TRANSCENDENTAL PARAMETERS OF ANALOGS OF SQUARES FOR SOLVING A CERTAIN SYSTEM OF EQUATIONS

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ABSTRACT. Let $S(\alpha) = \{\lfloor \alpha n^2 \rfloor : n = 1, 2, \ldots \} \setminus \{0\}$. Kanado and the author showed that for all rational numbers $\alpha \in (0,1)$ we can find infinitely many tuples (k,ℓ,m) of positive integers such that all of $k,\ell,m,k+\ell,\ell+m,m+k,k+\ell+m$ are in $S(\alpha)$. In this short article, we construct a transcendental number $\alpha \in (0,1)$ satisfying this relation.

1. Introduction

Let $\mathbb N$ be the set of all positive integers. A rectangular cuboid is called an *Euler brick* if the edges and face diagonals have integral lengths. Further, an Euler brick is called a *perfect Euler brick* if the space diagonal also has integral length. It is known that there are infinitely many Euler bricks (see OEIS A031173, A031174, and A031175). However, the existence (or non-existence) of a perfect Euler brick is unknown. By the Pythagorean theorem, a perfect Euler brick exists if and only if there exists $(k, \ell, m) \in \mathbb{N}^3$ such that all of

$$(1.1) k, \quad \ell, \quad m, \quad k+\ell, \quad \ell+m, \quad m+k, \quad k+\ell+m$$

are perfect squares. Instead of squares, Glasscock investigated Piatetski-Shapiro sequences [Gla17]. Let $\lfloor x \rfloor$ denote the integer part of x for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. A sequence of positive integers of the form $\lfloor n^{\alpha} \rfloor$ is called a Piatetski-Shapiro sequence. Let $\mathrm{PS}(\alpha) = \{\lfloor n^{\alpha} \rfloor : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. For a given set $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, we define T(X) as the set of all tuples $(k, \ell, m) \in \mathbb{N}^3$ with $k \leq \ell \leq m$ such that all of (1.1) belong to X. Further, we say that X satisfies the *infinite PEB conditions* if $\#T(X) = \infty$.

Interestingly, Glasscock found that $PS(\alpha)$ satisfies the infinite PEB conditions for almost all $\alpha \in (1,2)$ [Gla17, Corollary 1]. Note that PS(2) is equal to the set of all perfect squares. The author improved on this finding, showing that Glasscock's result remains true even if we replace "for almost all" with "for all"; that is, $PS(\alpha)$ satisfies the infinite PEB conditions for all $\alpha \in (1,2)$ [Sai22, Corollary 1.2]. However, the gaps between $\lfloor n^{\alpha} \rfloor$ and n^2 are very large. Indeed, it is observed that for every fixed $\alpha \in (1,2)$

$$n^2/n^\alpha \to \infty \quad (as \ n \to \infty).$$

For solving this problem, Kanado and the author studied a set closer to squares satisfying the infinite PEB conditions. They proposed the following set: for every $\alpha \in (0,1)$

$$S(\alpha) := \{ \lfloor \alpha n^2 \rfloor \colon n = 1, 2, \ldots \} \setminus \{0\}.$$

They showed

- (1) for all $\alpha \in (0,1) \cap \mathbb{Q}$, $S(\alpha)$ satisfies the infinite PEB conditions;
- (2) for almost all $\alpha \in (0,1)$, $S(\alpha)$ satisfies the infinite PEB conditions;
- (3) if $T(S(\alpha))$ is finite for some $\alpha \in (0,1)$, then there is no perfect Euler brick.

These results can be seen in [KS, Theorem 1.2, Theorem 1.4, Theorem 1.6], respectively. In the previous research, we did not get any concrete examples of irrational $\alpha \in (0,1)$ such that $S(\alpha)$ satisfies the infinite PEB conditions. In this short article, we concrete such α .

Let $C \in \mathbb{N}$ be a large integer which determined later. We define $h = h_C \colon \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ as

$$h(1) = C$$
, $h(n+1) = C^{h(n)}$ $(n = 1, 2, ...)$.

Then we obtain the following result:

Theorem 1.1. Let $C \geq 21410$ be an integer, and let $\gamma = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C^{-h(n)}$. Then γ is a Liouville number and $S(\gamma)$ satisfies the infinite PEB conditions.

Note that for every integer $C \geq 2$ the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C^{-h(n)}$ converges in (0,1). Indeed, $\gamma > 0$ is trivial. By Lemma 2.1, $h(n) \geq 2h(n-1) \geq \cdots \geq 2^{n-1}h(1) \geq 2^n$. Therefore, h(n) > n. We observe that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C^{-h(n)} < \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-h(n)} < \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} = 1.$$

Hence, γ exists and belongs to (0,1).

Remark 1.2. A real number α is called a *Liouville number* if for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ there exist $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $q \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$(1.2) 0 < \left| \alpha - \frac{p}{q} \right| < \frac{1}{q^n}.$$

It is well-known that every Liouville number is transcendental.

Notation 1.3. For $x \in \mathbb{R}$, let $\{x\}$ denote the fractional part of x. For all intervals $I \subset \mathbb{R}$, let $I_{\mathbb{Z}} = I \cap \mathbb{Z}$. For all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, let [x] = -|-x|, which means the least integer greater than or equal to x.

2. Lemmas

Lemma 2.1. Let C > 2. Then h(n+1) > 2h(n) for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. If n = 1, then $2h(1) = 2C < C \cdot C = C^2 < C^C = h(2)$. Assume that

$$h(n+1) \ge 2h(n)$$

for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then since $2x \leq x^2$ for all $x \geq 2$, we have

$$2h(n+1) = 2C^{h(n)} \le 2C^{h(n+1)/2} \le C^{h(n+1)} = h(n+2).$$

Lemma 2.2. There exist positive integers $q_1 < q_2 < \cdots$ and p_1, p_2, \ldots such that for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$(2.1) 0 < \gamma - \frac{p_n}{q_n} < \frac{2}{C^{q_n}}.$$

Proof. For sufficiently large $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$(2.2) 0 < \gamma - \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{1}{C^{h(j)}} = \sum_{j=n+1}^{\infty} C^{-h(j)} = C^{-h(n+1)} \left(1 + \sum_{j=n+2}^{\infty} C^{-h(j)+h(N+1)} \right)$$

By Lemma 2.1, we obtain $h(j) \ge h(n+2) \ge 2h(n+1)$ for every $j \ge n+2$. Therefore the most right-hand side of (2.2) is

$$< C^{-h(n+1)} \left(1 + \sum_{j=n+2}^{\infty} C^{-h(j)/2} \right) \le 2C^{-h(n+1)}$$

for sufficiently large $n \in \mathbb{N}$, since $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} C^{-h(j)/2}$ is convergent series. Since C is a positive integer, setting $q_n = h(n+1) (= C^{h(n)})$, there exists $p_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\sum_{j=1}^n 1/C^{h(j)} = p_n/q_n$. Hence, we conclude $0 < \gamma - p_n/q_n < 2C^{-q_n}$.

Lemma 2.3. Let $(P_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ be the sequence defined by

$$P_0 = 0, P_1 = 1, P_{n+2} = 2P_{n+1} + P_n \quad (n = 0, 1, 2, ...).$$

Then for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$, $P_n = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}(\phi_P^n - (-\phi_P)^{-n})$, where $\phi_P = 1 + \sqrt{2}$. Further, for all integers $1 \leq p < q$, there exists $r \in [2, \lceil \sqrt{2}q \rceil]_{\mathbb{Z}}$ such that

(2.3)
$$\left(\left\lfloor \frac{p}{q} P_{2r}^2 \right\rfloor, \left\lfloor \frac{p}{q} P_{2r}^2 \right\rfloor, \left\lfloor \frac{p}{q} (P_{2r}^2/2 - 1)^2 \right\rfloor \right) \in T(S(p/q)),$$

(2.4)
$$\left\{ \frac{p}{q} P_{2r}^2 \right\} = 0, \quad \left\{ \frac{p}{q} \left(P_{2r}^2 / 2 - 1 \right)^2 \right\} = \frac{p}{q}.$$

Proof. See [KS, (2.3), Lemma 3.1, Lemma 3.3, Proof of Theorem 1.2].

3. Proof of Theorem 1.1

Let $C \geq 21410$ be an integer, and γ be in Theorem 1.1. By Lemma 2.2, there exist positive integers $q_1 < q_2 < \cdots$ and p_1, p_2, \ldots satisfying (2.1). It is clear that γ is a Liouville number. Indeed, fix any $N \in \mathbb{N}$. For sufficiently large $n \in \mathbb{N}$, one has $C^{q_n} \geq 2q_n^N$. Therefore,

$$0 < \left| \gamma - \frac{p_n}{q_n} \right| < \frac{2}{C^{q_n}} \le \frac{1}{q_n^N},$$

which implies that γ is a Liouville number.

Let $r_n = r(q_n)$ be as in Lemma 2.3. Let us show that for every sufficiently large $n \in \mathbb{N}$

(3.1)
$$\left[\frac{p_n}{q_n} P_{2r_n}^2\right] = \left[\gamma P_{2r_n}^2\right],$$

(3.2)
$$\left| \frac{p_n}{q_n} \left(P_{2r_n}^2 / 2 - 1 \right)^2 \right| = \left| \gamma \left(P_{2r_n}^2 / 2 - 1 \right)^2 \right|.$$

By combining (2.3), (3.1), and (3.2), we conclude that $T(S(\gamma))$ is infinite.

Let us fix any sufficiently large $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $p = p_n$, $q = q_n$, and $r = r_n$. It follows that

$$\frac{p}{q}P_{2r}^2 < \gamma P_{2r}^2 < \frac{p}{q}P_{2r}^2 + \frac{1}{C^q}P_{2r}^2.$$

By Lemma 2.3, $0 < C^{-q}P_{2r}^2 \le C^{-q}(1+\sqrt{2})^{4r} \le C^{-q}(1+\sqrt{2})^{4\sqrt{2}q+4}$. From numerical calculation, we see that $(1+\sqrt{2})^{4\sqrt{2}} < 147 \le C$. Therefore, if n is sufficiently large, then $0 < C^{-q}P_{2r}^2 < 1$. By (2.4), we obtain (3.1).

The remaining part is to prove (3.2). We see that

$$\frac{p}{q} \left(P_{2r}^2 / 2 - 1 \right)^2 < \gamma \left(P_{2r}^2 / 2 - 1 \right)^2 < \frac{p}{q} \left(P_{2r}^2 / 2 - 1 \right)^2 + \frac{1}{C^q} \left(P_{2r}^2 / 2 - 1 \right)^2.$$

The fractional part of the most left-hand side is p/q. Therefore, it suffices to show that $p/q + C^{-q}(P_{2r}^2/2 - 1)^2 < 1$. By Lemma 2.3,

$$p/q + C^{-q}(P_{2r}^2/2 - 1)^2 < \gamma + C^{-q}(1 + \sqrt{2})^{8r} \le \gamma + C^{-q}(1 + \sqrt{2})^{8\sqrt{2}q + 8}$$

From numerical calculation, we have $(1+\sqrt{2})^{8\sqrt{2}} < 21410 \le C$. Therefore, if n is sufficiently large, then $p/q + C^{-q}(P_{2r}^2/2 - 1)^2 < 1$. Therefore, we obtain (3.2). We complete the proof of Theorem 1.1.

The key point of this proof is that γ is extremely near to rational numbers. If $\gamma \in (0,1)$ is an algebraic irrational number, then γ is not near to rational numbers from Roth's theorem. Thus, we lastly propose the following question.

Question 3.1. Can we construct an algebraic irrational $\gamma \in (0,1)$ such that $S(\gamma)$ satisfies the infinite PEB conditions?

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