

# Diophantine Equations Involving the Euler Totient Function

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# The Euler Totient Function

For a natural number  $n$ , the Euler totient function counts the number of positive integers up to  $n$  that are coprime to  $n$  and is denoted by  $\varphi(n)$ . For example,  $\varphi(6) = 2$  because 1 and 5 are coprime to 6, but 2, 3, 4 aren't.

For instance, if  $p$  is prime, then  $\varphi(p) = p - 1$  and for a prime power  $p^e$ , then  $\varphi(p^e) = p^e - p^{e-1} = p^{e-1}(p - 1)$ .

As well, the Euler totient function is multiplicative, that is, if  $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$  are coprime, then  $\varphi(nm) = \varphi(n)\varphi(m)$ .

# Properties of the Euler Totient Function

As a result, the Euler totient function of a number  $n$  can be expressed very nicely in terms of the prime factorisation of  $n$ . If

$$n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_t^{e_t}$$

is the prime factorisation of  $n$ , then we have

$$\varphi(n) = p_1^{e_1-1}(p_1 - 1)p_2^{e_2-1}(p_2 - 1) \cdots p_t^{e_t-1}(p_t - 1).$$

If  $p^2 \mid n$ , then  $p \mid \varphi(n)$ . Conversely, if  $p \mid \varphi(n)$ , then either  $p \mid n$  or there exists a prime  $q$  such that either  $q \mid p - 1$ .

# Powers and the Euler totient function

## Definition 1

A number  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  is a powerful number if  $n$  does not have a prime factor to the power 1 in its prime factorisation. In other words, if

$$n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_t^{e_t}$$

is the prime factorisation of  $n$ , then  $e_i \geq 2$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq t$ .

## Theorem 1 (Pollack (2014))

As  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , the number of  $n \leq x$  for which  $\varphi(n)$  is powerful is at most  $x/L(x)^{1+o(1)}$  where

$$L(x) = \exp\left(\frac{\log x \cdot \log \log \log x}{\log \log x}\right)$$

## Theorem 2 (Pollack and Pomerance (2019))

Let  $V(x) := \#\{n \leq x : \text{there exists } m \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } \varphi(m) = n^2\}$ . We have

$$V(x) \leq x/(\log x)^{0.0063}$$

and

$$V(x) \gg x/(\log x \log \log x)^2.$$

# Factorials and Powers

In 2010, Ford, Florian, and Pomerance proved that there exists  $c > 0$  such that for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  the Diophantine equation  $\varphi(x) = k!$  has at least  $(k!)^c$  solutions. In this way, the equation  $\varphi(x) = k!$  has “many” solutions.

What about the equation  $\varphi(ax^m) = r \cdot n!$  where  $m \geq 2$  and  $a \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $r \in \mathbb{Q}^+$  are fixed? We can also ask the same for  $\varphi(r \cdot n!) = ax^m$ .

The equation  $\varphi(ax^m) = r \cdot n!$

### Theorem 3 (S.)

Fix  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $\gcd(b, c) = 1$ . Then there are only finitely many solutions to  $\varphi(ax^m) = \frac{b \cdot n!}{c}$  with  $m \geq 2$  and these solutions satisfy  $n \leq \max\{61, 3a, 3b, 3c\}$ .

In particular, all of the integer solutions to  $\varphi(x^m) = n!$  where  $m \geq 2$  are  $\varphi(1^m) = 1!$ ,  $\varphi(2^2) = 2!$ ,  $\varphi(3^2) = 3!$ ,  $\varphi((3 \cdot 5)^2) = 5!$ ,  $\varphi((3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7)^2) = 7!$ ,  $\varphi((2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7)^2) = 8!$ ,  $\varphi((2^2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 7)^2) = 9!$ ,  $\varphi((2^2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 11)^2) = 11!$ , and  $\varphi((2^2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 11 \cdot 13)^2) = 13!$ .

The equation  $\varphi(r \cdot n!) = ax^m$

### Theorem 4 (S.)

Fix  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ . Then there are only finitely many solutions to  $\varphi\left(\frac{a \cdot n!}{b}\right) = cx^m$  with  $m \geq 2$  and these solutions satisfy  $n \leq \max\{61, 3a, 3b, 3c\}$ .

In particular, all of the integer solutions to  $\varphi(n!) = x^m$ , where  $m \geq 2$  and  $n \geq 1$ , are  $\varphi(1!) = 1^m$ ,  $\varphi(2!) = 1^m$ ,  $\varphi(4!) = 2^3$ ,  $\varphi(5!) = 2^5$ ,  $\varphi(8!) = (2^5 \cdot 3)^2$ ,  $\varphi(9!) = (2^5 \cdot 3^2)^2$ ,  $\varphi(11!) = (2^6 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5)^2$ , and  $\varphi(13!) = (2^8 \cdot 3^3 \cdot 5)^2$ .



## Proposition 1 (S.)

Let  $x, n, m, a, b, c \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $m \geq 2$  and  $\varphi(ax^m) = \frac{b \cdot n!}{c}$  and let  $p$  be a prime such that  $p > a, b, c$ . If  $p \mid x$ , then  $p \leq n$ . Conversely, if  $p \leq n$ ,  $p \nmid x$ , then  $p = 2$  and  $n = 3, 5$ , or  $7$ .

Suppose  $p \mid x$ . Then  $p^2 \mid ax^m$ . Thus  $p \mid \varphi(ax^m)$ , so that  $p \mid \frac{b \cdot n!}{c}$ . Thus  $p \mid n!$  so that  $p \leq n$ .

Suppose that  $p \leq n$ ,  $p \nmid x$ . Let  $q$  be the greatest prime at most  $n$ . Then  $b < p \leq q$  so that  $q \mid \frac{b \cdot n!}{c}$ . Then  $q \mid \varphi(ax^m)$ . Either  $q \mid ax^m$  or there exists a prime  $q' \mid ax^m$  such that  $q \mid q' - 1$ . Consider the latter case. Then we have  $q < q' \mid x$ . But then  $q' \leq n$ , contradicting our choice of  $q$ . Thus  $q \mid x$ . Using the same reasoning, we can deduce that the highest prime dividing  $x$  is  $q$ .

We have  $p \mid \frac{b \cdot n!}{c} = \varphi(ax^m)$ . If  $p \mid ax^m$ , then  $p \mid x$ , so we must have that there exists a prime, say  $p'$ , such that  $p \mid p' - 1$  and  $p' \mid ax^m$  so that  $p' \mid x$ . Observe that  $a, b, c < p < p' \leq q \leq n$ . We can therefore deduce that for all  $e \in \mathbb{N}$   $p^e \mid \frac{b \cdot n!}{c}$  if and only if  $p^e \mid (q_1 - 1)(q_2 - 1) \cdots (q_r - 1)$  where  $q_1 < q_2 < \dots < q_r = q$  are all the primes dividing  $x$  that are greater than  $a, b,$ , and  $c$ . Thus for all  $e \in \mathbb{N}$   $p^e \mid n!$  if and only if  $p^e \mid (q_1 - 1)(q_2 - 1) \cdots (q_r - 1)$ . Observe that  $q_1 - 1 < q_2 - 1 < \dots < q_r - 1 < n$  and that  $p \nmid \frac{n!}{(q_1 - 1) \cdots (q_r - 1)}$ . Thus  $q_1 - 1, \dots, q_r - 1$  must contain all of the positive multiples of  $p$  up to  $n$ . We must therefore have that  $p = q_i - 1$  for some  $1 \leq i \leq r$ , which can only hold if  $p = 2$ . So  $q_1 - 1, \dots, q_r - 1$  contains all of the positive even numbers less than  $n$  and  $n = q_r = p_k$ . Thus  $n = 3, 5,$  or  $7$ .

# Powerful Numbers

## Proposition 2 (S.)

*Let  $x, y, \in \mathbb{N}$  satisfy  $\varphi(x) = \varphi(y)$  and suppose that  $x$  and  $y$  are both powerful numbers. Then  $x = y$ .*

Let  $P(n)$  denote the largest prime factor dividing  $n$ . For  $x, y \in \mathbb{N}$  both powerful with  $\varphi(x) = \varphi(y)$  implies that  $P(x) = P(y)$  with their exponents in the factorisation of  $x$  and  $y$  being equal. The result then follows by induction on the number of prime factors of  $x$ .

## Lemma 1 (S.)

If  $x, n, a, b, c \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $n \geq 9$ ,  $a, b, c \leq n/3$ , and  $\varphi(ax^2) = \frac{b \cdot n!}{c}$ , then all of the primes in the interval  $(n/3, n/2]$  are congruent to 2 (mod 3).

## Notation 1

For a prime  $p$  and a natural number  $n$ , we write  $p^e \parallel n$  if  $p^e$  is the highest power of  $p$  dividing  $n$ . In other words, if

$$n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_t^{e_t}$$

is the prime factorisation of  $n$ , then  $p_i^{e_i} \parallel n$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq t$ .

Let  $p \in (n/3, n/2]$  be prime. By Proposition 1, we have  $p \mid x$ . Thus  $p^{2e} \parallel ax^2$  for some  $e \in \mathbb{N}$ . Thus  $p^{2e-1} \mid \varphi(ax^2)$ . Notice that  $p^2 \parallel \frac{c \cdot n!}{d}$ . We can therefore deduce that there exists a prime  $q \mid ax^2$  such that  $p \mid q - 1$ . Notice that  $q \mid x$ , and so, by Proposition 1,  $q \leq n$ . But since  $n/3 < p$  we must therefore have that  $2p = q - 1$ . Since  $n \geq 9$ , we have  $3 \nmid p, q$ . Thus  $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ .

## Proof of Theorem 3

Suppose that  $\varphi(ax^m) = \frac{b \cdot n!}{c}$  where  $m \geq 2$  and  $\gcd(b, c) = 1$ . Suppose that  $n > \max\{61, 3a, 3b, 3c\}$ .

Suppose that  $m \geq 3$ . Let  $p$  be the largest prime at most  $n$ . By Bertrand's Postulate,  $n/2 < p$  and so  $p^2 \nmid n!$ . Also  $p > a, b, c, d$ . By Proposition 1, we have  $p \mid x$ , and so  $p^3 \mid ax^m$ . But then  $p^2 \mid \varphi(ax^m) = \frac{b \cdot n!}{c}$  so that  $p^2 \mid n!$ , a contradiction.

Suppose that  $m = 2$ . By Lemma 1, all of the primes in the interval  $(n/3, n/2]$  are congruent to 2 (mod 3). Bennett, Martin, O'Bryant, Rechnitzer showed in 2018 that for  $x \geq 450$ , we have

$$\frac{x}{2 \log x} < \pi(x; 3, 1) < \frac{x}{2 \log x} \left(1 + \frac{5}{2 \log x}\right).$$

where  $\pi(x; 3, 1)$  is the number of primes up to  $x$  congruent to 1 (mod 3), which we used to derive a contradiction.

Thus we must have  $n \leq \max\{61, 3a, 3b, 3c\}$ .

## Special Case $\varphi(x^m) = n!$

For  $m \geq 3$  we only have  $\varphi(1^m) = 1!$  as a solution. For  $n \geq 62$  there are no solutions.

For  $26 \leq n \leq 56$ , and  $14 \leq n \leq 20$  there exists a prime in the interval  $(n/3, n/2]$  that is congruent to 1 (mod 3) so we obtain no solutions here.

Assume  $57 \leq n \leq 61$ . By Proposition 1,  $11 \mid x$ . Suppose that  $11^e \parallel x$ . Then  $11^{2e} \parallel x^2$ . Also,  $23 \mid x$  and 23 is the only prime up to  $n$  that is congruent to 1 (mod 11). Thus,  $11^{2e-1+1} \parallel \varphi(x^2)$  or  $11^{2e} \parallel \varphi(x^2)$ . But  $11^5 \parallel n!$ , a contradiction since 5 is odd.

The rest of the cases are exhausted similarly.

## Proof of Theorem 4

Suppose that  $\varphi\left(\frac{a \cdot n!}{b}\right) = cx^m$  where  $m \geq 2$  and  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$  with  $n > \max\{61, 3a, 3b, 3c\}$ . We know there exists a prime  $p \in (n/3, n/2]$  that is congruent to 1 (mod 3). Then  $p^2 \parallel n!$ , and so  $p^2 \parallel \frac{a \cdot n!}{b}$ . Thus  $p \mid cx^m$ , and so  $p \mid x^m$ . But then  $p^2 \mid x^m$ , and so  $p^2 \mid cx^m$ .

Therefore, there exists a prime  $q \mid \frac{a \cdot n!}{b}$  such that  $p \mid q - 1$ . Since  $q > p > a$ , we have that  $q \mid n!$ , and so  $q \leq n$ . Since  $p \in (n/3, n/2]$ , we therefore have that  $2p = q - 1$ . But since  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ , we have  $3 \mid 2p + 1$ , a contradiction.

## Luca's and Stanica's Results

Let  $F_n$  be the  $n$ th term of the Fibonacci sequence with  $F_0 = 0$  and  $F_1 = 1$ , and let  $L_n$  be the  $n$ th term of the Fibonacci sequence with  $L_0 = 2$  and  $L_1 = 1$

### Theorem 5 (Luca, Stanica (2013))

Let  $\mathcal{N} := \{n : \text{there exists } m \text{ such that } \varphi(F_n) = m!\}$  and  $\mathcal{N}(x) := \mathcal{N} \cap [1, x]$ . Then

$$\#\mathcal{N}(x) \ll \frac{x \log \log x}{\log x},$$

and the only primes in  $\mathcal{N}$  are 2 and 3.

### Theorem 6 (Luca, Stanica (2013))

The only solutions in nonnegative integers of the equation  $\varphi(L_n) = 2^a 3^b$  are

$$(n, a, b) = (0, 0, 0), (1, 0, 0), (2, 1, 0), (3, 1, 0), (4, 1, 1), (6, 1, 1), (9, 2, 2).$$



# Lucas sequences

## Definition 2

Let  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{N}$ . A Lucas sequence of the first kind  $(u_n)_n$  is defined by  $u_0 = 0$ ,  $u_1 = 1$ , and  $u_n = bu_{n-1} + cu_{n-2}$  for all  $n \geq 2$ . A Lucas sequence of the second kind  $(v_n)_n$  is defined by  $v_0 = 2$ ,  $v_1 = b$ , and  $v_n = bv_{n-1} + cv_{n-2}$  for all  $n \geq 2$ .

The equation  $\varphi(g_p) = m!$

### Theorem 7 (S.)

Let  $b^2 + 4c$  be prime with  $b^2 + 4c > a$ . Then there are at most finitely many primes  $p$  for which  $\varphi(au_p)$  is a factorial. Moreover, such primes  $p$  are bounded above by

$$\max \left\{ ea^{1/2} \left( \frac{b + \sqrt{b^2 + 4c}}{2} \right), \frac{\frac{10}{9} \log(8 \cdot (b^2 + 4c - 1)!) - \log a + \frac{\log(b^2 + 4c)}{2}}{\log \left( \frac{b + \sqrt{b^2 + 4c}}{2} \right)} \right\}$$

# Powers of 2 and 3

## Theorem 8 (S.)

The only solutions to  $\varphi(v_n) = 2^x 3^y$  are:

1) For  $b = 3, c = 1$ :

$$(n, x, y) = (0, 0, 0), (1, 1, 0), (3, 2, 1), (4, 5, 1), (9, 6, 5).$$

2) For  $b = 5, c = 1$ :

$$(n, x, y) = (0, 0, 0), (1, 2, 0), (2, 0, 2), (3, 4, 3).$$

3) For  $b = 7, c = 1$ :

$$(n, x, y) = (0, 0, 0), (1, 1, 1), (2, 5, 0), (3, 5, 2), (6, 9, 4).$$

Lucas proved that for any prime  $p$  not dividing  $c$  we have that there exists  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $p \mid u_l$  if and only if  $k \mid l$ . Such a  $k$  is called the index of appearance of  $p$ . Denote the index of appearance of a prime  $p$  by  $z(p)$ .

Lucas also proved the following.

### Lemma 2 (Lucas)

*If  $p \mid b^2 + 4c$ , then  $z(p) \mid p$ . Let  $p$  be a prime other than  $b^2 + 4c$  with  $p \nmid c$ . If  $b^2 + 4c$  is a quadratic residue (mod  $p$ ), then  $z(p) \mid p - 1$ . If  $b^2 + 4c$  is not a quadratic residue (mod  $p$ ), then  $z(p) \mid p + 1$ . Let  $\alpha = \frac{b + \sqrt{b^2 + 4c}}{2a}$  and  $\beta = \frac{\sqrt{b^2 + 4c} - b}{2a}$ . Then*

$$u_n = \frac{(\alpha^n - \beta^n)}{\sqrt{b^2 + 4c}}.$$

### Lemma 3 (Rosser, Schoenfeld)

Let  $c$  be the Euler-Mascheroni constant

$$c = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( -\log n + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} \right) = 0.57721 \dots$$

Then for all  $n \geq 3$ , we have

$$n/\varphi(n) < e^c \log \log n + 5/(2 \log \log n)$$

except when  $n = 223092870 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 \cdot 17 \cdot 19 \cdot 23$ , in which case

$$n/\varphi(n) < e^c \log \log n + 2.50637/(\log \log n)$$

Let  $\varphi(au_p) = m!$ . Suppose that  $m \geq b^2 + 4c$ . Then  $b^2 + 4c \mid \varphi(au_p)$  so either  $b^2 + 4c \mid au_p$  or there exists a prime  $q \mid g_p$  such that  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{b^2 + 4c}$ . In the former case, we thus have  $b^2 + 4c \mid p$  and so  $p = b^2 + 4c$ . Thus assume the latter case. Since  $b^2 + 4c \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  and  $b^2 + 4c$  is prime, we have by quadratic reciprocity that  $b^2 + 4c$  is a quadratic residue  $\pmod{q}$ . By Lemma 2, we thus have that  $z(q) \mid \gcd(p, q - 1)$ . Since  $g_1 = a < b^2 + 4c$ , we must have that  $z(q) = p$  and so  $p \mid q - 1$ . Thus  $p \mid m!$  so that  $p \leq m$ . By Lemma 2, we have

$$a\alpha^p > au_p > \varphi(au_p) \geq p! > (p/e)^p.$$

Since  $p \geq 2$ , we have  $p < ea^{1/2}\alpha$ .

Now assume that  $m < b^2 + 4c$  and  $p \geq ea^{1/2}\alpha$ . Thus,  $p \geq 5$ . We can work out that  $au_5 = a(b^4 + 3b^2c + c^2)$  and so  $u_p \geq u_5 \geq 5$ . Thus,

$$\frac{au_p}{(b^2 + 4c - 1)!} \leq \frac{au_p}{m!} = \frac{au_p}{\varphi(au_p)}.$$

The right-hand side of the above inequality can be bounded with Lemma 3 and the result can be deduced.

Let  $a = c = 1$ .

### Proposition 3

Let  $c = 1$  and  $b^2 + 4$  be prime and let  $d = \nu_3(b)$  if  $3 \mid b$  or  $d = \nu_3(b^2 + 2)$  if  $3 \nmid b$ . Suppose that  $\varphi(v_n) = 2^x 3^y$  for some  $x, y, n \geq 0$  and  $n = 2^e m$  where  $e \geq 0$  and  $m$  is odd. Then  $e \leq 2$  and at least one of the following conditions hold:

- 1)  $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 12$
- 2)  $n$  is a power of 3
- 3) there exists a prime  $p > 3$  dividing  $n$  and for all such primes  $p$ , there exist primes  $q_1, \dots, q_l$  such that  $q_i = 2 \cdot 3^{b_{q_i}} + 1$  for some  $b_{q_i} \in \mathbb{N}$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq l$  with  $v_{2^e p} = v_{2^e} q_1 \cdots q_l$ , but  $q_i \nmid v_{2^e}$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq l$ . Moreover, let  $q_1$  be the smallest  $q_i$ . Then  $b_{q_1} \leq 4d$ .

## Example: $b = 3$

If we substitute  $b = 3$  into Proposition 3 and assume that  $n > 12$ , then we obtain that either  $n$  is a power of 3, or there exists a prime  $p > 3$  such that  $2^e p \mid n$ ,  $q \mid v_{2^e p}$ , but  $q \nmid v_{2^e}$ , where  $e = 1, 2$ , and  $q = 7, 19$ , or 163 since here  $d = 1$ .

We can deduce that  $17 \mid \varphi(v_{27})$ , eliminating the power of 3 possibility since  $v_{n_1} \mid v_{n_2}$  if  $n_1 \mid n_2$ .

Suppose that  $q = 163$ . We can deduce that 13 is not a quadratic residue (mod 163), and so we have  $p \mid 164$  and so  $p = 41$ . We can verify that  $e = 1$ . But  $41 \mid \varphi(v_{82})$ . Thus  $\varphi(v_{82})$  does not have the form  $2^x 3^y$  and so neither does  $\varphi(v_n)$ . The cases of  $q = 7$  and 19 are similar.



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Thanks for listening!

Any questions?