ON THE SOLUTIONS OF $\sigma_2(n) = \sigma_2(n+\ell)$

J.-M. De Koninck (Québec, Canada)

Abstract. For each integer $n \geq 1$, let $\sigma_2(n) = \sum_{d|n} d^2$. We show that

if a famous conjecture of Schinzel is true, then $\sigma_2(n) = \sigma_2(n+2)$ has an infinite number of solutions. We also examine the solutions of the more general equation $\sigma_2(n) = \sigma_2(n+\ell)$, where ℓ is a fixed positive integer.

1. Introduction

For each integer $n \geq 1$, let $\sigma_2(n) = \sum_{d|n} d^2$. It is mentioned in the book of

R.Guy [1], page 68, that Paul Erdős "doubts that

$$\sigma_2(n) = \sigma_2(n+2)$$

has infinitely many solutions". We shall show that if a famous conjecture of Schinzel often called *Hypothesis H* is true, then (1) has an infinite number of solutions. We will also show how to construct such an infinite family of solutions and provide all 24 solutions $< 10^9$.

We also study the more general equation

(2)
$$\sigma_2(n) = \sigma_2(n+\ell),$$

where ℓ is a fixed positive integer. In particular, we will show that if ℓ is odd, (2) has only a finite number of solutions, while if ℓ is even, a large family of solutions of (2) can be derived from those of (1).

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2. The case ℓ odd

Given a positive odd integer ℓ , we will show that

(3)
$$\sigma_2(n) = \sigma_2(n+\ell)$$

has only a finite number of solutions, and in some cases none at all. Actually we shall show that, given a fixed odd positive integer ℓ ,

(4)
$$\sigma_2(n) < \sigma_2(n+\ell)$$
 if n is odd,

(5)
$$\sigma_2(n) > \sigma_2(n+\ell)$$
 if n is even and large enough.

First assume n is odd. Define the positive integer α implicitely by

(6)
$$n + \ell = 2^{\alpha} \cdot \frac{n+\ell}{2^{\alpha}} \quad \text{with} \quad \left(2^{\alpha}, \frac{n+\ell}{2^{\alpha}}\right) = 1.$$

The function $\sigma_2(n)$ being multiplicative, it follows from (6) that

$$\sigma_2(n+\ell) = \sigma_2(2^{\alpha})\sigma_2\left(\frac{n+\ell}{2^{\alpha}}\right) = \frac{4^{\alpha+1}-1}{3}\sigma_2\left(\frac{n+\ell}{2^{\alpha}}\right) >$$
$$> \frac{4^{\alpha+1}-1}{3}\left(\frac{n+\ell}{2^{\alpha}}\right)^2 \ge \frac{5}{4}(n+\ell)^2.$$

On the other hand, since n has no even divisors,

$$\sigma_2(n) < n^2 + \frac{n^2}{3^2} + \frac{n^2}{5^2} + \dots = \frac{\pi^2}{8}n^2.$$

Since $\frac{5}{4} > \frac{\pi^2}{8}$, inequality (4) holds indeed for all odd $n \ge 1$.

Assume now that n is even and choose α so that

$$n = 2^{\alpha} \cdot \frac{n}{2^{\alpha}}$$
 with $\left(2^{\alpha}, \frac{n}{2^{\alpha}}\right) = 1$.

Then

$$\sigma_2(n) = \sigma_2(2^{\alpha})\sigma_2\left(\frac{n}{2^{\alpha}}\right) = \frac{4^{\alpha+1}-1}{3}\sigma_2\left(\frac{n}{2^{\alpha}}\right) > \frac{4^{\alpha+1}-1}{3}\left(\frac{n}{2^{\alpha}}\right)^2 \ge \frac{5}{4}n^2,$$

while

$$\sigma_2(n+\ell) < (n+\ell)^2 + \frac{(n+\ell)^2}{3^2} + \frac{(n+\ell)^2}{5^2} + \dots = \frac{\pi^2}{8}(n+\ell)^2.$$

Since $\frac{5}{4} > \frac{\pi^2}{8}$ and ℓ is fixed, $\frac{5}{4}n^2 > \frac{\pi^2}{8}(n+\ell)^2$ if n is large enough, which proves (5).

Note that it is easy to show that n = 6 is the only solution of (3).

Using a computer one can easily check that (3) has no solution if $\ell = 3, 9, 15, 27, 33, 35, 39, 45, 51, 57, 69, 75, 81, 87, 93 or 99.$

On the other hand, it is easy to show that if $(\ell, 6) = (\ell, 7) = 1$, then $n = 6\ell$ is a solution of (3). Indeed, since $\sigma_2(6) = \sigma_2(7)$, we have

$$\sigma_2(n) = \sigma_2(6\ell) = \sigma_2(6)\sigma_2(\ell) = \sigma_2(7)\sigma_2(\ell) = \sigma_2(7\ell) = \sigma_2(n+\ell)$$

3. The case $\ell=2$

We shall first look for odd solutions n of

$$\sigma_2(n) = \sigma_2(n+2)$$

which satisfy

(8)
$$n = pq, \qquad n+2 = rs,$$

where p > q and r < s are odd primes.

It follows from (7) and (8) that

$$1 + p^{2} + q^{2} + n^{2} = 1 + r^{2} + s^{2} + (n+2)^{2}$$

$$p^{2} + q^{2} = r^{2} + s^{2} + 4n + 4$$

$$p^{2} + q^{2} - 2pq = r^{2} + s^{2} + 2pq + 4$$

$$p - q = r + s.$$

Hence we shall look for distinct odd primes p, q, r, s such that

(9)
$$\begin{cases} p - q = r + s, & p > q, \\ pq + 2 = rs, & r < s. \end{cases}$$

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For such primes, we must have pq + 2 = r(p - q - r) = pr - (q + r)r, from which it follows that r > q and hence that

$$(10) q < r < s.$$

Now, using pq + 2 = rs and (10), we have

(11)
$$q(r+s+q) + 2 = rs$$

and therefore $2qs+q^2+2>q(r+s+q)+2=rs$, from which we obtain $2qs+(q^2+2)-rs>0$ and hence

$$r < 2q + \frac{q^2 + 2}{s} < 2q + \frac{q^2 + 2}{r}$$
.

It follows that $r^2 - 2qr - (q^2 + 2) < 0$, which yields

$$q < r < q + \sqrt{2(q^2 + 1)}.$$

Hence if we set $\Delta = r - q$, we have, using (11),

$$s = \frac{(r+q)q+2}{r-q} = \frac{(r+q)q+2}{\Delta} = \frac{(2q+\Delta)q+2}{\Delta} = q + \frac{q^2+1}{\Delta/2}.$$

First consider the case $\Delta = 2$. In this case,

$$s = q^2 + q + 1$$
 and $p = q + r + s = q + (q + 2) + (q^2 + q + 1) = q^2 + 3q + 3$.

Hence, if we can find infinitely many q's such that

(12)
$$q, q+2, q^2+q+1$$
 and q^2+3q+3 are all primes,

then equation (7) has infinitely many solutions. But it follows from the following conjecture of Schinzel that there exist infinitely many such quadruples of primes.

HYPOTHESIS H (A.Schinzel and W.Sierpinski [2]) Let $k \geq 1$ and $f_1(x), \ldots, f_k(x)$ be irreducible polynomials with integer coefficients with positive leading coefficients. Assume that there exists no integer > 1 dividing the products $f_1(n) \ldots f_k(n)$ for all integers n. Then there exist infinitely many positive integers m such that all numbers $f_1(m), \ldots, f_k(m)$ are primes.

If q=5, then the prime quadruple (5, 7, 31, 43) yields the solution $n=pq=43\cdot 5=215$. The next quadruple of the form (12) is (1091, 1093, 1191373, 1193557) which provides the solution

$$n = pq = 1193557 \cdot 1091 = 1302170687.$$

But there are smaller solutions!

Small solutions n=pq of (7) will be obtained if p and q are relatively small. Since

$$p=q+r+s, \qquad r=q+\Delta \qquad \text{and} \qquad s=q+rac{q^2+1}{\Delta/2},$$

the size of p will be contained if s is not too large. Hence, searching for solutions of (7) using a computer, we need to consider those "admissible" values of Δ which are big enough to keep $2(q^2+1)/\Delta$ small, but not too big so that $r=q+\Delta$ remains small. This will be accomplished if $\Delta+\frac{2(q^2+1)}{\Delta}$ is as small as possible. Clearly this happens if $\Delta\approx q\sqrt{2}$. Moreover it is clear that Δ must also satisfy $q^2\equiv -1\pmod{\Delta/2}$ which sets the further restriction $\left(\frac{-1}{\Delta/2}\right)=1$. It turns out that Δ is "admissible" if

$$\Delta = 2^{\alpha} \prod_{p\beta \parallel \Delta \atop p \geq 5} p^{\beta} \qquad (\alpha = 1, 2, \quad p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}).$$

The first values of Δ are therefore 2, 10, 26, 34, 50, 122, 130, 202, ...

Besides the even solutions n=24 and n=280, we found, using the above algorithm, 78 solutions of $\sigma_2(n)=\sigma_2(n+2)$ below 10^{12} . Below, we give all 24 solutions smaller than 10^9 .

We believe that, besides n = 24 and n = 280, all solutions of $\sigma_2(n) = \sigma_2(n+2)$ are of the type described in our algorithm, but we could not prove this.

4. The case of even $\ell \geq 4$

Let $\ell \geq 4$ be an even integer. It is clear that the method outlined in Section 3 produces all solutions of (7) of the form n = pq, where p and q are

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24	=	$2^3 \cdot 3$
215	=	$5 \cdot 43$
280	=	$2^3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7$
1079	=	$13 \cdot 83$
947519	=	$163\cdot 5813$
1362239	=	$467 \cdot 2917$
2230271	==	$463\cdot 4817$
14939999	=	$1279\cdot 11681$
19 720 007	=	$457\cdot 43151$
32 509 439	=	$1783 \cdot 18233$
45 581 759	=	$827\cdot 55117$
45 841 247	=	$607\cdot 75521$

49 436 927	=	$2843 \cdot 17389$
78 436 511	=	$2503\cdot31337$
82842911	=	$2903\cdot28537$
101 014 631	=	$2473\cdot40847$
166 828 031	=	$4363\cdot38237$
225 622 151	=	$4217 \cdot 53503$
225 757 799	=	$2801\cdot80599$
250 999 559	=	$6553\cdot38303$
377 129 087	=	$6959\cdot 54193$
554 998 751	=	$3727 \cdot 148913$
619 606 439	=	$6977 \cdot 88807$
846 765 431	=	7853 ·107827

odd distinct primes. Let n=pq be such a solution of $\sigma_2(n)=\sigma_2(n+2)$, but which also satisfies $(\ell,n)=(\ell,n+2)=1$. Clearly such a solution exists. We claim that $m=\frac{\ell}{2}n=\frac{\ell}{2}pq$ is a solution of $\sigma_2(m)=\sigma_2(m+\ell)$. This follows immediately from

$$\sigma_2(m) = \sigma_2\left(\frac{\ell}{2}pq\right) = \sigma_2\left(\frac{\ell}{2}\right)\sigma_2(pq) = \sigma_2\left(\frac{\ell}{2}\right)\sigma_2(pq+2) =$$

$$= \sigma_2\left(\frac{\ell}{2}pq+\ell\right) = \sigma_2(m+\ell).$$

This shows in particular that $\sigma_2(n) = \sigma_2(n+\ell)$, with ℓ even, has an infinite number of solutions if $\sigma_2(n) = \sigma_2(n+2)$ has an infinite number of solutions.

This shows in particular that if $\sigma_2(n) = \sigma_2(n+2)$ has an infinite number of solutions, then so does $\sigma_2(n) = \sigma_2(n+\ell)$ for each even integer $\ell \geq 4$.

References

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J.-M. De Koninck

Département de mathématiques et de statistique Université Laval Québec G1K 7P4, Canada jmdk@mat.ulaval.ca