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# The ring of arithmetical functions with unitary convolution: Divisorial and topological properties

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## THE RING OF ARITHMETICAL FUNCTIONS WITH UNITARY CONVOLUTION: DIVISORIAL AND TOPOLOGICAL PROPERTIES.

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ABSTRACT. We study  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$ , the ring of arithmetical functions with unitary convolution, giving an isomorphism between  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  and a generalized power series ring on infinitely many variables, similar to the isomorphism of Cashwell-Everett[4] between the ring  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \cdot)$  of arithmetical functions with *Dirichlet convolution* and the power series ring  $\mathbb{C}[[x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots]]$  on countably many variables. We topologize it with respect to a natural norm, and shove that all ideals are quasi-finite. Some elementary results on factorization into atoms are obtained. We prove the existence of an abundance of non-associate regular non-units.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The ring of arithmetical functions with Dirichlet convolution, which we'll denote by  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \cdot)$ , is the set of all functions  $\mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{C}$ , where  $\mathbb{N}^+$  denotes the positive integers. It is given the structure of a commutative  $\mathbb{C}$ -algebra by component-wise addition and multiplication by scalars, and by the Dirichlet convolution

$$f \cdot g(k) = \sum_{r|k} f(r)g(k/r).$$
(1)

Then, the multiplicative unit is the function  $e_1$  with  $e_1(1) = 1$  and  $e_1(k) = 0$  for k > 1, and the additive unit is the zero function **0**.

Cashwell-Everett [4] showed that  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \cdot)$  is a UFD using the isomorphism

$$(\mathcal{A}, +, \cdot) \simeq \mathbb{C}[[x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots]], \tag{2}$$

where each  $x_i$  corresponds to the function which is 1 on the *i*'th prime number, and 0 otherwise.

Schwab and Silberberg [9] topologised  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \cdot)$  by means of the norm

$$|f| = \frac{1}{\min\{k | f(k) \neq 0\}}$$
(3)

They noted that this norm is an ultra-metric, and that  $((\mathcal{A}, +, \cdot), |\cdot|)$  is a valued ring, i.e. that

- (1)  $|\mathbf{0}| = 0$  and |f| > 0 for  $f \neq \mathbf{0}$ ,
- (2)  $|f g| \le \max\{|f|, |g|\},\$
- $(3) \quad |\tilde{f}g| = |f||g|.$

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They showed that  $(\mathcal{A}, |\cdot|)$  is complete, and that each ideal is *quasi-finite*, which means that there exists a sequence  $(e_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$ , with  $|e_k| \to 0$ , such that every element in the ideal can be written as a convergent sum  $\sum_{k=1} c_k e_k$ , with  $c_k \in \mathcal{A}$ .

In this article, we treat instead  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$ , the ring of all arithmetical functions with unitary convolution. This ring has been studied by several authors, such as Vaidyanathaswamy [11], Cohen [5], and Yocom [13].

We topologise  $\mathcal{A}$  in the same way as Schwab and Silberberg [9], so that  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  becomes a normed ring (but, in contrast to  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \cdot)$ , not a valued ring). We show that all ideals in  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  are quasi-finite.

We show that  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  is isomorphic to a monomial quotient of a power series ring on countably many variables. It is présimplifiable and atomic, and there is a bound on the lengths of factorizations of a given element. We give a sufficient condition for nilpotency, and prove the existence of plenty of regular non-units.

Finally, we show that the set of arithmetical functions supported on square-free integers is a retract of  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$ .

# 2. The ring of arithmetical functions with unitary convolution

Let  $p_i$  denote the *i*'th prime number, and denote by  $\mathcal{P}$  the set of prime numbers. Let  $\mathcal{PP}$  denote the set of prime powers. Let  $\omega(r)$  denote the number of distinct prime factors of r, with  $\omega(1) = 0$ .

**Definition 2.1.** If k, m are positive integers, we define their *unitary product* as

$$k \oplus m = \begin{cases} km & \gcd(k,m) = 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(4)

If  $k \oplus m = p$ , then we write k || p and say that k is a *unitary divisor* of p.

The so-called *unitary convolution* was introduced by Vaidyanathaswamy [11], and was further studied Eckford Cohen [5].

**Definition 2.2.**  $\mathcal{A} = \{f : \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{C}\}$ , the set of complex-valued functions on the positive integers. We define the *unitary convolution* of  $f, g \in \mathcal{A}$  as

$$(f \oplus g)(n) = \sum_{\substack{m \oplus p=n \\ m,n \ge 1}} f(m)g(n) = \sum_{d||n} f(d)g(n/d)$$
(5)

and the addition as

$$(f+g)(n) = f(n) + g(n)$$

The ring  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  is called the ring of arithmetic functions with unitary convolution.

**Definition 2.3.** For each positive integer k, we define  $e_k \in \mathcal{A}$  by

$$e_k(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & k = n \\ 0 & k \neq n \end{cases}$$
(6)

We also define<sup>1</sup>  $\mathbf{0}$  as the zero function, and  $\mathbf{1}$  as the function which is constantly 1.

**Lemma 2.4. 0** is the additive unit of  $\mathcal{A}$ , and  $e_1$  is the multiplicative unit. We have that

$$(e_{k_1} \oplus e_{k_2} \oplus \dots \oplus e_{k_r})(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & n = k_1 k_2 \dots k_r \text{ and } \gcd(k_i, k_j) = 1 \text{ for } i \neq j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(7)

hence

$$e_{k_1} \oplus e_{k_2} \oplus \dots \oplus e_{k_r} = \begin{cases} e_{k_1 k_2 \dots k_r} & \text{if } \gcd(k_i, k_j) = 1 \text{ for } i \neq j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(8)

*Proof.* The first assertions are trivial. We have [10] that for  $f_1, \ldots, f_r \in \mathcal{A}$ ,

$$(f_1 \oplus \cdots f_r)(n) = \sum_{a_1 \oplus \cdots a_r = n} f_1(a_1) \cdots f_r(a_r)$$
(9)

Since

$$e_{k_1}(a_1)e_{k_2}(a_2)\cdots e_{k_r}(a_r) = 1$$
 iff  $\forall i: k_i = a_i$ ,

(7) follows.

**Lemma 2.5.** Any  $e_n$  can be uniquely expressed as a square-free monomial in  $\{e_k | k \in \mathcal{PP}\}$ .

*Proof.* By unique factorization, there is a unique way of writing  $n = p_{i_1}^{a_1} \cdots p_{i_r}^{a_r}$ , and (8) gives that

$$e_n = e_{p_{i_1}^{a_1} \cdots p_{i_r}^{a_r}} = e_{p_{i_1}^{a_1}} \oplus \cdots e_{p_{i_r}^{a_r}}.$$

**Theorem 2.6.**  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  is a quasi-local, non-noetherian commutative ring having divisors of zero. The units  $U(\mathcal{A})$  consists of those f such that  $f(1) \neq 0$ .

*Proof.* It is shown in [10] that  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  is a commutative ring, having zerodivisors, and that the units consists of those f such that  $f(1) \neq 0$ . If f(1) = 0 then

$$(f \oplus g)(1) = f(1)g(1) = 0.$$

Hence the non-units form an ideal  $\mathfrak{m},$  which is then the unique maximal ideal.

We will show (Lemma 3.10) that  $\mathfrak{m}$  contains an ideal (the ideal generated by all  $e_k$ , for k > 1) which is not finitely generated, so  $\mathcal{A}$  is non-noetherian.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>In [10], **1** is denoted  $e_1$ , and  $e_1$  denoted  $e_0$ .

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### 3. A topology on $\mathcal{A}$

The results of this section are inspired by [9], were the authors studied the ring of arithmetical functions under Dirichlet convolution. We'll use the notations of [3]. We regard  $\mathbb{C}$  as trivially normed.

**Definition 3.1.** Let  $f \in \mathcal{A} \setminus \{0\}$ . We define the *support* of f as

$$\operatorname{supp}(f) = \left\{ n \in \mathbb{N}^+ \middle| f(n) \neq 0 \right\}$$

$$(10)$$

We define the  $order^2$  of a non-zero element by

$$N(f) = \min \operatorname{supp}(f) \tag{11}$$

We also define the *norm* of f as

$$|f| = N(f)^{-1}$$
(12)

and the *degree* as

$$D(f) = \min \left\{ \omega(k) | k \in \operatorname{supp}(f) \right\}$$
(13)

By definition, the zero element has order infinity, norm 0, and degree -1.

**Lemma 3.2.** The value semigroup of  $(\mathcal{A}, |\cdot|)$  is  $|\mathcal{A} \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}| = \{1/k | k \in \mathbb{N}^+\}$ , a discrete subset of  $\mathbb{R}^+$ .

**Lemma 3.3.** Let  $f, g \in A \setminus \{0\}$ . Let N(f) = i, N(g) = j, so that  $f(i) \neq 0$  but f(k) = 0 for all k < i, and similarly for g. We assume that  $i \leq j$ . Then, the following hold:

- (i)  $N(f-g) \ge \min \{N(f), N(g)\}.$
- (*ii*) N(cf) = N(f) for  $c \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ .
- (iii) N(f) = 1 iff f is a unit.
- (iv)  $N(f \cdot g) = N(f)N(g) \le N(f \oplus g)$ , with equality iff (i, j) = 1.
- (v)  $N(f \oplus g) \ge \max{\{N(f), N(g)\}}$ , with strict inequality iff both f and g are non-units.
- (vi)  $D(f+g) \ge \min D(f), D(g).$
- (vii)  $D(f \cdot g) = D(f) + D(g)$ .
- (viii) D(f) = 0 if and only if f is a unit.
- (ix) Suppose that  $f \oplus g \neq \mathbf{0}$ . Then

$$D(f \oplus g) \ge D(f) + D(g) \ge \max \{D(f), D(g)\}.$$

with 
$$D(f) + D(g) > \max \{D(f), D(g)\}$$
 if f, g are non-units.

*Proof.* (i), (ii), and (iii) are trivial, and (iv) is proved in [10]. (vi), (vii), and (viii) are proved in [8]. Let m be a monomial in the support of f such that D(m) = D(f), and let n be a monomial in the support of g such that D(n) = D(g). For any a in the support of f and any q in the support of g, such that  $a \oplus q \neq 0$ , we have that

$$D(a \oplus q) = D(a) + D(q) \ge D(f) + D(g).$$

This proves (ix). (v) is proved similarly.

Corollary 3.4.  $|f \oplus g| \leq |f||g| = |f \cdot g|$ .

 $<sup>^{2}</sup>$ In [10] the term *norm* is used.

**Proposition 3.5.**  $|\cdot|$  is an ultrametric function on  $\mathcal{A}$ , making  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  a normed ring, as well as a faithfully normed, b-separable complete vector space over  $\mathbb{C}$ .

*Proof.*  $((\mathcal{A}, +, \cdot), |\cdot|)$  is a valuated ring, and a faithfully normed complete vector space over  $\mathbb{C}$  [9]. It is also separable with respect to bounded maps [3, Corollary 2.2.3]. So  $(\mathcal{A}, +)$  is a normed group, hence Corollary 3.4 shows that  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  is a normed ring.

Note that, unlike  $((\mathcal{A}, +, \cdot), |\cdot|)$ , the normed ring  $((\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus), |\cdot|)$  is not a valued ring, since

$$|e_2 \oplus e_2| = |\mathbf{0}| = 0 < |e_2|^2 = 1/4.$$

In fact, we have that

**Lemma 3.6.** If f is a unit, then  $1 = |f^n| = |f|^n$  for all positive integers n. If n is a non-unit, then  $|f^n| < |f|^n$  for all n > 1.

*Proof.* The first assertion is trivial, so suppose that f is a non-unit. From Corollary 3.4 we have that  $|f^n| \leq |f|^n$ . If |f| = 1/k, k > 1, i.e.  $f(k) \neq 0$  but f(j) = 0 for j < k, then  $f^2(k^2) = 0$  since gcd(k,k) = k > 1. It follows that  $|f^2| > |f|^2$ , from which the result follows.

Recall that in a normed ring, a non-zero element f is called

- topologically nilpotent if  $f^n \to 0$ ,
- power-multiplicative if  $|f^n| = |f|^n$  for all n,
- multiplicative if |fg| = |f||g| for all g in the ring.

**Theorem 3.7.** Let  $f \in ((\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus), |\cdot|), f \neq 0$ . Then the following are equivalent:

- (1) f is topologically nilpotent,
- (2) f is not power-multiplicative,
- (3) f is not multiplicative<sup>3</sup> in the normed ring  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus), |\cdot|),$
- (4) f is a non-unit,
- (5) |f| < 1.

*Proof.* Using [3, 1.2.2, Prop. 2], this follows from the previous Lemma, and the fact that for a unit f,

$$1 = \left| f^{-1} \right| = \left| f \right|^{-1}.$$

## 3.1. A Schauder basis for $(\mathcal{A}, |\cdot|)$ .

**Definition 3.8.** Let  $\mathcal{A}'$  denote the subset of  $\mathcal{A}$  consisting of functions with finite support. We define a pairing

$$\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{A}' \to \mathbb{C}$$

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f(k)g(k)$$
(14)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>This is not the same concept as multiplicativity for arithmetical functions, i.e. that f(nm) = f(n)f(m) whenever (n,m) = 1. However, since the latter kind of elements satisfy f(1) = 1, they are units, and hence multiplicative in the normed-ring sense.

**Theorem 3.9.** The set  $\{e_k | k \in \mathbb{N}^+\}$  is an ordered orthogonal Schauder base in the normed vector space  $(\mathcal{A}, |\cdot|)$ . In other words, if  $f \in \mathcal{A}$  then

$$f = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_k e_k, \qquad c_k \in \mathbb{C}$$
(15)

where

(i)  $|e_k| \to 0$ ,

(ii) the infinite sum (15) converges w.r.t. the ultrametric topology,

(iii) the coefficients  $c_k$  are uniquely determined by the fact that

$$\langle f, e_k \rangle = f(k) = c_k \tag{16}$$

(iv)

$$\max_{k \in \mathbb{N}^+} \left\{ |c_k| |e_k| \right\} = \left| \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_k e_k \right|$$
(17)

The set  $\{e_p | p \in \mathcal{PP}\}\$  generates a dense subalgebra of  $((\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus), |\cdot|)$ .

*Proof.* It is proved in [9] that this set is a Schauder base in the topological vector space  $(\mathcal{A}, |\cdot|)$ . It also follows from [9] that the coefficients  $c_k$  in (3.9) are given by  $c_k = f(k)$ .

It remains to prove orthogonality. With the above notation,

$$|f| = \left|\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_k e_k\right| = 1/j,$$

where j is the smallest k such that  $c_k \neq 0$ . Recalling that  $\mathbb{C}$  is trivially normed, we have that

$$|c_k||e_k| = \begin{cases} |e_k| = 1/k & \text{if } c_k \neq 0\\ 0 & \text{if } c_k = 0 \end{cases},$$

so  $\max_{k \in \mathbb{N}^+} \{ |c_k| | e_k | \} = 1/j$ , with j as above, so (17) holds.

By Lemma 2.5 any  $e_k$  can be written as a square-free monomial in the elements of  $\{e_p | p \in \mathcal{PP}\}$ . The set  $\{e_k | k \in \mathbb{N}^+\}$  is dense in  $\mathcal{A}$ , so  $\{e_p | p \in \mathcal{PP}\}$  generates a dense subalgebra.

Let  $J \subset \mathfrak{m}$  denote the ideal generated by all  $e_k, k > 1$ .

Lemma 3.10. J is not finitely generated.

*Proof.* If J is finitely generated, then there is an N such that

$$J = (e_2, \ldots, e_N).$$

Let L be a prime number, L > N. Since  $e_L \in J$ , we have that

$$e_L = \sum_{k=2}^N f_k \oplus e_k, \qquad f_k \in \mathcal{A}.$$

We write  $f_k = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_{ki} e_i$ , so that

$$e_L = \sum_{k=2}^{N} e_k \oplus \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_{ik} e_i = \sum_{k=2}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_{ik} e_i \oplus e_k = \sum_{k=2}^{N} \sum_{\gcd(i,k)=1}^{N} c_{ik} e_{ik}.$$

But this is impossible, because we can not write L = ik with gcd(i, k) = 1and  $2 \le i \le N < L$ .

**Definition 3.11.** An ideal  $I \subset \mathcal{A}$  is called quasi-finite if there exists a sequence  $(g_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$  in I such that  $|g_k| \to 0$  and such that every element  $f \in I$  can be written (not necessarily uniquely) as a convergent sum

$$f = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k \oplus g_k, \qquad a_k \in \mathcal{A}$$
(18)

Lemma 3.12. m is quasi-finite.

*Proof.* By Theorem 3.9 the set  $\{e_k | k > 1\}$  is a quasi-finite generating set for  $\mathfrak{m}$ .

Since all ideals are contained in  $\mathfrak{m}$ , it follows that any ideal containing  $\{e_k | k > 1\}$  is quasi-finite. Furthermore, such an ideal has  $\mathfrak{m}$  as its closure. In particular, J is quasi-finite, but not closed.

**Theorem 3.13.** All (non-zero) ideals in  $\mathcal{A}$  are quasi-finite. In fact, given any subspace I if we can find

$$G(I) := (g_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$$
 (19)

such that for all  $f \in I$ ,

$$\exists c_1, c_2, c_3, \dots \in \mathbb{C}, \qquad f = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_i g_i.$$
(20)

So all subspaces possesses a Schauder basis.

*Proof.* We construct G(I) in the following way: for each

 $k \in \{ \operatorname{N}(f) | f \in I \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\} \} =: N(I)$ 

we choose a  $g_k \in I$  with  $N(g_k) = k$ , and with  $g_k(k) = 1$ . In other words, we make sure that the "leading coefficient" is 1; this can always be achieved since the coefficients lie in a field. For  $k \notin N(I)$  we put  $g_k = \mathbf{0}$ .

To show that this choice of elements satisfy (20), take any  $f \in I$ , and put  $f_0 = f$ . Then define recursively, as long as  $f_i \neq \mathbf{0}$ ,

$$n_i := N(f_i)$$
$$\mathbb{C} \ni a_i := f_i(n_i)$$
$$\mathcal{A} \ni f_{i+1} := f_i - a_i g_{n_i}$$

Of course, if  $f_i = 0$ , then we have expressed f as a linear combination of

$$g_{n_1},\ldots,g_{n_{i-1}},$$

and we are done. Otherwise, note that by induction  $f_i \in I$ , so  $n_i \in N(I)$ , hence  $g_{n_i} \neq 0$ . Thus  $N(f_{i+1}) > N(f_i)$ , so  $|f_{i+1}| < |f_i|$ , whence

$$|f_0| > |f_1| > |f_2| > \dots \to 0.$$

But

$$f_{i+1} = f - \sum_{j=1}^{i} a_j g_{n_j},$$

 $\mathbf{SO}$ 

$$F_i := \sum_{j=1}^i a_j g_{n_j} \to f,$$

which shows that  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_j g_j = f$ .

## 4. A FUNDAMENTAL ISOMORPHISM

## 4.1. The monoid of separated monomials. Let

$$Y = \left\{ \left. y_i^{(j)} \right| i, j \in \mathbb{N}^+ \right\}$$
(21)

be an infinite set of variables, in bijective correspondence with the integer lattice points in the first quadrant minus the axes. We call the subset

$$Y_i = \left\{ \left. y_i^{(j)} \right| j \in \mathbb{N}^+ \right\}$$
(22)

the *i*'th column of Y.

Let [Y] denote the free abelian monoid on Y, and let  $\mathcal{M}$  be the subset of *separated monomials*, i.e. monomials in which no two occurring variables come from the same column:

$$\mathcal{M} = \left\{ \left. y_{i_1}^{(j_1)} y_{i_2}^{(j_1)} \cdots y_{i_r}^{(j_r)} \right| 1 \le i_i < i_2 < \cdots i_r \right\}$$
(23)

We regard  ${\mathcal M}$  as a monoid-with-zero, so that the multiplication is given by

$$m \oplus m' = \begin{cases} mm' & mm' \in \mathcal{M} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(24)

Note that the zero is exterior to  $\mathcal{M}$ , i.e.  $0 \notin \mathcal{M}$ . The set  $\mathcal{M} \cup \{0\}$  is a (non-cancellative) monoid if we define  $m \oplus 0 = 0$  for all  $m \in \mathcal{M}$ .

Recall that  $\mathcal{PP}$  denotes the set of prime powers. It follows from the fundamental theorem of arithmetic that any positive integer n can be uniquely written as a *square-free* product of prime powers. Hence we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
\Phi: Y \to \mathcal{PP} \\
y_i^{(j)} \mapsto p_i^j
\end{aligned} (25)$$

is a bijection which can be extended to a bijection

$$\Phi: \mathcal{M} \to \mathbb{N}^+$$

$$1 \mapsto 1$$

$$y_{i_1}^{(j_1)} \cdots y_{i_r}^{(j_r)} \mapsto p_{i_1}^{j_1} \cdots p_{i_r}^{j_r}$$
(26)

If we regard  $\mathbb{N}^+$  as a monoid-with-zero with the operation  $\oplus$  of (4), then (26) is a monoid-with-zero isomorphism.

4.2. The ring  $\mathcal{A}$  as a generalized power series ring, and as a quotient of  $\mathbb{C}[[Y]]$ . Let R be the large power series ring on [Y], i.e. R = C[[Y]] consists of all formal power series  $\sum c_{\alpha} y^{\alpha}$ , where the sum is over all multisets  $\alpha$  on Y.

Let S be the generalized monoid-with-zero ring on  $\mathcal{M}$ . By this, we mean that S is the set of all formal power series

$$\sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} f(m)m \tag{27}$$

with component-wise addition, and with multiplication

$$\left(\sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} f(m)m\right) \oplus \left(\sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} g(m)m\right) = \left(\sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} h(m)m\right)$$
$$h(m) = (f \oplus g)(m) = \sum_{s \oplus t = m} f(s)g(t)$$
(28)

Define

$$\operatorname{supp}(\sum_{m \in [Y]} c_m m) = \{ m \in Y | c_m \neq 0 \}$$

$$(29)$$

$$\operatorname{supp}(\sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} c_m m) = \{ m \in \mathcal{M} | c_m \neq 0 \}$$
(30)

(31)

Let furthermore

$$\mathfrak{D} = \{ f \in R | \operatorname{supp}(f) \cap \mathcal{M} = \emptyset \}$$
(32)

**Theorem 4.1.** S and  $\frac{R}{\mathfrak{D}}$  and  $\mathcal{A}$  are isomorphic as  $\mathbb{C}$ -algebras.

*Proof.* The bijection (26) induces a bijection between S and A which is an isomorphism because of the way multiplication is defined on S. In detail, the isomorphism is defined by

$$S \ni \sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} c_m m \mapsto f \in \mathcal{A}$$

$$f(\Phi(m)) = c_m$$
(33)

For the second part, consider the epimorphism

$$\phi: R \to S$$

$$\phi\left(\sum_{m \in [Y]} c_m m\right) = \sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} c_m m$$
Clearly, ker( $\phi$ ) =  $\mathfrak{D}$ , hence  $S \simeq \frac{R}{\ker(\phi)} = \frac{R}{\mathfrak{D}}$ .

Let us exemplify this isomorphism by noting that  $e_n$ , where n has the square-free factorization  $n = p_1^{a_1} \cdots p_r^{a_r}$ , corresponds to the square-free monomial  $y_1^{(a_1)} \cdots y_r^{(a_r)}$ , and that

$$\mathbf{1} = \sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} m = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \left( 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} y_i^{(j)} \right)$$
(34)

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What does its inverse  $\mu^*$  correspond to?

**Definition 4.2.** For  $m \in \mathcal{M}$ , we denote by D(m) the number of occurring variables in m (by definition, D(1) = 0 and  $D(0) = -\infty$ ). For

$$S \ni f = \sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} c_m m$$

we put

$$\mathcal{D}(f) = \min \left\{ \mathcal{D}(m) \middle| c_m \neq 0 \right\}$$
(35)

Using the isomorphism between S and A, we define D(g) for any  $g \in A$  by I

$$\mathsf{D}(g) = \min \left\{ \left. \omega(n) \right| f(n) \neq 0 \right\}.$$

It is known (see [10]) that

$$\mu^*(r) = (-1)^{\omega(r)} \tag{36}$$

We then have that  $\mu^*$  corresponds to

$$\mathbf{1}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \left(1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} y_i^{(j)}\right)} = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} y_i^{(j)}} = \sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} (-1)^{\mathcal{D}(m)} m \quad (37)$$

Recall that  $f \in \mathcal{A}$  is a *multiplicative* arithmetic function if f(nm) =f(n)f(m) whenever (n,m) = 1. Regarding f as an element of S we have that f is multiplicative if and only if it can be written as

$$f = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \left( 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} c_{i,j} y_i^{(j)} \right)$$
(38)

It is now easy to see that the multiplicative functions form a group under multiplication.

4.3. The continuous endomorphisms. In [9], Schwab and Silberberg characterized all continuous endomorphisms of  $\Gamma$ . We give the corresponding result for  $\mathcal{A}$ :

**Theorem 4.3.** Every continuous endomorphism  $\theta$  of the  $\mathbb{C}$ -algebra  $S \simeq \mathcal{A}$ is defined by

$$\theta(y_i^{(j)}) = \gamma_{i,j} \tag{39}$$

where

$$\gamma_{i,j}\gamma_{i,k} = 0 \qquad for \ all \ i,j,k \tag{40}$$

and

$$\gamma_{a_1(n),b_1(n)} \cdots \gamma_{a_r(n),b_r(n)} \to 0 \qquad as \ n = p_{a_1(n)}^{b_1(n)} \cdots p_{a_r(n)}^{b_r(n)} \to \infty$$
(41)

*Proof.* Recall that  $S \simeq \frac{R}{\mathfrak{D}}$ , where  $R = \mathbb{C}[[Y]]$  and  $\mathfrak{D}$  is the closure of the ideal generated by all non-separated quadratic monomials  $y_i^{(j)}y_i^{(k)}$ . Since the set of square-free monomials in the  $y_i^{(j)}$ 's form a Schauder base, any continuous C-algebra endomorphism  $\theta$  of S is determined by its values on the  $y_i^{(j)}$ 's, and must fulfill (41). Since  $y_i^{(j)}y_i^{(k)} = 0$  in S, we must have that

$$\theta(0) = \theta(y_i^{(j)} y_i^{(k)}) = \theta(y_i^{(j)}) \theta(y_i^{(k)}) = \gamma_{i,j} \gamma_{i,k} = 0.$$

5. NILPOTENT ELEMENTS AND ZERO DIVISORS

**Definition 5.1.** For  $m \in \mathbb{N}^+$ , define the *prime support* of m as

$$psupp(m) = \{ p \in \mathcal{P} | p | m \}$$

$$(42)$$

and (when m > 1) the leading prime as

$$lp(m) = \min psupp(m) \tag{43}$$

For  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ , put

$$A^{n} = \left\{ k \in \mathbb{N}^{+} \middle| p_{n} \middle| k \text{ but } p_{i} \not| k \text{ for } i < n \right\} = \left\{ k \in \mathbb{N}^{+} \middle| \operatorname{lp}(k) = p_{n} \right\}$$
(44)  
Then  $\mathbb{N}^{+} \setminus \{1\}$  is a disjoint union

$$\mathbb{N}^+ \setminus \{1\} = \bigsqcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A^i \tag{45}$$

**Definition 5.2.** Let  $f \in \mathcal{A}$  be a non-unit. The *canonical decomposition* of f is the unique way of expressing f as a convergent sum

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f_i, \quad f_i = \sum_{k \in A^i} f(k)e_k \tag{46}$$

The element f is said to be of *polynomial type* if all but finitely many of the  $f_i$ 's are zero. In that case, the largest N such that  $f_N \neq \mathbf{0}$  is called the *filtration degree* of f.

Lemma 5.3.

$$f_i = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} e_{p_i^j} \oplus g_{i,j}, \quad r \le i, \quad p_r \mid n \implies g_{i,j}(n) = 0.$$
(47)

For any n there is at most one pair (i, j) such that

$$\left(e_{p_i^j}\oplus g_{i,j}\right)(n)\neq 0.$$

More precisely, if

$$n = p_{i_1}^{j_1} \cdots p_{i_r}^{j_r}, \qquad i_1 < \cdots < i_r,$$

then  $\left(e_{p_{i_1}^{j_1}}\oplus g_{i_1,j_1}\right)(n)$  may be non zero.

**Definition 5.4.** For  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , define

$$I_k = \{ f \in \mathcal{A} | f(n) = 0 \text{ for every } n \text{ such that } (n, p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k) = 1 \}$$
(48)

**Lemma 5.5.**  $I_k$  is an ideal in  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$ .

*Proof.* It is shown in [8] that the  $I_k$ 's form an ascending chain of ideals in  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \cdot)$ . They are also easily seen to be ideals in  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$ : if

$$f \in I_k, g \in \mathcal{A} \text{ and } (n, p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k) = 1$$

then

$$(f\oplus g)(n) = \sum_{d\mid\mid n} f(d)g(n/d) = 0,$$

since  $(d, p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k) = 1$  for any unitary divisor of n.

**Theorem 5.6.** Let  $N \in \mathbb{N}^+$ , and let  $f \in (\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  be a non-unit. Then

 $I_N = \operatorname{ann}(e_{p_1 \cdots p_N})$  $= \{\mathbf{0}\} \cup \{f \in \mathcal{A} | f \text{ is of polynomial type and has filtration degree } N\}$  $= \overline{\mathcal{A} \left\{ e_{p^{a}} \mid a, i \in \mathbb{N}^{+}, i \leq N \right\}}$ 

where  $\overline{AW}$  denotes the topological closure of the ideal generated by the set W.

*Proof.* If  $f \in I_N$  then for all k

$$(f \oplus e_{p_1 \cdots p_N})(k) = \sum_{a \oplus p_1 \cdots p_N = k} f(a)e_{p_1 \cdots p_N}(p_1 \cdots p_N) = \sum_{a \oplus p_1 \cdots p_N = k} f(a) = 0$$
(49)

so  $f \in \operatorname{ann}(e_{p_1 \cdots p_N})$ . Conversely, if  $f \in \operatorname{ann}(e_{p_1 \cdots p_N})$  then  $(f \oplus e_{p_1 \cdots p_N})(k) = 0$ for all k, hence if  $(n, p_1 \cdots p_N) = 1$  then

$$0 = (f \oplus e_{p_1 \cdots p_N})(np_1 \cdots p_N) = f(n)e_{p_1 \cdots p_N}(p_1 \cdots p_N) = f(n)$$
(50)  
ce  $f \in I_N$ 

hence  $f \in I_N$ .

If  $f \in I_N$  then for j > N we get that  $f_j = \mathbf{0}$ , since

$$f_j(k) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k \notin A^j \\ f(k) = 0 & \text{if } k \in A^j \end{cases}$$

Hence  $f = \sum_{i=1}^{N} f_i$ . Conversely, if f can be expressed thusly, then  $f(k) = f_{j_1}(k) = 0$  for  $k = p_{j_1}^{a_1} \cdots p_{j_r}^{a_r}$  with  $N < j_1 < \cdots < j_r$ . The last equality follows from Theorem 3.9.

**Theorem 5.7.** Let  $f \in A$  be a non-unit. The following are equivalent:

- (i) f is of polynomial type.
- (*ii*)  $f \in \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} I_k$ ,
- (iii) There is a finite subset  $Q \subset \mathcal{P}$  such that f(k) = 0 for all k relatively prime to all  $p \in Q$ .
- (iv)  $f \in \bigcup_{N=1}^{\infty} \operatorname{ann}(e_{p_1p_2\cdots p_N}).$
- (v) f is contained in the topological closure of the ideal generated by the set  $\{ e_{p_i^a} | a, i \in \mathbb{N}^+, i \leq N \}.$

If f has finite support, then it is of polynomial type. If f is of polynomial type, then it is nilpotent.

*Proof.* Clearly, a finitely supported f is of polynomial type. The equivalence (i)  $\iff$ (ii)  $\iff$  (iii)  $\iff$  (iv)  $\iff$  (v) follows from the previous theorem.

If f is of polynomial type, say of filtration degree N, then

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^{N} f_i \tag{51}$$

and we see that if  $f^{N+1}$  is the N+1'st unitary power of f, then  $f^{N+1}$  is the linear combination of monomials in the  $f_i$ 's, and none of these monomials are square-free. Since  $f_i \oplus f_i = \mathbf{0}$  for all *i*, we have that  $f^{N+1} = \mathbf{0}$ . So *f* is nilpotent.

**Lemma 5.8.** The elements of polynomial type forms an ideal.

*Proof.* By the previous theorem, this set can be expressed as

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n,$$

which is an ideal since each  $I_n$  is.

**Question 5.9.** Are all [nilpotent elements, zero divisors] of polynomial type? If one could prove that the zero divisors are precisely the elements of polynomial type, then by Lemma 5.8 it would follow that  $Z(\mathcal{A})$  is an ideal, and moreover a prime ideal, since the product of two regular elements is regular (in any commutative ring). Then one could conclude [6] that  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  has few zero divisors, hence is additively regular, hence is a Marot ring.

**Theorem 5.10.**  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  contains infinitely many non-associate regular non-units.

*Proof.* Step 1. We first show that there is at least one such element. Let  $f \in \mathcal{A}$  denote the arithmetical function

$$f(k) = \begin{cases} 1 & k \in \mathcal{PP} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then f is a non-unit, and using a result by Yocom [13, 8] we have that f is contained in a subring of  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  which is a discrete valuation ring isomorphic to  $\mathbb{C}[[t]]$ , the power series ring in one indeterminate. This ring is a domain, so f is not nilpotent.

We claim that f is in fact regular. To show this, suppose that  $g \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $f \oplus g = \mathbf{0}$ . We will show that  $g = \mathbf{0}$ .

Any positive integer m can be written  $m = q_1^{a_1} \cdots q_r^{a_r}$ , where the  $q_i$  are distinct prime numbers. If r = 0, then m = 1, and g(1) = 0, since

$$0 = (f \oplus g)(2) = f(2)g(1) = g(1).$$

For the case r = 1, we want to show that  $g(q^a) = 0$  for all prime numbers q. Choose three different prime powers  $q_1^{a_1}$ ,  $q_2^{a_2}$ , and  $q_3^{a_3}$ . Then

$$0 = f \oplus g(q_i^{a_i} q_j^{a_j}) = f(q_i^{a_i})g(q_j^{a_j}) + f(q_j^{a_j})g(q_i^{a_i}) = g(q_j^{a_j}) + g(q_i^{a_i}),$$

when  $i \neq j, i, j \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ . In matrix notation, these three equations can be written as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} g(q_1^{\alpha_1}) \\ g(q_2^{\alpha_2}) \\ g(q_3^{\alpha_3}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

from which we conclude (since the determinant of the coefficient matrix is non-zero) that  $0 = g(q_1^{a_1}) = g(q_2^{a_2}) = g(q_3^{a_3})$ .

Now for the general case, r > 1. We need to show that that

$$g(q_1^{a_1} \cdots q_r^{a_r}) = 0 \tag{52}$$

whenever  $q_1^{a_1}, \ldots, q_r^{a_r}$  are pair-wise relatively prime prime powers.

Choose N pair-wise relatively prime prime powers  $q_1^{a_1}, \ldots, q_N^{a_N}$ . For each r + 1-subset  $q_{s_1}, \ldots, q_{s_{r+1}}$  of this set we get a homogeneous linear equation

$$0 = f \oplus g(q_{s_1} \dots q_{s_{r+1}}) = g(q_{s_2} \dots q_{s_{r+1}}) + g(q_{s_1} q_{s_3} \dots q_{s_{r+1}}) + \dots + g(q_{s_1} \dots g_{s_r}) \quad (53)$$

The matrix of the homogeneous linear equation system formed by all these equations is the incidence matrix of r-subsets (of a set of N elements) into r + 1-subsets. It has full rank [12]. Since it consists of  $\binom{N}{r+1}$  equations and  $\binom{N}{r}$  variables, we get that for sufficiently large N, the null-space is zero-dimensional, thus the homogeneous system has only the trivial solution. It follows, in particular, that (52) holds.

Thus, g(m) = 0 for all m, so f is a regular element.

**Step 2**. We construct infinitely many different regular non-units. Consider the element  $\tilde{f}$ , with

$$\tilde{f}(k) = \begin{cases} c_k & k \in \mathcal{PP} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and where the  $c_k$ 's are "sufficiently generic" non-zero complex numbers, then we claim that  $\tilde{f}$ , too, is a regular non-unit. With g, m, r as before, we have that, for r = 0,

$$0 = f \oplus g(p^a) == f(p^a)g(1) = c_{p^a}g(1).$$

We demand that  $c_{p^a} \neq 0$ , then g(1) = 0.

For a general r, we argue as follows: the incidence matrices that occurred before will be replaced with "generic" matrices whose elements are  $c_k$ 's or zeroes, and which specialize, when setting all  $c_k = 1$ , to full-rank matrices. They must therefore have full rank, and the proof goes through.

**Step 3.** Let g be a unit in  $\mathcal{A}$ , and  $\tilde{f}$  as above. We claim that if  $g \oplus f$  is of the above form, i.e. supported on  $\mathcal{PP}$ , then g must be a constant. Hence there are infinitely many non-associate regular non-units of the above form.

To prove the claim, we argue exactly as before, using the fact that  $g \oplus f$  is supported on  $\mathcal{PP}$ . For  $m = q_1^{a_1} \cdots q_r^{a_r}$  as before, the case r = 0 yields nothing:

$$0 = g \oplus f(1) = f(1)g(1) = 0g(1) = 0,$$

neither does the case r = 1:

$$w = g \oplus f(q^a) = f(q^a)g(1),$$

so g(1) may be non-zero. But for r = 2 we get

$$0 = g \oplus \tilde{f}(q_1^{a_1}q_2^{a_2}) = \tilde{f}(q_1^{a_1})g(q_2^{a_2}) + g(q_1^{a_1})\tilde{f}(q_2^{a_2}),$$

and also

$$0 = g \oplus \tilde{f}(q_1^{a_1}q_3^{a_3}) = \tilde{f}(q_1^{a_1})g(q_3^{a_3}) + g(q_1^{a_1})\tilde{f}(q_3^{a_3})$$
  
$$0 = g \oplus \tilde{f}(q_2^{a_2}q_3^{a_3}) = \tilde{f}(q_2^{a_2})g(q_3^{a_3}) + g(q_1^{a_1})\tilde{f}(q_3^{a_3})$$

which means that

$$\begin{bmatrix} \tilde{f}(q_2^{a_2}) & \tilde{f}(q_1^{a_1}) & 0\\ \tilde{f}(q_3^{a_3}) & 0 & \tilde{f}(q_1^{a_1})\\ 0 & \tilde{f}(q_3^{a_3}) & \tilde{f}(q_2^{a_2}) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} g(q_1^{a_1})\\ g(q_2^{a_2})\\ g(q_3^{a_3}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0\\ 0\\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

By our assumptions, the coefficient matrix is non-singular, so only the zero solution exists, hence  $g(q_1^{a_1}) = 0$ .

An analysis similar to what we did before shows that  $g(q_1^{a_1} \cdots q_r^{a_r}) = 0$  for r > 1.

With the same method, one can easily show that the characteristic function on  $\mathcal{P}$  is regular.

### 6. Some simple results on factorisation

Cashwell-Everett [4] showed that  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \cdot)$  is a UFD. We will briefly treat the factorisation properties of  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$ . Definitions and facts regarding factorisation in commutative rings with zero-divisors from the articles by Anderson and Valdes-Leon [1, 2] will be used.

First, we note that since  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  is quasi-local, it is présimplifiable, i.e.  $a \neq \mathbf{0}, a = r \oplus a$  implies that r is a unit. It follows that for  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ , the following three conditions are equivalent:

- (1) a, b are associates, i.e.  $\mathcal{A} \oplus a = \mathcal{A} \oplus b$ .
- (2) a, b are strong associates, i.e.  $a = u \oplus b$  for some unit u.
- (3) a, b are very strong associates, i.e.  $\mathcal{A} \oplus a = \mathcal{A} \oplus b$  and either  $a = b = \mathbf{0}$ , or  $a \neq \mathbf{0}$  and  $a = r \oplus b \implies r \in U(\mathcal{A})$ .

We say that  $a \in \mathcal{A}$  is *irreducible*, or an *atom*, if  $a = b \oplus c$  implies that a is associate with either b or c.

**Theorem 6.1.**  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  is atomic, *i.e.* all non-units can be written as a product of finitely many atoms. In fact,  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  is a bounded factorial ring (BFR), *i.e.* there is a bound on the length of all factorisations of an element.

*Proof.* It follows from Lemma 3.3 that the non-unit f has a factorisation into at most D(f) atoms.

**Example 6.2.** We have that  $e_2 \oplus (e_{2^k} + e_3) = e_6$  for all k, hence  $e_6$  has an infinite number of non-associate irreducible divisors, and infinitely many factorisations into atoms.

**Example 6.3.** The element  $h = e_{30}$  can be factored as  $e_2 \oplus e_3 \oplus e_5$ , or as  $(e_6 + e_{20}) \oplus (e_2 + e_5)$ .

These examples show that  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  is neither a half-factorial ring, nor a finite factorisation ring, nor a weak finite factorisation ring, nor an atomic idf-ring.

# 7. The subring of arithmetical functions supported on square-free integers

Let  $SQF \subset \mathbb{N}^+$  denote the set of square-free integers, and put

$$\mathfrak{C} = \{ f \in \mathcal{A} | \operatorname{supp}(f) \subset \mathcal{SQF} \}$$
(54)

For any  $f \in \mathcal{A}$ , denote by  $p(f) \in \mathfrak{C}$  the restriction of f to SQF.

**Theorem 7.1.**  $(\mathfrak{C}, +, \oplus)$  is a subring of  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$ , and a closed  $\mathbb{C}$ -subalgebra with respect to the norm  $|\cdot|$ . The map

$$p: \mathcal{A} \to \mathfrak{C}$$
$$f \mapsto p(f) \tag{55}$$

is a continuous  $\mathbb{C}$ -algebra epimorphism, and a retraction of the inclusion map  $\mathfrak{C} \subset \mathcal{A}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $f, g \in \mathfrak{C}$ . If  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+ \setminus SQ\mathcal{F}$  then (f+g)(n) = f(n) + g(n) = 0, and cf(n) = 0 for all  $c \in \mathbb{C}$ . Since  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+ \setminus SQ\mathcal{F}$ , there is at least on prime p such that  $p^2 | n$ . If m is a unitary divisor of m, then either m or n/m is divisible by  $p^2$ . Thus

$$(f \oplus g)(n) = \sum_{m \mid |n} f(m)g(n/m) = 0.$$

If  $f_k \to f$  in  $\mathcal{A}$ , and all  $f_k \in \mathfrak{C}$ , let  $n \in \operatorname{supp}(f)$ . Then there is an N such that  $f(n) = f_k(n)$  for all  $k \ge N$ . But  $\operatorname{supp}(f_k) \subset SQF$ , so  $n \in SQF$ . This shows that  $\mathfrak{C}$  is a closed subalgebra of  $\mathcal{A}$ .

It is clear that p(f + g) = p(f) + p(g) and that p(cf) = cp(f) for any  $c \in \mathbb{C}$ . If n is not square-free, we have already showed that

$$0 = (p(f) \oplus p(g))(n) = p((f \oplus g))(n).$$

Suppose therefore that n is square-free. Then so is all its unitary divisors, hence

$$p(f \oplus g)(n) = (f \oplus g)(n) = \sum_{m \mid |n} f(m)g(n/m) = \sum_{m \mid |n} p(f)(m)p(g)(n/m) = (p(f) \oplus p(g))(n).$$

We have that p(f) = f if and only if  $f \in \mathfrak{C}$ , hence p(p(f)) = p(f), so p is a retraction to the inclusion  $i : \mathfrak{C} \to \mathcal{A}$ . In other words,  $p \circ i = \mathrm{id}_{\mathfrak{C}}$ .

**Corollary 7.2.** The multiplicative inverse of an element in  $\mathfrak{C}$  lies in  $\mathfrak{C}$ .

*Proof.* If  $f \in \mathfrak{C}$ ,  $f \oplus g = e_1$  then

$$e_1 = p(e_1) = p(f \oplus g) = p(f) \oplus p(g) = f \oplus p(g),$$

hence g = p(g), so  $g \in \mathfrak{C}$ .

Alternatively, we can reason as follows. If f is a unit in  $\mathfrak{C}$  then we can without loss of generality assume that f(1) = 1. By Theorem 3.7,  $g = -f + e_1$  is topologically nilpotent, hence by Proposition 1.2.4 of [3] we have that the inverse of  $e_1 - g = f$  can be expressed as  $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} g^i$ . It is clear that g, and every power of it, is supported on SQF, hence so is  $f^{-1}$ .

Corollary 7.3.  $(\mathfrak{C}, +, \oplus)$  is semi-local.

*Proof.* The units consists of all  $f \in \mathfrak{C}$  with  $f(1) \neq 0$ , and the non-units form the unique maximal ideal.

Remark 7.4. More generally, given any subset  $Q \subset \mathbb{N}^+$ , we get a retract of  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$  when considering those arithmetical functions that are supported on the integers  $n = p_1^{a_1} \cdots p_r^{a_r}$  with  $a_i \in Q \cup \{0\}$ . This property is unique for the unitary convolution, among all regular convolutions in the sense of Narkiewicz [7].

In particular, the set of arithmetical functions supported on the exponentially odd integers (those n for which all  $a_i$  are odd) forms a retract of  $(\mathcal{A}, +, \oplus)$ . It follows that the inverse of such a function is of the same form.

Let  $T = \mathbb{C}[[x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots]]$ , the large power series ring on countably many variables, and let J denote the ideal of elements supported on non square-free monomials.

**Theorem 7.5.**  $(\mathfrak{C}, +, \oplus) \simeq T/J$ . This algebra can also be described as the generalized power series ring on the monoid-with-zero whose elements are all finite subsets of a fixed countable set X, with multiplication

$$A \times B = \begin{cases} A \cup B & \text{if } A \cap B = \emptyset \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(56)

*Proof.* Define  $\eta$  by

$$\eta: T \to \mathcal{A}$$
$$\eta(\sum_{m} c_{m}m) = \sum_{m \text{ square-free}} c_{m}e_{m},$$
(57)

where for a square-free monomial  $m = m_{i_1} \cdots m_{i_r}$  with  $1 \leq i_1 < \cdots < i_r$  we put  $e_m = e_{p_{i_1} \cdots p_{i_r}}$ . Then  $\eta(T) = \mathfrak{C}$ , ker  $\eta = J$ . It follows that  $\mathfrak{C} \simeq T/J$ .  $\Box$ 

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