ABOUT THE SMARANDACHE COMPLEMENTARY CUBIC FUNCTION

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

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

PROPERTY 2. Let n be a composite natural number and $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{p}_{i_1}^{\alpha_{i_1}} \cdot \mathbf{p}_{i_2}^{\alpha_{i_2}} \cdot \cdots \cdot \mathbf{p}_{i_r}^{\alpha_{i_r}}$, $0 < \mathbf{p}_{i_1} < \mathbf{p}_{i_2} < \cdots < \mathbf{p}_{i_r}$, $\alpha_{i_1}, \alpha_{i_2}, \ldots, \alpha_{i_r} \in \mathbf{N}$ its prime factorization. Then $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{n}) = \mathbf{p}_{i_1}^{\mathbf{d}(\overline{\alpha}_{i_1})} \cdot \mathbf{p}_{i_2}^{\mathbf{d}(\overline{\alpha}_{i_2})} \cdot \cdots \cdot \mathbf{p}_{i_r}^{\mathbf{d}(\overline{\alpha}_{i_r})}$, where $\overline{\alpha}_{i_1}$ is the remainder of the division of α_{i_1} by 3 and $\mathbf{d}: \{0,1,2\} \to \{0,1,2\}$ is the numerical function defined by $\mathbf{d}(0) = 0, \mathbf{d}(1) = 2$ and $\mathbf{d}(2) = 1$.

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

OBSERVATION: $d(\overline{\alpha_{i_j}}) = \overline{3 - \overline{\alpha_{i_j}}}$, for every $\alpha_{i_j} \in \mathbb{N}^*$, and in the sequel we use this writing for its simplicity.

REMARK 1. Let $m \in N$ be a fixed natural number. If we consider now the numerical function $\tilde{g}: N \to N$ defined by $\tilde{g}(n) = k$, where k is the smallest natural number such that $nk = s^m, s \in N$, then we can observe that \tilde{g} generalize the function g, and we also have: $\tilde{g}(n^m) = 1, \ \forall n \in N$, $\tilde{g}(p) = p^{m-1}, \ \forall p$ prime and $\tilde{g}(n) = p_{i_1}^{m-\alpha_i}, p_{i_2}^{m-\alpha_{i_2}}, \dots, p_{i_r}^{m-\alpha_{i_r}}$, where $n = p_{i_1}^{\alpha_i} \cdot p_{i_2}^{\alpha_i}, \dots, p_{i_r}^{\alpha_{i_r}}$ is the prime factorization of n and a_i is the remainder of the division of a_i by m, therefore the both above properties holds for \tilde{g} , too.

REMARK 2. Because $1 \le g(n) \le n^2$, for every $n \in N^*$, we have: $\frac{1}{n} \le \frac{g(n)}{n} \le n$, thus $\sum_{n \ge 1} \frac{g(n)}{n}$ is a divergent serie.

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

PROPERTY 3. The function $g: \mathbb{N}^m \to \mathbb{N}^m$ 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 $x = p_{i_1}^{\alpha_{i_1}} \cdot p_{i_2}^{\alpha_{i_2}} \cdot \cdots \cdot p_{i_r}^{\alpha_{i_r}}$ and $y = q_{j_1}^{\beta_{i_1}} \cdot q_{j_2}^{\beta_{i_2}} \cdot \cdots \cdot q_{j_s}^{\beta_{i_s}}$ be the prime factorization of x and y, repectively, so that $x \cdot y = 1$.

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

Then
$$g(x \cdot y) = p_{i_1}^{\frac{1}{3-\overline{\alpha_{i_1}}}} \cdot p_{i_2}^{\frac{1}{3-\overline{\alpha_{i_2}}}} \cdots p_{i_{j_{i_1}}}^{\frac{1}{3-\overline{\alpha_{i_1}}}} \cdot q_{j_1}^{\frac{3-\overline{\beta_{i_1}}}{3-\overline{\beta_{i_1}}}} \cdot q_{j_2}^{\frac{3-\overline{\beta_{i_2}}}{3-\overline{\beta_{i_2}}}} \cdots q_{j_s}^{\frac{3-\overline{\beta_{i_s}}}{3-\overline{\beta_{i_s}}}} = g(x) \cdot g(y).$$

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 $x = \prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_h}^{\alpha_{i_h}}$ and $y = \prod_{k=1}^{s} q_{j_k}^{\beta_{i_k}}$ (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 $g(x)=\prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_h}^{\overline{3-\overline{\alpha_{i_h}}}}$ and $g(y)=\prod_{k=1}^{s} q_{j_k}^{\overline{3-\overline{\beta_{i_k}}}}$ and there exist at least $\overline{\alpha_{i_a}} \neq 0$ and $\overline{\beta_{j_k}} \neq 0$ (because x and y are not perfect cubes), therefore $1 \neq p_{i_h}^{\overline{3-\overline{\alpha_{i_h}}}} \neq q_{j_k}^{\overline{3-\overline{\beta_{i_k}}}} \neq 1$, so $g(x) \neq g(y)$.

CONSEQUENCE 1. The equation g(x) = g(x+1) has not natural solutions because for $x \ge 1$, 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 $a,b\in N^m$ 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 similary, but in this case we denote by $\alpha_{ij} = \alpha_{ij}$ (mod m) and we replace $3 - \overline{\alpha_{ij}}$ by $\overline{m - \overline{\alpha_{ij}}}$.

PROPERTY 5. We have $g(x \cdot y^2) = g(x)$, for every $x, y \in \mathbb{N}^{\overline{}}$.

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

$$\begin{split} &\text{If } (x,y) = 1 \ \, \text{we can write: } \ \, x = \prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_{h}}^{\alpha_{i_{h}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{i_{t}}^{\alpha_{i_{t}}} \quad \text{and} \quad y = \prod_{k=1}^{s} q_{j_{k}}^{\beta_{i_{k}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{i_{t}}^{\beta_{i_{t}}} \quad \text{where} \\ p_{i_{h}} = d_{l_{h}}, q_{j_{k}} = d_{l_{h}}, p_{i_{h}} = q_{j_{k}}, \forall h = \overline{l,r}, k = \overline{l,s} \; , \; t = \overline{l,n}. \; \text{We have} \; g(x \cdot y^{3}) = g(\prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_{h}}^{\alpha_{i_{h}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{i_{t}}^{\alpha_{i_{t}}}) \\ \cdot \prod_{k=1}^{s} q_{j_{k}}^{3\beta_{i_{k}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{i_{t}}^{3\beta_{i_{k}}}) = g(\prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_{h}}^{\alpha_{h_{h}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{s} q_{j_{k}}^{3\beta_{i_{k}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{s} d_{i_{t}}^{\alpha_{i_{t}}+3\beta_{i_{t}}}) = g(\prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_{h}}^{\alpha_{h_{h}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{s} d_{i_{t}}^{\alpha_{h_{h}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{s} d_{i_{t}}^{\alpha_{h_{h}}+3\beta_{h}}) = g(\prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_{h}}^{\alpha_{h_{h}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{s} d_{i_{t}}^{\alpha_{h_{h}}}) \cdot g(\prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{i_{t}}^{\alpha_{h_{h}}}) = g(\prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_{h}}^{\alpha_{h_{h}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{i_{t}}^{\alpha_{h_{h}}}) \cdot g(\prod_{t=1}^{r} d_{i_{t}}^{\alpha_{h_{h}}}) = g(\prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_{h}}^{\alpha_{h_{h}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{i_{t}}^{\alpha_{h_{h}}}) = g(\prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_{h}}^{\alpha_{h_{h}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{i_{t}}^{\alpha_{h_{h}}}) = g(x). \end{split}$$

We used that $(\prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\alpha_{i_h}}, \prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\alpha_{i_t}}) = 1$ and $(\prod_{h=1}^r p_{i_h}^{\alpha_{i_h}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^s q_{j_k}^{3\beta_{j_k}}, \prod_{t=1}^n d_{l_t}^{\alpha_{i_t} - 3\beta_{l_t}}) = 1$ 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 $x, y \in N$.

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 $x \in N^*$ and $n \in N$,

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

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 $x = \prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_h}^{\alpha_{i_h}}$ be the prime factorization of x. Then $g(x^2) = g(\prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_h}^{2\alpha_{i_h}}) = \prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_h}^{\overline{3-2\alpha_{i_h}}}$ and $g^2(x) = g(g(x)) = g(\prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_h}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_h}}}) = \prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_h}^{\overline{3-3-\alpha_{i_h}}}$, but it is easy to observe that $\overline{3-2\alpha_{i_h}} = \overline{3-3-\alpha_{i_h}}$, because for :

$$\overline{\alpha}_{i_{k}} = 0$$
 $\overline{3 - 2\alpha_{i_{k}}} = \overline{3 - 0} = 0$ and $\overline{3 - 3 - \alpha_{i_{k}}} = \overline{3 - 3 - 0} = \overline{3 - 0} = 0$
 $\overline{\alpha}_{i_{k}} = 1$ $\overline{3 - 2\alpha_{i_{k}}} = \overline{3 - 2} = 1$ and $\overline{3 - 3 - \alpha_{i_{k}}} = \overline{3 - 3 - 1} = \overline{3 - 2} = 1$
 $\overline{\alpha}_{i_{k}} = 2$ $\overline{3 - 2\alpha_{i_{k}}} = \overline{3 - 4} = \overline{3 - 1} = 2$ and $\overline{3 - 3 - \alpha_{i_{k}}} = \overline{3 - 3 - 2} = \overline{3 - 1} = 2$,

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

REMARK 6. For the function \tilde{g} is not true that $\tilde{g}(x^2) = \tilde{g}^2(x)$, $\forall x \in \mathbb{N}^{\overline{}}$. 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 $\tilde{g}(x^k) = \tilde{g}^k(x)$, $\forall x \in N^*$ 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) $\tilde{g}(x^{n-1}) = \tilde{g}^{n-1}(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{N}^n$ iff m is an odd number, because we have $\overline{m-(m-1)\alpha_{i_{k}}}=m-m-\ldots-\overline{m-\alpha_{i_{k}}}$, for every $\alpha_{i_{k}}\in\mathbb{N}$.

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

 $have \quad \overline{m-(m-1)\alpha_{i_{n}}} = \underline{\widetilde{g}^{m}(x). \text{ for every } x \in \mathbb{N}^{*} \text{ iff } m \text{ is an even number, because we}}$ $have \quad \overline{m-(m-1)\alpha_{i_{n}}} = \underline{m-m-\ldots-m-\alpha_{i_{n}}}, \text{ for every } \alpha_{i_{n}} \in \mathbb{N}.$

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

$$g^{3}(x) = g(g^{2}(x)) = g(\prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_{h}}) = \prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_{h}} = \prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_{h}}$$

But $\frac{1}{3-\overline{\alpha}} = \frac{1}{3-3-3-\overline{\alpha}}$, for every $\alpha_{i_1} \in \mathbb{N}$, because for:

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

$$\overline{\alpha_{i_1}} = 1$$
 $\overline{3-\alpha_{i_2}} = 2$ and $\overline{3-3-3-\alpha_{i_2}} = \overline{3-3-3-1} = \overline{3-3-2} = \overline{3-1} = 2$

$$\overline{\alpha_{1_{3}}} = 2$$
 $\overline{3-\overline{\alpha_{1}}} = 1$ and $\overline{3-3-3-\overline{\alpha_{1}}} = \overline{3-3-3-2} = \overline{3-3-1} = \overline{3-2} = 1$,

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

REMARK 7. For every $x \in \mathbb{N}^m$ we have $\tilde{g}^3(x) = \tilde{g}(x)$ because $\overline{m - \alpha_{i_h}} = m - m - m - \overline{\alpha_{i_h}}$, for every $\alpha_{i_h} \in \mathbb{N}$. For $\overline{\alpha_{i_h}} = a \in \{1, ..., m-1\} = A$, 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 $\alpha_{i_h} \in \mathbb{N}^m$.

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

Proof. Let $x = \prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_h}^{\alpha_h} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{l_t}^{\alpha_{i_t}}$ and $y = \prod_{k=1}^{s} q_{j_k}^{\beta_{j_k}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{l_t}^{\beta_{i_t}}$ 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 $x \cdot y = \prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_h}^{\alpha_{i_h}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^{s} q_{j_k}^{\beta_{j_k}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{l_t}^{\alpha_{i_t} + \beta_{i_t}}$, so $g(x \cdot y) = \prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_h}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_h}}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^{s} q_{j_k}^{\overline{3-\beta_{i_k}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{l_t}^{\overline{3-(\alpha_{i_t}+\beta_{i_t})}}$. On the other hand, $g(x) = \prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_h}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_h}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{l_t}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_t}}}$ and $g(y) = \prod_{k=1}^{s} q_{j_k}^{\overline{3-\beta_{i_k}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{l_t}^{\overline{3-\beta_{i_k}}}$, so that $g^2(g(x) \cdot g(y)) = g^2(\prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_h}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_h}}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^{s} d_{l_t}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_t}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{s} d_{l_t}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_t}}} + \overline{3-\beta_{i_t}}}) = \prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_h}^{\overline{3-3-3-\alpha_{i_h}}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^{s} q_{j_k}^{\overline{3-3-3-\beta_{i_h}}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^{s} q_{j_k}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_t}}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^{s} q$

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: $g^2(g(x)\cdot g(y))=g(g(g(x)\cdot g(y)))=g(g(g(x))\cdot g(g(y)))=g(g^2(x)\cdot g^2(y))=g(g^2(x))\cdot g(g^2(y))=g(g^2(x))\cdot g(g^2(x))\cdot g(g^2(x))$

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 $(x_1, x_2) = (x_2, x_3) = \cdots = (x_{n-2}, x_{n-1}) = 1$, then $g(\prod_{i=1}^n x_i) = g^2(\prod_{i=1}^n g(x_i))$.

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

REMARK 10. The function \tilde{g} has fixed points only in the case m = 2k, $k \in \mathbb{N}^{n}$. These points are $x = p_{i_1}^k \cdot p_{i_1}^k \cdot \cdots p_{i_l}^k$, 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 v.

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: $x=\prod_{h=1}^{r}p_{i_h}^{\alpha_{i_h}}\cdot\prod_{t=1}^{n}d_{l_t}^{\alpha_{i_t}}$ and $y=\prod_{k=1}^{s}q_{j_k}^{\beta_{j_k}}\cdot\prod_{t=1}^{n}d_{l_t}^{\alpha_{i_t}}$, $p_{i_h}\neq d_{l_t}$, $q_{j_k}\neq d_{l_t}$, $p_{i_h}\neq q_{j_k}$, $\forall h=\overline{1,r}, k=\overline{1,s}, t=\overline{1,n}$. Then $(x,y)=\prod_{t=1}^{n}d_{l_t}^{\alpha_{i_t}}$, therefore $g((x,y))=\prod_{t=1}^{n}d_{l_t}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_t}}}$. On the other hand $(g(x),g(y))=(\prod_{h=1}^{r}p_{i_h}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_h}}}\cdot\prod_{t=1}^{n}d_{l_t}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_t}}},\prod_{k=1}^{s}q_{j_k}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_t}}}\cdot\prod_{t=1}^{n}d_{l_t}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_t}}})=\prod_{t=1}^{n}d_{l_t}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_t}}}$ and the assertion follows.

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

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:

$$\begin{split} g([x \cdot y]) &= g(\prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_h}^{\alpha_{i_h}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^{s} q_{j_k}^{\beta_{j_k}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{l_t}^{\alpha_{l_t}}) = \prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_h}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_h}}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^{s} q_{j_k}^{\overline{3-\beta_{j_k}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{l_t}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_h}}} \quad \text{and} \\ [g(x),g(y)] &= \left[\prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_h}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_h}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{l_t}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_t}}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^{s} q_{j_k}^{\overline{3-\beta_{j_k}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{l_t}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_t}}}\right] = \\ &= \prod_{h=1}^{r} p_{i_h}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_h}}} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^{s} q_{j_k}^{\overline{3-\beta_{j_k}}} \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{n} d_{l_t}^{\overline{3-\alpha_{i_t}}}, \end{split}$$

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

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

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 $x,y\in N^*$.

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 $x,y \in N^*$.

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

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

where $n = p_{i_1}^{\alpha_{i_1}} \cdot p_{i_2}^{\alpha_{i_2}} \cdot \cdots \cdot p_{i_k}^{\alpha_{i_k}}$ is the prime factorization of n, and $h_p: N \to N$ is the numerical function defined by $h_p(\alpha) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } \alpha = 3k \\ -p & \text{for } \alpha = 3k+1 \end{cases}$, where p is a given number. 0 for $\alpha = 3k+2$

Proof. Because the sumatory function of g is defined as $F(n) = \sum_{d/n} g(d)$ and because $(p_{i_1}^{\alpha_{i_1}}, \prod_{t=2}^k p_{i_t}^{\alpha_{i_t}}) = 1$ and g is a multiplicative function, we have:

$$F(n) = \left(\sum_{d_i/p_{i_1}^{\alpha_{i_1}}} g(d_1)\right) \cdot \left(\sum_{d_2/p_{i_2}^{\alpha_{i_2}} \dots p_{i_k}^{\alpha_k}} g(d_2)\right) \quad \text{and so on, making a finite number of steps we obtain: } F(n) = \prod_{j=1}^k F(p_{i_j}^{\alpha_{i_j}}).$$

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 $F(p^{\alpha}) = \frac{3-\alpha}{3}(1+p+p^2) + h_p(\alpha)$, 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 similarly, but it is necessary to replace

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

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 $x, a \in \mathbb{N}^{\bullet}$.

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

If a is a perfect cube, $a=b^3, b\in N^*$, where $b=p_{i_1}^{\alpha_{i_1}}\cdot p_{i_2}^{\alpha_{i_2}}\cdots p_{i_k}^{\alpha_{i_k}}$ is the prime factorization of b, then, taking into account of the definition of the function g, we have the solutions $x=b^3/d_{i_1i_2...i_k}$ where $d_{i_1i_2...i_k}$ can be every product $p_{i_1}^{\beta_1}p_{i_2}^{\beta_2}\cdots p_{i_k}^{\beta_k}$ where $\beta_1,\beta_2,...,\beta_k$ take an arbitrary value which belongs of the set $\{0,1,2\}$.

In the case when $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \cdots = \beta_k = 0$ we find the special solution $x = b^3$, when $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \cdots = \beta_k = 1$, 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 $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \cdots = \beta_k = 2$, 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 $1+2C_k^1+2^2C_k^1+\cdots+2^kC_k^k=3^k$ 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 $xa(x) = 10^3 = 2^3 \cdot 5^3$

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

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
$$xa(x) = 12^3 = 2^6 \cdot 3^3$$

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

and $yb(y)=9^3=3^9 \Rightarrow y_0 \in \left\{3^9,3^8,3^7\right\}$ 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 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 $\left\{u^3,4v^3,9t^3\right\}$, where $u,v,t\in N$, and in the second case $\left\{u^m,2^{m-1}v^m,3^{m-1}t^m\right\}$, $u,v,t\in N$.

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

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