{A}_1$ ,

$$(2.9) \quad \text{Exp } f(1) = \exp f(1),$$

and, for  $n > 1$ ,

$$(2.10) \quad \text{Exp } f(n) = \frac{1}{\log n} \sum_{\substack{ab=n \\ a < n}} \text{Exp } f(a)(\log b)f(b).$$

In (2.9),  $\exp$  denotes the usual real exponential function.

We have

$$(2.11) \quad f^\alpha(1) = (f(1))^\alpha,$$

and, for  $n > 1$ ,

$$(2.12) \quad f^\alpha(n) = \frac{\alpha}{\log n} \sum_{\substack{ab=n \\ a < n}} f^\alpha(a)(\log b)\text{Log } f(b)$$

for all  $f \in P'$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbf{R}$ . Note that (2.12) is obtained by replacing  $f$  with  $\alpha \text{Log } f$  in (2.10). From the property  $(\text{Exp } g) * (\text{Exp } h) = \text{Exp}(g + h)$  for all  $g, h \in \mathbf{A}_1$ , it follows that  $f^\alpha * f^{-\alpha} = e$ , that is,

$$(2.13) \quad (f^\alpha)^{-1} = f^{-\alpha}$$

for all  $f \in P'$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbf{R}$ .

**Definition 2.1** (Langford [19]). The Dirichlet product  $g * h$  of  $g, h \in \mathbf{A}$  is said to be *partially discriminative* if, for any prime power  $p^k > 1$ ,  $(g * h)(p^k) = g(1)h(p^k) + h(1)g(p^k)$  implies that  $k = 1$ .

**Proposition 2.1** (Langford [19, Theorem 2]). *A multiplicative function  $f \in \mathcal{A}$  is completely multiplicative if and only if  $f$  distributes over a partially discriminative product.*

**3. Proof of Theorem.** (a) Let  $\alpha \in \mathbf{R} \setminus \{0\}$  be fixed. We have  $(\mu_\alpha f)^{-1} = \mu_{-\alpha} f$  if and only if  $\mu_\alpha f * \mu_{-\alpha} f = e$ . The second equality is equivalent to saying that  $f$  distributes over the Dirichlet product  $\mu_\alpha * \mu_{-\alpha}$ . This is a partially discriminative product according to Definition 2.1. In fact, for any prime  $p$  and positive integer  $k \geq 2$ ,

$$(\mu_\alpha * \mu_{-\alpha})(p^k) = 0$$

and

$$\mu_\alpha(p^k) + \mu_{-\alpha}(p^k) = (-1)^k \left( \binom{\alpha}{k} + \binom{-\alpha}{k} \right) \neq 0,$$

since  $\alpha \in \mathbf{R} \setminus \{0\}$ . Therefore, by Proposition 2.1,  $f$  is completely multiplicative if and only if  $(\mu_\alpha f)^{-1} = \mu_{-\alpha} f$ .

(b) Let  $\alpha \in \mathbf{R} \setminus \{0, 1\}$  be fixed. We assume that  $f^\alpha = \mu_{-\alpha} f$  and, in addition, that  $f(p^{-\alpha-1}) = (f(p))^{-\alpha-1}$  for all primes  $p$  in the case  $\alpha$  is an even integer  $\leq -4$ , and we show that  $f$  is completely multiplicative.

Since  $f$  is multiplicative, it suffices to show that

$$(3.1) \quad f(p^s) = (f(p))^s$$

for all primes  $p$  and  $s \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ .

Let  $p$  be an arbitrary but fixed prime. We proceed by induction on  $s$  to show that (3.1) holds. Clearly (3.1) holds when  $s = 1$ . We assume that (3.1) holds for all  $s$  with  $1 \leq s \leq k - 1$ , where  $k \geq 2$ , and we show that (3.1) holds for  $s = k$ .

Let  $r$  be an integer  $\geq 2$ . From (1.1) it is clear that

$$(3.2) \quad f^r(p^k) = \sum_{a_1+a_2+\dots+a_r=k} f(p^{a_1})f(p^{a_2}) \cdots f(p^{a_r}),$$

where the summation on the right-hand side of (3.2) is over all  $r$ -tuples  $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_r)$  of nonnegative integers, whose sum is  $k$ . Using the induction hypothesis, we obtain

$$(3.3) \quad \begin{aligned} f^r(p^k) &= rf(p^k) + (f(p))^k \sum_{\substack{a_1+a_2+\dots+a_r=k \\ a_i < k \\ 1 \leq i \leq r}} 1 \\ &= rf(p^k) + (f(p))^k \Sigma', \end{aligned}$$

say. (Compare with [16, equation (3.3)].) In particular (for  $f \equiv 1$ ),

$$(3.4) \quad \mu_{-r}(p^k) = 1^r(p^k) = \sum_{a_1+a_2+\dots+a_r=k} 1 = r + \Sigma'.$$

Substituting (3.4) into (3.3), we obtain

$$(3.5) \quad f^r(p^k) = rf(p^k) + (f(p))^k \{ \mu_{-r}(p^k) - r \}.$$

We now prove that, for any real number  $\beta$ ,

$$(3.6) \quad f^\beta(p^k) = \beta f(p^k) + (f(p))^k \{ \mu_{-\beta}(p^k) - \beta \}.$$

We use the idea of Haukkanen [9]. From (2.11) and (2.12), it follows by induction on  $n$  that  $f^\beta(n)$  is a polynomial in  $\beta$ . Thus, for each fixed prime  $p$  and  $k \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ , both sides of (3.6) are polynomials in  $\beta$ . By (3.5) it follows that these polynomials are satisfied by all integers  $r \geq 2$ . Thus (3.6) holds for all real  $\beta$ .

By assumption,  $f^\alpha = \mu_{-\alpha} f$ . Therefore, using (3.6) with  $\beta = \alpha$  we obtain

$$\{\mu_{-\alpha}(p^k) - \alpha\} f(p^k) = \{\mu_{-\alpha}(p^k) - \alpha\} (f(p))^k$$

or

$$\left\{(-1)^k \binom{-\alpha}{k} - \alpha\right\} f(p^k) = \left\{(-1)^k \binom{-\alpha}{k} - \alpha\right\} (f(p))^k.$$

It is not difficult to show that, for  $\alpha \neq 0, 1$ ,

$$(-1)^k \binom{-\alpha}{k} - \alpha = 0$$

if and only if  $k$  is odd and  $k = -\alpha - 1$ . Thus  $f(p^k) = (f(p))^k$ , that is, (3.1) holds for  $s = k$ . Note that if  $k$  is odd and  $k = -\alpha - 1$ , then  $f(p^k) = (f(p))^k$  is the additional assumption in (b). This completes the proof of part (b).

The proof of the theorem is complete.

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