## Western Number Theory Problems, 16 & 18 Dec 2013

## for distribution prior to 2014 (Monterey) meeting

## Edited by Gerry Myerson

Summary of earlier meetings & problem sets with old (pre 1984) & new numbering.

| ū.                 | · .                  | \-               | ,               |
|--------------------|----------------------|------------------|-----------------|
| 1967 Berkeley      | 1968 Berkeley        | 1969 Asilomar    |                 |
| 1970 Tucson        | 1971 Asilomar        | 1972 Claremont   | 72:01-72:05     |
| 1973 Los Angeles   | 73:01-73:16          | 1974 Los Angeles | 74:01-74:08     |
| 1975 Asilomar      | 75:01-75:23          |                  |                 |
| 1976 San Diego     | 1–65 i.e., 76:01–    | -76:65           |                 |
| 1977 Los Angeles   | 101–148 i.e., 77:01– | -77:48           |                 |
| 1978 Santa Barbara | 151–187 i.e., 78:01– | -78:37           |                 |
| 1979 Asilomar      | 201–231 i.e., 79:01– | -79:31           |                 |
| 1980 Tucson        | 251–268 i.e., 80:01– | -80:18           |                 |
| 1981 Santa Barbara | 301–328 i.e., 81:01– | -81:28           |                 |
| 1982 San Diego     | 351–375 i.e., 82:01– | -82:25           |                 |
| 1983 Asilomar      | 401–418 i.e., 83:01– | -83:18           |                 |
| 1984 Asilomar      | 84:01-84:27          | 1985 Asilomar    | 85:01-85:23     |
| 1986 Tucson        | 86:01-86:31          | 1987 Asilomar    | 87:01-87:15     |
| 1988 Las Vegas     | 88:01-88:22          | 1989 Asilomar    | 89:01-89:32     |
| 1990 Asilomar      | 90:01-90:19          | 1991 Asilomar    | 91:01-91:25     |
| 1992 Corvallis     | 92:01-92:19          | 1993 Asilomar    | 93:01-93:32     |
| 1994 San Diego     | 94:01-94:27          | 1995 Asilomar    | 95:01-95:19     |
| 1996 Las Vegas     | 96:01-96:18          | 1997 Asilomar    | 97:01-97:22     |
| 1998 San Francisco | 98:01-98:14          | 1999 Asilomar    | 99:01-99:12     |
| 2000 San Diego     | 000:01-000:15        | 2001 Asilomar    | 001:01-001:23   |
| 2002 San Francisco | 002:01-002:24        | 2003 Asilomar    | 003:01-003:08   |
| 2004 Las Vegas     | 004:01-004:17        | 2005 Asilomar    | 005:01-005:12   |
| 2006 Ensenada      | 006:01-006:15        | 2007 Asilomar    | 007:01-007:15   |
| 2008 Fort Collins  | 008:01-008:15        | 2009 Asilomar    | 009:01-009:20   |
| 2010 Orem          | 010:01-010:12        | 2011 Asilomar    | 011.01 – 011.16 |
| 2012 Asilomar      | 012:01-012:17        | 2013 Asilomar    | 013.01 – 013.13 |
|                    |                      |                  |                 |

[With comments on 99:08]

## COMMENTS ON ANY PROBLEM WELCOME AT ANY TIME

Department of Mathematics, Macquarie University, NSW 2109 Australia gerry.myerson@mq.edu.au Australia-2-9850-8952 fax 9850-8114 **99:08** (Greg Martin) Define a multiplicative function  $\tilde{\sigma}$  by

$$\tilde{\sigma}(p^r) = p^r - p^{r-1} + p^{r-2} - \ldots + (-1)^r$$

Note that  $\tilde{\sigma}(n) \leq n$  with equality only for n=1. Call n  $\tilde{\sigma}$ -perfect if  $2\tilde{\sigma}(n)=n$ ; examples are n=2,12,40,252,880,10880, and 75852. Call n  $\tilde{\sigma}$ -k-perfect (or, more generally,  $\tilde{\sigma}$ -multiply perfect) if  $k\tilde{\sigma}(n)=n$  for a positive integer k. Two examples of  $\tilde{\sigma}$ -3-perfects are n=30240 and  $n=2^{10}3^45^411\cdot 13^2\cdot 31\cdot 61\cdot 157\cdot 521\cdot 683$ —there are at least 40  $\tilde{\sigma}$ -3-perfects.

- 1. Are there any  $\tilde{\sigma}$ -k-perfect numbers with  $k \geq 4$ ?
- 2. Are there infinitely many  $\tilde{\sigma}$ -k-perfect numbers?
- 3. Are there any odd  $\tilde{\sigma}$ -3-perfect numbers? Any such number must be a square.

**Remarks:** Paraphrasing email from Greg: let  $\tau(n) = n/\tilde{\sigma}(n)$ , so  $\tau(n) = k$  means n is a  $\tilde{\sigma}$ -k-perfect number. Suppose  $n = p^{2k-1}m$ , p prime, and  $\tilde{\sigma}(p^{2k}) = q$  is prime, and (m, pq) = 1. Then it's not hard to prove that  $\tau(n) = \tau(npq)$ . In particular, if n is  $\tilde{\sigma}$ -k-perfect, so is npq.

Some examples of prime powers  $p^{2k-1}$  such that  $\tilde{\sigma}(p^{2k})$  is prime are

$$2^1, 2^3, 2^5, 2^9, 3^1, 3^3, 3^5, 5^3, 7^1, 13^1.$$

This makes it possible to find 40  $\tilde{\sigma}$ -3-perfects from the four examples  $2^3 3^3 5^2 7$ ,  $2^5 3^3 5 \cdot 7$ ,  $2^5 3^5 5^2 7^3 13$ , and  $2^9 3^3 5^3 11 \cdot 13 \cdot 31$ .

Jeff Lagarias suggested looking at the Dirichlet series generating function for  $\tilde{\sigma}$ , in analogy with

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sigma(n)}{n} n^{-s} = \zeta(s+1)\zeta(s).$$

Greg finds that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\tau(n)} n^{-s} = \zeta(2s+2)\zeta(s)/\zeta(s+1),$$

but no such tidy form for  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \tau(n) n^{-s}$ .

**Remark:** (2000) Doug Iannucci reports that if there is an odd  $\tilde{\sigma}$ -3-perfect number it has at least 18 prime factors, and its largest prime factor exceeds  $10^8$ .

**Remarks:** (2013) 1. Greg's questions appear toward the end of Problem B1 of UPINT, 3rd edition.

- 2. Iannucci's work is published as On a variation on perfect numbers, Integers: Electronic Journal of Combinatorial Number Theory 6 (2006) #A41, MR2280357 (2007i:11006), available from http://www.integers-ejcnt.org/vol6.html.
- 3. There are lower bounds on odd  $\tilde{\sigma}$ -k-perfect numbers in Zhou and Zhu, On k-imperfect numbers, Integers 9 (2009), A01, MR2475629 (2009k:11008).
- 4. The  $\tilde{\sigma}$ -function is studied in László Tóth, A survey of the alternating sum-of-divisors function, Acta Univ. Sapientiae, Math 5 (2013) 93–107; the emphasis is on questions other than those raised in 99:08.
  - 5. Andreas Weingartner answers Greg Martin's first question in the affirmative:

We found 192  $\tilde{\sigma}$ -4-perfect numbers. The smallest of these is

$$2^{13} \cdot 3^8 \cdot 5 \cdot 7^2 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 \cdot 19 \cdot 23 \cdot 37 \cdot 43^2 \cdot 127 \cdot 139 = 993803899780063855042560 \approx 9.9 \times 10^{23}$$

The largest of these is

Problems proposed 16 and 18 December 2013

**013.01** (Bart Goddard). For natural n, define D(n) by

$$D(n) = \#\{ k \le n : \sigma(k) < 2k \}$$

We say n is a Goddard number if  $\sigma(n) < 2k$  and  $\sigma(D(n)) > 2D(n)$ . Do there exist Goddard triplets (that is, n such that n, n+1, and n+2 are all Goddard)? quadruplets? quintuplets?

**Remark:** Goddard and Florian Luca have shown that there exist infinitely many Goddard twins, and no Goddard sextuplets.

**013.02** (Bart Goddard). Let k be a natural number. What conditions on k cause  $-1, -2, \ldots, -2k$  all to be quadratic nonresidues modulo  $k^n$  for some n? What is the relation between numbers k and r,  $1 \le r \le 2k$ , such that -r is a quadratic residue modulo  $k^n$  for all n?

**Remarks:** 1. As an example illustrating the first question,  $-1, -2, \ldots, -20$  are all quadratic nonresidues modulo  $10^n$  for all  $n \ge 6$ .

2. [Incorporating remarks of Kjell and Amy Wooding] Let k=2m, with m odd. Then in any reduced set of residues mod m, half will be quadratic residues modulo m. For n large enough, the numbers r such that -r is a quadratic residue modulo  $2^n$  will be the numbers  $4^i(8s+7)$ . The condition on the number k is that the quadratic residues modulo m be disjoint from those modulo  $2^n$ . For example, for k=10, the quadratic residues modulo high powers of 5 are the negatives of 1, 4, 6, 9, 11, 14, 16, 19, 21, 24, 25, 26, 29, 31, ..., the quadratic residues modulo high powers of 2 are the negatives of  $7, 15, 23, 28, 31, \ldots$ , and the first number in both lists is 31, so  $-1, -2, \ldots, -30$  are all quadratic nonresidues modulo  $10^n$  for n large. The same is true for k=14. For k=22, we find 7 is on both lists (-7 is a quadratic residue modulo 11, and also modulo  $2^n$  for all n). k=2p does not work for any other p<100.

**013.03** (Carl Pomerance). Let

$$D = \left\{ n : n \mid \binom{2n}{n} \right\}$$

Is the lower asymptotic density of D positive? Does D have an asymptotic density?

**Remarks:** Carl notes that D is infinite; if p and q are prime with (3/2)p < q < 2p, then pq is in D. He also notes that the upper asymptotic density is at most  $1 - \log 2$ , based on the observation that if n = mp where p > 2m is prime, then n is not in D. Further, for each fixed positive integer k,

$$\left\{ n: (n+k) \mid \binom{2n}{n} \right\}$$

has asymptotic density 1.

**013.04** (Sebastian Wedeniwski, via Kjell Wooding). Let f(x) be a polynomial. Find x in polynomial time such that f(x) is a sum of two squares.

**Remark:** It was pointed out that there may be no such x, e.g., if f(x) = 4g(x) + 3 for some polynomial g. Carl Pomerance noted that there is no polytime algorithm to find a prime  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , so if f(x) is x + n with n large, and we require x > 0, there is no polytime algorithm even though we know there are solutions. Kjell suggests asking for a randomized polytime algorithm, instead. In case f is quadratic (a case of particular interest for Wedeniwski), Dave Rusin suggests looking at J. B. Friedlander, H. Iwaniec, Small representations by indefinite ternary quadratic forms, Number Theory and Related Fields, Springer Proceedings in Mathematics & Statistics Volume 43 (2013) 157–164.

**013.05** (David Thomson). Let p be a prime, let r = tn + 1 be a different prime, let  $q = p^e$ . Let

$$K = \{1, \omega, \dots, \omega^{t-1}\}$$

with  $\omega$  a primitive t-th root of unity in the field of r elements. Let  $K_i = q^i K$ . Define the cyclotomic constants  $t_{ij}$  by

$$t_{ij} = \#\big(K_i \cap (1 + K_j)\big)$$

Under what conditions does p divide  $t_{ij}$ ?

**Remark:** David awards bonus points if the  $K_i$  are all disjoint; an easy condition for this is if  $\mathbf{Z}_r^*$  is generated by q and K.

**013.06** (Colin Weir). Fix f(x) monic, squarefree, nonconstant in  $\mathbf{F}_q[x]$ . For p irreducible in  $\mathbf{F}_q[x]$ , let  $N_p = q^{\deg p}$ . Does the product

$$\prod \left(1 - \frac{\left(\frac{f}{p}\right) + 1}{N_p(N_p + 1)}\right)$$

over p not dividing f(x) converge to a rational function in q?

**013.07** (Stefan Erickson). 1. Let  $d_k$  be the number of irreducible polynomials of degree k over  $\mathbf{F}_q$ . Find, if possible, a closed form for the product,

$$\prod_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1 + \frac{(-1)^k}{q^k + 1}}{1 + \frac{(-1)^k}{q^k}} \right)^{d_k}$$

- 2. What if we replace  $d_k$  with  $d_k/2$ ?
- 3. What if we restrict k to just even values?

Stefan reports that computer calculations suggest the first product is approximately 1 + (1/q).

**013.08** (Christelle Vincent). Fix a positive integer, N. Consider the set of all elliptic curves over the rationals of conductor N. What is the smallest prime p > 2 such that all of these elliptic curves are *not* supersingular at p?

**013.09** (Marc Brown, via Gerry Myerson). Is it true that for each rational r there is a set S of positive asymptotic density and a positive integer N such that for all rational  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ ,  $\alpha\beta^n + r$  is in S for at most N positive integers n?

Source: MathOverflow question 147431 from 9 November 2013.

**Remark:** For r=0, we can take S to be the squarefree integers, and N=2.

**Solution:** (Carl Pomerance) If r is an integer, we can take S to be the squarefree integers, shifted by r, and N=2. If r is not an integer, then if  $\beta$  is not an integer there is at most one value of n such that  $\alpha\beta^n+r$  is an integer, and we can take S to be the set of all integers, with N=1. Finally, if r is not an integer, and  $\beta$  is an integer, then we can write  $\alpha\beta^n+r$  as  $(st^n+p)/q$  for some integers p, q, s, t, with gcd(p,q)=1. Let U be the set of numbers that are squarefree and congruent to -p modulo q; this is a set of positive asymptotic density. Let S be the set of numbers of the form (u+p)/q, with u in U. Then S has positive asymptotic density, and if  $(st^n+p)/q$  is in S, then  $st^n$  is squarefree, so we can use this set S, with N=2.

**013.10** (John Friedlander). Let K be a number field of degree n, with discriminant  $\pm D$ , D > 0. Let  $\omega = (\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_n)$  be an integral basis. Let

$$\omega_i \omega_j = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ijk} \omega_k$$

for  $1 \le i, j \le n$ . Let  $A(\omega) = \max_{i,j,k} |a_{ijk}|$ . Let  $A = \min A(\omega)$  over all integral bases  $\omega$ .

- 1. Give a good upper bound for A,
- (a) for fixed n (but varying K),
- (b) uniformly in n.
- 2. The same for  $B(\omega) = \max_{i,j,k} |a_{ijk}\omega_k|$ .

**Remark:** Renate Scheidler suggested one could probably get  $D^n$ .

 $\mathbf{013.11}$  (Kjell Wooding). A DBNS (Double Base Number System) representation for an integer n is given by

$$n = \sum b_{ij} 2^i 3^j$$

with  $b_{ij}$  in  $\{0,1\}$  or in  $\{0,\pm 1\}$ . It is hard to find a shortest (fewest non-zero coefficients) representation for an integer. The greedy algorithm, where you find the largest  $2^i 3^j$  not exceeding N, and then proceed iteratively on  $N-2^i 3^j$ , finds a near-shortest representation.

Is there an efficient algorithm that consistently finds representations shorter than those found by the greedy algorithm?

**Remark:** Michael R. Avidon, On primitive 3-smooth partitions of n, Electron. J. Combin. 4 (1997) no. 1, Research Paper 2, MR1435128 (98a:11136) discusses these representations (in the  $b_{ij}$ -in- $\{0,1\}$  case), but is more concerned with the number of representations than with their lengths. The paper is available at

http://www.combinatorics.org/ojs/index.php/eljc/article/view/v4i1r2/pdf.

**013.12** (Kate Stange, via Stefan Erickson). An Apollonian Super-Packing (ASP, for short) is an orbit of a single Descartes configuration under the super-Apollonian group; see Graham et al., Apollonian Circle Packings: Geometry and Group Theory I, II, in Discrete and Computational Geometry. Is there a number-theoretic interpretation when two circles in an ASP intersect?

013.13 (Reese Scott and Rob Styer). 1. Can we find distinct pairs of integers

$$(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2), (a_3, b_3), (a_4, b_4)$$

and positive real numbers x and y,  $x \neq 1$ ,  $y \neq 1$ , such that

$$x^{a_1} - y^{b_1} = x^{a_2} - y^{b_2} = x^{a_3} - y^{b_3} = x^{a_4} - y^{b_4}$$
 (1)

The  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  are not required to be positive.

2. Can we show that (1) is satisfied by at most a finite number of choices of  $a_1, b_1, a_2, b_2, a_3, b_3, a_4, b_4, x, y$ ?

**Remarks:** 1. It is easy to find  $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2), (a_3, b_3)$  such that

$$x^{a_1} - y^{b_1} = x^{a_2} - y^{b_2} = x^{a_3} - y^{b_3} (2)$$

has a solution in positive real numbers x and y, since there are many ways to choose  $a_1, b_1, a_2, b_2, a_3, b_3$  so that the curve  $x^{a_1} - y^{b_1} = x^{a_2} - y^{b_2}$  intersects the curve  $x^{a_1} - y^{b_1} = x^{a_3} - y^{b_3}$ .

2. It is not hard to show that (1) requires that both x and y be irrational. (2) also requires both x and y be irrational except for two specific cases.