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## REMARKS ON SOME PROBLEMS IN NUMBER THEORY\*

I discuss in this note several disconnected problems in number theory. I have written several such papers but here I will give details (or at least outlines) of the proofs and will not concentrate on stating unsolved problems (except in III). Several of the problems which I discuss were suggested by questions in other branches of mathematics.

I. Denote by S(x) the number of integers n < x for which there is a non-cyclic simple group of order n. The well known classical result of Ferr and Thomson states that every such number must be even. Dornhoff proved that S(x) = o(x) and Dornhoff and Spitznagel proved  $S(x) < c_1 x \left(\frac{\log \log \log x}{\log \log x}\right)^{1/2}$ .  $(c_1, c_2, \ldots)$  denote absolute constants.)

I proved in a paper dedicated to the memory of the well known Indian mathematician D. D. Kosambi that

(1) 
$$S(x) < x \exp\left(-\left(\frac{1}{2} + o(1)\right) - (\log x \log \log x)^{1/2}\right)$$
.

dince the paper where I proved (1) is not easily available, I will outline the groof of (1) and discuss a few related results and conjectures.

Let V be the sequence of integers  $v_1 < v_2 < \cdots$  having the property that for every  $p \mid v_i \mid v_i$  has a divisor  $t_i \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ ,  $t_i > 1$ . U is the sequence of integers  $u_1 < u_2 < \cdots$  where the above property only has to hold for the largest prime factor  $p_i = P(u_i)$  of  $u_i$ . Clearly  $U \supset V$ .

It follows from the classical results on non-cyclic simple groups that if there is a non-cyclic group of order s then  $s \in V$ . For if  $p^a \mid s$ ,  $p^{a+1} \mid s$  then the number of Sylow subgroups  $t(\alpha, p)$  of order  $p^a$  is a divisor of s and further  $t(\alpha, p) > 1$  and  $t(\alpha, p) \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . Thus clearly S(x) < V(x) < U(x) and (1) will follow from (A(x)) is the number of integers not exceeding x of the sequence A)

(2) 
$$U(x) < x \exp\left(-\left(\frac{1}{2} + o(1)\right) - (\log x \log \log x)^{1/2}\right)$$

To prove (2) denote by  $\psi(x, y)$  the number of integers not exceeding x all whose prime factors are  $\leqslant y$ . Put  $y^z = x$  and assume  $z < y^{1/2} \log y$  A theorem of DE BRUJN then states that

(3) 
$$\psi(x, y) < c_2 x (\log x)^2 \exp(-z \log z - z \log\log z + c_3 z).$$

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(3) now easily implies (2) and (1). We split the integers  $u_i < x$  into two classes. In the first class are the integers  $u_i < x$  all whose prime factors are less than  $\exp \frac{1}{2} (2 \log x \log \log x)^{1/2}$ . In the second class are the other u's.  $U_i(x)$ , i = 1, 2 denotes the number of u's in the i-th class. From (3) we obtain by a simple computation that here  $\left(z = \left(\frac{2 \log x}{\log \log x}\right)^{1/2}\right)$ 

(4) 
$$U_1(x) < x \exp\left(-\left(\frac{1}{2} + o(1)\right) - (\log x \log\log x)^{1/2}\right).$$

For the u's of the second class we evidently have  $\left(\ln \sum' \text{ the summation is extended over the primes } p > \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}\log x \log\log x\right)^{1/2}\right)$ 

(5) 
$$U_2(x) < \sum_{p}' \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \left[ \frac{x}{p(tp+1)} \right] < \sum_{p}' \sum_{t=1}^{x} \frac{x}{p(tp+1)}$$
  
 $< \sum' \frac{x}{p^2} \sum_{t=1}^{x} \frac{1}{t} < 2 x \log x \sum' \frac{1}{p^2} < x \exp \left( -\left( \frac{1}{2} + o(1) \right) (\log x \log \log x)^{1/2} \right)$ 

(4) and (5) proves (2) and (1). With a little more trouble I could prove

(6) 
$$S(x) \le U(x) = x \exp{-(1 + o(1))} (\log x \log\log x)^{1/2}$$

We suppress the details. The principal tool is again a result of DE BRUIJN, namely  $\psi(x,y) > \frac{x}{(z\,!)^{1+\varepsilon}}$ .

The true order of magnitude of S(x) is probably much smaller. It is generally conjectured by group theorists that  $S(x) < x^{1-\varepsilon}$  and perhaps even  $S(x) = o(x^{1/3})$ , but our methods are far too crude to prove this. Using V(x) instead of U(x) it should be possible to improve (6) a little bit. Unfortunately not very much since I can show that

(7) 
$$V(x) > x \exp{-c_3 (\log x)^{1/2} \log \log x}$$
.

I am sure that (7) gives the right order of magnitude for V(x) and in fact that there is a constant  $c_5$  so that

$$V(x) = x \exp -(1 + o(1)) c_5 (\log x)^{1/2} \log \log x$$

but so far I have not been able to prove (7).

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L. DORNHOFF, Simple groups are scarce, Proc. Amer. Math. Soc. 19 (1968), 692-696.

L. DORNHOFF and E. E. SPITZNAGEL JR., Density of finite simple group orders, Math-Zeitschrift, 106 (1968), 175-177.

II. The following problem is due to H. HADWIGER: Denote by D(n) the set of integers with the property that if  $k \in D(n)$  then the *n*-dimensional unit cube can be decomposed into k homothetic *n*-dimensional cubes. C. Meier denotes by c(n) the *smallest* integer so that every k > c(n) belongs to D(n). He proves

(1) 
$$c(n) \leq (2^n - 2) \left( (2^n - 1)^n - (2^n - 2)^n - 1 \right) + 1.$$

Earlier W. PLÜSS gave a somewhat greater upper bound. It is easy to see that c(2) = 6 and in fact  $k \in D(2)$  except if k = 2, 3 or 5. MEIER conjectures c(3) = 48 and asks for an improvement of (1). He remarks that the problem is attractive because of the interplay of geometric and number theoretic ideas. I agree with him.

First of all I give an improvement due to BURGESS and myself of (1). We prove  $c(n) \le (2^n - 2) \left( (n+1)^n - 2 \right) - 1.$ 

To prove (2) we first show the following

**Lemma.** The set of integers  $k^n-1$ ,  $2 \le k \le n+1$  is relatively prime.

Observe that if  $p \mid k^n - 1$ ,  $2 \le k \le n + 1$  we clearly must have p > n + 1. Thus the congruence  $x^n - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  has the roots  $k = 1, 2, \ldots, n + 1$  which is a contradiction since it can have at most n roots. This contradiction proves the Lemma.

To prove (2) observe that in the decomposition of the unit cube into smaller cubes, a cube of the decomposition can always be replaced by  $k^n$  smaller cubes. Thus every integer of the form

$$\sum_{k=2}^{n+1} c_k (k^n - 1), \qquad c_k \geqslant 1$$

belongs to D(n). A well known theorem of A. Brauer states that if  $(a_0, \ldots, a_l) = 1$ ,  $a_1 < \cdots < a_l$  then every integer greater than  $(a_1 - 1)(a_l - 1) - 1$  can be expressed in the form  $\sum_{i=1}^k c_i a_i$ ,  $c_i > 0$ , which proves (2).

(2) can in fact be improved. Put  $d_k = (a_1, \ldots, a_k)$ . A. BRAUER proved that if  $d_n = 1$  then every integer  $> \sum a_{k+1} d_k / d_{k+1}$  is of the form  $\sum_{k=1}^n c_k a_k$ ,  $c_k > 0$ , and it is not hard to prove that this gives  $c(n) < \alpha n^{n+1}$  for some absolute constant  $\alpha$ . I am certain that if n+1 is a prime  $c(n) > n^n$  but as far as I know HADWIGER'S result  $c(n) > 2^n + 2^{n-1}$  is the only lower bound for c(n).

Now we make a few purely number theoretic observations. Denote by h(n) the smallest integer for which the numbers

$$\{2^n-1, 3^n-1, \ldots, h(n)^n-1\}$$

are relatively prime If n+1=p is a prime then h(n)=n+1, and it is easy to see that conversely if h(n)=n+1 then n+1=p. To see this observe that if  $p \mid k^n-1$  for every  $1 \le k \le n$  then  $x^n-1\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  can not have any other roots, but this is possible only if p=n+1 (for odd  $n \pmod{p}$ ) and for even  $n \pmod{p} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ ).

Denote by A(n) the greatest prime  $q_k$  for which  $q_k - 1 \mid n$ . Clearly  $h(n) > q_{k+1}$ . But h(n) can be much larger e.g. h(15) = 5 and A(15) = A(2n + 1) = 2. It is easy to see that for odd n(n) is unbounded.

I proved (unpublished) that the density of integers n with  $A(n) = q_k$  exists. Denote this density by  $\varepsilon_k$ ,  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \varepsilon_k = 1$ . I can not prove that the density  $\delta_k$  of

integers with  $h(n) = q_k$  exists. I am sure that the density exists and  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \delta_k = 1$ .

It is possible that if A(n) is large  $(say > n^e)$  then A(n) = h(n). I can not prove that h(n) does not tend to infinity.

Define now H(n) = l as the least integer so that there is a k < l with  $(k^n - 1, l^n - 1) = 1$ . Clearly H(n) > h(n). Probably  $(2^n - 1, 3^n - 1) = 1$  holds for infinitely many n or H(n) = h(n) = 3 infinitely often, but I can not prove that H(n) = h(n) holds for infinitely many n. On the other hand I prove that H(n) can be unexpectedly large for suitable values of n. In fact I prove that for infinitely many n (exp  $x = e^x$ )

$$(3) H(n) > \exp n^{c_1/(\log\log n)^2}.$$

To prove (3) we use the following theorem of PRACHAR. For infinitely many n, n has more than  $\exp n^{c_2/(\log\log n)^2}$  divisors of the form p-1. Let  $p_1^{(n)}, \ldots, p_s^{(n)}, s > \exp n^{c_2/(\log\log n)^2}$  be the primes p with  $p-1 \mid n$ . Clearly if  $(k^n-1, l^n-1)=1$  we must have  $k l \equiv 0 \mod \prod_{i=1}^s p_i^{(n)}$  or by the prime number

theorem 
$$kl \ge \prod_{i=1}^{s} p_i^{(n)} \ge \exp(1 + o(1)) s \log s$$
 which proves (3).

I have no good upper bound for H(n). It seems likely that there is an absolute constant c so that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ 

(4) 
$$H(n) > \exp(n^{(c-\varepsilon)/\log\log n})$$

holds for infinitely many values of n but for all  $n > n_0(\varepsilon)$ 

(5) 
$$H(n) < \exp(n^{(c+\varepsilon)/\log\log n}),$$

but I am very far from being able to prove (4) or (5).

Denote by  $H_1(n)$  the smallest integer k for which  $(k^n - 1, 2^n - 1) = 1$ .

Clearly  $H_1(n) > H(n)$ , nevertheless it seems likely that (5) holds for  $H_1(n)$  too. I can prove that there is a c>0 so that for  $n>n_0(c)$ 

$$(6) H_1(n) < \exp n^{1-c}.$$

The proof of (6) uses Brun's method and is somewhat complicated. I do not give it since it seems to fall so far from the final truth.

It might be of interest to investigate the distribution function of the functions H(n) and  $H_1(n)$ , but I have no results in this direction at present.

References. C. Meier, Decomposition of a cube into smaller cubes, Amer. Math. Monthly 81 (1974), 630-631.

K. Prachar, Über die Anzahl der Teiler einer natürlichen Zahl welche die Form p-1 haben, Monatshefte für Math. 59 (1954), 91-97.

III. Denote by  $\sigma(n)$  the sum of divisors of n and by  $\varphi(n)$  EULER's  $\varphi$  function. I state some solved and unsolved problems on these functions. Unless stated otherwise the results are true for both  $\sigma(n)$  and  $\varphi(n)$ . In some cases the behavior of  $\sigma(n)$  is more complicated. Denote by f(x) the number of integers m < x for which  $\varphi(n) = m$  is solvable. R. HALL and I proved that for every k and  $\varepsilon > 0$  [1]

(1) 
$$\frac{x}{\log x} (\log\log x)^k < f(x) < \frac{x}{\log x} e^{(\log\log x)^{1/2+\varepsilon}}.$$

Probably the upper bound in (1) is close to being best possible but we are far from being able to prove this. Recently HALL proved

(2) 
$$f(x) > \frac{x}{\log x} (\log \log x)^{c \log \log \log x}.$$

It is not immediately clear if there is an asymptotic formula for f(x) in terms of elementary functions. I can not prove that  $\lim_{x=\infty} f(2x)/f(x)$  exists; if it exists it must be 2.

I have no nontrivial estimation for the number A(x) of integers n < x for which  $\varphi(m) = n$  is solvable only in integers m > x. In particular, I do not know if

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} A(x)/f(x)$$

exists, also I can not decide if the limit could be 0 or infinity.

Denote by g(n) the number of solutions of  $\varphi(m) = n$ . SIVASANKARANARAYANA PILLAI proved that  $\limsup g(n) = \infty$  and I proved that there is an absolute constant c > 0 so that for infinitely many integers n, g(n) > c [2]. I am certain that this holds for every c < 1 i.e. infinitely often  $g(n) > n^{1-\varepsilon}$ . This result would follow if one could prove that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  the number of primes p < x for which all prime factors of p - 1 is less that  $p^{\varepsilon}$  is greater than  $c_{\varepsilon} x/\log x$ , but this conjecture though no doubt true is certainly very deep.

I can not prove that the equation  $\sigma(n) = \varphi(m)$  has infinitely many solutions, though this certainly must be true. I proved that there are infinitely many even numbers not of the form  $\sigma(n) - n$  [3] but can not prove that there are infinitely many even numbers not of the form  $n - \varphi(n)$ . I can not prove that the density of integers of the form  $n + \varphi(n)$  (and  $n + \sigma(n)$ ) is positive. I can not prove that for every  $\alpha > 1$  there is a sequence of integers  $n_k$  and  $m_k$  satisfying  $n_k/m_k \rightarrow \alpha$ ,  $\sigma(n_k) = \sigma(m_k)$  (it is easy to prove the analogous result for  $\varphi(n)$ ). I can not prove that there is a  $\beta > 1$  for which

$$|\sigma(n)-\beta_n|\to\infty$$
 as  $n\to\infty$ .

In a previous paper [4], I state the following question: Denote by h(x) the number of solutions of  $\sigma(a) = \sigma(b)$ , (a, b) = 1, a < b < x.

Prove that  $h(x)/x \rightarrow \infty$ .

I sketch a proof of

(4) 
$$\lim \sup_{x=\infty} \frac{h(x)}{x} = \infty.$$

The proof of  $\frac{h(x)}{x} \to \infty$  can be produced with a little more trouble.

Observe that if a and b are squarefree and  $\sigma(a) = \sigma(b)$ , then there are uniquely determined integers  $a_1$ ,  $b_1$ ,  $(a_1, b_1) = 1$ ,  $a = a_1 t$ ,  $b = b_1 t$  and of course  $\sigma(a_1) = \sigma(b_1)$ . Thus if h(y) < c for every y then the number R(x) of solutions of the equation

(5) 
$$\sigma(a) = \sigma(b), \quad a < b < x, \quad a, \quad b \text{ squarefree}$$

is easily seen to be less than  $cx \log x$ .

Now we outline the proof that this is not true. In fact we show that for every k and  $x>x_0(k)$ 

$$(6) R(x) > x (\log x)^k.$$

The proof of (6) is fairly complicated thus we do not give many details. I am sure that (6) is very far from the final truth and believe that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $x > x_0(\varepsilon)$ ,  $R(x) > x^{2-\varepsilon}$  and also  $h(x) > x^{2-\varepsilon}$ .

Denote by v(n) the number of distinct prime factors of n. We first observe that for almost all n

(7) 
$$v\left(\sigma(n)\right) = \left(1/2 + o(1)\right) \quad (\log\log n)^2.$$

The detailed proof of (7) is fairly complicated. Here is an outline of the proof. By a theorem of mine [2]

$$\sum' 1/p < \infty$$

where the summation is extended over the primes p for which  $v(p-1) < (1-\varepsilon) \log \log p$ . Another theorem of mine states that if  $p_k$  is the k-th prime factor of n then [5]

(9) 
$$\exp \exp k (1-\varepsilon) < p_k < \exp \exp k (1+\varepsilon)$$

holds for all  $k > k_0(\varepsilon, n)$  if we neglect  $\eta x$  integers n < x. (7) follows from (8) and (9) without much difficulty.

- (7) easily implies (6) since by a theorem of Hardy and Ramanujan [6] the number of integers n < x for which  $v(n) > \varepsilon (\log \log n)^2$  is  $o\left(\frac{x}{(\log x)^k}\right)$ .
- [1] P. Erdös and R. R. Hall, On the values of Euler's φ-function Acta Arithmetica, 22 (1972), 201-206.

[2] P.Erdös, On the nominal number of, prime factors of p-1 and some related problems concerning Euler's φ-function, Quarterly J Math 6 (1935), 205—213

[3] P. Erdős, Über die Zahlen der Form  $\sigma(n)-n$  und  $n-\varphi(n)$ , Elemente der Mathematik 28 (1973), 83-86.

[4] P. Erdős, Remarks on number theory II. Some problems on the \u03c4 function, Acta Arith. 5 (1959), 171-177.

[5] P. Erdős, On the distribution function of additive functions, Annals of Math. 47 (1946), 1—20, see p. 3—4.

[6] HARDY and RAMANUJAN, Quarterly J. Math. 48 (1917), 76—92, see also RAMANUJAN, Collected papers.

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## 4.33. (1974) 203-204

## PROBLEMS\*

4.33.1. Problem of S. J. BENKOSKI and P. ERDÖS.

Put  $\sigma(n) = \sum_{d \mid n} d$ . Is there an absolute constant C so that every integer n satisfying  $\sigma(n) > Cn$  is the distinct sum of proper divisors of n?

**Remarks.**  $\sigma(70) = 144 > 2.70$  but 70 is not the distinct sum of proper divisors of 70, but as far as we know C could be three:

- S. J. BENKOSKI and ERDÖS, On weid and pseudoperfect numbers, Mathematics of computation, 28 (1974), 617-623.
- 4.33.2. Problem of P. ERDÖS and STRAUS.
- I. Are there infinitely many primes  $p_k$  so that, for every i < k,  $p_k^2 > p_{k+i} p_{k-i}$  ( $p_k$  is the k-th prime).
- II. Denote by v(n) the number of distinct prime factors of n and by d(n) the number of divisors of n. Is it true that there is an infinite sequence  $n_1 < n_2 < \cdots$  of integers satisfying
- (1)  $v(n_k+i) < c_1 i$  for every i > 0 and  $c_1$  is an absolute constant? If the answer is affirmative is there an infinite sequence  $m_1 < m_2 < \cdots$  so that

$$(2) d(m_k+i) < c_2 i?$$

- (1) can perhaps be proved by an improvement of BRUNS method; (2), if true, is certainly very deep.
- **4.33.3.** Denote by f(n) the smallest integer so that every 1 < m < n! is the sum of f(n) or fewer distinct divisors of n. I proved f(n) < n. The proof is by induction and is simple. Prove or disprove:  $f(n) < (\log n)^c$  for an absolute constant c and  $n > n_0(c)$ . I could not even prove f(n) = o(n).
- **4.33.4.** Prove that to every constant C there is an integer n for which  $\sigma(n)/n > C$  and whose divisors do not give the moduli of a system of covering congruences. In other words if  $1 < d_1 < d_2 < \cdots < d_k = n$  is the set of all divisors greater than 1 of n and  $a_i$ , 1 < i < k are arbitrary integers, there always is an integer m so that for every i, 1 < i < k  $m \not\equiv a_i \pmod{d_i}$ .
- **4.33.5.** Denote by f(n;t) the smallest integer with the property that if we split the integers 1 < m < n into two classes there always is an arithmetic progression of n terms at least t of which belongs to the same class; f(n;n) = f(n) is the well known Van der Waerden function the finiteness of which is guaranteed by van der Waerden's theorem. No satisfactory upper bound is known for f(n);  $f(n) > 2^{n/2}$  was proved by Rado and myself; W. Schmidt proved  $f(n) > 2^{n-c\sqrt{n\log n}}$  and Berlekamp proved  $f(p) > p 2^p$  for primes p. Perhaps  $f(n)^{1/n}$  tends to infinity. f(n;t) is interesting only for  $t > \frac{n}{2}$ . Clearly, for

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 $t < \frac{n}{2}$ , f(n;t) = n. I proved that  $f(n;t) > (1+c_{\varepsilon})^n$  for  $t > (1+\varepsilon)$   $\frac{n}{2}$ . Perhaps  $f\left(n;\left[\frac{n}{2}\left(1+\varepsilon\right)\right]\right) < C_{\varepsilon}^n$  holds for sufficiently large  $C_{\varepsilon}$  if  $\varepsilon$  is sufficiently small, but I was not able to prove anything in this direction. In fact I can get no usable upper bound for f(n;t) for  $t = \frac{n}{2} + o(n)$ . J. Spencer proved that if  $n = 2^l m$  then

$$f\left(n; \left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil + 1\right) = 2^{t} (n-1) + 1$$

but we do not know the value of  $f(n; \left[\frac{n}{2}\right] + 2)$  and in fact have no satisfactory upper bound for it.

P. Erdős and R. Rado, Combinatorial theorems on classifications of subsets of a given set, Proc. London Math. Soc. 2 (1952), 417-439.

W. Schmidt, Two combinational theorems on arithmetic progressions, Duke Math. J. 29 (1962), 129-140.

E. R. Berlekamp, A construction for partitions which avoid long arithmetic progressions, Bull. Canad. Math. Soc. 11 (1968), 409—414.

J. SPENCER, Problems 185 Bull. Canad. Math. Soc. 16 (1973), 185.

**4.33.6\*.** Let  $a_1 < a_2 < \cdots$  be an infinite sequence of integers for which  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{a_i} = \infty$ . Then our sequence contains arbitrarily long arithmetical progressions.

I offer 2500 dollars for a proof or disproof of this conjecture. The conjecture would imply that for every k there are k primes in an arithmetic progression.

SZEMERÉDI recently proved an old conjecture of Turán and myself: If  $a_1 < a_2 < \cdots$  has positive upper density, then it contains arbitrarily arithmetic progressions. SZEMERÉDI's ingenious proof will soon appear in Acta Arithmetica.

**4.33.**  $7^*$ . Let E be an infinite set of real numbers. Prove that there is a set of real numbers S of positive measure which does not contain a set E' similar (in the sense of elementary geometry) to E.

We can of course assume that E is denumerable, its only limit point is 0 which is not in E.

**4.33.8\*.** Put  $\frac{n}{2^n} = \alpha_n$ . **8.1** Is it true that every  $\alpha_n$  is the finite sum of other  $\alpha'$  s?

**8.2.** Is it true that  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_{n_k}$  is irrational if  $n_k/k \rightarrow \infty$ ?

**8.3.** Is there a rational number x for which  $x = \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \alpha_{n_l}$  has  $2\aleph_0$  solutions.

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