

SOLUTIONS OF $\phi(n) = \phi(n + k)$ AND $\sigma(n) = \sigma(n + k)$

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ABSTRACT. We show that for some even $k \leq 3570$ and all k with $442720643463713815200|k$, the equation $\phi(n) = \phi(n + k)$ has infinitely many solutions n , where ϕ is Euler's totient function. We also show that for a positive proportion of all k , the equation $\sigma(n) = \sigma(n + k)$ has infinitely many solutions n . The proofs rely on recent progress on the prime k -tuples conjecture by Zhang, Maynard, Tao and PolyMath.

1. INTRODUCTION

We partially solve a longstanding conjecture about the solubility of

$$(1.1) \quad \phi(n + k) = \phi(n),$$

where ϕ is Euler's function and k is a fixed positive integer.

Hypothesis \mathcal{S}_k . The equation (1.1) holds for infinitely many n .

Ratat and Goormaghtigh in 1917–18 (see [5], p. 140) listed several solutions when $k = 1$. Erdős conjectured in 1945 that for any m , the simultaneous equations

$$(1.2) \quad \phi(n) = \phi(n + 1) = \cdots = \phi(n + m - 1)$$

has infinitely many solutions n . If true, this would immediately imply hypothesis \mathcal{S}_k for every k . However, there is only one solution of (1.2) known when $m \geq 3$, namely $n = 5186$, $m = 3$. In 1956, Sierpiński [26] showed that for any k , (1.1) has at least one solution n (e.g. take $n = (p - 1)k$, where p is the smallest prime not dividing k). This was extended by Schinzel [24] and by Schinzel and Wakulicz [25], who showed that for any $k \leq 2 \cdot 10^{58}$ there are at least two solutions of (1.1). In 1958, Schinzel [24] explicitly conjectured that \mathcal{S}_k is true for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$. There is good numerical evidence for \mathcal{S}_k , at least when $k = 1$ or k is even [1, 2, 3, 15, 9, 13]. Information about solutions for $k \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12\}$ can also be found in OEIS [20] sequences A001274, A001494, A330251, A179186, A179187, A179188, A179189, A179202, A330429, A276503, A276504 and A217139, respectively. Below 10^{11} there are very few solutions of (1.1) when $k \equiv 3 \pmod{6}$ [9], e.g. only the two solutions $n \in \{3, 5\}$ for $k = 3$ are known. A further search by G. Resta (see [20], sequence A330251) reveals 17 more solutions in $[10^{12}, 10^{15}]$.

There is a close connection between Hypothesis \mathcal{S}_k for even k and generalized prime twins.

Hypothesis $\mathcal{P}(a, b)$: there are infinitely many $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that both $an + 1$ and $bn + 1$ are prime.

Hypothesis $\mathcal{P}(a, b)$ is believed to be true for any pair of positive integers a, b , indeed this is a special case of Dickson's Prime k -tuples conjecture [4]. Klee [14] and Moser [18] noted that Hypothesis $\mathcal{P}(1, 2)$ immediately gives \mathcal{S}_2 , and Schinzel [24] observed that Hypothesis $\mathcal{P}(1, 2)$ implies \mathcal{S}_k for every even k . The proof is simple: if $n + 1$ and $2n + 1$ are prime and larger than k , then $\phi(k(2n + 1)) = \phi((n + 1)2k)$. Graham, Holt and Pomerance [9] generalized this idea, showing the following.

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Lemma 1 ([9, Theorem 1]). *For any k and any number j such that j and $j+k$ have the same prime factors, Hypothesis $\mathcal{P}(\frac{j}{(j,j+k)}, \frac{j+k}{(j,j+k)})$ implies \mathcal{S}_k .*

This also has an easy proof: if $\frac{j}{(j,j+k)}r+1$ and $\frac{j+k}{(j,j+k)}r+1$ are both prime, then $n = j(\frac{j+k}{(j,j+k)}r+1)$ satisfies (1.1). Note that for odd k there are no such numbers j , and for each even k there are finitely many such j (see [9], Section 3). Extending a bound of Erdős, Pomerance and Sárközy [8] in the case $k=1$, Graham, Holt and Pomerance showed that the solutions of (1.1) *not* generated from Lemma 1 are very rare, with counting function $O_k(x \exp\{-(\log x)^{1/3}\})$. Pollack, Pomerance and Treviño [22] proved a version uniform in k , and Yamada [28] sharpened this bound to $O_k(x \exp\{-(1/\sqrt{2} + o(1))\sqrt{\log x \log \log \log x}\})$. Assuming the Hardy-Littlewood conjectures [10], when k is even we conclude that there are $\sim C_k x / \log^2 x$ solutions $n \leq x$ of (1.1), where $C_k > 0$.

At present, Hypothesis $\mathcal{P}(a, b)$ is not known to hold for any pair a, b . However, the work of Zhang, Maynard, Tao and the PolyMath8b project allow us to conclude $\mathcal{P}(a, b)$ for some pairs a, b from a given collection of pairs. To set things up, we say that a collection of linear forms $(a_1n + b_1, \dots, a_kn + b_k)$ is *admissible* if $a_i > 0$ for each i , the forms $a_in + b_i$ are distinct and there is no prime dividing $(a_1n + b_1) \cdots (a_kn + b_k)$ for every integer n .

Lemma 2. *For any $m \geq 2$, there is a constant K_m so that if $k \geq K_m$ and $(a_1n + b_1, \dots, a_kn + b_k)$ is set of admissible linear forms, then for some distinct $i_1, \dots, i_m \in \{1, \dots, k\}$, there are infinitely many r such that the m numbers $a_{i_1}r + b_{i_1}, \dots, a_{i_m}r + b_{i_m}$ are simultaneously prime. Moreover, $K_2 = 50$ is admissible.*

The case $m=2$ is a generalization of the celebrated theorem of Yitang Zhang [29], while Maynard [16, 17] proved the existence of K_m for any m . We note that $K_2 \leq 50$ and $K_m \ll \exp\{(4 - \frac{28}{15})m\}$ by the collaborative PolyMath8b project [23]¹. If a_1, \dots, a_k are distinct, then the set of forms $(a_in + 1, \dots, a_kn + 1)$ are always admissible. Thus, given any set $\{a_1, \dots, a_{50}\}$ of positive integers, there is an $i \neq j$ so that $\mathcal{P}(a_i, a_j)$ holds. In fact [17, Theorem 3.4], the number of such $r \leq x$ in Lemma 2 is $\gg_{\mathbf{a}} x / \log^k x$.

Theorem 1. *We have*

- (a) *For any k that is a multiple of 442720643463713815200, \mathcal{S}_k is true;*
- (b) *There is some even $\ell \leq 3570$ such that \mathcal{S}_k is true whenever $\ell|k$; consequently, the number of $k \leq x$ for which \mathcal{S}_k is true is at least $x/3570$.*

Using Lemma 2, we also make progress toward Erdős' conjecture that (1.2) has infinitely many solutions.

Theorem 2. *For any $m \geq 3$ there is a tuple of distinct positive integers h_1, \dots, h_m so that for any $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$, the simultaneous equations*

$$\phi(n + \ell h_1) = \phi(n + \ell h_2) = \dots = \phi(n + \ell h_m)$$

have infinitely many solutions n .

Maynard [16, 17] showed that $K_2 \leq 5$ under the assumption of the Elliott-Halberstam Conjecture. Improvements to K_2 allow us to improve significantly on Theorem 1.

Theorem 3. *If $K_2 \leq 5$, then \mathcal{S}_k is true for all k with $30|k$. If $K_2 \leq 4$, then \mathcal{S}_k is true for all k with $6|k$.*

The author recently learned that Sungjin Kim [12] proved weaker statements in the direction of Theorem 1. He used Lemma 2 to show that \mathcal{S}_k holds for some $k \in \{B, 2B, \dots, 50B\}$, with $B = \prod_{p \leq 50} p$. He also proved that the set of k for which \mathcal{S}_k holds has counting function $\gg \log \log x$.

¹We utilize the ‘‘general linear forms’’ version of Maynard [17, Theorem 3.1]. Although the results of [23] are not stated with this generality, they hold with trivial modifications to the proof; see [17], [23, Theorem 3.2 (i), Theorem 3.13] for details.

One can ask analogous questions about the sum of divisors function $\sigma(n)$. As $\sigma(p) = p+1$ vs $\phi(p) = p-1$, oftentimes one can port theorems about ϕ over to σ . This is not the case here, since our results depend heavily on the existence of solutions of

$$a\phi(b) = b\phi(a),$$

which is true if and only if a and b have the same set of prime factors. The analogous equation

$$a\sigma(b) = b\sigma(a) \Leftrightarrow \frac{\sigma(a)}{a} = \frac{\sigma(b)}{b}$$

has more sporadic solutions, e.g. if a, b are both perfect numbers or multiply perfect numbers.

Theorem 4. *For a positive proportion of all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, the equation*

$$\sigma(n) = \sigma(n+k)$$

has infinitely many solutions n .

Unfortunately, our methods cannot specify any particular k for which the conclusion holds. Our method requires finding, for $t = K_2$, numbers a_1, \dots, a_t so that

$$(1.3) \quad \frac{\sigma(a_1)}{a_1} = \dots = \frac{\sigma(a_t)}{a_t} = y.$$

Such collections of numbers are sometimes referred to as “friends” in the literature, e.g. [21]. Finding larger collections of a_i satisfying (1.3) leads to stronger conclusions.

Theorem 5. *Let $m \geq 2$, let $t = K_m$ and assume that there is a y and positive integers a_1, \dots, a_t satisfying (1.3). Then there are positive integers $h_1 < h_2 < \dots < h_m$ so that for a positive proportion of integers ℓ , there are infinitely many solutions of*

$$\sigma(n + \ell h_1) = \dots = \sigma(n + \ell h_m).$$

It is known [19] that for $y = 9$, there is a set of 2095 integers satisfying (1.3). Also $K_2 \leq 50$ [23], and hence Theorem 4 follows from the case $m = 2$ of Theorem 5. Even the weaker bound $K_2 \leq 105$ from [16] suffices. We cannot make the conclusion unconditional when $m \geq 3$, since the best known bounds for K_3 is $K_3 \leq 35410$ [23, Theorem 3.2 (ii)].

Conjecture A. For any t , there is an y such that $\sigma(a)/a = y$ has at least t solutions. That is, there are arbitrarily large circles of friends.

Clearly, Conjecture A implies the conclusion of Theorem 5 for all m . In [7], Erdős mentions Conjecture A and states that he doesn’t know of any argument that would lead to its resolution. In the opposite direction, Hornfeck and Wirsing [11] showed that for any y , there are $\leq z^{o(1)}$ solutions of $\sigma(a)/a = y$ with $a \leq z$; this was improved by Wirsing [27], who showed that the counting function is $O(z^{c/\log \log z})$ for some c , uniformly in y . Pollack and Pomerance [21] studied the solutions of (1.3), gathering data on pairs, triples and quadruples of friends, but did not address Conjecture A.

Using (1.3) and prime pairs $an - 1$ and $bn - 1$, one can generate many solutions of $\sigma(n) = \sigma(n+k)$, analogous to Lemma 1; see Yamada [28, Theorem 1.1]. For example, if $\sigma(m)/m = \sigma(m+1)/(m+1)$ (the ratios need not be integers as claimed in [28]), $r > m+1$, and $rm - 1$ and $r(m+1) - 1$ are both prime, then $\sigma(m(r(m+1) - 1)) = \sigma((m+1)(mr - 1))$. Yamada [28, Theorem 1.2] showed that there are $\ll x \exp\{-(1/\sqrt{2} + o(1))\sqrt{\log x \log \log x}\}$ solutions $n \leq x$ not generated in this way.

2. PROOFS

Throughout, $1 \leq a < b$ are integers. We first show that $\mathcal{P}(a, b)$ implies \mathcal{S}_k for certain k , inverting Lemma 1. Define

$$(2.1) \quad \kappa(a, b) = (b' - a') \prod_{p|a'b'} p, \quad a' = \frac{a}{(a, b)}, \quad b' = \frac{b}{(a, b)}.$$

We observe that $\kappa(a, b)$ is always even.

Lemma 3. *Assume $\mathcal{P}(a, b)$. Then \mathcal{S}_k holds for every k which is a multiple of $\kappa(a, b)$.*

Proof. Define $a' = \frac{a}{(a, b)}$, $b' = \frac{b}{(a, b)}$ and observe that $\mathcal{P}(a, b) \Rightarrow \mathcal{P}(a', b')$. Let $s = \prod_{p|a'b'} p$, and suppose that $r > \max(a', b')$ such that $a'r + 1$ and $b'r + 1$ are both prime. Let $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ and set

$$m_1 = b'\ell s(a'r + 1), \quad m_2 = a'\ell s(b'r + 1).$$

As all of the prime factors of $a'b'$ divide ℓs , we have $\phi(b'\ell s) = b'\phi(\ell s)$ and $\phi(a'\ell s) = a'\phi(\ell s)$, and it follows that $\phi(m_1) = \phi(m_2)$. Finally, $m_1 - m_2 = (b' - a')\ell s = \ell\kappa(a, b)$. \square

Proof of Theorem 1. Let

$$\{a_1, \dots, a_{50}\} = \{1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, \\ 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 52, 56\},$$

By Lemma 2, for some i, j with $1 \leq i < j \leq 50$, $\mathcal{P}(a_i, a_j)$ is true. We compute

$$\text{lcm}\{\kappa(a_i, a_j) : 1 \leq i < j \leq 50\} = 442720643463713815200 = 2^5 3^3 5^2 \prod_{7 \leq p \leq 47} p,$$

and thus (a) follows from Lemma 3.

For part (b), we take

$$\{a_1, \dots, a_{50}\} = \{15, 20, 30, 36, 40, 45, 60, 72, 75, 80, 90, 96, 100, 108, 120, 135, 144, 150, 180, 192, 200, \\ 216, 225, 240, 250, 270, 288, 300, 320, 324, 360, 375, 384, 400, 405, 450, 480, 500, 540, 600, \\ 720, 750, 810, 900, 960, 1080, 1200, 1440, 1500, 1800\},$$

numbers that only have prime factors 2, 3, 5. We also compute that

$$\max_{1 \leq i < j \leq 50} \kappa(a_i, a_j) = 3570,$$

and again invoke Lemma 3. This proves (b). \square

Remarks. For any choice of a_1, \dots, a_{50} , $\frac{442720643463713815200}{6} | L(\mathbf{a})$, where $L(\mathbf{a}) = \text{lcm}\{\kappa(a_i, a_j) : i < j\}$. Without loss of generality, assume $(a_1, \dots, a_{50}) = 1$. For a prime $7 \leq p \leq 47$, if $p | a_i$ for some i then $p \nmid a_j$ for some j and thus $p | \kappa(a_i, a_j)$. If $p \nmid a_i$ for all i , by the pigeonhole principle, there are two indices with $a_i \equiv a_j \pmod{p}$. Again, $p | \kappa(a_i, a_j)$. Thus, $p | L(\mathbf{a})$. Now we show that $5^2 | L(\mathbf{a})$. Let $S_b = \{a_i : 5^b \parallel a_i\}$ for $b \geq 0$. Then $|S_0| \geq 1$. If $|S_b| \geq 1$ for some $b \geq 2$, then there are i, j with $5^2 | a_i$ and $5 \nmid a_j$, and then $5^2 | \kappa(a_i, a_j)$. Otherwise, we have $|S_b| \geq 21$ for some $b \in \{0, 1\}$. By the pigeonhole principle, there is $i \neq j$ with $5^b \parallel a_i, 5^b \parallel a_j$ and $5^{b+2} | (a_i - a_j)$. This also implies that $5^2 | \kappa(a_i, a_j)$. Similarly, let $T_b = \{a_i : 3^b \parallel a_i\}$. Then we have either $|T_b| \geq 1$ for some $b \geq 2$, or $|T_i| \geq 7$ for some $i \in \{0, 1\}$. Either way, $3^2 | L(\mathbf{a})$. Let $U_b = \{a_i : 2^b \parallel a_i\}$. Then either $|U_b| \geq 1$ for some $b \geq 4$ or $|U_b| \geq 9$ for some $b \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$. Either way, $2^4 | L(\mathbf{a})$. It is easy to construct $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_{50})$ such that $3^3 \nmid L(\mathbf{a})$ and $2^5 \nmid L(\mathbf{a})$. However, such constructions seem to always produce $q | L(\mathbf{a})$ for some prime $q > 50$.

We likewise believe that 3570 is the smallest number that can be produced for Theorem 1 (b). Using numbers divisible by 4 or more primes always produces some very large $\kappa(a, b)$, thus we limited our search with numbers composed only of the primes 2,3,5. For a given finite set of integers $\{b_1, \dots, b_r\}$, the problem of minimizing $\max_{i,j \in I} \kappa(b_i, b_j)$ over all 50-element subsets $I \subset \{1, \dots, r\}$, is equivalent to that of finding the largest clique in a graph. Take vertex set $\{1, \dots, r\}$ and draw an edge from i to j if $\kappa(b_i, b_j) \leq t$. Using the Sage routine `clique_number()` with $t = 3569$ and $\{b_1, \dots, b_r\}$ being the smallest 800 numbers composed only of primes 2,3,5 (the largest being 12754584), we find that the largest clique has size 49.

Proof of Theorem 2. Let $m \geq 2$, $k = K_m$ and consider any set $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$ of k positive integers. By Lemma 2, there are $1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_m \leq k$ such that for infinitely many r , the m numbers $a_{i_1}r + 1, \dots, a_{i_m}r + 1$ are all prime. Let r be such a number. Define

$$h_j = \frac{(a_{i_1} \cdots a_{i_m})^2}{a_{i_j}} \quad (1 \leq j \leq m).$$

Let $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ and set $n = \ell(a_{i_1} \cdots a_{i_m})^2 r$. Then, since $a_{i_j} | h_j$ for all j , it follows that for any j ,

$$\phi(n + \ell h_j) = \phi(\ell h_j (a_{i_j} r + 1)) = \phi(\ell h_j) a_{i_j} r = \phi(\ell h_j a_{i_j}) r. \quad \square$$

Proof of Theorem 3. Same as the proof of Theorem 1 (a), but take $\{a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5\} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 6\}$ if $K_2 \leq 5$ and $\{a_1, \dots, a_4\} = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ if $K_2 \leq 4$. \square

Proof of Theorem 5. Let $t = K_m$ and a_1, \dots, a_t satisfy (1.3). Put $A = \text{lcm}[a_1, \dots, a_t]$ and for each i define $b_i = A/a_i$. By Lemma 2 applied to the collection of linear forms $b_i n - 1$, $1 \leq i \leq t$, there exist i_1, \dots, i_m such that for infinitely many $r \in \mathbb{N}$, the m numbers $b_{i_j} r - 1$ are all prime. Let $r > A$ be such a number, and let $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $(\ell, A) = 1$ (this holds for a positive proportion of all ℓ). Let

$$t_j = \ell a_{i_j} (b_{i_j} r - 1) = \ell r - \ell a_{i_j} \quad (1 \leq j \leq m).$$

By (1.3), for every j we have

$$\sigma(t_j) = \sigma(\ell) \sigma(a_{i_j}) b_{i_j} r = y \sigma(\ell) A r. \quad \square$$

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