

SOME REMARKS ON A PAPER OF McCARTHY¹⁾

P. Erdős

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As usual we denote the number of integers not exceeding n and relatively prime to n by Euler's ϕ function $\phi(n)$. Lehmer²⁾ calls the $\phi(n)$ integers

$$1 = a_1 < a_2 < \dots < a_{\phi(n)} = n - 1$$

the totatives of n .

Denote by $\phi(k, l, n)$ the number of a 's satisfying

$$nl/k < a_i < n(l+1)/k \quad n > k.$$

If $nl \equiv 0 \pmod{k}$ or $n(l+1) \equiv 0 \pmod{k}$ then, since $n > k$, $(nl/k, n) > 1$ and $(n(l+1)/k, n) > 1$ respectively. Thus $\phi(k, l, n)$ is the number of totatives of n satisfying

$$nl/k \leq a_i \leq n(l+1)/k.$$

If

(1) $\phi(k, l, n) = \phi(n)/k$, $l = 0, 1, 2, \dots, k-1$
 Lehmer²⁾ says that the totatives are uniformly distributed with respect to k . To shorten the notation we say that $T(n, k)$ holds in this case. Lehmer²⁾ further calls n exceptional with respect to k if either n is divisible by k^2 or n has a prime factor of the form $kx + 1$. He shows that for all exceptional n , $T(n, k)$ holds.

In a recent note McCarthy¹⁾ proves that if k is a prime then $T(n, k)$ holds if and only if n is exceptional with respect to k . However, if k is not squarefree there is an integer $n > k$ which is not exceptional and for which $T(n, k)$ holds. He further asks if the second half of his theorem remains true if k is not a prime but is squarefree. We are going to prove this in this note.

It is clear that if $T(n, k)$ holds then $\phi(n) \equiv 0 \pmod{k}$. We are going to show that if $k \neq p$ or $k \neq 2p$, p odd, then this condition is not sufficient, i. e. there exists an integer n for which $\phi(n) \equiv 0 \pmod{k}$ but $T(n, k)$ does not hold. Lehmer²⁾ observes that $n = 21$, $k = 4$ show that $\phi(n) \equiv 0 \pmod{k}$ is not sufficient that $T(n, k)$ holds.

It would be of interest to determine all the integers n for which $T(n, k)$ holds but this problem we can solve only for very special values of k .

THEOREM 1. Let k be any integer which is not a prime. Then there are infinitely many n which are not exceptional and for which $T(n, k)$ holds.

First assume $k = p^\alpha$, $\alpha > 1$. Then we can take $n = Ap^{\alpha+1}$.

Assume next $k \neq p^\alpha$. Then $k = ab$ where $(a, b) = 1$, $a > 1$, $b > 1$. By the well-known theorem of Dirichlet on primes in arithmetic progressions, there are infinitely many primes p and q such that

$$p \equiv 1 \pmod{a}, \quad p \equiv -1 \pmod{b}; \quad q \equiv -1 \pmod{a}, \quad q \equiv 1 \pmod{b}.$$

Clearly $n = pq$ is not exceptional. Now we show that (1) holds. It will be sufficient to show that for every l with $1 \leq l \leq k$ the number of integers $m < \frac{ln}{k}$ satisfying $(m, n) = 1$ equals

$$(2) \quad \frac{l \phi(n)}{k} = \frac{l(p-1)(q-1)}{k}.$$

The number of such integers clearly equals

$$(3) \quad \left[\frac{lpq}{k} \right] - \left[\frac{lp}{k} \right] - \left[\frac{lq}{k} \right] + \left[\frac{l}{k} \right] = \frac{l(p-1)(q-1)}{k} - \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 + \varepsilon_3 - \varepsilon_4$$

where

$$\varepsilon_1 = \frac{lpq}{k} - \left[\frac{lpq}{k} \right], \quad \varepsilon_2 = \frac{lp}{k} - \left[\frac{lp}{k} \right],$$

$$\varepsilon_3 = \frac{lq}{k} - \left[\frac{lq}{k} \right], \quad \varepsilon_4 = \frac{l}{k} - \left[\frac{l}{k} \right].$$

We must show

$$(4) \quad \varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2 - \varepsilon_3 + \varepsilon_4 = 0.$$

When $l = k$, $\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon_2 = \varepsilon_3 = \varepsilon_4 = 0$ and we are done.

Assume $l < k$. Since $pq \equiv -1 \pmod{k}$, we have

$$\varepsilon_1 = \frac{l_{pq}}{k} - \left[\frac{l_{pq}}{k} \right] = \frac{k-l}{k}, \quad \varepsilon_4 = \frac{l}{k}$$

or

$$\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_4 = 1.$$

Clearly $0 < \varepsilon_2 < 1$ and $0 < \varepsilon_3 < 1$. Hence $0 < \varepsilon_2 + \varepsilon_3 < 2$

and $-1 < \varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2 - \varepsilon_3 + \varepsilon_4 < 1$; but $\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2 - \varepsilon_3 + \varepsilon_4$ is

the difference of two integers and therefore itself an integer.

This proves (4) and completes the proof.

In McCarthy's paper the example $k = 6$, $n = 9$ is given. Here 9 is a power of a prime, it is not exceptional with respect to 6, and $T(9, 6)$ holds. We now show that this situation can occur if and only if

$$(5) \quad k = p^\alpha b, \quad p \equiv 1 \pmod{b}, \quad n = p^{\alpha+i}, \quad 1 \leq i < \infty$$

($i < \infty$ if $b = 1$).

Clearly, if (5) is satisfied then n is not exceptional.

Furthermore we have in this case that the number of integers $m \leq ln/k$ with $(m, n) = 1$ equals

$$\left[\frac{ln}{k} \right] - \left[\frac{ln}{kp} \right] = \frac{l}{k} \phi(n) - \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 \quad (1 \leq l \leq k);$$

but $\phi(n) \equiv 0 \pmod{k}$ implies $\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2$ is an integer with $0 < \varepsilon_1 < 1$, $0 < \varepsilon_2 < 1$ so that $\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2 = 0$. Hence (5) also implies that $T(n, k)$ holds.

Suppose conversely that $n = p^\beta$, $T(n, k)$ holds and n is not exceptional with respect to k . Put $k = p^\alpha b$, $(p, b) = 1$.

If $b = 1$, clearly $\alpha > \beta/2$ (since n is not exceptional). Thus we may assume $b > 1$. Since $T(n, k)$ holds we must have

$$\phi(n) = p^{\beta-1}(p-1) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^\alpha b},$$

or $\alpha < \beta$ and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{b}$ as stated.

Suppose that $k = 2p$ (p odd), n is not exceptional with respect to k , and $T(n, k)$ holds. First of all we must have $\phi(n) \equiv 0 \pmod{2p}$. Furthermore n can have no prime factor $\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$; for such a factor would have to be $\equiv 1 \pmod{2p}$ and n would be exceptional. Thus $n \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}$. Conversely, if $n \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}$ and $n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ then $T(n, k)$ holds and n is not exceptional. Thus if $k = 2p$, $\phi(n) \equiv 0 \pmod{k}$ is necessary and sufficient for $T(n, k)$ to hold. Now we prove

THEOREM 2. If $k \neq p$ and $k \neq 2p$ (p odd), then there always exists an n for which $\phi(n) \equiv 0 \pmod{k}$ and $T(n, k)$ does not hold.

If $k = 4$ we can take $n = 21$ (this is Lehmer's example). If $k = 8$ we can take $n = 35$. Every other k can be factored in the form

$$k = ab, \quad a > 2, \quad b > 2.$$

It is not difficult to see that for such k there exist infinitely many primes p and q satisfying

$$(6) \quad p \equiv 1 \pmod{a}, \quad p \equiv 1 \pmod{b}, \quad pq \equiv -1 \pmod{k},$$

$$\frac{p}{k} - \left[\frac{p}{k} \right] > \frac{1}{k}, \quad \frac{q}{k} - \left[\frac{q}{k} \right] > \frac{1}{k}$$

Put $n = pq$; clearly $\phi(n) \equiv 0 \pmod{k}$ and n is not exceptional. Now, as in (3),

$$\phi(k, 1, n) = \frac{(p-1)(q-1)}{k} - \epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2 + \epsilon_3 - \epsilon_4.$$

Since $pq \equiv -1 \pmod{k}$, $\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_4 < 1$. But by the second line of (6), $\epsilon_2 + \epsilon_3 > 1$; thus, since $\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2 - \epsilon_3 + \epsilon_4$ is an integer, it must be -1 and

$$\phi(k, 1, n) = \frac{(p-1)(q-1)}{k} + 1.$$

Hence (1) is not satisfied and the proof of Theorem 2 is complete.

Let k be an integer, $n = pq$ not exceptional with respect to k and $n \not\equiv -1 \pmod{k}$. I conjecture that $T(n, k)$ does not hold, but I have not been able to decide this question.

FOOTNOTES

1. Amer. Math. Monthly, 64 (1957), 585-586.
2. Canad. J. of Math. 7 (1955), 347-357.