ON SIERPINSKI'S CONJECTURE CONCERNING THE EULER TOTIENT

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ABSTRACT. If $\Phi_k(n)$ denotes the Schemmel totient (so that $\Phi_1(n)$ becomes the Euler totient) we conjecture that for each $k \ge 1$ and any given integer n > 1 there exist infinitely many m for which the equation $\Phi_k(x) = m$ has exactly n solutions. For the case k = 1, this gives Sierpinski's conjecture.

We prove that on the basis of Schinzel's Hypothesis H, our conjecture holds for any $k \ge 3$ of the form $p_0^{\alpha} - 2$ where p_0 is an odd prime and $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}$. In 1961 Schinzel proved the case k = 1 assuming his Hypothesis H.

1. **Introduction.** Let $\varphi(n)$ denote, as usual, the Euler totient representing the number of natural numbers not exceeding n and relatively prime to n. This function has been generalized in several directions. Here we will concern ourselves with the generalization known as the Schemmel totient Φ_k (for a fixed natural number k). Φ_k is defined as follows: $\Phi_k(1) = 1$, $\Phi_k(n) = 0$ if n contains a prime factor not exceeding k, and if all the prime factors of n are greater than k, then

$$\Phi_k(n) = \prod_{p^a \mid \mid n} p^{a-1}(p-k),$$

where $p^a || n$ means $p^a | n$ and $p^{a+1} \not\mid n$.

More than thirty years ago, W. Sierpinski (see [3]) made the following conjecture:

For any given integer n > 1, there exist infinitely many m for which the equation $\varphi(x) = m$ has exactly n solutions.

A. Schinzel [4] showed that his Hypothesis H (quoted in Section 2) implies the truth of Sierpinski's conjecture.

The purpose of this paper is to make a similar conjecture for the function Φ_k , and prove that for a certain type of integers k, this conjecture follows also from Hypothesis H. However, we are unable to settle this conjecture for an arbitrary k even on the basis of Hypothesis H.

2. **Preliminaries.** Denote by N the set of all natural numbers.

Let $N_k(m)$ denote the number of solutions of the equation $\Phi_k(x) = m$. We write N(m) for $N_1(m)$. It is easy to see that $N_k(m) = 0$ whenever k and m > 1 are of same parity. Similar to Sierpinski's conjecture, we make the following:

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CONJECTURE 2.1. Let k be a fixed natural number (including 1). For any given integer n > 1, there exist infinitely many m such that $N_k(m) = n$.

REMARK 2.2. We exclude the case n = 1 because of the still unproved conjecture of Carmichael ([1], [2]) which says that N(m) is never equal to 1. Incidentally, the Carmichael conjecture can be extended to N_k for some even natural numbers k (see [6] or [7]).

We now state Schinzel's Hypothesis H([4], [5]) in two equivalent forms.

- 2.3. Let $s \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $f_1(x), \dots, f_s(x)$ be irreducible polynomials with integral coefficients, and for each polynomial the leading coefficient is positive, and there is no integer d > 1 that is a divisor of each of the numbers $f_1(x) \cdot f_2(x) \cdots f_s(x)$, x being an integer. Then there exist infinitely many natural values of x for which the numbers $f_1(x), f_2(x), \dots, f_s(x)$ are all primes.
- 2.4. Let $f_1(x), f_2(x), \ldots, f_s(x)$, $g_1(x), g_2(x), \ldots, g_t(x)$ be irreducible integer-valued polynomials of positive degree with positive leading coefficients. If there does not exist any integer > 1 dividing the product $f_1(x) \cdot f_2(x) \cdots f_s(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{N}$, and if $g_j(x) \not\equiv f_i(x)$ for all $i \leq s, j \leq t$, then there exist infinitely many positive integers x such that the numbers $f_1(x), f_2(x), \ldots, f_s(x)$ are primes and the numbers $g_1(x), g_2(x), \ldots, g_t(x)$ are composite.
- REMARK 2.5. We wish to point out that while Hypothesis H implies Sierpinski's conjecture, it is an open problem whether it also implies the truth of the Carmichael conjecture.

3. **The main result.** We prove the following:

THEOREM 3.1. Let $k \ge 3$ be of the form $p_0^{\alpha} - 2$, where p_0 is an odd prime and $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}$. Then Hypothesis H implies that for any given integer n > 1, there exist infinitely many integers m such that $N_k(m) = n$.

PROOF. Let q_0 denote the smallest prime factor of k+4, and let $r=\frac{(p_0-1)(q_0-1)}{2}$. Set $A=\left\{a\in\mathbb{N}:(p_0-1)\mid a\right\}=\left\{a_1,a_2,a_3,\ldots\right\}$, where $1=a_1< a_2< a_3<\ldots$ (note that $a_i<2i$ for all i since A contains all odd numbers).

For any given n > 1, consider the irreducible polynomials defined by

$$f_i(x) = 2x^{a_i} + k$$
, $f_{n+i}(x) = 2x^{m-a_i} + k$, $i = 1, 2, ..., n$; $f_{2n+1}(x) = x$.

The irreducibility of $2x^a + k$ follows from Eisenstein's criterion.

EISENSTEIN'S CRITERION. Let I be a unique factorization domain. If f(x) is a polynomial $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n$ in I[x] such that for a prime element p in I, $a_n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, $a_{n-1} \equiv a_{n-2} \equiv \cdots \equiv a_0 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ but $a_0 \not\equiv \pmod{p^2}$ then f(x) is irreducible over the field of quotients of I.

Note that since k is odd, the criterion is applicable to $2x^a + k$ with p = 2. Note also that $rn - a_n > a_n$, so that $f_{n+i}(x)$ $(1 \le i \le n)$ is distinct from $f_1(x), \ldots, f_n(x)$.

We have $\prod_{i=1}^{2n+1} f_i(1) = p_0^{2\alpha n}$. Let u be a primitive root modulo p_0 . Observe that $2u^a + k \equiv 0 \pmod{p_0}$ if and only if $(p_0 - 1)|a$. Since, by the definition of A, $(p_0 - 1) \not\mid a_i$ and $(p_0 - 1) \not\mid (rn - a_i)$ for all $1 \le i \le n$, we conclude that $p_0 \not\mid \prod_{i=1}^{2n+1} f_i(u)$. Therefore, the condition of Hypothesis H is satisfied.

Define $b_1 < b_2 < \ldots < b_{(r-2)n}$ in such a way that

$$\{b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_{(r-2)n}\} = \{1, 2, \ldots, rn\} \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^n \{a_i, rn - a_i\},$$

and define

$$g_i(x) = 2x^{b_i} + k, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, (r-2)n;$$

By Hypothesis H (2.4), there exist infinitely many integers x_0 —which we may obviously assume to be different from g_0 —such that all the $f_i(x_0)$ ($1 \le i \le 2n + 1$) are prime and all the $g_j(x_0)$ ($1 \le j \le (r-2)n+1$) are composite (in particular, $2x_0^m + k$ and $4x_0^m + k$ are composite).

Also $4x_0^m + k$ is composite when x is a prime different from q_0 . This follows from Fermat's theorem since $(q_0 - 1)$ divides r and the fact that q_0 divides k + 4.

Consider, for such an x_0 with $x_0 > k + 4$, the equation

$$\Phi_k(y) = 4x_0^m$$
.

If y is a solution of (3.2), then obviously y can have at most two distinct prime factors, i.e. y is of the form p^a or p^aq^b (p, q denote primes). If a > 1, then $p(p - k)|4x_0^m$, so $p = x_0$ and $(x_0 - k)|4x_0^m$, which is impossible since $x_0 > k + 4$. Similarly we must have b = 1 in the latter case. If y = p, then $p - k = 4x_0^m$, i.e. $p = 4x_0^m + k$, contradicting the compositeness of $4x_0^m + k$. Now we conclude that y = pq for some distinct primes p, q, and we may write (3.2) as

$$(\frac{p-k}{2})(\frac{q-k}{2}) = x_0^m.$$

Both factors on the left-hand side are greater than 1 (otherwise we would get a contradiction to the compositeness of $2x_0^m + k$). It follows that $\{p, q\} = \{f_{i_0}(x_0), f_{n+i_0}(x_0)\}$ for some $1 \le i_0 \le n$, i.e. $y = f_{i_0}(x_0)f_{n+i_0}(x_0)$.

Obviously, for any $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$, $f_i(x_0)f_{n+i}(x_0)$ is a solution of (3.2). Thus (3.2) has exactly n solutions. This completes the proof.

REMARK 3.3. It is shown elsewhere that for any odd k > 1, there are infinitely many integers m for which $N_k(m) = 1$ (see [6] or [7]). That is why we exclude the case n = 1 in the above theorem. In a certain sense, this theorem is an extension of Schinzel's work on Sierpinski's conjecture. We would expect that this theorem holds for any k as stated in Conjecture 2.1. However, it seems to be extremely difficult to settle this problem.

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