ON SQUARE VALUES OF THE PRODUCT OF THE EULER TOTIENT AND SUM OF DIVISORS FUNCTIONS

KEVIN BROUGHAN, KEVIN FORD, AND FLORIAN LUCA

ABSTRACT. If n is a positive integer such that $\phi(n)\sigma(n) = m^2$ for some positive integer m, then $m \leq n$. We put m = n - a and we study the positive integers a arising in this way.

Keywords: sum of divisors, Euler function.

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1 Introduction

It is known (e.g. [3] and [11]), and we will revisit this argument shortly, that there are infinitely many positive integers n such that $\phi(n)\sigma(n) = \Box^1$. Here, we look at such positive integers n. Clearly, n = 1 has the property. Suppose that n > 1 and write its prime factorization as

eq:1 (1.1)
$$n = \prod_{i=1}^{k} p_i^{\alpha_i}.$$

Then

eq:2 (1.2)
$$\frac{\phi(n)\sigma(n)}{n^2} = \prod_{i=1}^k \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i^{\alpha_i + 1}}\right).$$

Thus, if n > 1 and $\phi(n)\sigma(n) = m^2$ for some positive integer m, then m < n, so we can write m = n - a for some positive integer a. In this paper, we look at the positive integers a arising in this way. First, we fix such a number a and study the set

$$\mathcal{N}_a := \{n : n > a \text{ and } \phi(n)\sigma(n) = (n-a)^2\}$$

It is easy to see that each $n \in \mathcal{N}_a$ has the same parity as a. Our first result shows that \mathcal{N}_a is a finite set.

thm:1 Theorem 1. All elements n in \mathcal{N}_a have $\omega(n) > 1$ and $n \leq 2a^3$.

We conjecture that Theorem 1 is best possible. Indeed, if p is prime and $2p^2 - 1$ is also prime, then for $n = p(2p^2 - 1)$, $\sigma(n)\phi(n) = (n - p)^2$ and $n \sim 2p^3$. It is conjectured that there are infinitely many such primes (this is a special case of Schinzel's Hypothesis H).

Next, we look at the set

$$\mathcal{A} = \{a \ge 1 : \mathcal{N}_a \ne \emptyset\}$$

= {2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 24, 26, 28, 32, 35, 37, 40, 41, 43, 45, 47, 53, ... }.

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¹We use \Box to denote the square of a positive integer

Clearly, \mathcal{A} is infinite because on the one hand there are infinitely many n such that $\phi(n)\sigma(n) = \Box$, while on the other hand for each a the set \mathcal{N}_a is finite by Theorem 1. Our next result gives a lower bound for $\mathcal{A}(x) = \mathcal{A} \cap [1, x]$.

thm:3 Theorem 2. The estimate $\#\mathcal{A}(x) \ge x^{1/8+o(1)}$ holds as $x \to \infty$.

In light of the examples given above $(n = p(2p^2 - 1))$ and the Bateman-Horn conjectures [4], it is likely that $\mathcal{A}(x) \gg x/\log^2 x$.

Throughout the paper, we use the Landau symbols O and o and the Vinogradov symbols \gg , \ll and \asymp with their usual meaning. We recall that A = O(B), $A \ll B$ and $B \gg A$ are all equivalent and mean that the inequality $|A| \leq cB$ holds with some positive constant c. Further, $A \simeq B$ means that both estimates $A \ll B$ and $B \ll A$ hold, while A = o(B) means that $A/B \to 0$. The symbols p, q always represent primes.

2 Background on solutions of Pell-type equations

Let d > 1 be a positive integer which is not a square. For $k \ge 1$, let (X_k, Y_k) be the kth positive solution of the Pell equation $X^2 - dY^2 = 1$. Recall that

$$X_k + \sqrt{dY_k} = (X_1 + \sqrt{dY_1})^k$$
 holds for all $k = 1, 2, \dots$

We shall use some basic facts about the sequences $(X_k)_{k\geq 1}$ such as relations of the type

$$X_{m+n} = X_m X_n + dY_m Y_n$$
 for all positive integers m, n

as well as the fact that $X_m | X_n$ whenever m | n and n/m is odd. We need the following easy result concerning the indices k such that X_k is an odd prime power.

Lemma 3. If $X_k = p^{\alpha}$ for some odd prime p and positive integer α , then k is a power of 2.

Proof. Suppose that k is not a power of 2. Let $h \ge 3$ be an odd divisor of k and put r = k/h. Since $X_r \mid X_k$, we have $X_r = p^{\beta}$ for some integer $1 \le \beta < \alpha$. From

$$X_k + \sqrt{dY_k} = (X_r + \sqrt{dY_r})^h,$$

we get

eq:

eq:binom (2.1)
$$X_k = \sum_{i=0}^{(h-1)/2} \binom{h}{2i+1} X_r^{2i+1} (X_r^2 - 1)^{(h-1)/2-i}$$

In particular,

$$p^{\alpha} = X_k > X_r^h = (p^{\beta})^h = p^{h\beta},$$

therefore $\beta < \alpha/h$. Let j be the largest integer with $p^{j\beta} \mid h$. If $j \leq h-2$, we then reduce the above equation (2.1) modulo $p^{(j+2)\beta}$. Upon observing that $j+2 \leq h$, therefore $(j+2)\beta \leq h\beta < \alpha$, we infer that $p^{(j+2)\beta} \mid X_k$. Thus,

uwithb (2.2)
$$0 \equiv \sum_{0 \le i \le j/2} \binom{h}{2i+1} p^{(2i+1)\beta} (p^{2\beta}-1)^{(h-1)/2-i} \pmod{p^{(j+2)\beta}}.$$

We now show that $p^{(j+2)\beta} \mid {h \choose 2i+1} p^{(2i+1)\beta}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq j/2$. Indeed, let $p^{\lambda} || 2i + 1$. Since $2i + 1 \leq p^{2i-1}$, it follows that $\lambda \leq 2i - 1$. Using Kummer's theorem concerning the power of a

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prime dividing a binomial coefficient and denoting by $\nu_p(m)$ the exponent of p in the factorization of m, we then have

$$\nu_p\left(\binom{h}{2i+1}\right) \geqslant \nu_p(h) - \nu_p(2i+1) \geqslant 2j\beta - \lambda,$$

 \mathbf{SO}

$$(j+2)\beta \leqslant \nu_p \left(\binom{h}{2i+1}\right) + \lambda + 2\beta \leqslant \nu_p \left(\binom{h}{2i+1}\right) + (2i-1) + 2\beta \leqslant \nu_p \left(\binom{h}{2i+1}p^{(2i+1)\beta}\right).$$

Thus, $p^{(j+2)\beta} \mid {h \choose 2i+1} p^{(2i+1)\beta}$. The congruence (2.2) then implies

$$0 \equiv h p^{\beta} (p^{2\beta} - 1)^{(h-1)/2} \pmod{p^{(j+2)\beta}}$$

which implies $p^{(j+1)\beta} \mid h$, a contradiction. Hence, $j \ge h - 1$, so h is divisible by $p^{h-1} > h$, a contradiction.

Let a > 1 and b > 1 be coprime square free integers such that the Diophantine equation

$$aU^2 - bV^2 = 1$$

has a positive integer solution (U, V). It is then well-known that it has infinitely many positive integer solutions (U, V). Further, putting (U_1, V_1) for the smallest such solution, all solutions of the above equation are of the form (U_{2j+1}, V_{2j+1}) for some $j \ge 0$, where

$$\sqrt{a}U_{2j+1} + \sqrt{b}V_{2j+1} = \gamma^{2j+1} \qquad \text{where} \qquad \gamma = \sqrt{a}U_1 + \sqrt{b}V_1.$$

Furthermore, if we put

$$\gamma^{2j} = U_{2j} + \sqrt{ab}V_{2j} \quad \text{for} \quad j \ge 1,$$

then the pairs $(X, Y) = (U_{2j}, V_{2j})$ for $j \ge 1$ form all the positive integer solutions of the Pell equation $X^2 - (ab)Y^2 = 1$. All these facts follow from Theorem 3 in [13]. We need the following result which is similar to Lemma 3.

Lemma 4. With the above notation, let a = p be an odd prime and let h be an odd positive integer. If $U_h = p^{\alpha}$ for some $\alpha \ge 0$, then h = 1 or (a, b, h) = (3, 2, 3).

Proof. If $\alpha = 0$, then there is nothing to prove. So, assume that $\alpha > 0$ and h > 1. Write h = rs with $1 \leq r < h$. Since $U_r \mid U_h$, it follows that $U_r = p^{\beta}$, where $0 \leq \beta < \alpha$. Write

binom2 (2.3)
$$p^{\alpha} = U_h = \sum_{i=0}^{(s-1)/2} {s \choose 2i+1} U_r^{2i+1} p^i (bV_r^2)^{(s-1)/2-i}$$

Let $p^{j} \| s$ and assume that $j < \alpha - \beta$. As in the previous proof, for $i \ge 1$ let $p^{\lambda} \| 2i + 1$. Observe that $\lambda \le i$ and in fact $\lambda \le i - 1$ except when p = 3 and i = 1. Then

$$\nu_p\left(\binom{s}{2i+1}\right) \geqslant \nu_p(s) - \nu_p(2i+1) = j - \lambda,$$

therefore

$$\nu_p\left(\binom{h}{2i+1}U_r^{2i+1}p^i\right) \ge j + (2i+1)\beta + i - \lambda.$$

If $\lambda \leq i-1$ or if $\beta > 0$, the right hand side above is at least $j+1+\beta$. Thus, in (2.3) all terms with $i \geq 1$ are divisible by $p^{j+1+\beta}$. This implies

$$0 \equiv sp^{\beta} (bV_1^2)^{(s-1)/2} \pmod{p^{j+1+\beta}},$$

so $p^{j+1} | s$, a contradiction. Thus, we have $j \ge \alpha - \beta$ and hence $U_h/U_r | s$. This is impossible, as (2.3) implies

$$\frac{U_h}{U_r} > p^{(s-1)/2} \ge s.$$

It remains to treat the exceptional case $i = 1, \beta = 0, p = 3$ for which $U_1 = 1, b = 2, V_1 = 1$. Note that in this case $U_3 = 9 = 3^2$. No other odd numbers h give $U_h = 3^{\alpha}$, however. To see this, apply (2.3) with r = 1, s = h and deduce that 3|h. If h > 3, we apply the above argument with r = 3, s = h/3 and $\beta = 2$, and deduce a contradiction as before.

The proofs of Lemma 3 and 4 can be simplified by invoking the Primitive Divisor Theorem for Lucas and Lehmer sequences (see [6], [15] and [5]). We gave the current proofs in order to make the proof of Theorem 1 self-contained.

3 The proof of Theorem 1

Suppose that $n \in \mathcal{N}_a$, let $k = \omega(n)$ and factor n canonically as $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$. If k = 1, then $n = p_1^{\alpha_1}$ and

$$\phi(n)\sigma(n) = p_1^{\alpha_1 - 1}(p_1^{\alpha_1 + 1} - 1) = \Box.$$

Since the two factors $p_1^{\alpha_1+1} - 1$ and $p_1^{\alpha_1-1}$ are coprime and their product is a square, it follows that each one of them is a square. So, $\alpha_1 - 1 = 2\beta_1$ is even, and $p_1^{\alpha_1+1} - 1 = p_1^{2\beta_1+2} - 1 = \Box$, which is impossible because there are no two consecutive perfect squares. Hence, $k \ge 2$.

We apply the AGM-inequality to the right side of (1.2) and get

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{k} \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{p_i^{\alpha_i + 1}}\right)\right)^2 \geq \left(1 - \frac{1}{k} \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{p_i^{\alpha_i + 1}}\right)\right)^k \geq \prod_{i=1}^k \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i^{\alpha_i + 1}}\right)$$
$$= \frac{\sigma(n)\phi(n)}{n^2} = \left(1 - \frac{a}{n}\right)^2.$$

Taking square roots and rearranging gives

eq:4 (3.1)
$$ak \ge n\left(\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{p_i^{\alpha_i+1}}\right).$$

Applying again the AGM-inequality to the right-hand side of (3.1), we get

$$ak \ge kn \prod_{i=1}^{k} p_i^{-(\alpha_i+1)/k} = k \prod_{i=1}^{k} p_i^{\alpha_i - (\alpha_i+1)/k}$$

If $k \ge 3$, then since $\alpha_i - (\alpha_i + 1)/k \ge \alpha_i - (\alpha_i + 1)/3 = (2\alpha_i - 1)/3 \ge \alpha_i/3$ for all i = 1, ..., k, we get that

$$a \geqslant \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{\alpha_i/3} = n^{1/3}.$$

Thus, if $k \ge 3$, then $n \le a^3$.

Next, suppose k = 2 and rewrite equation (1.2) as

$$\prod_{i=1}^{2} p_i^{\alpha_i - 1} (p_i^{\alpha_i + 1} - 1) = (\prod_{i=1}^{2} p_i^{\alpha_i} - a)^2.$$

If $\alpha_i \ge 2$, then $p_i^{\alpha_i - 1} \mid a^2$, therefore $p_i \mid a$, and then $p_i^{\alpha_i} \mid a^3$. In particular, if $\alpha_1 > 1$ and $\alpha_2 > 1$, then $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \mid a^3$, so that $n \le a^3$. The next case is when $\alpha_1 = 1$ and $\alpha_2 \ge 2$. If $\alpha_2 = 2$, then $p_2 \mid a$, hence $p_1 < p_2 \le a$ and $n = p_1 p_2^2 < a^3$. If $\alpha_2 \ge 3$, (3.1) implies that $2a \ge n/p_1^2 \ge p_2^{\alpha_2 - 1} \ge n^{1/2}$, so that $n \le 4a^2 \le 2a^3$ (recall that a = 1 is not possible).

The final case is when k = 2 and $\alpha_2 = 1$. Assume first that $p_1 = 2$. Then $p_2^2 - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{8}$, therefore $2^{\alpha_1+2} \mid \phi(n)\sigma(n) = (2^{\alpha_1}n - a)^2$, showing that $2^{\alpha_1+1} \mid a^2$. Thus, by equation (3.1), we get $n \leq 2^{\alpha_1+1}(2a) \leq 2a^3$.

From now on, we suppose that p_1 is odd. We break the argument into two subcases depending on whether α_1 is odd or even. First, suppose α_1 is odd and write $\alpha_1 = 2\beta - 1$, where $\beta \ge 1$. Here we have $p_1^{\beta-1}|a$, so we may write $a = p_1^{\beta-1}b$ for a positive integer b. Then our equation becomes

$$(p_1^{2\beta} - 1)(p_2^2 - 1) = (p_1^{\beta}p_2 - b)^2.$$

Thus, there exists a square free number d and integers u, v such that $p_1^{2\beta} - 1 = du^2$ and $p_2^2 - 1 = dv^2$. Let (X_1, Y_1) be the minimal positive solution to the Pell equation $X^2 - dY^2 = 1$ and let (X_j, Y_j) be its *j*th solution. Since $p_1^\beta = X_\ell$ and $p_2 = X_m$ for some positive integers ℓ, m , it follows by Lemma 3 that both ℓ and m are powers of 2. Further, since

$$X_{\ell}X_m - b)^2 = (p_1^{\beta}p_2 - a)^2 = (p_1^{2\beta} - 1)(p_2^2 - 1) = (dY_{\ell}Y_m)^2,$$

it follows that

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$$b = X_{\ell}X_m - dY_{\ell}Y_m = X_{|m-\ell|}.$$

Suppose that $\beta \leq 2$. If $m < \ell$ then $p_1^{\beta} = X_{\ell} = 2X_{\ell/2}^2 - 1 \ge 2p_2^2 - 1 > p_2^2$, a contradiction. Hence, $m \ge 2\ell$ and $p_1^{\beta} = X_{\ell} \le b$, which implies $a = p_1^{\beta-1}b \ge p_1^{2\beta-1}$. We also have $p_2 = X_m = 2X_{m/2}^2 - 1 < 2b^2 \le 2a^2$ and consequently

$$n = p_1^{2\beta - 1} p_2 < 2a^3.$$

Now suppose $\beta \ge 3$. If $m \ge 2\ell$, then we get $b \ge X_k = p_1^\beta$ as before. Otherwise, $m \le \ell/2, 2|\ell$ and

$$b \geqslant X_{\ell/2} = \sqrt{\frac{X_{\ell}+1}{2}} \geqslant \sqrt{\frac{p_1^{\beta}}{2}}$$

In both cases,

$$a = p_1^{\beta - 1} b \leqslant \frac{p_1^{\beta - 1 + (\beta/2)}}{\sqrt{2}},$$

hence $p_1 \leq (a\sqrt{2})^{2/(3\beta-2)}$. Using (3.1), we get $p_2 \leq 2ap_1 \leq 2a(a\sqrt{2})^{2/(3\beta-2)}$ and we conclude that

$$n \leqslant 2a(a\sqrt{2})^{\frac{4\beta}{3\beta-2}} = 2^{1+\frac{2\beta}{3\beta-2}}a^{\frac{7\beta-2}{3\beta-2}} < 4a^{19/7} \leqslant 2a^{3}$$

the final inequality holding for $a \ge 12$ (for $a \le 11$, a quick search yields no solutions in the interval $[2a^3, 4a^{19/7}]$). This concludes the proof when α_1 is odd.

Finally, suppose α_1 is even and write $\alpha_1 = 2\beta$. Then $p_1^{\beta} \mid a$ and $p_1 \mid p_2^2 - 1$. Writing $a = p_1^{\beta}a_1$, we get

$$(p_1^{2\beta+1}-1)\left(\frac{p_2^2-1}{p_1}\right) = (p_1^\beta p_2 - a_1)^2.$$

In particular, there exists a square free number d and integers u and v such that

$$p_1^{2\beta+1} - 1 = du^2$$
 and $p_2^2 - 1 = p_1 dv^2$

If d = 1, then the first equation above becomes $p_1^{2\beta+1} - u^2 = 1$, which has no solutions by known results on Catalan's equation (this particular case of Catalan's equation was solved by Lebesque in [12] more than 160 years ago). Thus, d > 1. Putting $x = p_1^{\beta}$ and $y = p_2$, we get

$$p_1 x^2 - du^2 = 1;$$

$$y^2 - (p_1 d)v^2 = 1.$$

With the notation from the previous section, let $\gamma = U_1 \sqrt{p_1} + V_1 \sqrt{d}$ and $\delta = U_1 \sqrt{p_1} - V_1 \sqrt{d}$. Then

$$p_1^{\beta} = U_{\ell}$$
 and $p_2 = U_m$

for some positive integers ℓ odd and m even. By Lemma 4, we have $\ell = 1$ or (p, x) = (3, 9). In the latter case, using (3.1) gives $n = 3^4 p_2 \leq 3^4 (6a) \leq 2a^3$ for $a \geq 16$ (for $a \leq 15$, there are no solutions $n \in [2a^3, 486a]$). Now suppose $\ell = 1$. By Lemma 3, m is a power of 2 and we get

$$a_1 = p_1^{\beta} p_2 - duv = \left(\frac{\gamma + \delta}{2\sqrt{p_1}}\right) \left(\frac{\gamma^m + \delta^m}{2}\right) - \left(\frac{\gamma - \delta}{2}\right) \left(\frac{\gamma^m - \delta^m}{2\sqrt{p_1}}\right) = \frac{\gamma^{m-1} + \delta^{m-1}}{2\sqrt{p_1}}$$
$$= U_{m-1} \ge U_1 = p_1^{\beta}.$$

Hence, $a \ge p_1^{2\beta}$ and we conclude that

$$n = p_1^{2\beta} p_2 \leqslant a p_2 \leqslant a(2ap_1) \leqslant 2a^{2+1/(2\beta)} \leqslant 2a^{5/2}$$

The proof of Theorem 2 4

4.1 Preliminary results

For an integer m we use P(m) for the largest prime factor of m with the convention that P(0) = $P(\pm 1) = 1$. If m satisfies $P(m) \leq y$, then m is called y-smooth.

We follow [11]. Given a polynomial $F(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ put

$$\pi_F(x,y) = \#\{p \leqslant x : P(F(p)) \leqslant y\}$$

The following result appears in [9].

Lemma 5. Let g be the largest of the degrees of the irreducible factors of F(X) and let k be the number of irreducible factors of F(X) of degree q. Assume that $F(0) \neq 0$ if q = k = 1, and let ε be any positive number. Then the estimate

$$\pi_F(x,y) \asymp \frac{x}{\log x}$$

holds for all sufficiently large x provided that $y \ge x^{g+\varepsilon-1/2k}$.

In the remaining of this section, G is a finite abelian group. Let n(G) be length of the longest sequence of elements of G (not necessarily distinct) such that no nonempty subsequence of it has a zero sum. The following result is from [10].

Lemma 6. If m is the maximal order of an element of G, then lem:12

$$n(G) < m(1 + \log(\#G/m))$$

lem:11

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The following result is from [1].

lem:13 **Lemma 7.** Assume that r > k > n = n(G) be integers. Then any sequence of r elements of G contains at least $\binom{r}{k}/\binom{r}{n}$ distinct subsequences of length between k-n and k having zero sum.

The proof of Theorem 2 4.2

Let x be large, $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/5)$, $x_1 = x^{1/2-\varepsilon}$ and

$$y = \frac{\log x_1}{\log \log x_1}.$$

Let $t = \pi(y)$ and $G = (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^t$, so by Lemma 6,

eq:nG (4.1)
$$n(G) < 2(1 + (\pi(y) - 1)\log 2).$$

Let $u = (3/4 + \varepsilon)^{-1}$. Applying Lemma 5 to the polynomial $F(X) = X^2 - 1$ for which g = 1 and k=2, we get that

$$\pi_F(y^u, y) \gg \frac{y^u}{\log y^u}$$

In particular, by the Prime Number Theorem, there exists $c_1 \in (0,1)$ such that if we put

$$\mathcal{S}_1(y) = \{ p : c_1 y^u
$$\underbrace{:S1} \quad (4.2) \qquad \qquad \# \mathcal{S}_1(y) \gg \frac{y^u}{\log y^u}, \quad \text{for} \quad x > x_0.$$$$

Applying the above argument with with y replaced by c_1y , we also get that that if we put

(4.3)
$$S_{2}(y) = S_{1}(c_{1}y) = \{p : c_{1}^{u+1}y^{u}
$$\#S_{2}(y) \gg \frac{(c_{1}y)^{u}}{\log((c_{1}y)^{u})} \gg \frac{y^{u}}{\log y^{u}}, \text{ for } x > x_{0}.$$$$

We put

$$k = \left\lfloor \frac{\log x_1}{\log y^u} \right\rfloor.$$

The argument from the proof of Theorem 1.1 in [11] shows that if we put

$$\mathcal{F}(y) = \{\ell < x_1 : \phi(\ell)\sigma(\ell) = \Box \text{ and } p \in \mathcal{S}_1(y) \text{ for all } p \mid \ell\},\$$

then

$$T = \#\mathcal{F}(y) = x_1^{1-1/u+o(1)} > x^{1/8-\varepsilon}$$

for large x. Now take

eq:M (4.4)
$$M = \left\lfloor \frac{\log x_1}{\log(c_1^{u+1}y^u)} \right\rfloor + n(G) + 2.$$

Note that

$$M \ll \frac{\log x_1}{\log y} + 2\pi(y) \ll y,$$

so in particular $2M < \#S_2(y)$ for large x by inequality (4.3). Choose elements q_1, \ldots, q_{2M} in $S_2(y)$ and write $q_i^2 - 1 = a_i \square$, where a_i is square free and $P(a_i) \leq y$ for i = 1, ..., 2M. We think of a_i as elements G where in the location corresponding to a prime $p \leq y$ we assign the value 1 or 0 according to whether p divides a_i or not. We apply Lemma 7 with r = 2M, k = M to deduce

eq:S2

the existence of at least $\binom{2M}{M} / \binom{2M}{n(G)} > 1$ subsequences of length at most M and at least M - n(G) with a zero sum. Fix one such subsequence $\{q_i\}_{i \in I}$ and put

$$w = \prod_{i \in I} q_i.$$

Then $\phi(w)\sigma(w) = v^2$ for some integer v. Furthermore, since

$$\left\lfloor \frac{\log x_1}{\log(c_1^{u+1}y^u)} \right\rfloor + 2 \leqslant \#I \leqslant M \leqslant \left\lfloor \frac{\log x_1}{\log(c_1^{u+1}y^u)} \right\rfloor + n(G) + 2,$$

we get that

eq:large

(4.5)
$$w \ge (c_1^{u+1}y^u)^{\#I} \ge (c_1^{u+1}y^u)^{\left\lfloor \frac{\log x_1}{\log(c_1^{u+1}y^u)} \right\rfloor + 2} > 2x_1 > 2\ell$$

for all $\ell \in \mathcal{F}(y)$ when $x > x_0$, and

$$w < (c_1^u y^u)^{\left\lfloor \frac{\log x_1}{\log(c_1^{u+1} y^u)} \right\rfloor + O(\pi(y))} = x_1^{1+o(1)} < x^{1/2+\varepsilon}$$

for all sufficiently large x, where we used the fact that (see (4.1)),

$$n(G) \ll \pi(y) = o(y) = o\left(\frac{\log x}{\log(c_1^{u+1}y^u)}\right) \qquad (x \to \infty)$$

Now consider

$$\mathcal{N}(y) = \{ w\ell : \ell \in \mathcal{F}(y) \}.$$

Clearly, $n < x_1w < x$ for all $n \in \mathcal{N}(y)$. Let ℓ_1, \ldots, ℓ_T be all the elements of $\mathcal{F}(y)$. Let $n_i = \ell_i w$ for $i = 1, \ldots, T$. Then

$$\sigma(n_i)\phi(n_i) = (n_i - a_i)^2.$$

Clearly, $a_i < n_i < x$. Let us show that these a_i 's are distinct. Put $\phi(n_i)\sigma(n_i) = m_i^2$ for i = 1, ..., T. If $a_i = a_j (= a)$ for some $i \neq j$, then

$$m_i = n_i - a$$
 and $m_j = n_j - a$,

 \mathbf{SO}

6)
$$m_i - m_j = n_i - n_j = (\ell_i - \ell_j)v$$

Observe that w is built with primes $p \leq c_1^u y^u < c_1 y^u$ and the numbers ℓ_s are built with primes $p > c_1 y^u$ for $s = 1, 2, \ldots, T$, so $gcd(\ell_s, w) = 1$. Hence, m_s is a multiple of v for all $s = 1, \ldots, T$. Thus, the left-hand side in (4.6) is a multiple of v. Clearly,

$$v = \sqrt{\phi(w)\sigma(w)} = w \prod_{q|w} \left(1 - \frac{1}{q^2}\right)^{1/2} > \frac{w}{\sqrt{\zeta(2)}} > \frac{w}{2} > \max\{\ell_i, \ell_j\} > |\ell_i - \ell_j|,$$

by inequality (4.5). Furthermore, v is divisible only by primes p < y, whereas w is divisible only by primes $q > c_1^{u+1}y^u > y$ for x sufficiently large, so that gcd(v, w) = 1. Now equation (4.6) implies that $v|(\ell_i - \ell_j)$, hence $\ell_i = \ell_j$. So, a_1, \ldots, a_T are distinct, therefore

$$\#\mathcal{A}(x) \ge T = \#\mathcal{F}(y) \ge x^{1/8 - \varepsilon + o(1)}$$

as $x \to \infty$. Letting ε tend to zero, we obtain the desired estimate.

Remarks. If, as widely believed, for any $\varepsilon > 0$ we have $\pi_F(x, x^{\varepsilon}) \gg x/\log x$, then the above argument implies that $\#\mathcal{A}(x) > x^{1/2-o(1)}$ as $x \to \infty$.

eq:t (4.0

ON SQUARE VALUES OF THE PRODUCT OF THE EULER TOTIENT AND SUM OF DIVISORS FUNCTIONS 9

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DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS, UNIVERSITY OF WAIKATO, PRIVATE BAG 3105, HAMILTON, NEW ZEALAND.

E-mail address: kab@waikato.ac.nz

DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS, THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS AT URBANA-CHAMPAIGN URBANA, 1409 WEST GREEN ST., CHAMPAIGN, IL 61801, USA.

E-mail address: ford@math.uiuc.edu

CENTRO DE CIENCIAS MATEMÁTICAS, UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL AUTONOMA DE MÉXICO, C.P. 58089, MORELIA, MICHOACÁN, MÉXICO.

E-mail address: fluca@matmor.unam.mx