

ON THE POWERFULL PART OF $n^2 + 1$

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ABSTRACT. We show that $n^2 + 1$ is powerfull for $O(x^{2/5+\epsilon})$ integers $n \leq x$ at most, thus answering a question of P. Ribenboim.

The distribution of powerfull integers, i.e. integers such that every prime factor occurs at least twice, is quiet obscure. In [4], P. Ribenboim posed the following problem: Show that for almost all m , $m^4 - 1$ is not powerfull. In his review, D. R. Heath-Brown [2] pointed out that this and the more general statement, that for every polynomial f , not powerfull as a polynomial, $f(m)$ is not powerfull for almost all m , can be obtained using a simple sieve. In fact, if n is powerfull and p prime, $n \bmod p^2$ is restricted to $p^2 - p + 1$ residue classes. By a standard application of the arithmetic large sieve one gets that the number N of $m \leq x$ such that $f(m)$ is powerfull is $N \ll \frac{x}{\log x}$. In this note we will use a diferent approach to this problem to prove the following theorem. For an integer n we write $P(n)$ for the powerfull part of n , i.e. the product of all p^k with $k \geq 2$, where $p^k | n$, but $p^{k+1} \nmid n$, $\omega(n)$ for the number of distinct prime divisors of n , and $d^+(n)$ for the number of squarefree divisors of n .

Theorem 1. *Let A and x be real numbers. Then there are at most $cx^{2/5}A^{4/5}\log^C x$ integers $n \leq x$, such that $P(n^2 + 1) > n^2A^{-1}$ where $C = 18730$.*

Choosing $A = 2$ resp. $A = x^{2/3-\epsilon}$ we obtain the following statements.

Corollary 2. *For almost all n we have $P(n^2 + 1) < n^{4/3+\epsilon}$.*

Corollary 3. *There are $\ll x^{2/5}\log^C x$ integers $m \leq x$ such that $m^2 + 1$ is powerfull or twice a powerfull integer.*

Note that $\limsup \frac{P(n^2+1)}{n} = \infty$, thus the exponent $4/3$ is not too bad. It seems that the gap stems from the fact that the equation $x^2 + 1 = D \cdot z^3$ considered in Lemma 5 may very well have no integral solutions at all for many values of D .

To prove our theorem, we need some Lemmata. First we have to count solutions of diophantine equations.

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Lemma 4. *For any D , the equation $x^2 - Dy^2 = -1$ has ≤ 4 solutions with x, y integers and $X \leq x \leq 2X$, X arbitrary real.*

Proof. We may assume that D is not a perfect square, since for $D = 1$ there are only the solutions $x = 0, y = \pm 1$, and for $D > 1$, $x + \sqrt{D}y$ would be a rational integral divisor of -1 . The solutions of the equation correspond to units in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$. If (x_1, y_1) is a minimal solution, all solutions are obtained by the recursion $x_{n+1} = x_n x_1 + D y_n y_1, y_{n+1} = x_1 y_n + y_1 x_n$. We may assume that x_1, y_1 are positive, thus $x_{n+1} > x_n x_1$. Further we trivially have $x_1 \geq 2$, thus in every interval of the form $[X, 2X]$, there is at most one solution with both variables positive. Taking signs into account, the total number of solutions with $x_n \leq X$ is therefore ≤ 4 .

Lemma 5. *For any D , the equation $x^2 + 1 = Dz^3$ has $c \cdot d^+(D)^{c_0}$ solutions at most, where $c_0 = \frac{2 \log 17 + 4 \log 3}{\log 2} \leq 14.6$.*

Proof. This is a special case of theorem 1 in [1], proven by J. H. Evertse and J. H. Silverman. In their notation we have $n = 3, d = 2, m = 1, L = \mathbb{Q}(i), M = 2$ and $K_3(L) = 0$. We consider the equation $\frac{x^2+1}{D} = y^3$, which is integral at all but $\omega(D)$ places, thus $s = \omega(D) + 1$. Applying their theorem we obtain for the number N of solutions the bound $N \leq 17^{14+2\omega(D)} 3^{4+4\omega(D)} \ll (17^2 3^4)^{\omega(D)}$. Since $d^+(D) = 2^{\omega(D)}$, we get $N \ll d^+(n)^{c_0}$, where $c_0 = \frac{2 \log 17 + 4 \log 3}{\log 2} \leq 14.6$.

Note that the actual value of c_0 is of lesser importance, since only the exponent of the logarithm is concerned. In fact, we have $C = 2^{c_0}$. Note further that we can prove theorem 1 with a bound of $x^{2/3} A^{2/3}$ without appealing to the very deep theorem of Evertse and Silverman.

Lemma 6. *We have for any positive real number c the bound $\sum_{n \leq x} d(n)^c \ll_c x \log^{2^c - 1} x$.*

This was proven by C. Mardjanichvili [3].

Now we can prove theorem 1. Every integer $k \geq 2$ can be written as a nonnegative integral linear combination of 2 and 3, thus every powerfull number n can be written as $n = y^2 z^3$ with y, z integral. Thus every integer n can be written as $n = ay^2 z^3$ with y, z integral and $a = \frac{n}{P(n)}$. Thus to prove theorem 1, it suffices to show that the equation

$$(1) \quad n^2 + 1 = ay^2 z^3$$

has $\ll x^{2/5} A^{2/5} \log^C x$ integral solutions with $n \leq x$ and $a \leq A$. Now we count the solutions within the range $Y \leq y < 2Y, B \leq a < 2B$ and $Z \leq z < 2Z$.

Fix a and z , and set $D = az^3$. Now n is restricted to an interval of the form $[x, 8x]$, thus by lemma 4 there are $\ll 1$ solutions of the equation $n^2 - Dy^2 = -1$ with these restrictions. Thus the total number of solutions is $\ll BZ$.

Now we fix a and y , and set $D = ay^2$. Then by lemma 5 the equation $n^2 + 1 = Dz^3$ has $\ll d^+(D)^{c_0}$ solutions, where c_0 is defined as above. We set $c_1 = 2^{c_0} =$

23709. Thus the total number of solutions in this range is therefore bounded by

$$\ll \sum_{B \leq a < 2B} \sum_{Y \leq y \leq 2Y} d^+(ay^2)^{c_0} \leq \sum_{B \leq a \leq 2B} d(a)^{c_0} \sum_{Y \leq y < 2Y} d(y)^{c_0}.$$

Using Lemma 6 and replacing the occurring log-factors by $\log x$, these sums are $\ll BY \log^{2c_1-2} x$. With these two estimates we obtain for the total number N of solutions the estimate

$$\begin{aligned} N &\ll \log^3 x \max_{\substack{Y, Z > 1 \\ B < A \\ AY^2 Z^3 < x}} \min(BY \log^{2c_1-2} x, BZ) \\ &\ll \log^3 x \max_{Y > 1} \min \left(AY \log^{2c_1-2} x, A \left(\frac{x^2}{AY^2} \right)^{1/3} \right) \\ &\ll A^{4/5} x^{2/5} \log^{\frac{4}{5}(c_1-1)+3} x \end{aligned}$$

which gives the bound of theorem 1, since $\frac{4}{5}(c_1 - 1) + 3 = 18729.4$.

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