Amicable Pairs for Elliptic Curves Joseph H. Silverman (joint work with Katherine Stange) Brown University

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Perfect Numbers and Amicable Pairs

A **Perfect Number** is an integer n that equals the sum of its proper divisors

$$n = s(n) = \sum_{\substack{d \mid n \\ d < n}} d.$$

For example,

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An **Amicable Pair** is a pair of distinct integers (m, n) satisfying

$$n = s(m)$$
 and $m = s(n)$.

The smallest amicable pair is (220, 284),

$$\begin{array}{l} 220 = 1+2+4+71+142,\\ 284 = 1+2+4+5+10+11+20\\ +22+44+55+110. \end{array}$$

More generally, an **Aliquot Cycle** is a sequence

$$(n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_\ell)$$

satisfying

$$s(n_1) = n_2, \quad s(n_2) = n_3, \dots, s(n_\ell) = n_1.$$

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In this talk, which is joint work with **Kate Stange**, I will discuss elliptic curve analogues of these ideas.

Elliptic Curves

Recall that an elliptic curve is the set of solutions to an equation of the form

$$E: y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B,$$

with $\Delta = -16(4A^3 + 27B^2) \neq 0.$

The set of rational points $E(\mathbb{Q})$ forms a group in the usual way using secant and tangent lines to define the group law.

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Making a change of variables, we will assume that $A, B \in \mathbb{Z}$, so we can reduce the equation modulo p to get a curve \tilde{E}/\mathbb{F}_p . We say that E has **good reduction** if $p \nmid \Delta$, in which case $\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_p)$ is also a group.

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Theorem. (Hasse)
$$\#\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_p) = p + 1 - a_p \quad \text{with } |a_p| \le 2\sqrt{p}.$$

Perfect Primes for Elliptic Curves

By analogy with the classical situation, we might say that a prime p is **perfect** for E if

 $#E(\mathbb{F}_p) = p.$

Elliptic perfect primes arise as exceptional cases in many settings, ranging from the abstract (ℓ -adic representations) to the practical (cryptography).

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Side Note: Our use of the word "perfect" in this context is non-standard. In the literature, our elliptic perfect primes are called **anomalous primes**.

Amicable Pairs for Elliptic Curves

An **Amicable Pair** for the elliptic curve E is a pair of distinct good reduction primes (p, q) satisfying

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Example. The smallest amicable pair on the elliptic curve

$$y^2 + y = x^3 - x$$

is (1622311, 1622471) and there are no other amicable pairs smaller than 10^7 .

Aliquot Cycles for Elliptic Curves

More generally, an **Aliquot Cycle** for E is a list of distinct good reduction primes (p_1, \ldots, p_ℓ) satisfying

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Example The elliptic curve

 $y^{2} = x^{3} + 4545482133607498579268567738514832922289740324532x + 595867265462112118291430245894379464967885794713.$

has an aliquot cycle of length 25, starting with the prime p = 41.

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Elliptic amicable pairs and longer aliquot cycles seem not to have been studied before. They arise naturally when studying index divisibility of elliptic divisibility sequences, but seem quite interesting in their own right. This talk will explore some of their properties.

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- For each p_i , choose an elliptic curve $\tilde{E}_i/\mathbb{F}_{p_i}$ satisfying $\#\tilde{E}_i(\mathbb{F}_{p_i}) = p_{i+1}$. (A result of Deuring says that such curves exist.)

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- For each p_i , choose an elliptic curve $\tilde{E}_i/\mathbb{F}_{p_i}$ satisfying $\#\tilde{E}_i(\mathbb{F}_{p_i}) = p_{i+1}$. (A result of Deuring says that such curves exist.)
- Use the Chinese remainder theorem applied to the coefficients of equations for $\tilde{E}_1, \ldots, \tilde{E}_\ell$ to find a curve E/\mathbb{Q} with $E \mod p_i = \tilde{E}_i$.

Elliptic Groups of Prime Order

For some elliptic curves, $\#E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ is never prime. This happens if $E(\mathbb{Q})$ has points of finite order, because (more-or-less)

$$E(\mathbb{Q})_{\text{tors}} \hookrightarrow \tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_p).$$

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$$E(\mathbb{Q})_{\text{tors}} \hookrightarrow \tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_p).$$

So we restrict attention to curves with $E(\mathbb{Q})_{\text{tors}} = 0$. Koblitz and Zywina give a precise conjecture concerning the density of primes such that $\#\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_p)$ is prime.

Conjecture. (Koblitz, Zywina) The is a constant C_E such that

$$#\{p < X : #\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_p) \text{ is prime}\} \sim C_E \frac{X}{(\log X)^2}.$$

They give an explicit formula for C_E in terms of the Galois representation attached to E.

$$\mathcal{A}_E(X) = \# \left\{ p < X : \begin{array}{l} p \text{ is part of an} \\ \text{amicable pair } (p,q) \end{array} \right\}$$

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Justification: Let $N_p = \#\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_p)$ and $N_q = \#\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_q)$. Prob(p is part of an amicable pair) $= \operatorname{Prob}(q = N_p \text{ is prime and } N_q = p)$ $= \operatorname{Prob}(q = N_p \text{ is prime})$ $\cdot \operatorname{Prob}(N_q = p \mid q = N_p \text{ is prime})$ $\gg \ll \frac{1}{\log p} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}$.

Counting Amicable Pairs $\mathcal{A}_E(X) \approx \sum_{p < X} \operatorname{Prob}(p \text{ is part of amicable pair})$ $\gg \ll \sum_{p < X} \frac{1}{\log p} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}$ $\gg \ll \frac{\sqrt{X}}{(\log X)^2}.$

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Example The curve $y^2 + y = x^3 + x^2$ has 55 amicable pairs with $p < q < 10^{11}$.

 $(853, 883), (77761, 77999), \dots, (94248260597, 94248586591).$

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This supports the conclusion that amicable pairs exist, but are rare. But even up to 10^{11} , it is difficult to distinguish a growth rate of $\sqrt{X}/(\log X)^2$ from alternatives.

At this point, Kate and I had discovered the material described on the preceding slides. To finish up our work, we decided to compile data on the number of amicable pairs for the classical family of curves

$$E_k: y^2 = x^3 + k.$$

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Compare this with the previous example, which had only 55 amicable pairs up to 10^{11} . This is an unexpected development. The game is afoot!
Complex Multiplication

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Example. The curve

$$E: y^2 = x^3 + k$$

has CM, because if we let $\rho = e^{2\pi i/3}$ be a primitive cube root of unity, then the homomorphism

$$E \longrightarrow E, \qquad (x, y) \longmapsto (\rho x, y),$$

is not in \mathbb{Z} .

Amicable Pairs and Complex Multiplication

There are only a handful of CM curves defined over \mathbb{Q} and having $E(\mathbb{Q})_{\text{tors}} = 0$. We checked all of them, and they do indeed have a large number of amicable pairs.

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Further experiments revealed the step in our heuristic argument that is flawed for CM curves. Recall we said

$$\operatorname{Prob}(N_q = p \mid q = N_p \text{ is prime}) \gg \ll \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}},$$

because $p \approx q$ and N_q lies in an interval of length $4\sqrt{q}$, so the chance of N_q hitting any particular value is about $1/4\sqrt{p}$.

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This appears to be true for non-CM curves, but for CM curves (other than the E_k curves) we found that

$$\operatorname{Prob}(N_q = p \mid q = N_p \text{ is prime}) \approx \frac{1}{2}.$$

CM Curves of Prime Order

This led us to conjecture, and then prove,

Theorem. Let E/\mathbb{Q} be a CM curve with $j(E) \neq 0$, and suppose that p is a prime such that $q = \#\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_p)$ is also prime. Then either

$$#\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_q) = p$$
 or $#\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_q) = 2q + 2 - p.$

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Assuming the theorem, which justifies

$$\operatorname{Prob}(N_q = p \mid q = N_p \text{ is prime}) \approx \frac{1}{2},$$

our earlier calculation yields

Conjecture. Let E/\mathbb{Q} be a CM curve with $j(E) \neq 0$. Then either $\mathcal{A}_E(X)$ is bounded, or

$$\mathcal{A}_E(X) \sim c_E \frac{X}{(\log X)^2}$$
 for some $c_E > 0$.

CM Curves of Prime Order — Sketch of Proof

Can check that

$$\operatorname{End}(E) = \mathbb{Z}\left[\frac{1+\sqrt{-D}}{2}\right] = \mathcal{O}.$$

Let

$$\psi_E : (\text{primes of } \mathcal{O}) \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}$$

be the Grössencharacter associated to E. For a prime ideal $\mathfrak{p} \subset \mathcal{O}$, it satisfies $\mathfrak{p} = \psi_E(\mathfrak{p})\mathcal{O}$ and

$$\#\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_{\mathfrak{p}}) = \mathsf{N}\,\psi_E(\mathfrak{p}) - \mathsf{Tr}\,\psi_E(\mathfrak{p}) + 1.$$

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Factor
$$p\mathcal{O} = \mathfrak{p}\overline{\mathfrak{p}}$$
 and $q\mathcal{O} = \mathfrak{q}\overline{\mathfrak{q}}$. (They always split.)
Then

$$\mathsf{N}\,\psi_E(\mathfrak{q}) = q = \#\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_{\mathfrak{p}}) = \mathsf{N}\big(1 - \psi_E(\mathfrak{p})\big).$$

CM Curves of Prime Order — Sketch of Proof Hence

$$\psi_E(\mathbf{q}) = u(1 - \psi_E(\mathbf{p})) \text{ or } u(\overline{1 - \psi_E(\mathbf{p})})$$

for some unit $u \in \mathcal{O}^* = \{\pm 1\}$. (Here's why we want $j(E) \neq 1$, since otherwise $\#\mathcal{O}^* = 6$.)

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for some unit $u \in \mathcal{O}^* = \{\pm 1\}$. (Here's why we want $j(E) \neq 1$, since otherwise $\#\mathcal{O}^* = 6$.) The allows us to compute

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Tr} \psi_E(\mathfrak{q}) &= u \operatorname{Tr} \left(1 - \psi_E(\mathfrak{p}) \right) \\ &= \pm \left(2 - \operatorname{Tr} \psi_E(\mathfrak{p}) \right) \\ &= \pm \left(2 - \left(p + 1 - \# \tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_p) \right) \right) \\ &= \pm \left(2 - \left(p + 1 - q \right) \right) \\ &= \pm \left(q + 1 - p \right). \end{aligned}$$

This gives the two stated values for

$$\#\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_{\mathfrak{q}}) = q + 1 - \operatorname{Tr} \psi_{E}(\mathfrak{q}).$$

Aliquot Cycles on CM Curves

As an easy corollary of the theorem, we get:

Corollary. Let E/\mathbb{Q} be a CM curve with $j(E) \neq 0$. Then E has no aliquot cycles of length $\ell \geq 3$.

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Proof (for $\ell = 3$) Suppose (p, q, r) is an aliquot triple. WLOG, by a cyclic permutaion, we may assume that p < q. The theorem gives

$$p \rightarrow q \rightarrow r = 2q + 2 - p \rightarrow p = 2r + 2 - q.$$

Solving yields p = q + 2, contradicting p < q.

Amicable Pairs on j = 0 Curves

The curves

$$E_k: y^2 = x^3 + k$$

were excluded from our theorem, because they have $\mathcal{O}^* \cong \mu_6$. This should lead to six possibilities for $\#\tilde{E}_k(\mathbb{F}_q)$, so we might expect that

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Two of those possibilities are

$$\psi_E(\mathbf{q}) = \pm (q+1-p), \qquad (*)$$

one of which leads to an amicable pair. We will call the primes satisfying (*) primes of Type 1.

Amicable Pairs for Elliptic Curves

Experimentally, we find that about half the Type 1 primes give an amicable pair. It remains to count the Type 1 primes, so we let

$$\mathcal{T}_k(X) = \frac{\#\{p < X : p \text{ is a Type 1 prime for } E_k\}}{\#\{p < X : \#E_k(\mathbb{F}_p) \text{ is prime}\}}.$$

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ĺ	k	2	3	5	6	7	10
X = 10	3	1.000	0.615	0.533	0.417	0.571	0.333
X = 10	4	1.000	0.570	0.324	0.492	0.578	0.457
X = 10	5	1.000	0.548	0.330	0.563	0.538	0.435
X = 10	6	1.000	0.547	0.336	0.565	0.532	0.431

Experimentally, we find that about half the Type 1 primes give an amicable pair. It remains to count the Type 1 primes, so we let

$$\mathcal{T}_k(X) = \frac{\#\{p < X : p \text{ is a Type 1 prime for } E_k\}}{\#\{p < X : \#E_k(\mathbb{F}_p) \text{ is prime}\}}.$$

We might expect $\mathcal{T}_k(X) \to \frac{1}{3}$. Here is some data for the first few (non-square non-cube) values of k.

	$\left k\right $	2	3	5	6	7	10
X = 10)3	1.000	0.615	0.533	0.417	0.571	0.333
X = 10	$)^{4}$	1.000	0.570	0.324	0.492	0.578	0.457
X = 10)5	1.000	0.548	0.330	0.563	0.538	0.435
X = 10)6	1.000	0.547	0.336	0.565	0.532	0.431

The limiting value of $\mathcal{T}_k(X)$ appears to depend on k.

Type 1 Primes and Cubic Residues

Let

$$\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}\left[\frac{-1+\sqrt{-3}}{2}\right] = \operatorname{End}(E_k)$$

and let ψ be the Grössencharacter of E_k .

Theorem. Assume
$$q = \#\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_p)$$
 is prime, and factor
 $p\mathcal{O} = \mathfrak{p}\bar{\mathfrak{p}}$ and $q\mathcal{O} = \mathfrak{q}\bar{\mathfrak{q}}$.
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 $p \text{ is Type 1 } \iff \left(\frac{k}{\mathfrak{p}}\right)_3 \left(\frac{k}{\mathfrak{q}}\right)_3 = 1.$

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The proof is an involved calculation using quadratic and cubic reciprocity in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-3})$ and arithmetic properties of E_k over \mathbb{F}_p and \mathbb{F}_q .

Applying Cubic Reciprocity

To ease notation, we let

$$\beta = \psi(\mathfrak{p}), \text{ so } \mathfrak{p} = \beta \mathcal{O} \text{ and } \mathfrak{q} = (1 - \beta) \mathcal{O}.$$

Then one can prove that

$$\left(\frac{k}{\mathfrak{p}}\right)_3 \left(\frac{k}{\mathfrak{q}}\right)_3 = \left(\frac{k}{\beta}\right)_3 \left(\frac{k}{1-\beta}\right)_3 = \left(\frac{\beta(1-\beta)}{k}\right)_3.$$

So the distribution of Type 1 primes depends on the mod k cubic residue properties of

$$\beta(1-\beta)$$

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However, it turns out that the values of $\psi(\mathfrak{p})$ are not uniformly distributed in $(\mathcal{O}/k\mathcal{O})^*$. There are various quadratic and cubic residue conditions that they must satisfy. A Conjectural Limit for the Density of Type 1 Primes For ease of exposition, I restrict now to the case that k is prime. Even with this restriction, there are many cases, because our conjectural limit for $\mathcal{T}_k(X)$ depends on k modulo 36. Here is a typical case:

A Conjectural Limit for the Density of Type 1 Primes

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Conjecture. Assume that $k \equiv 1 \pmod{36}$ and that k is prime. Then $\# \left\{ \lambda \in \frac{\mathcal{O}}{k\mathcal{O}} : \frac{\gcd(\lambda(1-\lambda),k) = 1}{(\frac{\lambda(1-\lambda)}{k})_3 = 1} \right\}$ $\lim_{X \to \infty} \mathcal{T}_k(X) = \frac{\# \left\{ \lambda \in \frac{\mathcal{O}}{k\mathcal{O}} : \frac{(\lambda(1-\lambda))}{k} = -1, \frac{\lambda}{k} = 1 \right\}}{\# \left\{ \lambda \in \frac{\mathcal{O}}{k\mathcal{O}} : \gcd(\lambda(1-\lambda),k) = 1 \right\}}$

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For small values of k, it is not hard to explicitly compute the fraction appearing on the right-hand side.

Amicable Pairs for Elliptic Curves

Conditions on the cubic residue of $\lambda(1-\lambda)$ and quadratic and cubic residues of λ can be reformulated into counting points on genus 4 curves of the form

$$C: \gamma z^6(1-\gamma z^6) = \delta x^3.$$

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The first step to obtaining an explicit formula is:

$$\operatorname{Jac}(C) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{isogenous}} E_{16\delta^2} \times E_{4\gamma^3\delta^4} \times E_{\gamma^5\delta^2} \times E_{-\gamma\delta^2}.$$

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Then we use a classical formula, essentially due to Gauss, for $\#E_{\alpha}(\mathbb{F})$. The formulas become especially messy if $k \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, since then the ideal $k\mathcal{O}$ splits, so quantities such as $\left(\frac{\lambda}{k}\right)_2$ and $\left(\frac{\lambda}{k}\right)_3$ become products.

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After a certain amount of work and...

Conjecture. Let $k \neq 3$ be prime. Then the density of Type 1 primes for the curve $E_k: y^2 = x^3 + k$ is $\lim_{X \to \infty} \mathcal{T}_k(X) = \frac{1}{3} + R(k),$ where R(k) = 0 if $k \equiv 5, 13, 25, 29 \pmod{36}$, and otherwise R(k) is given by the following table: $k \mod 36$ 1, 19 17, 35 7, 31 11, 232 2k2kR(k) $\overline{3(k-3)}$ $\overline{3(k-1)}$ $\overline{3(k-2)^2}$ $\overline{3(k^2-2)}$

Origins of Elliptic Aliquot Sequences Consider the Fibonacci sequence $F = (F_n)_{n \ge 1}$. A number of authors have considered the question:

For which indices n is F_n divisible by n?

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In general, for any integer sequence $A = (A_n)_{n \ge 1}$, it is interesting to study the **Index Divisibility Set**

 $\mathcal{S}(\mathsf{A}) = \{ n \ge 1 : n \mid A_n \}.$

We turn $\mathcal{S}(\mathsf{A})$ into a directed graph by assigning arrows

$$\operatorname{Arrow}(\mathsf{A}) = \left\{ n \to nd : \begin{array}{l} n, nd \in \mathcal{S}(\mathsf{A}) \text{ and } ne \notin \mathcal{S}(\mathsf{A}) \\ \text{for all } e \mid d \text{ with } 1 < e < d \end{array} \right\}$$

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Examples of arrows in $\operatorname{Arrow}(\mathsf{F})$ include

$$(1 \to 5), (1 \to 12), (12 \to 24), (5 \to 60).$$

Amicable Pairs for Elliptic Curves

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Index Divisibility of Lucas Sequences

Lucas sequences are generalizations of the Fibonaccie sequence. They are defined by recursions of the form

$$L_1 = 1$$
, $L_2 = A$, $L_{n+2} = AL_{n+1} + BL_n$.

We will assume that $\Delta = A^2 + 4B \neq 0$.

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We will assume that $\Delta = A^2 + 4B \neq 0$.

The index divisibility graph for general Lucas sequences has a very simple description.

Theorem. (Smyth 2009) Let L be a Lucas sequence. Then

Arrow(L) = {
$$n \to np : p \mid L_n \Delta$$
} $\cup \mathcal{B}_{A,B}$,

where $\mathcal{B}_{A,B}$ is either empty or consists of arrows of one of the forms $(n \to 6n)$ or $(n \to 12n)$.

Elliptic Divisibility Sequences

Consider an elliptic curve and rational point

$$E: y^2 = x^3 + ax + b, \qquad P \in E(\mathbb{Q}).$$

The multiples of P have the form

$$nP = \left(\frac{A_n}{D_n^2}, \frac{B_n}{D_n^3}\right).$$

The sequence $\mathsf{D} = (D_n)_{n \ge 1}$ is called an

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EDS are defined by a non-linear recursion. They are elliptic curve analogues of Lucas sequences, which are associated to the multiplicative group.

Aliquot Sequences and Index Divisibility of EDS

With these preliminaries, I can now explain how aliquot sequences appeared naturally when Kate and I studied index divisibility for elliptic divisibility sequences.

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Theorem. Let
$$\mathsf{D}$$
 be an EDS and let $n \in \mathcal{S}(\mathsf{D})$.
(a) $p \mid D_n \implies (n \to np) \in \operatorname{Arrow}(\mathsf{D})$.
(b) Let $(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_\ell)$ be an aliquot sequence of length $\ell \ge 2$ with $\min p_i \ge 9\ell^2$ and all $p_i \nmid n$. Then
 $n \to np_1p_2 \cdots p_\ell \in \operatorname{Arrow}(\mathsf{D})$.

(c) Conversely, if $(n \rightarrow nd)$ is an arrow with d composite and satisfying certain other conditions, then d is the product of the primes in an aliquot cycle.

Generalizations

A natural generalization is to consider an elliptic curve E over number field K. Then a sequence $\mathfrak{p}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}_\ell$ of (degree 1) primes is an **aliquot cycle** if

$$#E(\mathbb{F}_{\mathfrak{p}_1}) = \mathsf{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}\mathfrak{p}_2, \ \dots \ #E(\mathbb{F}_{\mathfrak{p}_\ell}) = \mathsf{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}\mathfrak{p}_1.$$

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Let E/\mathbb{Q} be an elliptic curve and let $L(E, s) = \sum a_n/n^s$ be its *L*-series. We define an *L*-aliqout cycle for *E* to be a cycle for the recursion

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Similarly, we define an N-aliqout cycle for E to be a cycle for the recursion

$$n \longmapsto \# \mathcal{E}_0(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}),$$

where \mathcal{E}_0/\mathbb{Z} is the identity component of the Néron model of E.

Amicable Pairs for Elliptic Curves Joseph H. Silverman (joint work with Katherine Stange) Brown University

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