

ON SOME EQUATIONS INVOLVING EULER TOTIENT FUNCTION

A thesis written at

WAGNER COLLEGE

in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the
degree of

BACHELOR OF SCIENCE IN MATHEMATICS

by:

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May 2022

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ABSTRACT. We prove that if n is a solution to the equation $s(n) = \phi(n)$, where $s(n)$ is the sum of the proper divisors of n and $\phi(n)$ is Euler Totient function, then n is either 2 or an odd square. For a solution n that is an odd square, we show that the number of its distinct prime divisors is greater than 2 and $\prod_{p|n} \frac{p}{p-1} > \varphi$, p is prime and φ is the golden ratio. Finally, we prove that the only solutions to the equation $d(n) = \phi(n)$, where $d(n)$ is the number of divisors of n , are 1, 3, 8, 10, 18, 24, 30.

1. INTRODUCTION

Different functions in Number Theory have been extensively studied during the last two centuries. Among the most famous of these functions are Euler Totient function $\phi(n)$, the number of divisors function $d(n)$ and the sum of proper divisors function $s(n)$. In this paper, we will investigate the positive integer solutions to the two equations

$$\phi(n) = d(n) \tag{1}$$

and

$$\phi(n) = s(n) \tag{2}$$

1.1. **Definitions.** Given $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k}$, where p_i are distinct primes and α_i are positive integers for all $1 \leq i \leq k$, k is a nonnegative integer.

We provide some definitions that are necessary for the rest of the paper:

Function I: Euler Totient Function $\phi(n)$.

$\phi : N \rightarrow N$ equals the number of positive integers smaller than or equal to n that are relatively prime to n

$$\phi(n) = n \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_k}\right)$$

which is equivalent to

$$\phi(n) = p_1^{\alpha_1-1} p_2^{\alpha_2-1} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k-1} (p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1) \dots (p_k - 1)$$

We will use the second definition for the rest of the paper.

Examples: $\phi(4) = 2$, $\phi(5) = 4$ and $\phi(6) = 2$

Function II: Number of divisors Function $d(n)$.

$d : N \rightarrow N$ equals the number of positive integers greater than or equal to 1 that divides n (including n itself), and

$$d(n) = (\alpha_1 + 1)(\alpha_2 + 1) \dots (\alpha_k + 1)$$

Examples: $d(4) = 3$, $d(5) = 2$ and $d(6) = 4$

Function III: Sum of divisors Function $\sigma(n)$.

$\sigma : N \rightarrow N$ equals the sum of positive divisors of n (including n).

$$\sigma(n) = (1 + p_1 + p_1^2 + \dots + p_1^{\alpha_1})(1 + p_2 + p_2^2 + \dots + p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots (1 + p_k + p_k^2 + \dots + p_k^{\alpha_k})$$

Examples: $\sigma(4) = 7$, $\sigma(5) = 6$ and $\sigma(6) = 12$

Function IV: Sum of proper divisors Function $s(n)$.

$s : N \rightarrow N$ equals the sum of proper divisors of n (i.e. the divisors of n excluding n itself).

$$s(n) = \sigma(n) - n$$

Therefore, $s(n) =$

$$(1 + p_1 + p_1^2 + \dots + p_1^{\alpha_1})(1 + p_2 + p_2^2 + \dots + p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots (1 + p_k + p_k^2 + \dots + p_k^{\alpha_k}) - p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k}$$

Examples: $s(4) = 3$, $s(5) = 1$ and $s(6) = 6$

All the previous functions are multiplicative, except for $s(n)$. For more information and additional results we refer the reader to [1] and [2].

2. THE MAIN RESULTS

We begin by considering equation (1).

As $s(1) = 0 < 1 = \phi(1)$, we consider only the possible solutions > 1 .

Proposition 2.1. *Of the positive integer solutions that belongs to one of the following classes:*

(i) *even integers*

(ii) *odd integers whose prime factorization contains a prime with odd power*

(iii) *integers of the form $p^{2\alpha}$ such that p is an odd prime*

(iv) *integers of the form $p^{2\alpha}q^{2\beta}$ such that p and q are distinct odd primes*

$n = 2$ is the only solution to equation (1).

We will prove that Class (i) yields only one solution, namely $n = 2$, and the rest of the classes yields no solutions.

Class (i): Let $n = 2m$ for some positive integer m . Note that both 1 and m divides n . If $m > 1$, then

$$s(n) \geq m + 1$$

On the other hand, half of the numbers between 1 and n inclusively are even. Hence, at least half of them are not co-prime with n . So

$$\phi(n) \leq m$$

Therefore, for $n > 2$,

$$s(n) > \phi(n)$$

But note that

$$s(2) = 1 = \phi(2)$$

Therefore, if n is even, then 2 is the only solution to equation (1), as desired.

Class (ii):

Let n be an odd positive integer > 1 whose prime factorization is

$$p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k},$$

where p_i are odd primes for all i , $1 \leq i \leq k$

We will prove that if there exists j such that α_j is odd, then

$$s(n) \neq \phi(n)$$

Recall that

$$\phi(n) = p_1^{\alpha_1-1} p_2^{\alpha_2-1} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k-1} (p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1) \dots (p_k - 1)$$

As n is odd > 1 , then all of its prime divisors are odd, including p_1 . Therefore $(p_1 - 1)$ is even, which implies that $\phi(n)$ is even. Recall that

$$\sigma(n) = (1 + p_1 + p_1^2 + \dots + p_1^{\alpha_1})(1 + p_2 + p_2^2 + \dots + p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots (1 + p_k + p_k^2 + \dots + p_k^{\alpha_k})$$

Note that if α_1 is odd, then

$$(1 + p_1 + \dots + p_1^{\alpha_1})$$

is even, as it is a sum of an even number of odd numbers.

This implies that $\sigma(n)$ is also even. But

$$s(n) = \sigma(n) - n$$

Hence, $s(n)$ is odd. Therefore, $s(n)$ and $\phi(n)$ have different parities, which implies that

$$s(n) \neq \phi(n)$$

as claimed.

Class (iii): Let $n = p^{2\alpha}$, where p is an odd prime and α is a positive integer. Using the formulas of $\phi(n)$ and $s(n)$,

$$\phi(n) = p^{2\alpha} - p^{2\alpha-1} \text{ and } s(n) = \sigma(n) - n = 1 + p + \dots + p^{2\alpha-1}$$

As $p \geq 3$,

$$p^{2\alpha} - p^{2\alpha-1} \geq 3p^{2\alpha-1} - p^{2\alpha-1} = 2p^{2\alpha-1}$$

Now, if $2p^{2\alpha-1} > 1 + p + \dots + p^{2\alpha-1}$, then $\phi(n) > s(n)$ and we are done. Thus it suffices to show that

$$2p^{2\alpha-1} > 1 + p + \dots + p^{2\alpha-1}$$

The above inequality can be rewritten as

$$p^{2\alpha-1} > 1 + p + \dots + p^{2\alpha-2} = \frac{p^{2\alpha-1} - 1}{p - 1}$$

As $p - 1 > 1$ (because p is odd prime),

$$\frac{p^{2\alpha-1} - 1}{p - 1} < p^{2\alpha-1} - 1 < p^{2\alpha-1},$$

as desired.

To prove our claim about Class (iv), we have to develop some machinery.

Lemma I. Let $n = p_1^{2\alpha_1} p_2^{2\alpha_2} \dots p_k^{2\alpha_k}$, for distinct primes p_i , $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$. If

$$\frac{p_1 p_2 \dots p_k}{(p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1) \dots (p_k - 1)} < \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2},$$

then $s(n) < \phi(n)$.

Proof. Consider the inequality

$$\frac{p_1^{2\alpha_1+1} p_2^{2\alpha_2+1} \dots p_k^{2\alpha_k+1}}{(p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1) \dots (p_k - 1)} - p_1^{2\alpha_1} p_2^{2\alpha_2} \dots p_k^{2\alpha_k} < p_1^{2\alpha_1-1} p_2^{2\alpha_2-1} \dots p_k^{2\alpha_k-1} (p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1) \dots (p_k - 1)$$

which we will call inequality (*).

Dividing both sides of the inequality by the RHS yields

$$\frac{p_1^2 p_2^2 \dots p_k^2}{(p_1 - 1)^2 (p_2 - 1)^2 \dots (p_k - 1)^2} - \frac{p_1 p_2 \dots p_k}{(p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1) \dots (p_k - 1)} < 1$$

Let $x = \frac{p_1 p_2 \dots p_k}{(p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1) \dots (p_k - 1)}$. The inequality becomes

$$x^2 - x < 1$$

or

$$x^2 - x - 1 < 0$$

Solving this inequality yields

$$x \in \left(\frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2}, \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \right)$$

or, equivalently,

$$\frac{p_1 p_2 \dots p_k}{(p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1) \dots (p_k - 1)} \in \left(\frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2}, \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \right)$$

As the $\frac{p_1 p_2 \dots p_k}{(p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1) \dots (p_k - 1)} > 0$,

then if $\frac{p_1 p_2 \dots p_k}{(p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1) \dots (p_k - 1)} < \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$, the inequality (*) holds.

But $s(n) =$

$$\begin{aligned} & (1 + p_1 + p_1^2 + \dots + p_1^{2\alpha_1})(1 + p_2 + p_2^2 + \dots + p_2^{2\alpha_2}) \dots (1 + p_k + p_k^2 + \dots + p_k^{2\alpha_k}) - p_1^{2\alpha_1} p_2^{2\alpha_2} \dots p_k^{2\alpha_k} \\ &= \frac{(p_1^{2\alpha_1+1} - 1)(p_2^{2\alpha_2+1} - 1) \dots (p_k^{2\alpha_k+1} - 1)}{(p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1) \dots (p_k - 1)} - p_1^{2\alpha_1} p_2^{2\alpha_2} \dots p_k^{2\alpha_k} \\ &< \frac{p_1^{2\alpha_1+1} p_2^{2\alpha_2+1} \dots p_k^{2\alpha_k+1}}{(p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1) \dots (p_k - 1)} - p_1^{2\alpha_1} p_2^{2\alpha_2} \dots p_k^{2\alpha_k} \\ &< p_1^{2\alpha_1-1} p_2^{2\alpha_2-1} \dots p_k^{2\alpha_k-1} (p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1) \dots (p_k - 1) \\ &= \phi(n), \text{ as claimed.} \end{aligned}$$

□

Corollary 2.2. *Given any positive number $k > 1$, there exists a prime P such that if n is an odd prime with k divisors and all the prime divisors of n are greater than or equal to P then $s(n) < \phi(n)$*

Proof. Denote by p_n the n^{th} prime number. Since the sequence (p_n) increases to $+\infty$, the sequence $a_n = \frac{p_n}{p_n - 1}$ is strictly decreasing and convergent to 1.

As $\left(\frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^{1/k} > 1$, one can find $p_{i_1} < p_{i_2} < \dots < p_{i_k}$ such that

$$\frac{p_{i_k}}{p_{i_k} - 1} < \dots < \frac{p_{i_2}}{p_{i_2} - 1} < \frac{p_{i_1}}{p_{i_1} - 1} < \left(\frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^{1/k}$$

Thus,

$$\left(\frac{p_{i_1}}{p_{i_1} - 1} \right) \left(\frac{p_{i_2}}{p_{i_2} - 1} \right) \dots \left(\frac{p_{i_k}}{p_{i_k} - 1} \right) < \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$$

Let $P = p_{i_1}$ and $n = p_{i_1}^{2\alpha_{i_1}} p_{i_2}^{2\alpha_{i_2}} \dots p_{i_k}^{2\alpha_{i_k}}$. Then by Lemma I,

$$s(n) < \phi(n)$$

as desired. □

We will need the following elementary inequality

$$\frac{n}{n-1} > \frac{m}{m-1}$$

for integers $m > n > 1$. Denote it by inequality (**).

Now we can finish the proof of Class (iv).

Let $n = p^{2\alpha} q^{2\beta}$ such that p and q are distinct odd primes with $p < q$. So

$$\phi(n) = p^{2\alpha-1} q^{2\beta-1} (p-1)(q-1)$$

and

$$s(n) = \sigma(n) - n = (1 + p + \dots + p^{2\alpha})(1 + q + \dots + q^{2\beta}) - p^{2\alpha} q^{2\beta} = \frac{(p^{2\alpha+1} - 1)(q^{2\beta+1} - 1)}{(p-1)(q-1)} - p^{2\alpha} q^{2\beta}$$

There are two cases:

Case I: $p \geq 5$

Then,

$$\frac{pq}{(p-1)(q-1)} < \frac{(5)(7)}{(4)(6)} = \frac{35}{24}$$

by inequality (**).

As $\frac{35}{24} < \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$, then by Lemma I

$$s(n) < \phi(n)$$

Hence,

$$s(n) \neq \phi(n)$$

Case II: $p = 3$

if $q \geq 17$, then

$$\frac{pq}{(p-1)(q-1)} < \frac{(3)(17)}{(2)(16)} = \frac{51}{32}$$

again by inequality (**)

But $\frac{51}{32} < \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$. Thus, by Lemma I, $s(n) < \phi(n)$

Upon checking the pairs $(p, q) = (3, 5), (3, 7), (3, 11), (3, 13)$, it turns out that none of them provides a solution to

$$s(n) = \phi(n)$$

By combining the two cases, it follows that no solution belongs to the Class (iv), as claimed.

After considering all of the four classes, we can conclude that if the equation

$$s(n) = \phi(n)$$

has a solution greater than 2, it must be an odd square such that the number of its distinct prime divisors is greater than 2 and $\prod_{p|n} \frac{p}{p-1} > \varphi$, where p is prime and φ is the famous golden ratio $= \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$.

Remark 2.3. Lemma I provides a quick way to check if $s(n) < \phi(n)$ for square odd n , and, surprisingly, this method depends only on the prime factors, not on their powers (provided of course they are even).

We continue this section with equation (2).

Proposition 2.4. *The only solutions to the equation*

$$d(n) = \phi(n)$$

are 1, 3, 8, 10, 18, 24, 30

The solution $n = 1$ is trivial, so assume that $n > 1$. We will prove some lemmas that will help us in proving the proposition. For the rest of the paper, let α be a positive integer, unless stated otherwise.

Lemma II: If p is a prime ≥ 5 , then $\phi(p^\alpha) > d(p^\alpha)$ (i.e. $p^{\alpha-1}(p-1) > \alpha + 1$).

Proof. Note that $p^{\alpha-1}(p-1) \geq 5^{\alpha-1} \cdot 4$. We will prove by induction that $5^{\alpha-1} \cdot 4 > \alpha + 1$

Base Case ($\alpha = 1$): $4 > 1 + 1$

Induction hypotheses: assume that $5^{k-1} \cdot 4 > k + 1$

So

$$5(5^{k-1} \cdot 4) > 5(k + 1) > (k + 1) + 1$$

Hence,

$$5^{k+1} \cdot 4 > (k + 1) + 1$$

completing the induction.

We conclude that

$$p^{\alpha-1}(p-1) \geq 5^{\alpha-1} \cdot 4 > \alpha + 1 \text{ for all } \alpha \text{ and prime } p \geq 5, \text{ as desired.}$$

□

Lemma III:

(i) $\phi(3^\alpha) = d(3^\alpha)$ if $\alpha = 1$ (i.e. $2 \cdot 3^0 = 2$)

(ii) $\phi(3^\alpha) > d(3^\alpha)$ if $\alpha > 1$ (i.e. $2 \cdot 3^{\alpha-1} > \alpha + 1$)

Proof. (i) is a direct substitution. We will prove (ii) by induction on α (starting from $\alpha = 2$).

Obviously, ($\alpha = 2$): $6 > 3$

Assume that $2 \cdot 3^{k-1} > k + 1$, for some positive integer $k \geq 2$. So

$$3(2 \cdot 3^{k-1}) > 3(k + 1) > k + 2$$

Thus,

$$2 \cdot 3^k > k + 2$$

Induction is complete, and the lemma is proved.

□

Lemma IV:

(i) $\phi(2^\alpha) < d(2^\alpha)$ if $\alpha = 1$ or 2

(ii) $\phi(2^\alpha) = d(2^\alpha)$ if $\alpha = 3$

(iii) $\phi(2^\alpha) > d(2^\alpha)$ if $\alpha > 3$ (i.e. $2^{\alpha-1} > \alpha + 1$)

Proof. (i) and (ii) are direct substitution. As we did with Lemmas II and III, we will prove (iii) by induction on α (starting from $\alpha = 4$)

Base case ($\alpha = 2$): $8 > 5$, which is true.

Assume that $2^{k-1} > k + 1$, for some positive integer $k \geq 4$. So

$$2^k = 2(2^{k-1}) > 2(k + 1) > k + 2$$

concluding the induction. □

Lemma V: For every $p > 3$, then $\phi(p^\alpha) \geq 2d(p^\alpha)$, with equality holds if and only if $p = 5$ and $\alpha = 1$.

Proof. We will prove by induction on α (starting from $\alpha = 2$) that $5^{\alpha-1} \cdot 4 > 2(\alpha + 1)$

Obviously, $5^1 \cdot 4 > 6$

Assume that $5^{k-1} \cdot 4 > 2(k + 1)$, for some $k \geq 2$. Then

$$5(5^{k-1} \cdot 4) > 10(k + 1) > 2(k + 2),$$

finishing the induction.

As a result,

$$\phi(p^\alpha) = p^{\alpha-1}(p - 1) \geq 5^{\alpha-1} \cdot 4 > 2(\alpha + 1) = 2d(p^\alpha) \text{ for } k \geq 2.$$

Thus, the equality in Lemma V holds if and only if $p = 5$ and $\alpha = 1$. □

Lemma VI: For any $\alpha \geq 2$, $\phi(3^\alpha) \geq 2d(3^\alpha)$, with equality holds if and only if $\alpha = 2$

Proof. Again, we will prove it by induction on α (starting from $\alpha = 3$) that

$$3^{\alpha-1} \cdot 2 > 2(\alpha + 1)$$

Base Case: $3^2 \cdot 2 > 8$

Assume that $3^{k-1} \cdot 2 > 2(k+1)$, for some $k \geq 3$

Then,

$$3(3^{k-1} \cdot 2) > 6(k+1) > 2(k+2)$$

So

$$3^k \cdot 2 > 2(k+2)$$

finishing the induction.

Therefore, for $\alpha \geq 3$.

$$\phi(3^\alpha) = 3^{\alpha-1} \cdot 2 > 2(\alpha+1) = 2d(3^\alpha)$$

Thus, the equality in the Lemma holds if and only if $\alpha \geq 2$, as claimed. \square

We will use the lemmas to prove the Proposition. Let $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k}$, where p_i are distinct primes for $1 \leq i \leq k$, with p_1 is the smallest prime, and α_i is a positive integer for $1 \leq i \leq k$. There are three cases to consider:

First: If $p_1 > 3$, no solution exists.

Proof: $\phi(n) =$

$$\phi(p_1^{\alpha_1}) \phi(p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots \phi(p_k^{\alpha_k}) \quad (\text{as } \phi(n) \text{ is a multiplicative function})$$

$$> d(p_1^{\alpha_1}) d(p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots d(p_k^{\alpha_k}) \quad (\text{Lemma II})$$

$$= d(n) \quad (d(n) \text{ is multiplicative})$$

Hence, no solution exists, as claimed.

Second: If $p_1 = 3$, then $n = 3$ is the only solution.

Proof: There are two subcases:

Subcase I: the number of distinct primes that divides n is greater than 1 (i.e $k \neq 1$)

By Lemma III: $\phi(3^{\alpha_1}) \geq d(3^{\alpha_1})$

By Lemma II: $\phi(p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots \phi(p_k^{\alpha_k}) > d(p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots d(p_k^{\alpha_k})$

Combining the previous statements, we conclude that

$$\phi(n) = \phi(3^{\alpha_1}) \phi(p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots \phi(p_k^{\alpha_k}) > d(3^{\alpha_1}) d(p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots d(p_k^{\alpha_k}) = d(n)$$

Therefore, no solution exists.

Subcase II: the number of distinct primes that divides n is 1. Thus, $n = 3^{\alpha_1}$.

By Lemma III, α_1 must be 1. $n = 3$ works, as claimed.

Third: If $p_1 = 2$, then there are four subcases to consider, based on the value of α_1 .

Subcase I: $\alpha_1 > 3$ Then,

$$\phi(n) = \phi(2^{\alpha_1}) \phi(p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots \phi(p_k^{\alpha_k}) > d(2^{\alpha_1}) d(p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots d(p_k^{\alpha_k}) = d(n)$$

by Lemmas II, III and IV. No solution exists.

Subcase II: $\alpha_1 = 3$.

If there is a prime number greater than 3 that divides n , then, again,

$$\phi(n) = \phi(2^{\alpha_1}) \phi(p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots \phi(p_k^{\alpha_k}) > d(2^{\alpha_1}) d(p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots d(p_k^{\alpha_k}) = d(n)$$

by Lemmas II, III and IV. No solution exists.

Therefore, we can limit our investigation to the cases $n = 2^3$ and $2^3 \cdot 3^{\alpha_2}$.

Note that $\phi(2^3) = d(2^3)$, so 8 is a solution. By Lemma III,

$$\phi(3^{\alpha_2}) \geq d(3^{\alpha_2})$$

It follows that

$$\phi(2^3 \cdot 3^{\alpha_2}) = \phi(2^3)\phi(3^{\alpha_2}) \geq d(2^3)d(3^{\alpha_2}) = d(2^3 \cdot 3^{\alpha_2})$$

by Lemmas III and IV. Equality holds if and only if $\alpha_2 = 1$. Indeed, $\phi(24) = d(24)$.

So 24 is a solution.

Subcase III: $\alpha_1 = 2$

Let $n = 2^2 \cdot m$, where m is not divisible by 2. So

$$\phi(n) = \phi(2^2 \cdot m) = \phi(2^2)\phi(m) = 2\phi(m)$$

Similarly,

$$d(n) = d(2^2 \cdot m) = d(2^2)d(m) = 3d(m)$$

So our goal is to find the solutions of

$$2\phi(m) = 3d(m)$$

If m is divisible by a prime > 3 , let $m = p_2^{\alpha_2} p_3^{\alpha_3} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k}$ with, $p_j > 3$ for some j , $2 \leq j \leq k$.

We claim that $2\phi(m) > 3d(m)$. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(m) &= \phi(p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots \phi(p_j^{\alpha_j}) \dots \phi(p_k^{\alpha_k}) \\ &\geq d(p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots 2d(p_3^{\alpha_3}) \dots d(p_k^{\alpha_k}) \text{ (Lemmas III and V)} \\ &> \frac{3}{2} d(p_2^{\alpha_2}) d(p_3^{\alpha_3}) \dots d(p_k^{\alpha_k}) \\ &= \frac{3}{2} d(m) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\phi(m) > \frac{3}{2} d(m)$, which is our claim. Therefore m must be equal to 3^α , for some positive integer α .

Note that if $\alpha \geq 2$, then by Lemma VI,

$$\phi(m) \geq 2d(m) > \frac{3}{2} d(m)$$

Hence, $\alpha = 1$. However, $n = 2^2 \cdot 3$ does not satisfy the equation $\phi(n) = d(n)$. Thus, this subcase yields no solutions.

Subcase IV: $\alpha_1 = 1$.

Let $n = 2m$, where m is odd. So

$$\phi(n) = \phi(2m) = \phi(2)\phi(m) = \phi(m)$$

Similarly,

$$d(n) = d(2m) = d(2)d(m) = 2d(m)$$

Our goal is to solve $\phi(m) = 2d(m)$.

Again, if m is divisible a prime > 3 , let $m = p_2^{\alpha_2} p_3^{\alpha_3} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k}$, with $p_j > 3$. Then by Lemmas III and V,

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(m) &= \phi(p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots \phi(p_j^{\alpha_j}) \dots \phi(p_k^{\alpha_k}) \\ &\geq d(p_2^{\alpha_2}) \dots 2d(p_j^{\alpha_j}) \dots d(p_k^{\alpha_k}) \\ &= 2d(m) \end{aligned}$$

The equality holds only if the greatest prime that divides m is 5. Otherwise, by Lemma V, the inequality will be strict. Also, the power of 5 must be 1 (Lemma V again).

This leaves us with two possibilities: $m = 3^{\alpha_2} \cdot 5$, for some positive integer α_2 , or $m = 5$.

Let $m = 3^{\alpha_2} \cdot 5$. Note that for $\alpha_2 \geq 2$,

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(m) &= \phi(3^{\alpha_2} \cdot 5) = \phi(3^{\alpha_2}) \phi(5) \\ &\geq 2 \cdot 2d(3^{\alpha_2}) d(5) \text{ (Lemma VI and } \phi(5) = 2d(5)) \\ &= 4d(3^{\alpha_2}) d(5) = 4d(3^{\alpha_2} \cdot 5) = 4d(m) > d(m). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we are left with only two possible solutions $m = 3^1 \cdot 5$ or 5 .

By checking these values, we know that they actually work, giving the solutions:

$$n = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \text{ and } n = 2 \cdot 5$$

Finally, we consider $m = 3^{\alpha_2}$, for some positive integer α_2 . If $\alpha_2 > 2$, by Lemma VI,

$$\phi(3^{\alpha_2}) > 2d(3^{\alpha_2})$$

So $m = 3$ or 3^2 . By checking, only $m = 3^2$ works. So $n = 2 \cdot 3^2$ is a solution.

Having considered all the possible cases, we can conclude that the only solutions to the equation $\phi(n) = d(n)$ are $n = 1, 3, 8, 10, 18, 24, 30$. (Q.E.D)

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and foremost, I would like to praise Allah the Almighty for His blessing given to me during my study and in completing this thesis. Second, I would like to express all my thanks and gratitude to my advisor Professor Adrian Ionescu for his constant support and advice during my years of study at the Wagner College. I am deeply indebted to Professors Florin Pop and Zohreh Shahvar for their guidance during much of my undergraduate work. I would also like to thank the faculty and staff at Wagner College, Department of Mathematics and Computer Science, for the help they have given me. I would like to thank all of my family for their support and understanding for the time spent away from them.

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