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A sum involving the function of Möbius

by

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Let $\mu(n)$ be the Möbius function. The sum

$$g(x) = \sum_{n \le x} \mu(n)/n$$

may itself be summed to give

$$G(x) = \sum_{n < x} g(n).$$

In this note we show that G(x)-2 changes sign infinitely often. Some numerical calculations of the first 56 sign changes are described. These show that these "zeros" of G(x)-2 are remarkably close to being in geometric progression with two exceptions. An heuristic explanation of this phenomenon is given.

It is equally easy to show that for any real K, the function G(x) - K changes sign infinitely often. For this purpose we may treat G(x) as a continuous, piecewise linear, function defined for $n \le x < n+1$ by

(1)
$$G(x) = G(n) + (x-n)g(n+1)$$
.

Let $s = \sigma + it$ and suppose there is a u_0 such that G(u) - K is of fixed sign for all $u \ge u_0$. For $\sigma > 1$ we may write

$$\int_{u_0}^{\infty} \frac{G(u) - K}{u^{s+1}} du = -\int_{1}^{u_0} \frac{G(u) - K}{u^{s+1}} du + \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{G(u) - K}{u^{s+1}} du$$

$$= \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{G(u)}{u^{s+1}} du + \frac{1}{s} f(s)$$

where f(s) is regular for $\sigma > 0$. Using (1) we have, with $\sigma > 1$,

(2)
$$\int_{u_0}^{\infty} \frac{G(u) - K}{u^{s+1}} du = \frac{1}{s} f(s) + \frac{1}{s} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{g(n)}{n^s} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} g(n+1) \int_0^1 \frac{\Theta d\Theta}{(n+\Theta)^{s+1}}.$$

Now

$$\begin{split} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{g(n)}{n^s} &= \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{g(u)}{u^s} du + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} g(n) \left\{ \frac{1}{n^s} - \int_{0}^{1} \frac{d\Theta}{(n+\Theta)^s} \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{(s-1)\zeta(s)} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} g(n) \left\{ \frac{1}{n^s} - \frac{1}{(n+1)^s} - s \int_{0}^{1} \frac{\Theta d\Theta}{(n+\Theta)^{s+1}} \right\}. \end{split}$$

Substituting this into (2) gives, for $\sigma > 1$,

(3)
$$\int_{u_0}^{\infty} \frac{G(u) - K}{u^{s+1}} du$$

$$= \frac{1}{s} f(s) + \frac{1}{s(s-1)\zeta(s)} + \frac{1}{s\zeta(s+1)} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(n+1)}{n+1} \int_{0}^{1} \frac{\theta d\theta}{(n+\theta)^{s+1}}.$$

Now this last sum, being less than

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{\sigma+2}}$$

in absolute value, represents a regular function for $\sigma > 0$. By a theorem of E. Landau [1] the left member of (3) is regular for $\sigma > 0$. But the right member of (3) is certainly not regular for $\sigma > 0$. Thus G(u) - K must change sign infinitely often.

Numerical calculations. A preliminary calculation of G(x) for x=1 (1) 6017 was made in 1954 at Norsk Regnesentral in Oslo. The 27 zeros x_k of G(x)-2 in this interval were seen to be nearly in geometric progression such that the ratio

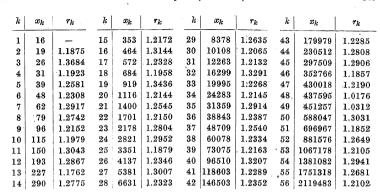
$$r_k = x_k/x_{k-1} \approx \frac{5}{4}.$$

It was decided to test this phenomenon further by a more powerful computer, the IBM 701 at the University of California. The function G(x) was explored as far as x=2,125,000, just beyond x_{56} . The following table gives first 56 zeros of G(x)-2, that is, integers x_k such that G(x)-2 is of different sign from G(x-1)-2, together with the ratio r_k .

The larger values of x_k given in the table may contain small errors due to accumulated round-off errors in g(x). However the values of r_k are correct as given.

It is seen that zeros x_{47} and x_{48} do not conform. Leaving them out we find $x_{49}/x_{46} = 1.2792$. Averaging this with the other values of r_k $(k \neq 47,48)$ we have a mean of

$$\bar{r} = 1.2495.$$



By partial summation

$$G(x-1) = xg(x) - M(x)$$

where, as usual

$$M(x) = \sum_{n \leqslant x} \mu(n).$$

This identity was used to test the amount of round-off error in G and g. As g(x) converges to zero with increasing x it becomes more difficult to decide just when G(x-1) and

$$G(x) = G(x-1) + g(x)$$

are of different sign.

Since

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(n) n^{-s}}{n} = 1/\zeta(s+1) \qquad (\sigma \geqslant 0)$$

we have

$$2\pi i\,g(x)\,=\,\int\limits_{0-\infty i}^{0+\infty i}\frac{1}{s}\cdot\frac{1}{\zeta(s+1)}\,x^{s}\,ds\,=\,\int\limits_{1-\infty i}^{1+\infty i}\frac{x^{s-1}}{s-1}\cdot\frac{ds}{\zeta(s)}\,.$$

Also

$$2\pi i M(x) = \int_{1-\infty i}^{1+\infty i} \frac{x^s ds}{s \, \zeta(s)}.$$

Hence by (5)

$$2\pi i G(x-1) = \int\limits_{1-\infty i}^{1+\infty i} \frac{x^s ds}{s(s-1)\zeta(s)}.$$



Assuming that the zeros of $\zeta(s)$ are all simple and noting that

$$\zeta(0) = -\frac{1}{2}$$

we have, by the residue theorem,

(6)
$$G(x-1)-2 = -\sum \frac{x^{\varrho}}{\varrho(1-\varrho)\zeta'(\varrho)}$$

where the sum extends over the zeros ϱ of $\zeta(s)$. The contribution made by the trivial zeros ($\varrho=-2,-4,-6,...$) is of order x^{-2} and is negligible in comparison to that made by the complex zeros

$$\varrho_{\nu} = \frac{1}{2} + \gamma_{\nu} i$$
 and $\bar{\varrho} = \frac{1}{2} - \gamma_{\nu} i$

where $\gamma_r > 0$, on the assumption of the Riemann hypothesis. With this notation (6) becomes

(7)
$$G(x-1)-2 = 8x^{1/2} \sum_{\nu=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos\{\gamma_{\nu} \log x - a_{\nu}\}}{(1+4\gamma_{\nu}^{2})|\zeta'(\frac{1}{2}+\gamma_{\nu}i)|} \quad (a_{\nu} = \arg \zeta'(\varrho_{\nu})).$$

If we neglect all terms but the first, we obtain a crude approximation to G(x-1)-2 which is periodic in $\log x$ of halfperiod

$$\pi/\gamma_1 = .22226061$$
.

Thus we can expect that, on the average, the roots of G(x)-2 will be in geometric progression of ratio

$$e^{\pi/\gamma_1} = 1.2488968$$

which agrees fairly well with the evidence (4).

The unexpected zeros x_{47} and x_{48} result from a conspiracy between the other zeros of $\zeta(s)$ to upset the usual dominating first zeros $\frac{1}{2} \pm \gamma_1 i$.

The series (7) can be used to calculate isolated values of G(x) with limited accuracy. Thus the first 25 terms give 12.204 for the value of G(323000) whereas the true value is close to 12.360. Values of γ_r , α_r , $|\zeta'(\frac{1}{2}+\gamma_r i)|$ were kindly supplied independently by Drs. C. B. Haselgrove and R. S. Lehman from as yet unpublished tables.

Reference

[1] E. Landau, Vorlesungen über Zahlentheorie, Leipzig 1927, v. 2, p. 126, theorem 454.

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ERRATA

In the line immediately following formula (7) on page 78 replace

$$\frac{1}{2}[(u_2+u_3)] = [\frac{1}{2}(k-u_1-1)]-1$$

by

$$\left[\frac{1}{2}(u_2+u_3)\right] = \frac{1}{2}\left[(k-u_1-1)\right]-1.$$