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**On the congruence $f(x^k) \equiv 0 \pmod q$, where q is a prime
 and f is a polynomial**

by

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The aim of this paper is to prove the following theorems:

THEOREM 1. *Let α be an algebraic number different from zero and not a root of unity. Let n be its degree. Let k be an arbitrary natural number. We have*

$$(1) \quad \alpha = \beta^{n_1} \gamma^{n_1},$$

where $n_1 = (k, c(\alpha))$, β is cyclotomic, $\gamma \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$.

Further, let K_0 denote the maximal cyclotomic subfield of $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ and put $K_1 = K_0(\beta)$. Let f_1 be the conductor of K_1 and G_1 the group of rationals mod f_1 corresponding to K_1 . Put $G_2 = G_1 \cap E_k$. The group G_2 is uniquely determined by the algebraic number α and the positive integer k . For any positive integers D and r such that $(D, r) = 1$ and the residue class of $r \pmod D$ contains a rational integer belonging to G_2 , there exist infinitely many prime ideals \mathfrak{q} of $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ such that α is k -th power residue mod \mathfrak{q} , $N\mathfrak{q} \equiv r \pmod D$, $N\mathfrak{q} \equiv 1 \pmod k$. The Dirichlet density of this set of prime ideals is equal to

$$\frac{n(k, c(\alpha))}{C(\alpha)k\varphi([D, k])} \frac{|K_1 \cap P_{[D, k]}|}{|K_1|}.$$

The meaning of $c(\alpha)$ and $C(\alpha)$ is explained later.

THEOREM 2. *Let f be a polynomial with rational integral coefficients, irreducible, primitive, with a positive leading coefficient. Assume that f is different from x and f is not a cyclotomic polynomial. Let k be any positive integer. Let α be any root of f . We have*

$$(2) \quad \alpha = \beta^{n_1} \gamma^{n_1},$$

where $n_1 = (k, c(f))$, β is cyclotomic, $\gamma \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$.

Further, let K_0 denote the maximal cyclotomic subfield of $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ and put $K_1 = K_0(\beta)$. Let f_1 be the conductor of K_1 and G_1 the group of rationals mod f_1 corresponding to K_1 . Put $G_2 = G_1 \cap E_k$. The group G_2 is uniquely determined by the polynomial f and the positive integer k . For any positive integers D and r such that $(D, r) = 1$ and the residue class of $r \pmod D$ contains a rational integer

belonging to G_2 there exist infinitely many primes q such that $q \equiv r \pmod D$, $q \equiv 1 \pmod k$ and the congruence $f(x^k) \equiv 0 \pmod q$ is solvable in $x \in \mathbb{Z}$. The Dirichlet density δ of this set of primes satisfies the inequality

$$\frac{(k, c(f))}{C(f)k\varphi([D, k])} \frac{|K_1 \cap P_{[D, k]}|}{|K_1|} \leq \delta \leq \frac{n}{\varkappa} \frac{(k, c(f))}{C(f)k\varphi([D, k])} \frac{|K_1 \cap P_{[D, k]}|}{|K_1|},$$

where

$$\varkappa = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } f \text{ is not reciprocal,} \\ 2 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

n is degree of f . The meaning of $c(f)$ and $C(f)$ is explained later.

In [2], we proved Theorem 2 with the additional assumption that f is k -normal obtaining a stronger assertion on δ :

$$\delta = \frac{(k, c(f))}{C(f)k\varphi([D, k])} \frac{|K_1 \cap P_{[D, k]}|}{|K_1|}.$$

Notation. $\zeta_m = e^{2\pi i/m}$, K denotes an algebraic number field. $P_m = Q(\zeta_m)$. If $\alpha \in K$, $\zeta_m \in K$, $\alpha \neq 0$, \mathfrak{b} is a fractional ideal of K then $\left(\frac{\alpha|K}{\mathfrak{b}}\right)_m$ is the m th power residue symbol. $D(\alpha)$ denotes the discriminant of α . If the extension K/\mathbb{Q} is abelian, then $f(K/\mathbb{Q})$ is its conductor. $f_\alpha = f(K(\sqrt[m]{\alpha})/K)$. f_α is also the conductor of $\left(\frac{\alpha|K}{\mathfrak{b}}\right)_m$. E_m is the group of rationals congruent to 1 mod m . We call a set $G \subseteq Q$ a group of rationals mod m if (i) $E_m \subseteq G$, (ii) G is a multiplicative group and (iii) every element of G is prime to m (clearly G/E_m is a group of residue classes mod m). If $K \subseteq P_m$ then a group G of rationals mod m is said to correspond to K if G/E_m is the maximal subgroup of $\text{Gal}(P_m/Q)$ which leaves K fixed. $[\cdot, \cdot]$ denotes the least common multiple. $|K| = (K: \mathbb{Q})$. For a finite set S , $|S|$ is its cardinality. K^{mc} denotes the maximal cyclotomic extension of K . Let $\alpha \in K^{\text{mc}}$. Consider the equation in unknowns n, β

$$(3) \quad \alpha = \beta^n, \quad n \text{ natural, } \beta \in K^{\text{mc}}$$

Put

$$C_K(\alpha) = \begin{cases} \text{maximal } n \text{ satisfying (3)} & \text{if the equation (3) has only} \\ \infty & \text{a finite number of solutions,} \\ \infty & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Let f be an arbitrary polynomial with rational coefficients irreducible over \mathbb{Q} and let α be a root of f . Put

$$c(f) = c(\alpha) = c_{Q(\alpha)}(\alpha), \quad C(f) = C(\alpha) = (Q(\alpha): K_0) = n/|K_0|$$

where n denotes the degree of f and K_0 is the maximal cyclotomic subfield of $Q(\alpha)$.

LEMMA 1. Let α be an algebraic number different from zero and not a root of unity. Then (1) holds. Put $k_1 = Q(\alpha)$, $k_2 = k_1 P_k(\beta)$. Let K_0, K_1, f_1, G_1, G_2 have the same meaning as in Theorem 1. Let D be an arbitrary positive integer and F an arbitrary positive integer divisible by $k f_1 D$ and by the conductor of the power residue symbol $\left(\frac{\alpha|k_2}{\mathfrak{a}}\right)_k$. We have

$$k_2 \cap P_F = K_1 P_k = k_2 \cap Q^{\text{mc}}.$$

Let $r \in G_2$. There exists an ideal \mathfrak{a}_1 of k_2 such that

$$(\mathfrak{a}_1, F) = 1, \quad N\mathfrak{a}_1 \equiv r \pmod F, \quad \left(\frac{\alpha}{\mathfrak{a}_1}\right)_k = 1.$$

The group G_2 is uniquely determined by the algebraic number α and the positive integer k .

Proof. See [2], p. 155–156. We only have to prove the last statement of the lemma. Assume that we also have

$$\alpha = \beta'^{n_1} \gamma'^{n_1}, \quad \beta' \in Q^{\text{mc}}, \gamma' \in Q(\alpha).$$

We have

$$\alpha = \beta_1^{n_1}, \quad \beta_1 = \beta' \gamma', \quad \alpha = \beta_1^{n_1}, \quad \beta_1 = \beta \gamma.$$

By Lemma 4 of [2] $K_0(\beta) = K_0 Q(\beta)$ is the maximal cyclotomic subfield of the field $k_1 Q(\beta) = k_1(\beta) = k_1(\beta_1) = Q(\beta_1)$. Analogously, $K_0(\beta')$ is the maximal cyclotomic subfield of the field $Q(\beta')$. We have

$$\beta_1' = \zeta_{n_1}^a \beta_1 \quad \text{and} \quad Q(\beta_1') P_k = Q(\zeta_{n_1}^a \beta_1) P_k = Q(\beta_1) P_k(n_1|k).$$

Put $K_1' = K_0(\beta')$. Hence by Lemma 4 of [2]

$$K_1' P_k = K_0(\beta') P_k = K_0(\beta) P_k = K_1 P_k.$$

This means that $K_1 P_k$ is uniquely determined by the algebraic number α and by the positive integer k . $[k, f_1]$ is uniquely determined by α and k . Since G_2 is the group of rationals mod $[k, f_1]$ corresponding to $K_1 P_k$, G_2 is uniquely determined by k and by α .

LEMMA 2. Let

$$C = \left\{ \mathfrak{a}: \mathfrak{a} \text{ an ideal of } k_2, (\mathfrak{a}, F) = 1, N\mathfrak{a} \equiv r \pmod F, \left(\frac{\alpha}{\mathfrak{a}}\right)_k = 1 \right\},$$

where $(r, F) = 1$, $r \in G_2$,

$$C' = \{ \mathfrak{q}_1: \mathfrak{q}_1 \text{ a prime ideal of } k_1; N\mathfrak{q}_1 \equiv r \pmod F, \alpha \text{ is a } k\text{-th power residue mod } \mathfrak{q}_1 \},$$

where $(r, F) = 1$, $r \in G_2$.

Then if $\mathfrak{q}_2 \in C$ is a prime ideal of k_2 of degree one over k_1 and $N\mathfrak{q}_2$ is sufficiently large then there exist exactly $|k_2|/|k_1|$ prime ideals $\tau\mathfrak{q}_2$ ($\tau \in G(k_2/k_1)$) of degree one over k_1 belonging to C and dividing a certain prime ideal \mathfrak{q}_1 of k_1 belonging to C' ($\mathfrak{q}_1 = N_{k_2/k_1}\mathfrak{q}_2$). Conversely, if $\mathfrak{q}_1 \in C'$ is a prime ideal of k_1 and $N\mathfrak{q}_1$ is sufficiently large, then \mathfrak{q}_1 splits completely in k_2 and each of its prime divisors \mathfrak{q}_2 in k_2 belongs to C .

Proof. See [1], p. 160. By Lemma 1 the set C is non empty. We only have to prove that if $\mathfrak{q}_1 \in C'$ is a prime ideal of k_1 and $N\mathfrak{q}_1$ is sufficiently large, then \mathfrak{q}_1 splits completely in k_2 . Put $f_2 = [k, f_1]$. We have $k_2 = k_1 P_k(\beta) = k_1 Q(\beta) P_k = k_1 K_1 P_k$. We have $K_1 P_k = Q(\xi)$, ξ an integer, $k_2 = k_1(\xi)$. Let $N\mathfrak{q}_1 = q^{f_2} \in G_2$. We have $K_1 P_k \subseteq P_{f_2}$. Hence $\xi = h(\zeta_{f_2})$, $h \in Q[x]$. Since $N\mathfrak{q}_1$ is sufficiently large, we have

$$(4) \quad \xi^{N\mathfrak{q}_1} \equiv h(\zeta_{f_2}^{q^{f_2}}) \equiv h(\zeta_{f_2}) \equiv \xi \pmod{\mathfrak{Q}},$$

because G_2 is the group of rationals mod f_2 corresponding to the field $K_1 P_k$, where $\mathfrak{Q}|\mathfrak{q}_1$, \mathfrak{Q} is a prime ideal of k_2 . Let η be an arbitrary integer of k_2 . We have

$$\eta = \sum_i a_i \xi^i, \quad a_i \in k_1.$$

By Fermat's theorem, $a_i^{N\mathfrak{q}_1} \equiv a_i \pmod{\mathfrak{Q}}$. Hence by (4)

$$\eta^{N\mathfrak{q}_1} \equiv \sum_i a_i^{N\mathfrak{q}_1} \xi^{iN\mathfrak{q}_1} \equiv \sum_i a_i \xi^i \equiv \eta \pmod{\mathfrak{Q}}.$$

This means that \mathfrak{q}_1 splits completely in k_2 . The lemma is proved.

Proof of Theorem 1. Put

$$A = \{\mathfrak{a}: \mathfrak{a} \text{ an ideal of } k_2, (\mathfrak{a}, F) = 1\},$$

$$H_1 = \{\mathfrak{a}: \mathfrak{a} \text{ an ideal of } k_2, (\mathfrak{a}, F) = 1, N\mathfrak{a} \equiv 1 \pmod F\},$$

$$H = \left\{ \mathfrak{a}: \mathfrak{a} \text{ an ideal of } k_2, (\mathfrak{a}, F) = 1, N\mathfrak{a} \equiv 1 \pmod F, \left(\frac{\alpha}{\mathfrak{a}}\right)_k = 1 \right\},$$

$$h = (A:H).$$

By Lemma 2 and Hecke's theorem

$$(5) \quad \frac{1}{h} = d(C) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 1+0} \frac{\sum_{\mathfrak{q}_2 \in C} \left(\frac{1}{N\mathfrak{q}_2}\right)^s}{\log \frac{1}{s-1}} = (|k_2|/|k_1|) \lim_{s \rightarrow 1+0} \frac{\sum_{\mathfrak{q}_1 \in C'} \left(\frac{1}{N\mathfrak{q}_1}\right)^s}{\log \frac{1}{s-1}} = (|k_2|/n) d(C'),$$

($|k_1| = n$), where \mathfrak{q}_2 are prime ideals of k_2 of degree one over k_1 .

Hence

$$(6) \quad d(C') = \frac{n}{h|k_2|}.$$

By Lemma 1 and by the argument of [2], p. 158 we have

$$(7) \quad d(C') = \frac{n(k, c(\alpha))}{C(\alpha)k\varphi(F)}.$$

Assume first that $D \equiv 0 \pmod [k, f_1]$. Put

$$C'' = \{\mathfrak{q}: \mathfrak{q} \text{ a prime ideal of } k_1, N\mathfrak{q} \equiv r \pmod D, N\mathfrak{q} \equiv 1 \pmod k, \alpha \text{ is a } k\text{th power residue mod } \mathfrak{q}\},$$

where $(r, D) = 1$ and $r \in G_2$.

By the argument of [2], p. 158–159, we have

$$(8) \quad d(C'') = \frac{n(k, c(\alpha))}{C(\alpha)k\varphi(D)}.$$

Thus we have proved the theorem for $D \equiv 0 \pmod [k, f_1]$.

Let $G_1 = r_1 E_{f_1} \cup r_2 E_{f_1} \cup \dots \cup r_t E_{f_1}$, $t = (G_1: E_{f_1})$. Let D be any positive integer. Put

$$C_j = \{\mathfrak{q}: \mathfrak{q} \text{ a prime ideal of } k_1, N\mathfrak{q} \equiv r \pmod D, N\mathfrak{q} \equiv 1 \pmod k, N\mathfrak{q} \equiv r_j \pmod{f_1}, \alpha \text{ is a } k\text{th power residue mod } \mathfrak{q}\},$$

where $(r, D) = 1$ and there exists a rational integer r'_j such that

$$(9) \quad r'_j \equiv \begin{cases} r \pmod D, \\ 1 \pmod K, \\ r_j \pmod{f_1}. \end{cases}$$

Obviously

$$C_j = \{\mathfrak{q}: \mathfrak{q} \text{ a prime ideal of } k_1, N\mathfrak{q} \equiv r'_j \pmod [D, k, f_1], \alpha \text{ is a } k\text{th power residue mod } \mathfrak{q}\},$$

where $(r'_j, [D, k, f_1]) = 1$ and $r'_j \in G_2$.

By (8) (the theorem for $D \equiv 0 \pmod [k, f_1]$),

$$(10) \quad d(C_j) = \frac{n(k, c(\alpha))}{C(\alpha)k\varphi([D, k, f_1])}.$$

Put

$$C''' = \{\mathfrak{q}: \mathfrak{q} \text{ a prime ideal of } k_1, N\mathfrak{q} \equiv r \pmod D, N\mathfrak{q} \equiv 1 \pmod k, \alpha \text{ is a } k\text{th power residue mod } \mathfrak{q}\},$$

where $(r, D) = 1$ and the residue class of $r \pmod D$ contains a number belonging to G_2 . By the argument of [2], p. 159–160, we have

$$d(C''') = \frac{n(k, c(\alpha))}{C(\alpha)k\varphi([D, k])} \frac{|K_1 \cap P_{[D, k]}|}{|K_1|}.$$

The theorem is proved.

Proof of Theorem 2. Let $f(x) = a_0x^n + \dots + a_n$ be a polynomial satisfying the assumptions of the theorem. Let α be any of its roots. By the assumptions, α is different from zero and is not a root of unity. Put $k_1 = Q(\alpha)$. By Theorem 1 we have (2), since $c_{k_1}(\alpha) = c(\alpha) = c(f)$. From the Theorem of [2] and the remark at the end of that paper it follows that the group G_2 is uniquely determined by the polynomial f and the positive integer k . Put

$$C = \{q: q \text{ a prime ideal of } k_1, Nq \equiv 1 \pmod{k}, Nq \equiv r \pmod{D}, \alpha \text{ is a } k\text{th power residue mod } q\},$$

$$B = \{q: q \text{ a prime number, } q \equiv 1 \pmod{k}, q \equiv r \pmod{D}, \text{ the congruence } f(x^k) \equiv 0 \pmod{q} \text{ is solvable}\},$$

where $(r, D) = 1$ and residue class of $r \pmod{D}$ contains a rational integer belonging to G_2 .

By the same argument as in [1] we have

$$(11) \quad \frac{1}{n}d(C) \leq d(B) \leq \frac{1}{\varkappa}d(C).$$

By the definition of $c(f)$ and $C(f)$, $c(\alpha) = c(f)$, $C(\alpha) = C(f)$. Hence by Theorem 1

$$d(C) = \frac{n(k, c(f))}{C(f)k\varphi([D, k])} \frac{|K_1 \cap P_{[D, k]}|}{|K_1|}.$$

By (11)

$$\frac{(k, c(f))}{C(f)k\varphi([D, k])} \frac{|K_1 \cap P_{[D, k]}|}{|K_1|} \leq d(B) \leq \frac{n}{\varkappa} \frac{(k, c(f))}{C(f)k\varphi([D, k])} \frac{|K_1 \cap P_{[D, k]}|}{|K_1|}.$$

Theorem 2 is proved.

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(1563)

Multiplicative functions and Brun's sieve

by

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1. Introduction. Let g be a strongly multiplicative function. That is

$$g(n) = \prod_{\substack{p|n \\ p \text{ prime}}} g(p).$$

The truncation of g at y is

$$g_y(n) = \prod_{\substack{p|n \\ p < y}} g(p).$$

As is customary null products have value one.

For any set \mathcal{A} of positive integers we let $\mathcal{A}(x)$ denote $\mathcal{A} \cap [1, x]$. The problem we consider here is the estimation of

$$(1.1) \quad S_g(\mathcal{A}(x), y) = \sum_{n \in \mathcal{A}(x)} g_y(n)$$

for sets \mathcal{A} satisfying certain conditions to be specified in Section 2. We were motivated to study this sum because it turns out (as will be seen in Section 3) to be a natural generalization of a typical sieve problem. We show that Brun's sieve could be used to estimate $S_g(\mathcal{A}(x), y)$ when $-1 \leq g \leq 1$, provided $\alpha = (\log |\mathcal{A}(x)|) / \log y$ is not small (see § 5-§ 7) and for this we make use of an interesting 'monotonicity principle' (see § 4).

Previously [1], [2], [3] we had investigated such sums when $0 < g \leq 1$. In this case g may be written as

$$g(n) = e^{u f(n)}$$

where $u < 0$ and $f \geq 0$ is a strongly additive function. So the sum in (1.1) can be interpreted in terms of the Laplace transform of f_y , which is the truncation of f and y . Such an approach led to a new method of estimating the moments of f using the sieve. For the sake of completeness we shall state (without proof) towards the end of Section 6 some results for the case $0 \leq g \leq 1$ but in a slightly stronger form than was utilized by us earlier. The main interest in the present paper lies in showing that the sieve can be employed to deal with such