

ABOUT THE SMARANDACHE COMPLEMENTARY CUBIC FUNCTION

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DEFINITION. Let $g: \mathbb{N}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^+$ be a numerical function defined by $g(n) = k$, where k is the smallest natural number such that nk is a perfect cube: $nk = s^3, s \in \mathbb{N}^+$.

Examples: 1) $g(7) = 49$ because 49 is the smallest natural number such that $7 \cdot 49 = 7 \cdot 7^2 = 7^3$;

2) $g(12) = 18$ because 18 is the smallest natural number such that $12 \cdot 18 = (2^2 \cdot 3) \cdot (2 \cdot 3^2) = 2^3 \cdot 3^3 = (2 \cdot 3)^3$;

3) $g(27) = g(3^3) = 1$;

4) $g(54) = g(2 \cdot 3^3) = 2^2 = g(2)$.

PROPERTY 1. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, $g(n^3) = 1$ and for every prime p we have $g(p) = p^2$.

PROPERTY 2. Let n be a composite natural number and $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdot \dots \cdot p_r^{\alpha_r}$, $0 < p_1 < p_2 < \dots < p_r$, $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_r \in \mathbb{N}^+$ its prime factorization. Then $g(n) = p_1^{d(\bar{\alpha}_1)} \cdot p_2^{d(\bar{\alpha}_2)} \cdot \dots \cdot p_r^{d(\bar{\alpha}_r)}$, where $\bar{\alpha}_i$ is the remainder of the division of α_i by 3 and $d: \{0, 1, 2\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2\}$ is the numerical function defined by $d(0) = 0, d(1) = 2$ and $d(2) = 1$.

If we take into account of the above definition of the function g , it is easy to prove the above properties.

OBSERVATION: $d(\bar{\alpha}_i) = 3 - \bar{\alpha}_i$, for every $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{N}^+$, and in the sequel we use this writing for its simplicity.

REMARK 1. Let $m \in \mathbb{N}^+$ be a fixed natural number. If we consider now the numerical function $\tilde{g}: \mathbb{N}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^+$ defined by $\tilde{g}(n) = k$, where k is the smallest natural number such that $nk = s^m, s \in \mathbb{N}^+$, then we can observe that \tilde{g} generalize the function g , and we also have:

$\tilde{g}(n^m) = 1, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}^+, \tilde{g}(p) = p^{m-1}, \forall p$ prime and $\tilde{g}(n) = p_1^{\overline{m-\alpha_1}} \cdot p_2^{\overline{m-\alpha_2}} \cdot \dots \cdot p_r^{\overline{m-\alpha_r}}$, where $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdot \dots \cdot p_r^{\alpha_r}$ is the prime factorization of n and $\bar{\alpha}_i$ is the remainder of the division of α_i by m , therefore the both above properties holds for \tilde{g} , too.

REMARK 2. Because $1 \leq g(n) \leq n^2$, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, we have: $\frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{g(n)}{n} \leq n$, thus

$\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{g(n)}{n}$ is a divergent serie.

In a similar way, using that we have $1 \leq \tilde{g}(n) \leq n^{m-1}$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}^m$, it results that $\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{\tilde{g}(n)}{n}$ is also divergent.

PROPERTY 3. The function $g: \mathbb{N}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^m$ is multiplicative: $g(x \cdot y) = g(x) \cdot g(y)$ for every $x, y \in \mathbb{N}^m$ with $(x, y) = 1$.

Proof. For $x = 1 = y$ we have $(x, y) = 1$ and $g(1 \cdot 1) = g(1) \cdot g(1)$. Let $x = p_{i_1}^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_{i_2}^{\alpha_2} \cdot \dots \cdot p_{i_r}^{\alpha_r}$ and $y = q_{j_1}^{\beta_1} \cdot q_{j_2}^{\beta_2} \cdot \dots \cdot q_{j_s}^{\beta_s}$ be the prime factorization of x and y , respectively, so that $x \cdot y = 1$.

Because $(x, y) = 1$ we have $p_{i_h} = q_{j_k}$, for every $h = \overline{1, r}$ and $k = \overline{1, s}$.

$$\text{Then } g(x \cdot y) = p_{i_1}^{\overline{3-\alpha_1}} \cdot p_{i_2}^{\overline{3-\alpha_2}} \cdot \dots \cdot p_{i_r}^{\overline{3-\alpha_r}} \cdot q_{j_1}^{\overline{3-\beta_1}} \cdot q_{j_2}^{\overline{3-\beta_2}} \cdot \dots \cdot q_{j_s}^{\overline{3-\beta_s}} = g(x) \cdot g(y).$$

REMARK 3. The property holds also for the function $\tilde{g}: \tilde{g}(x \cdot y) = \tilde{g}(x) \cdot \tilde{g}(y)$, where $(x, y) = 1$.

PROPERTY 4. If $(x, y) = 1$, x and y are not perfect cubes and $x, y > 1$, then the equation $g(x) = g(y)$ has not natural solutions.

Proof. Let $x = \prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\alpha_h}$ and $y = \prod_{k=1}^s q_{j_k}^{\beta_k}$ (where $p_{i_h} \neq q_{j_k}, \forall h = \overline{1, r}, k = \overline{1, s}$, because $(x, y) = 1$) be their prime factorizations. Then $g(x) = \prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\overline{3-\alpha_h}}$ and $g(y) = \prod_{k=1}^s q_{j_k}^{\overline{3-\beta_k}}$ and there exist at least $\overline{\alpha_{i_a}} \neq 0$ and $\overline{\beta_{j_b}} \neq 0$ (because x and y are not perfect cubes), therefore $1 \neq p_{i_a}^{\overline{3-\alpha_h}} = q_{j_b}^{\overline{3-\beta_k}} \neq 1$, so $g(x) \neq g(y)$.

CONSEQUENCE 1. The equation $g(x) = g(x+1)$ has not natural solutions because for $x \geq 1$, x and $x+1$ are not both perfect cubes and $(x, x+1) = 1$.

REMARK 4. The property and the consequence is also true for the function \tilde{g} : if $(x, y) = 1$, $x > 1$, $y > 1$, and it does not exist $a, b \in \mathbb{N}^m$ so that $x = a^m$, $y = b^m$ (where m is fixed and has the above significance), then the equation $\tilde{g}(x) = \tilde{g}(y)$ has not natural solutions; the equation $\tilde{g}(x) = \tilde{g}(x+1)$, $x \geq 1$ has not natural solutions, too.

It is easy to see that the proofs are similar, but in this case we denote by $\overline{\alpha_{ij}} = \alpha_{ij} \pmod{m}$ and we replace $\overline{3-\alpha_{i_1}}$ by $\overline{m-\alpha_{i_1}}$.

PROPERTY 5. We have $g(x \cdot y^3) = g(x)$, for every $x, y \in \mathbb{N}^m$.

Proof. If $(x, y) = 1$, then $(x, y^3) = 1$ and using property 1 and property 3, we have: $g(x \cdot y^3) = g(x) \cdot g(y^3) = g(x)$.

If $(x, y) = 1$ we can write: $x = \prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\alpha_h} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\alpha_t}$ and $y = \prod_{k=1}^s q_{j_k}^{\beta_k} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\beta_t}$ where

$$\begin{aligned} p_{i_h} &= d_{l_t}, q_{j_k} = d_{l_t}, p_{i_h} = q_{j_k}, \forall h = \overline{1, r}, k = \overline{1, s}, t = \overline{1, n}. \text{ We have } g(x \cdot y^3) = g\left(\prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\alpha_h} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\alpha_t} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^s q_{j_k}^{3\beta_k} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{3\beta_t}\right) \\ &= g\left(\prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\alpha_h} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^s q_{j_k}^{3\beta_k} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\alpha_t + 3\beta_t}\right) = g\left(\prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\alpha_h} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^s q_{j_k}^{3\beta_k}\right) \cdot g\left(\prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\alpha_t + 3\beta_t}\right) = \\ &= \prod_{h=1}^r \overline{3 - \alpha_h} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^s \overline{3 - 3\beta_k} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n \overline{3 - \alpha_t + 3\beta_t} = \prod_{h=1}^r \overline{3 - \alpha_h} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n \overline{3 - \alpha_t} = g\left(\prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\alpha_h}\right) \cdot g\left(\prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\alpha_t}\right) = \\ &= g\left(\prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\alpha_h} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\alpha_t}\right) = g(x). \end{aligned}$$

We used that $\left(\prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\alpha_h} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\alpha_t}\right) = 1$ and $\left(\prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\alpha_h} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^s q_{j_k}^{3\beta_k} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\alpha_t - 3\beta_t}\right) = 1$ and the above properties.

REMARK 5. It is easy to see that we also have $\tilde{g}(x \cdot y^m) = \tilde{g}(x)$, for every $x, y \in \mathbb{N}^*$.

OBSERVATION . If $\frac{x}{y} = \frac{u^3}{v^3}$, where $\frac{u}{v}$ is a simplified fraction, then $g(x) = g(y)$. It is easy to prove this because $x = kn^3$ and $y = kv^3$, and using the above property we have:

$$g(x) = g(k \cdot u^3) = g(k) = g(k \cdot v^3) = g(y)$$

OBSERVATION. If $\frac{x}{y} = \frac{u^m}{v^m}$ where $\frac{u}{v}$ is a simplified fraction, then, using remark 5, we have $\tilde{g}(x) = \tilde{g}(y)$, too.

CONSEQUENCE 2. For every $x \in \mathbb{N}^*$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$g(x^n) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 3k; \\ g(x), & \text{if } n = 3k + 1; \\ g^2(x), & \text{if } n = 3k + 2, k \in \mathbb{N}, \end{cases}$$

where $g^2(x) = g(g(x))$.

Proof. If $n=3k$, then x^n is a perfect cube, therefore $g(x^n) = 1$.

If $n=3k+1$, then $g(x^n) = g(x^{3k} \cdot x) = g(x^{3k}) \cdot g(x) = g(x)$.

If $n=3k+2$, then $g(x^n) = g(x^{3k} \cdot x^2) = g(x^{3k}) \cdot g(x^2) = g(x^2)$.

PROPERTY 6. $g(x^2) = g^2(x)$, for every $x \in \mathbb{N}^*$.

Proof. Let $x = \prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\alpha_h}$ be the prime factorization of x . Then

$$g(x^2) = g\left(\prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{2\alpha_h}\right) = \prod_{h=1}^r \overline{3 - 2\alpha_h} \text{ and } g^2(x) = g(g(x)) = g\left(\prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\overline{3 - \alpha_h}}\right) = \prod_{h=1}^r \overline{3 - 3 - \alpha_h}, \text{ but it is}$$

easy to observe that $\overline{3 - 2\alpha_h} = \overline{3 - 3 - \alpha_h}$, because for :

$$\overline{\alpha_{i_h}} = 0 \quad \overline{3-2\alpha_{i_h}} = \overline{3-0} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \overline{3-3-\alpha_{i_h}} = \overline{3-3-0} = \overline{3-0} = 0$$

$$\overline{\alpha_{i_h}} = 1 \quad \overline{3-2\alpha_{i_h}} = \overline{3-2} = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \overline{3-3-\alpha_{i_h}} = \overline{3-3-1} = \overline{3-2} = 1$$

$$\overline{\alpha_{i_h}} = 2 \quad \overline{3-2\alpha_{i_h}} = \overline{3-4} = \overline{3-1} = 2 \quad \text{and} \quad \overline{3-3-\alpha_{i_h}} = \overline{3-3-2} = \overline{3-1} = 2,$$

therefore $g(x^2) = g^2(x)$.

REMARK 6. For the function \tilde{g} is not true that $\tilde{g}(x^2) = \tilde{g}^2(x)$, $\forall x \in \mathbb{N}^*$. For example, for $m=5$ and $x=3^2$, $\tilde{g}(x^2) = \tilde{g}(3^4) = 3$ while $\tilde{g}(\tilde{g}(3^2)) = \tilde{g}(3^3) = 3^2$.

More generally $\tilde{g}(x^k) = \tilde{g}^k(x)$, $\forall x \in \mathbb{N}^*$ is not true. But for particular values of m, k and x the above equality is possible to be true. For example for $m=6$, $x=2^2$ and $k=2$: $\tilde{g}(x^2) = \tilde{g}(2^4) = 2^2$ and $\tilde{g}^2(x) = \tilde{g}(\tilde{g}(2^2)) = \tilde{g}(2^4) = 2^2$.

REMARK 6'. a) $\tilde{g}(x^{m-1}) = \tilde{g}^{m-1}(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{N}^*$ iff m is an odd number, because we have $\overline{m-(m-1)\alpha_{i_h}} = \overline{m-m+\dots+m-\alpha_{i_h}}$, for every $\alpha_{i_h} \in \mathbb{N}$.

Example: For $m=5$, $\tilde{g}(x^4) = \tilde{g}^4(x)$, for every $x \in \mathbb{N}^*$.

b) $\tilde{g}(x^{m-1}) = \tilde{g}^m(x)$, for every $x \in \mathbb{N}^*$ iff m is an even number, because we have $\overline{m-(m-1)\alpha_{i_h}} = \overline{m-m+\dots+m-\alpha_{i_h}}$, for every $\alpha_{i_h} \in \mathbb{N}$.

Example: For $m=4$, $\tilde{g}(x^3) = \tilde{g}^4(x)$, for every $x \in \mathbb{N}^*$.

PROPERTY 7. For every $x \in \mathbb{N}^*$ we have $g^3(x) = g(x)$.

Proof. Let $x = \prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\alpha_{i_h}}$ be the prime factorization of x . We saw that $g(x) = \prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_h}}}$ and

$$g^3(x) = g(g^2(x)) = g\left(\prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\overline{3-3-\alpha_{i_h}}}\right) = \prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\overline{3-3-3-\alpha_{i_h}}}.$$

But $\overline{3-\alpha_{i_h}} = \overline{3-3-3-\alpha_{i_h}}$, for every $\alpha_{i_h} \in \mathbb{N}$, because for:

$$\overline{\alpha_{i_h}} = 0 \quad \overline{3-\alpha_{i_h}} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \overline{3-3-3-\alpha_{i_h}} = \overline{3-3-3-0} = \overline{3-3-0} = \overline{3-0} = 0$$

$$\overline{\alpha_{i_h}} = 1 \quad \overline{3-\alpha_{i_h}} = 2 \quad \text{and} \quad \overline{3-3-3-\alpha_{i_h}} = \overline{3-3-3-1} = \overline{3-3-2} = \overline{3-1} = 2$$

$$\overline{\alpha_{i_h}} = 2 \quad \overline{3-\alpha_{i_h}} = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \overline{3-3-3-\alpha_{i_h}} = \overline{3-3-3-2} = \overline{3-3-1} = \overline{3-2} = 1,$$

therefore $g^3(x) = g(x)$, for every $x \in \mathbb{N}^*$.

REMARK 7. For every $x \in \mathbb{N}^*$ we have $\bar{g}^3(x) = \bar{g}(x)$ because $\overline{m - \alpha_{i_h}} = m - m - m - \alpha_{i_h}$, for every $\alpha_{i_h} \in \mathbb{N}$. For $\overline{\alpha_{i_h}} = a \in \{1, \dots, m-1\} = A$, we have $\overline{m - \alpha_{i_h}} = m - a \in A$, therefore $\overline{m - m - \alpha_{i_h}} = \overline{m - (m - a)} = \overline{a} = a$, so that $\overline{m - m - m - \alpha_{i_h}} = \overline{m - a} = \overline{m - \alpha_{i_h}}$, which is also true for $\overline{\alpha_{i_h}} = 0$, therefore it is true for every $\alpha_{i_h} \in \mathbb{N}^*$.

PROPERTY 8. For every $x, y \in \mathbb{N}^*$ we have $g(x \cdot y) = g^2(g(x) \cdot g(y))$.

Proof. Let $x = \prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\alpha_{i_h}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\alpha_{l_t}}$ and $y = \prod_{k=1}^s q_{j_k}^{\beta_{j_k}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\beta_{l_t}}$ be the prime factorization of x and y , respectively, where $p_{i_h} \neq d_{l_t}, q_{j_k} \neq d_{l_t}, p_{i_h} \neq q_{j_k}, \forall h = \overline{1, r}, k = \overline{1, s}, t = \overline{1, n}$. Of course $x \cdot y = \prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\alpha_{i_h}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^s q_{j_k}^{\beta_{j_k}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\alpha_{l_t} + \beta_{l_t}}$, so $g(x \cdot y) = \prod_{h=1}^r \overline{3 - \alpha_{i_h}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^s \overline{3 - \beta_{j_k}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n \overline{3 - (\alpha_{l_t} + \beta_{l_t})}$. On the other hand, $g(x) = \prod_{h=1}^r \overline{3 - \alpha_{i_h}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n \overline{3 - \alpha_{l_t}}$ and $g(y) = \prod_{k=1}^s \overline{3 - \beta_{j_k}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n \overline{3 - \beta_{l_t}}$, so that $g^2(g(x) \cdot g(y)) = g^2\left(\prod_{h=1}^r \overline{3 - \alpha_{i_h}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^s \overline{3 - \beta_{j_k}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n \overline{3 - \alpha_{l_t} + 3 - \beta_{l_t}}\right) = \prod_{h=1}^r \overline{3 - 3 - 3 - \alpha_{i_h}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^s \overline{3 - 3 - 3 - \beta_{j_k}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n \overline{3 - 3 - (3 - \alpha_{l_t} + 3 - \beta_{l_t})} = \prod_{h=1}^r \overline{3 - \alpha_{i_h}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^s \overline{3 - \beta_{j_k}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n \overline{3 - (\alpha_{l_t} + \beta_{l_t})} = g(x \cdot y)$, because $\overline{3 - 3 - 3 - a} = \overline{3 - a}$ and $\overline{3 - 3 - (3 - a + 3 - b)} = \overline{3 - (a + b)}, \forall a, b \in \mathbb{N}$.

REMARK 8. In the case when $(x, y) = 1$ we obtain more simply the same result. Because $(x, y) = 1 \Rightarrow (g(x), g(y)) = 1 \Rightarrow (g^2(x), g^2(y)) = 1$ so we have:

$$\begin{aligned} g^2(g(x) \cdot g(y)) &= g(g(g(x) \cdot g(y))) = g(g(g(x)) \cdot g(g(y))) = g(g^2(x) \cdot g^2(y)) = \\ &= g(g^2(x)) \cdot g(g^2(y)) = g^3(x) \cdot g^3(y) = g(x) \cdot g(y) = g(x \cdot y). \end{aligned}$$

REMARK 9. If $(x, y) = 1$, then $g(xyz) = g^2(g(xy) \cdot g(z)) = g^2(g(x)g(y)g(z))$ and this property can be extended for a finite number of factors, therefore if $(x_1, x_2) = (x_2, x_3) = \dots = (x_{n-2}, x_{n-1}) = 1$, then $g\left(\prod_{i=1}^n x_i\right) = g^2\left(\prod_{i=1}^n g(x_i)\right)$.

PROPERTY 9. The function g has not fixed points $x \neq 1$.

Proof. We must prove that the equation $g(x) = x$ has not solutions $x > 1$.

Let $x = p_{i_1}^{\alpha_{i_1}} \cdot p_{i_2}^{\alpha_{i_2}} \cdot \dots \cdot p_{i_r}^{\alpha_{i_r}}, \alpha_{i_j} \geq 1, j = \overline{1, r}$ be the prime factorization of x . Then $g(x) = \prod_{j=1}^r \overline{3 - \alpha_{i_j}}$ implies that $\alpha_{i_j} = 3 - \alpha_{i_j}, \forall j = \overline{1, r}$ which is not possible.

REMARK 10. The function \bar{g} has fixed points only in the case $m = 2k, k \in \mathbb{N}^*$. These points are $x = p_{i_1}^k \cdot p_{i_2}^k \cdot \dots \cdot p_{i_r}^k$, where $p_{i_j}, j = \overline{1, r}$ are prime numbers.

PROPERTY 10. If $\left(\frac{x}{(x,y)}, y\right) = 1$ and $\left(\frac{y}{(x,y)}, x\right) = 1$ then we have $g((x,y)) = (g(x), g(y))$, where we denote by (x,y) the greatest common divisor of x and y .

Proof. Because $\left(\frac{x}{(x,y)}, y\right) = 1$ and $\left(\frac{y}{(x,y)}, x\right) = 1$, we have $\left(\frac{x}{(x,y)}, (x,y)\right) = 1$ and $\left(\frac{y}{(x,y)}, (x,y)\right) = 1$, then x and y have the following prime factorization: $x = \prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\alpha_h} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\alpha_t}$ and $y = \prod_{k=1}^s q_{j_k}^{\beta_k} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\alpha_t}$, $p_{i_h} \neq d_{l_t}, q_{j_k} \neq d_{l_t}, p_{i_h} \neq q_{j_k}, \forall h = \overline{1,r}, k = \overline{1,s}, t = \overline{1,n}$. Then $(x,y) = \prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\alpha_t}$, therefore $g((x,y)) = \prod_{t=1}^n \overline{3^{-\alpha_t}}$. On the other hand $(g(x), g(y)) = \left(\prod_{h=1}^r \overline{3^{-\alpha_h}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n \overline{3^{-\alpha_t}}, \prod_{k=1}^s \overline{3^{-\beta_k}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n \overline{3^{-\alpha_t}}\right) = \prod_{t=1}^n \overline{3^{-\alpha_t}}$ and the assertion follows.

REMARK 11. In the same conditions, $\tilde{g}((x,y)) = (\tilde{g}(x), \tilde{g}(y)), \forall x, y \in \mathbb{N}^*$.

PROPERTY 11. If $\left(\frac{x}{(x,y)}, y\right) = 1$ and $\left(\frac{y}{(x,y)}, x\right) = 1$ then we have: $g([x,y]) = [g(x), g(y)]$, where (x,y) has the above significance and $[x,y]$ is the least common multiple of x and y .

Proof. We have the prime factorization of x and y used in the proof of the above property, therefore:

$$g([x \cdot y]) = g\left(\prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\alpha_h} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^s q_{j_k}^{\beta_k} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\alpha_t}\right) = \prod_{h=1}^r \overline{3^{-\alpha_h}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^s \overline{3^{-\beta_k}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n \overline{3^{-\alpha_t}}$$
 and
$$[g(x), g(y)] = \left[\prod_{h=1}^r \overline{3^{-\alpha_h}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n \overline{3^{-\alpha_t}}, \prod_{k=1}^s \overline{3^{-\beta_k}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n \overline{3^{-\alpha_t}} \right] =$$

$$= \prod_{h=1}^r \overline{3^{-\alpha_h}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^s \overline{3^{-\beta_k}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^n \overline{3^{-\alpha_t}},$$

so we have $g([x,y]) = [g(x), g(y)]$.

REMARK 12. In the same conditions, $\tilde{g}([x,y]) = [\tilde{g}(x), \tilde{g}(y)], \forall x, y \in \mathbb{N}^*$.

CONSEQUENCE 4. If $\left(\frac{x}{(x,y)}, y\right) = 1$ and $\left(\frac{y}{(x,y)}, x\right) = 1$, then $g(x) \cdot g(y) = g((x,y)) \cdot g([x,y])$ for every $x, y \in \mathbb{N}^*$.

Proof. Because $[x, y] = \frac{xy}{(x, y)}$ we have $[g(x), g(y)] = \frac{g(x) \cdot g(y)}{(g(x), g(y))}$ and using the last two properties we have:

$$g(x) \cdot g(y) = (g(x), g(y)) \cdot [g(x), g(y)] = g((x, y)) \cdot g([x, y]).$$

REMARK 13. In the same conditions, we also have $\tilde{g}(x) \cdot \tilde{g}(y) = \tilde{g}((x, y)) \cdot \tilde{g}([x, y])$ for every $x, y \in \mathbb{N}^*$.

PROPERTY 13. The sumatory numerical function of the function g is

$$F(n) = \prod_{j=1}^k \left(\frac{\alpha_j + 3 - \overline{\alpha_j}}{3} (1 + p_j + p_j^2) + h_{p_j}(\alpha_j) \right),$$

where $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdot \dots \cdot p_k^{\alpha_k}$ is the prime factorization of n , and $h_p: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is the numerical function defined by $h_p(\alpha) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } \alpha = 3k \\ -p & \text{for } \alpha = 3k + 1, \text{ where } p \text{ is a given number.} \\ 0 & \text{for } \alpha = 3k + 2 \end{cases}$

Proof. Because the sumatory function of g is defined as $F(n) = \sum_{d|n} g(d)$ and because

$(p_1^{\alpha_1}, \prod_{t=2}^k p_t^{\alpha_t}) = 1$ and g is a multiplicative function, we have:

$$F(n) = \left(\sum_{d_1 | p_1^{\alpha_1}} g(d_1) \right) \cdot \left(\sum_{d_2 | p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k}} g(d_2) \right) \text{ and so on, making a finite number of steps we}$$

obtain: $F(n) = \prod_{j=1}^k F(p_j^{\alpha_j})$.

But it is easy to prove that:

$$F(p^\alpha) = \begin{cases} \frac{\alpha}{3}(1+p+p^2)+1 & \text{for } \alpha = 3k; \\ \frac{\alpha+2}{3}(1+p+p^2)-p & \text{for } \alpha = 3k+1; \\ \frac{\alpha+1}{3}(1+p+p^2) & \text{for } \alpha = 3k, k \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ for every prime } p \end{cases}$$

Using the function h_p , we can write $F(p^\alpha) = \frac{3-\overline{\alpha}}{3}(1+p+p^2) + h_p(\alpha)$, therefore we have the demanded expression of $F(n)$.

REMARK 14. The expression of $F(n)$, where F is the sumatory function of \tilde{g} , is similar, but it is necessary to replace

$\frac{\overline{\alpha_1 + 3 - \alpha_1}}{3}$ by $\frac{\overline{\alpha_1 + m - \alpha_1}}{m}$ (where $\overline{\alpha_1}$ is now the remainder of the division of α_1 by m and the sum $1 + p_{i_1} + p_{i_1}^2$ by $\sum_{k=0}^{m-1} p_{i_1}^k$) and to define an adapted function h_p .

In the sequel we study some equations which involve the function g .

1. Find the solutions of the equations $x \cdot g(x) = a$, where $x, a \in \mathbb{N}^*$.

If a is not a perfect cube, then the above equation has not solutions.

If a is a perfect cube, $a = b^3, b \in \mathbb{N}^*$, where $b = p_{i_1}^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_{i_2}^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_{i_k}^{\alpha_k}$ is the prime factorization of b , then, taking into account of the definition of the function g , we have the solutions $x = b^3 / d_{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_k}$ where d_{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_k} can be every product $p_{i_1}^{\beta_1} p_{i_2}^{\beta_2} \cdots p_{i_k}^{\beta_k}$ where $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_k$ take an arbitrary value which belongs of the set $\{0, 1, 2\}$.

In the case when $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \dots = \beta_k = 0$ we find the special solution $x = b^3$, when $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \dots = \beta_k = 1$, the solution $p_{i_1}^{3\beta_1-1} p_{i_2}^{3\beta_2-1} \cdots p_{i_k}^{3\beta_k-1}$ and when $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \dots = \beta_k = 2$, the solution $p_{i_1}^{3\beta_1-2} p_{i_2}^{3\beta_2-2} \cdots p_{i_k}^{3\beta_k-2}$.

We find in this way $1 + 2C_k^1 + 2^2 C_k^1 + \dots + 2^k C_k^k = 3^k$ different solutions, where k is the number of the prime divisors of b .

2. Prove that the following equations have not natural solutions:

$xg(x) + yg(y) + zg(z) = 4$ or $xg(x) + yg(y) + zg(z) = 5$. Give a generalization.

Because $xg(x) = a^3, yg(y) = b^3, zg(z) = c^3$ and the equations $a^3 + b^3 + c^3 = 4$ or $a^3 + b^3 + c^3 = 5$ have not natural solutions, then the assertion holds.

We can also say that the equations $(xg(x))^n + (yg(y))^n + (zg(z))^n = 4$ or $(xg(x))^n + (yg(y))^n + (zg(z))^n = 5$ have not natural solutions, because the equations $a^{3n} + b^{3n} + c^{3n} = 4$ or $a^{3n} + b^{3n} + c^{3n} = 5$ have not.

3. Find all solutions of the equation $xg(x) - yg(y) = 999$.

Because $xg(x) = a^3$ and $yg(y) = b^3$ we must give the solutions of the equation $a^3 - b^3 = 999$, which are $(a=10, b=1)$ and $(a=12, b=9)$.

In the first case: $a=10, b=1$ we have $xa(x) = 10^3 = 2^3 \cdot 5^3$

$$\Rightarrow x_0 \in \{10^3, 2^2 \cdot 5^3, 2^3 \cdot 5^2, 2 \cdot 5^3, 2^3 \cdot 5, 2^2 \cdot 5^2, 2^2 \cdot 5, 2 \cdot 5^2, 2 \cdot 5\}$$

and $yb(y)=1 \Rightarrow y_0 = 1$ so we have 9 different solutions (x_0, y_0) .

In the second case: $a=12, b=9$ we have $xa(x) = 12^3 = 2^6 \cdot 3^3$

$$\Rightarrow x_0 \in \{2^6 \cdot 3^3, 2^5 \cdot 3^3, 2^6 \cdot 3^2, 2^4 \cdot 3^3, 2^6 \cdot 3, 2^5 \cdot 3^2, 2^4 \cdot 3^2, 2^5 \cdot 3, 2^4 \cdot 3\}$$

and $yb(y)=9^3 = 3^9 \Rightarrow y_0 \in \{3^9, 3^8, 3^7\}$ so we have another $9 \cdot 3 = 27$ different solutions

(x_0, y_0) .

4. It is easy to observe that the equation $g(x)=1$ has an infinite number of solutions: all perfect cube numbers.

5. Find the solutions of the equation $g(x) + g(y) + g(z) = g(x)g(y)g(z)$.

The same problem when the function is \tilde{g} .

It is easy to prove that the solutions are, in the first case, the permutations of the sets $\{u^3, 4v^3, 9t^3\}$, where $u, v, t \in \mathbb{N}^*$, and in the second case $\{u^m, 2^{m-1}v^m, 3^{m-1}t^m\}$, $u, v, t \in \mathbb{N}^*$.

Using the same idea of [1], it is easy to find the solutions of the following equations which involve the function g :

a) $g(x) = kg(y)$, $k \in \mathbb{N}^*$, $k > 1$

b) $Ag(x) + Bg(y) + Cg(z) = 0$, $A, B, C \in \mathbb{Z}^*$

c) $Ag(x) + Bg(y) = C$, $A, B, C \in \mathbb{Z}^*$, and to find also the solutions of the above equations when we replace the function g by \tilde{g} .

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