# SQUARE-REDUCED RESIDUE SYSTEMS (MOD r) AND RELATED ARITHMETICAL FUNCTIONS 

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#### Abstract

We define a square-reduced residue system (mod $r$ ) as the set of integers $a(\bmod r)$ such that the greatest common divisor of $a$ and $r$, denoted by ( $a, r$ ), is a perfect square $\geq 1$ and contained in a residue system $(\bmod r)$. This leads to a Class-division of integers $(\bmod r)$ based on the 'square-free' divisors of $r$. The number of elements in a square-reduced residue system $(\bmod r)$ is denoted by $b(r)$. It is shown that


(1) $\quad b(r)=\sum_{d \mid r} \lambda(r / d) d$, where $\lambda(r)$ is Liouville's function.

$$
\begin{equation*}
b(n) b(r)=\sum_{d \mid(n, r)} b\left(n r / d^{2}\right) d \lambda(d) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

In view of (2), $b(r)$ is said to be 'specially multiplicative'. The exponential sum associated with a square-reduced residue system $(\bmod r)$ is defined by

$$
B(n, r)=\sum_{\substack{h(\text { mod } r) \\(h, r)=a \\ \text { square }}} \exp (2 \pi i h n / r)
$$

where the summation is over a square-reduced residue system $(\bmod r)$.
$B(n, r)$ belongs to a new class of multiplicative functions known as 'Quasi-symmetric functions' and

$$
\begin{equation*}
B(n, r)=\sum_{d \mid(n, r)} \lambda(r / d) d=\lambda(r / g) b(g) ; \quad g=(n, r) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

As an application, the $\operatorname{sum} \sum_{(a, r)=\mathrm{a} \text { square }}^{a(\bmod )}(a-1, r)$ is considered in terms of the Cauchy-composition of even functions $(\bmod r)$. It is found to be multiplicative in $r$. The evaluation of the above sum gives an identity involving Pillai's arithmetic function

$$
\beta(r)=\sum_{a(\bmod r)}(a, r) \text { and } b(r)
$$

1. Introduction. It is well-known that Euler's function $\phi(r)$ represents the number of elements in a reduced-residue system $(\bmod r)$. In [1], Eckford Cohen obtains the unitary analogue of $\phi(r)$, by defining a semi-reduced residue system $(\bmod r)$. The notion of the 'unitary divisor' plays a major role in the derivation of identities connected with the analogue $C^{*}(n, r)$ [1] of Ramanujan's $\operatorname{Sum} C(n, r)[5, \S 5.6]$.

In this paper, we introduce a third subset of the residue system $S(\bmod r)$ which leads to an interesting analogue of $C(n, r)$ having certain special properties not possessed by either $C(n, r)$ or $C^{*}(n, r)$. The counter-part of the 'unitary divisor' in this case would be the 'square-free' divisor.

We define a square-reduced residue system $(\bmod r)$ as follows: For $r \geq 1$, the set $K$ of integers $a(\bmod r)$ such that the greatest common divisor of $a$ and $r$ denoted by $(a, r)$ is a square $\geq 1$ and contained in a residue system $S(\bmod r)$ will be designated "the square-reduced residue system $(\bmod r)$ " contained in $S$. If $S$ consists of the integers $1,2,3, \ldots, r$; then $K$ will be called a least positive square-reduced residue system $(\bmod r)$. The number of elements in a squarereduced residue system $(\bmod r)$ is denoted by $b(r)$.

It may be shown that if $f(r)$ is any arithmetic function, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{a(\bmod r)} f((a, r))=\sum_{d \mid r} f(d) \phi(r / d) \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular, $\beta(r)=\sum_{a(\bmod r)}(a, r)[10]$ has the representation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta(r)=\sum_{d \mid r} d \phi(r / d) \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

If

$$
\varepsilon(r)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
1, \text { if } r \text { is a perfect square }  \tag{1.3}\\
0, \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right.
$$

then $b(r)$ representing the number of integers $a(\bmod r)$ such that $(a, r)$ is a square, may be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
b(r)=\sum_{d \mid r} \varepsilon(d) \phi(r / d)=\sum_{t D^{2}=r} \phi(t) \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The proposed analogue of $C(n, r)$ is the function $B(n, r)$ defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
B(n, r)=\sum_{\substack{h(\bmod r) \\(h, r)=\mathbf{a} \text { square }}} \exp (2 \Pi i h n / r) \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

the summation extending over a square-reduced residue system ( $\bmod r$ ). Among the applications of the function $b(r)$, we prove in $\S 6$ the following identity:
For $r>1$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{\substack{a(\text { mod } r) \\(a, r)=\mathrm{a} \text { square }}}(a-1, r)=\Pi\left\{\beta\left(p_{i}^{a_{i}}\right)-b\left(p_{i^{a^{i}-1}}\right)\right\} \tag{1.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $r=\Pi p_{i}^{a_{i}}, p_{i}$ being distinct primes and $a_{i} \geq 1$.
2. Preliminaries. An arithmetic function $f(r)$ is said to be multiplicative in $r$, if

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(r) f\left(r^{\prime}\right)=f\left(r r^{\prime}\right) \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

whenever $\left(r, r^{\prime}\right)=1 . f$ is said to be completely multiplicative if (2.1) holds for all pairs of numbers $r, r^{\prime}$.

The Dirichlet Convolution of two functions $f(r)$ and $g(r)$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
(f \cdot g)(r)=\sum_{d \mid r} f(d) g(r / d) \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $d$ runs through the divisors of $r$. It is known that the set $A$ of arithmetic functions $f$ for which $f(1)$ is not equal to zero, forms an abelian group under Dirichlet Convolution with identity element $e_{0}(r)=[1 / r]$, where $[x]$ denotes the greatest integer not greater than $x$. The Dirichlet inverse of $f(r)$ when it exists, is written as $f^{-1}(r)$. We need the following elementary functions:

$$
\begin{gather*}
e(r)=1, \quad r \geq 1  \tag{2.3}\\
I(r)=r . \tag{2.4}
\end{gather*}
$$

$$
\mu(r)=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
1, & \text { if } \quad r=1  \tag{2.5}\\
0, & \text { if } & a^{2} \mid r, \quad a>1 \\
(-1)^{k}, & \text { if } \quad r=p_{1} p_{2} \cdots p_{k}\left(p_{i} \text { being distinct primes }\right)
\end{array}\right.
$$

It may be easily verified that $\mu(r)=e^{-1}(r)$. Further,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \phi(r)=\left(I \cdot e^{-1}\right)(r)  \tag{2.6}\\
& \lambda(r)=(-1)^{\Omega(r)} \tag{2.7}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\Omega(r)$ represents the total number of prime factors of $r$ (each being counted according to its multiplicity)

In terms of $\lambda(r), \varepsilon(r)(1.3)$ may be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varepsilon(r)=(\lambda \cdot e)(r) \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

If

$$
\delta(r)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
1, \text { whenever } r \text { is square-free } \\
0, \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right.
$$

we note that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta(r)=\lambda^{-1}(r) \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

This leads to the following Inversion Formula:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { If } f(r) \text { is such that } \sum_{\substack{t \mid r \\ t \text { square-free }}} f(r / t)=g(r) \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

then

$$
f(r)=(g \cdot \lambda)(r)=\sum_{d \mid r} g(d) \lambda(r / d)
$$

If $\Theta(r)$ denotes the number of square-free divisors (including unity) of $r$, it is known that

$$
\Theta(r)=2^{\omega(r)}
$$

where $\omega(r)$ is the number of distinct prime factors of $r$. Also, as

$$
\Theta(r)=\sum_{\substack{t \mid r \\ t \text { square-free }}} e(r / t)
$$

we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Theta(r)=(e \cdot \delta)(r) \tag{2.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $g(r)$ be a completely multiplicative function. If a multiplicative function $f$ is such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(n) f(r)=\sum_{d \mid(n, r)} f\left(n r / d^{2}\right) g(d) \tag{2.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the summation extends over all common divisors $d$ of $n, r ; f$ is said to be specially multiplicative [8]. It is shown [8] that a specially multiplicative function $f(r)$ is the Dirichlet product of two completely multiplicative functions.

Next, we give some relevant results concerning arithmetic functions of two variables say $n, r$.

An arithmetic function $f(n, r)$ is said to be multiplicative in both the variables $n, r$ if

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(n, r) f\left(n^{\prime}, r^{\prime}\right)=f\left(n n^{\prime}, r r^{\prime}\right) \tag{2.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

whenever $\left(n r, n^{\prime} r^{\prime}\right)=1$. A multiplicative function $f(n, r)$ is determined if the values of $f\left(p^{b}, p^{a}\right)$ are known; $a \geq 0, b \geq 0 ; p$ being a prime. It is obvious that $f(1,1)=1$. Also, $f(1, r)$ is multiplicative in $r$ and $f(n, 1)$ is multiplicative in $n$.

An arithmetic function $f(n, r)$ is said to be an 'even function of $n(\bmod r)$ ' if $f(n, r)=f((n, r), r)$ for all $n$ and $r \geq 1$. Here, we assume $n \geq 1$. It is shown [2, Theorem 1] that $f(n, r)$ is even $(\bmod r)$ if and only if it possesses a Fourier expansion of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(n, r)=\sum_{d \mid r} \alpha(d, r) C(n, d) \tag{2.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $C(n, r)$ is Ramanujan's Sum and $\alpha(d, r)$ is determined by the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha(d, r)=\frac{1}{r} \sum_{s \mid r} f(s, r) C(r / d, r / s) \tag{2.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

The Cauchy-composition $(\bmod r)[4]$ of two even functions $f$ and $g$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(n, r)=\sum_{n=a+b(\bmod r)} f(a, r) g(b, r) \tag{2.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

the summation in $(2.16)$ extending over $a, b(\bmod r)$ such that $n \equiv a+b(\bmod r)$. If $f(n, r)$ has the representation (2.14) and

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(n, r)=\sum_{\left.d\right|_{r}} \beta(d, r) C(n, d) \tag{2.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

then the Cauchy-product $h$ of $f$ and $g$ is given [4, Theroem 1] by

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(n, r)=r \sum_{d \mid r} \alpha(d, r) \beta(d, r) C(n, d) \tag{2.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is proved in [9, Theorem 3.2] that if $f$ and $g$ are multiplicative in the sense of (2.13), so is their Cauchy-product.
3. Properties of $\boldsymbol{b}(\boldsymbol{r})$. We first observe that any positive integer $a \leq r$ can be uniquely represented in the form $a=t x^{2}$, where $t$ is a square-free divisor of $r$ and $x^{2}$ is contained in a least positive square-reduced residue system $(\bmod r / t)$. Of course, if $a$ is a square-free divisor of $r$, we take $x^{2}=1$. Now, $\varepsilon(r)(1.3)$ and $\delta(r)(2.9)$ are multiplicative in $r$. That is, $\varepsilon(1)=1$, where 1 is treated as a perfect square. At the same time $\delta(1)=1$, where 1 is treated as square-free. Therefore, we make a convention that 1 is to be considered as both 'squarefree' and 'square-ful'. In other words, 1 is included in the set of square-free divisors of $r$ and simultaneously, as $(1, r)=1^{2}=1,1$ is included in the set of integers $a(\bmod r)$ such that $(a, r)$ is a square.

If $a=t x^{2}$, where $t$ is a square-free divisor of $r,(a, r)=\left(t x^{2}, r\right)=t\left(x^{2}, r / t\right)$. For fixed $t,(a, r)=t$ will mean $\left(x^{2}, r / t\right)$ is a square including unity. Therefore, the number of integers $a(\bmod r)$ such that $(a, r)=t$, a fixed square-free divisor of $r$ is precisely $b(r / t)$. This idea is manifested in the following
3.1 Theorem. The integers $t x^{2}$, where $t$ runs through the square-free divisors of $r$ and for each $t, x^{2}$ ranges over a square-reduced residue system ( $\bmod r / t$ ) constitute a residue system $(\bmod r)$.

Proof. Using (1.4)

$$
\begin{align*}
b(r) & =(\varepsilon \cdot \phi)(r) \\
& =\left(\varepsilon \cdot\left(I \cdot e^{-1}\right)(r) \quad \text { by } \quad(2.6)\right.  \tag{2.6}\\
& =\left(\left(\varepsilon \cdot e^{-1}\right) \cdot I\right)(r)
\end{align*}
$$

As, $(\lambda \cdot e)(r)=\varepsilon(r)(2.8)$ we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
b(r) & =\left(\left(\lambda \cdot e \cdot e^{-1}\right) \cdot I\right)(r) \\
& =\left(\lambda \cdot e_{0} \cdot I\right)(r) \\
& =(\lambda \cdot I)(r)
\end{aligned}
$$

Or,

$$
\left(b \cdot \lambda^{-1}\right)(r)=I(r)
$$

But, $\lambda^{-1}(r)=\delta(r)$ (2.9). Therefore,

$$
\sum_{\substack{t \mid r \\ t \text { square-free }}} b(r / t)=r
$$

Hence, as $t$ runs through the square-free divisors of $r$ including unity, the integers $t x^{2}$ such that $x^{2}$ ranges over a square-reduced residue system $(\bmod r / t)$ will exhaust the residue system $(\bmod r)$.

Corollaries.
(3.1.1) The function $b(r)$ is multiplicative in $r$ and $b(r)=(I \cdot \lambda)(r)$.
(3.1.2) $b(r)$ is specially multiplicative in the sense of (2.12).

For, $b(r)$ is the Dirichlet product of the two completely multiplicative functions $I(r)$ and $\lambda(r)$. Therefore, by [8, Theorem 3.2] (3.1.2) follows.

$$
\begin{equation*}
b(n) b(r)=\sum_{d \mid(n, r)} b\left(n r / d^{2}\right) d \lambda(d) \tag{3.1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof of (3.1.3). As $b(r)=(I \cdot \lambda)(r)$, the completely multiplicative function $g(r)$ associated with $b(r)$ is given [8, Theorem 3.2] by $g(r)=I(r) \lambda(r)$. So, (3.1.3) is deduced from (2.12) with $f(r)=b(r)$ and $g(r)=I(r) \lambda(r)$.
3.2 Theorem. If $f(r)$ is any arithmetic function, then

$$
\sum_{\substack{a(\text { mod } r) \\(a, r)=\mathbf{a} \text { square }}} f((a, r))=\sum_{\substack{t \mid r \\ t \text { square-free }}} f(t) b(r / t)
$$

Proof is omitted as it is a direct consequence of Theorem 3.1.

Corollary.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{\substack{a(\text { mod } r) \\(a, r)=a \text { square }}}(a, r)=\sum_{d \mid r} d \Theta(d) \lambda(r / d) \tag{3.2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\Theta(r)$ is the number of square-free divisors of $r$.

Proof of (3.2.1). Using Theorem 3.2, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{\substack{a(\bmod r) \\
(a, r)=\text { a square }}}(a, r) & =\sum_{\substack{t \mid r \\
t \text { square-free }}} t b(r / t) \\
& =(I \delta, b)(r) \\
& =(I \delta \cdot(I \cdot \lambda))(r), \text { by }(3.1 .1) \\
& =(I(\delta \cdot e) \cdot \lambda)(r) \\
& =(I \Theta \cdot \lambda)(r), \quad \text { as } \quad(\delta \cdot e)(r)=\Theta(r), \text { by }(2.11)
\end{aligned}
$$

This yields (3.2.1).
3.3 Theorem. If $\sigma(r)$ denotes the sum of the divisors of $r$, then

$$
\sum_{d \mid r} b(r / d) \Theta(d)=\sigma(r)
$$

where $\Theta(r)$ is as given in (3.2.1)

## Proof.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{d \mid r} b(r / d) \Theta(d) & =(b \cdot \Theta)(r) \\
& =((I \cdot \lambda) \cdot(\delta \cdot e))(r) \\
& =(I \cdot(\lambda \cdot \delta) \cdot e)(r) \\
& =\left(I \cdot e_{0} \cdot e\right)(r) \text { by }(2.9) \\
& =(I \cdot e)(r) \\
& =\sigma(r) .
\end{aligned}
$$

4. Properties of $\boldsymbol{B}(\boldsymbol{n}, \boldsymbol{r})$. The function $B(n, r)$ defined in (1.5) is independent of the residue system in the summation. It is evident that if $x^{2}$ ranges over a square-reduced residue system $(\bmod r)$ and $(a, r)=1$, then $a x^{2}$ also ranges over a square-reduced residue system $(\bmod r)$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
B(a n, r)=B(n, r) \quad \text { whenever } \quad(a, r)=1 . \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Also,

$$
\begin{equation*}
B(r, r)=b(r) \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, we give below the properties of $B(n, r)$.
4.3 Theorem.

$$
\sum_{\substack{t \mid r \\
\text { square-free }}} B(n, r / t)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
r, \text { if } r \mid n \\
0, \text { otherwise. }
\end{array}\right.
$$

Proof. Let

$$
\eta(n, r)=\sum_{h(\bmod r)}, \exp (2 \Pi i h n / r)
$$

It is clear that $\eta(n, r)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}r, \text { if } r \mid n \\ 0, \text { otherwise } .\end{array}\right.$

From Theorem 3.1, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\eta(n, r) & =\sum_{\substack{t^{\prime}=r \\
t \text { square-free }}} \sum_{\substack{x^{2}\left(x^{2}, r / t\right)=\mathbf{a} \text { square }}} \exp \left(\frac{2 \Pi i x^{2} n}{r / t}\right) \\
& =\sum_{\substack{t \mid r \\
t \text { square-free }}} B(n, r / t)
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence the theorem.
Corollary.

$$
\begin{equation*}
B(1, r)=\lambda(r) \tag{4.3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

For,

$$
\sum_{\substack{t \mid r \\ t \text { square-free }}} B(1, r / t)=e_{0}(r) .
$$

Therefore, by Inversion formula (2.10) $B(1, r)=\left(e_{0} \cdot \lambda\right)(r)=\lambda(r)$.
4.4 Theorem.

$$
B(n, r)=\sum_{d \mid(n, r)} \lambda(r / d) d
$$

Proof. From Theorem 4.3 and by applying Inversion formula (2.10) we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
B(n, r) & =\sum_{d \mid r} \eta(n, d) \lambda(r / d) \\
& =\sum_{d|r, d| n} d \lambda(r / d) \\
& =\sum_{d \mid(n, r)} \lambda(r / d) d
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark. The relation between $C(n, r)$ and $B(n, r)$ is

$$
\sum_{d D^{2}=r} C(n, d)=B(n, r) \quad[3, \text { Corollary } 4]
$$

4.5 Theorem. $B(n, r)$ is multiplicative in $r$.

Proof. Let $\left(r, r^{\prime}\right)=1$. If $x$ and $x^{\prime}$ range over residue systems $(\bmod r)$ and $\left(\bmod r^{\prime}\right)$ respectively, then $x r^{\prime}+x^{\prime} r$ ranges over a residue system (mod $\left.r r^{\prime}\right)$. Suppose $\left(x r^{\prime}+x^{\prime} r, r r^{\prime}\right)=$ a square. Since $\left(r, r^{\prime}\right)=1$, it must follow that $(x, r)=\mathrm{a}$ square, $\left(x^{\prime}, r^{\prime}\right)=$ a square. Conversely, if $(x, r)=$ a square, $\left(x^{\prime}, r^{\prime}\right)=$ a square, then $\left(x r^{\prime}+x^{\prime} r, r r^{\prime}\right)=$ a square. That is, $x r^{\prime}+x^{\prime} r$ yields a square-reduced residue system $\left(\bmod r r^{\prime}\right) . x$ and $x^{\prime}$ range over square-reduced residue systems $(\bmod r)$,
$\left(\bmod r^{\prime}\right)$ respectively. So,

$$
\begin{aligned}
B\left(n, r r^{\prime}\right) & =\sum_{\substack{x(\bmod r), x^{\prime}\left(\text { mod } r^{\prime}\right) \\
(x, r)=\text { square, }\left(x^{\prime}, r^{\prime}=\right.\text { a square }}} \exp \left(\frac{2 \Pi i n\left(x r^{\prime}+x^{\prime} r\right)}{r r^{\prime}}\right) \\
& =B\left(n r^{\prime}, r\right) B\left(n r, r^{\prime}\right) \\
& =B(n, r) B\left(n, r^{\prime}\right), \quad \text { as } \quad\left(r, r^{\prime}\right)=1, \text { by }(4.1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

4.6 Theorem. $B(n, r)$ is multiplicative in both the variables $n, r$ in the sense of (2.13)

Proof. From Theorem 4.4 we note that $B(n, r)$ is even $(\bmod r)$. Also, it is multiplicative in $r$, by Theorem 4.5. Therefore, by Theorem 2.2 in [11], $B(n, r)$ is multiplicative in $n, r$.

Corollary.
(4.6.1) $\quad B(n, r)$ is quasi-multiplicative in $n$. That is,

$$
B(n, r) B\left(n^{\prime}, r\right)=\lambda(r) B\left(n n^{\prime}, r\right) \quad \text { whenever } \quad\left(n, n^{\prime}\right)=1
$$

Proof of (4.6.1). If $f(n, r)$ is multiplicative in $n, r$, it is known [12, Lemma 2.1] that

$$
f(n, r) f\left(n^{\prime}, r\right)=f(1, r) f\left(n n^{\prime}, r\right) \quad \text { whenever } \quad\left(n, n^{\prime}\right)=1
$$

This is referred to as quasi-multiplicative nature in $n$. Here, as $B(n, r)$ is multiplicative in $n$, $r$, we get

$$
B(n, r) B\left(n^{\prime}, r\right)=B(1, r) B\left(n n^{\prime}, r\right) \quad \text { when } \quad\left(n, n^{\prime}\right)=1 .
$$

But, $B(1, r)=\lambda(r)$ (4.3.1). Hence, the corollary follows.
4.7 Theorem. $B(n, r)=\lambda(r / g) b(g) ; g=(n, r)$.

Proof. We have

$$
B(n, r)=\sum_{d \mid(n, r)} \lambda(r / d) d
$$

As $\lambda(r)$ is completely multiplicative, $\lambda(r / d)=\lambda(r / g) \lambda(g / d)$ for every divisor $d$ of $g=(n, r)$. So,

$$
\begin{aligned}
B(n, r) & =\lambda(r / g) \sum_{d \mid \mathrm{g}} \lambda(g / d) d \\
& =\lambda(r / g) b(g), \text { using }
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark. The above formula for $B(n, r)$ suggests that $B(n, r)$ has the form

$$
B(n, r)=B(1, r / g) B(g, g) ; \quad g=(n, r)
$$

$B(n, r)$ is a typical example of a 'Quasi-symmetric function' [7] whose properties we discuss in $\S 5$.

Now, we are in a position to compare the arithmetic functions connected with (i) a reduced-residue system $(\bmod r)$ (ii) a semi-reduced residue system $(\bmod r)$ and $(i i i)$ a square-reduced residue system $(\bmod r)$.
(i) $\phi(r)$ is multiplicative and has totient structure. The associated exponential sum is Ramanujan's Sum $C(n, r)$ with $C(r, r)=\phi(r)$.
(ii) $\phi^{*}(r)$ is multiplicative and has unitary totient structure. The associated exponential sum is the unitary analogue $C^{*}(n, r)$ of Ramanujan's Sum with $C^{*}(r, r)=\phi^{*}(r)$.
(iii) $b(r)$ is multiplicative and has 'specially multiplicative' structure. The associated exponential sum is the square-reduced analogue $B(n, r)$ of Ramanujan's Sum with $B(r, r)=b(r)$.
5. Quasi-symmetric functions. There exist multiplicative functions $f(n, r)$ for which $f\left(p^{b}, p^{a}\right)=(-1)^{a+b} f\left(p^{a}, p^{b}\right)$; $p$ any prime; $a \geq 0, b \geq 0$. For instance, if $f(n, r)=\lambda(r) F(n r)$ where $F$ is multiplicative in a single variable, $f(n, r)=$ $\lambda(n r) f(r, n)$.
5.1 Definition. A multiplicative function $f(n, r)$ is said to be quasisymmetric if $f$ has the property

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(n, r)=h(n r) f(r, n) \tag{5.1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $h(r)$ is completely multiplicative in $r$.
The above definition of a quasi-symmetric function implies that $f(r, r)=$ $h\left(r^{2}\right) f(r, r)$. Therefore, $h(r)$ occurring in (5.1.1) should satisfy

$$
\begin{equation*}
h\left(r^{2}\right)=h^{2}(r)=1 \tag{5.1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We may take $h(r)=e(r)$ in which case $f(n, r)=f(r, n)$. That is, when $h(r)=$ $e(r), f(n, r)$ becomes a symmetric multiplicative function [13].
5.2 Definition. Given two positive integers $n, r$, the greatest common unitary divisor (g.c.u.d) of $n$ and $r$ is the integer $g^{\prime}$ such that $g^{\prime}$ is a unitary divisor of $n$ as well as $r$ and is the greatest divisor common to $n$ and $r$ having this property.

For example, if $n=\Pi p_{i}^{b_{i}}$ and $r=\Pi p_{i}^{a_{i}}$ ( $p_{i}$ being distinct primes), the g.c.u.d of $n$ and $r$ is given by $g^{\prime}=\Pi p_{j}^{a_{i}}$, where $a_{j}$ is the power of a common prime factor $p_{j}$ (occurring in $n$ and $r$ ) when $b_{j}=a_{j}$.

We shall denote the least common multiple (1.c.m) of $n$ and $r$ by $\ell=\{n, r\}$.
5.3 Theorem. If $f(n, r)$ is quasi-symmetric and as defined in (5.1.1) then

$$
f(n, r)=h\left(n^{\prime} r^{\prime}\right) f(g, \ell)
$$

where $g=(n, r), \ell=\{n, r\}, n^{\prime}$ is the g.c.u.d of $n$ and $\ell ; r^{\prime}$ is the g.c.u.d of $r$ and $g$.
Proof. Let

$$
n=\prod_{i=1}^{s} p_{i}^{b_{i}} \prod_{i=s+1}^{k} p_{i}^{b_{i}}, \quad r=\prod_{i=1}^{s} p_{i}^{a_{i}} \prod_{i=s+1}^{k} p_{i}^{a_{i}}
$$

where $a_{i} \geq b_{i}(i=1$ to $s) ; a_{i}<b_{i}(i=s+1$ to $k)$. Then,

$$
\begin{align*}
& g=\prod_{i=1}^{s} p_{i}^{b_{i}} \prod_{i=s+1}^{k} p_{i}^{a_{i}}  \tag{5.3.1}\\
& \ell=\prod_{i=1}^{s} p_{i}^{a_{i}} \prod_{i=s+1}^{k} p_{i}^{b_{i}} \tag{5.3.2}
\end{align*}
$$

Now,

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(n, r)=\prod_{i=1}^{s} f\left(p_{i}^{b_{i}}, p_{i}^{a_{i}}\right) \prod_{i=s+1}^{k} f\left(p_{i}^{b_{i}}, p_{i}^{a_{i}}\right) \tag{5.3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

As $f$ is quasi-symmetric,

$$
f\left(p_{i}^{b_{i}}, p_{i}^{a_{i}}\right)=h\left(p_{i}^{\left.a_{i}+b_{i}\right)}\right) f\left(p_{i}^{a_{i}}, p_{i}^{b_{i}}\right) \quad(i=1 \text { to } k)
$$

Applying this to the product from $i=s+1$ to $k$ in (5.3.3), we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(n, r) & =\prod_{i=1}^{s} f\left(p_{i}^{b_{i}}, p_{i}^{a_{i}}\right) \prod_{i=s+1}^{k} h\left(p_{i}^{a_{i}+b_{i}}\right) \prod_{i=s+1}^{k} f\left(p_{i}^{a_{i}}, p_{i}^{b_{i}}\right) \\
& =f(g, \ell) \prod_{i=s+1}^{k} h\left(p_{i}^{a_{i}}\right) \prod_{i=s+1}^{k} h\left(p_{i}^{b_{i}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

From the definition of $n^{\prime}$ and $r^{\prime}$, it follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(n, r) & =f(g, \ell) h\left(r^{\prime}\right) h\left(n^{\prime}\right) \\
& =h\left(n^{\prime} r^{\prime}\right) f(g, \ell)
\end{aligned}
$$

as $h$ is completely multiplicative.
Remark. In particular, if $h(r)=e(r)=1, f(n, r)=f(g, \ell)$. That is, if $f(n, r)=$ $f(r, n) ; f(n, r)=f(g, \ell)$. This property is characteristic of a symmetric multiplicative function considered in [13, Lemma of Theorem 6].
5.4 Theorem. If $f(n, r)$ is quasi-symmetric and even $(\bmod r)$ then

$$
f(n, r)=f(1, r / g) f(g, g) ; \quad g=(n, r)
$$

Proof. As $f$ is quasi-symmetric, there exists a completely multiplicative function $h(r)$ such that $f(n, r)=h(n r) f(r, n)$; where $h^{2}(r)=1$. As $f$ is also even $(\bmod r)$

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(n, r) & =f(g, r) \\
& =h(g r) f(r, g) \\
& =h(g r) f(g, g) \quad \text { as } \quad g \mid r \\
& =h\left(g^{2} r / g\right) f(g, g) \\
& =h\left(g^{2}\right) h(r / g) f(g, g) \\
& =h(r / g) f(g, g), \quad \text { as } \quad h\left(g^{2}\right)=h^{2}(g)=1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now,

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(1, r / g) & =h(r / g) f(r / g, 1) \\
& =h(r / g) f(1,1) \\
& =h(r / g)
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, $f(n, r)=f(1, r / g) f(g, g)$.
Remark. It may be noted that if $f(n, r)=f(1, r / g) f(g, g), f$ need not be quasi-symmetric. For example, let

$$
f(n, r)=\frac{r}{(n, r)} \phi((n, r))
$$

If $f(n, r)=h(n r) f(r, n)$, then $h(r)=r$. Thus, $h^{2}(r) \neq 1$.
We observe that $B(n, r)$ is quasi-symmetric with $h(r)=\lambda(r)$. For, by Theorem 4.7 $B(n, r)=\lambda(r / g) b(g)$ and so

$$
B(n, r)=B(1, r / g) B(g, g) ; \quad g=(n, r) .
$$

Next, we proceed to the proof of (1.6) which may be treated as an analogue of Menon's Identity [6].
6. An analogue of Menon's identity. We first give a lemma that is needed in the calculation of Fourier Coefficients of even functions $(\bmod r)$.
6.1 Lemma. [9, Theorem 4.3] If $f(n, r)=F((n, r))$ where $F$ is multiplicative, then the Fourier Coefficient of $f(n, r)$ is given by

$$
\alpha(d, r)=\frac{1}{r} \sum_{s \mid r / d} G(r / s) s
$$

where $G(r)=\left(F \cdot e^{-1}\right)(r)$.
If $f(n, r)=(n, r)$, it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha(d, r)=\sum_{s \mid r / d} \frac{1}{r} \phi(r / s) s \tag{6.1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the same manner, the Fourier Coefficient $\beta(d, r)$ of $\varepsilon((n, r))$ is calculated as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\beta(d, r) & =\frac{1}{r} \sum_{s \mid r / d} \lambda(r / s) s \\
& =\frac{1}{r} \sum_{s \mid r / d} \lambda(d) \lambda(r / d s) s
\end{aligned}
$$

Or,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta(d, r)=\frac{1}{r} \lambda(d) b(r / d), \text { using (3.1.1) } \tag{6.1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next, if $h(n, r)$ is the Cauchy-product of $(n, r)$ and $\varepsilon((n, r))$ we have from (2.18), (6.1.1) and (6.1.2)

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(n, r)=\frac{1}{r} \sum_{d \mid r}\left\{\sum_{s \mid r / d} \phi(r / s) s\right\} \lambda(d) b(r / d) C(n, d) \tag{6.1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We make use of (6.1.3) to prove
6.2 Theorem. Let

$$
(n, r)=1 \quad \text { and } \quad r=\prod_{i=1}^{k} p_{i}^{a_{i}} \quad\left(a_{i} \geq 1\right)
$$

Then,

$$
\sum_{\substack{a(\text { mod } r) \\(a, r)=\mathbf{a ~ s q u a r e}}}(|n-a|, r)=\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left\{\beta\left(p_{i}^{a_{i}}\right)-b\left(p_{i}^{a_{i}-1}\right)\right\}
$$

Proof. If $h(n, r)$ is as defined in (6.1.3) $h(n, r)$ is even $(\bmod r)$ and is multiplicative in $n, r$. Further, when $(n, r)=1, h(n, r)=h(1, r)$. Moreover, $h(1, r)$ is multiplicative in $r$. Therefore, if $(n, r)=1$

$$
\sum_{\substack{a(\bmod r) \\(a, r)=\mathbf{a} \text { square }}}(|n-a|, r)=h(1, r)=\prod_{i=1}^{k} h\left(1, p_{i}^{a_{i}}\right)
$$

So, it will suffice if we evaluate $h\left(1, p^{a}\right)$ where $p$ is a prime and $a \geq 1$. We note that $C(1, r)=\mu(r)(2.5)$ and $(I \cdot \phi)(r)=\beta(r)$. Appealing to the property of the Mobius function and after a little calculation, we arrive at

$$
p^{a} h\left(1, p^{a}\right)=\beta\left(p^{a}\right)\left\{b\left(p^{a}\right)+b\left(p^{a-1}\right)\right\}-p^{a} b\left(p^{a-1}\right)
$$

But,

$$
b\left(p^{a}\right)+b\left(p^{a-1}\right)=p^{a} .
$$

Therefore,

$$
p^{a} h\left(1, p^{a}\right)=p^{a}\left\{\beta\left(p^{a}\right)-b\left(p^{a-1}\right)\right\}
$$

Thus,

$$
h\left(1, p^{a}\right)=\beta\left(p^{a}\right)-b\left(p^{a-1}\right)
$$

Now, the desired result follows on account of the multiplicativity of $h(1, r)$.
Remark. (1.6) is a particular case of the above theorem when $n=1$.

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