Hypothesis of Schinzel and Sierpiński and Cyclotomic Fields with Isomorphic Galois Groups

By

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Abstract

In 1922 R. D. Carmichael conjectured that for any natural number $n$ there exist infinitely many natural numbers $m \neq n$ such that $\varphi(n) = \varphi(m)$. It is known that this conjecture can be proved under the assumption of the famous unproved hypothesis of Schinzel and Sierpiński. In this short note, we shall show the Hypothesis of Schinzel and Sierpiński implies more precisely that the existence of infinitely many cyclotomic fields $\mathbb{Q}($ $\zeta_n)$ and $\mathbb{Q}($ $\zeta_m)$ with isomorphic absolute Galois groups. Here $\zeta_n$ and $\zeta_m$ are primitive $n$th and $m$th roots of unity with $m \neq n$.

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Introduction

The following conjecture of Carmichael on the values of Euler’s function $\varphi$ is well known:

(C) For any natural number $n$, there exists a natural number $m \neq n$, such that $\varphi(n) = \varphi(m)$.

It is known that this conjecture can be proved under the assumption of the following unproved hypothesis of Schinzel and Sierpiński:

(S) Let $f_1(x), \ldots, f_s(x)$ be irreducible polynomials, with integral coefficients and
positive leading coefficients. Assure that $f_1(x), \ldots, f_s(x)$ satisfy the following condition:

$\ast$ There does not exist any integer $d > 1$ dividing all the products $f_1(k) \cdots f_s(k)$, for every integer $k$.

Then there exist infinitely many natural numbers $l$ such that all numbers $f_1(l), \ldots, f_s(l)$ are primes.

In the following, we call this unproved hypothesis of Schinzel-Sierpiński by (S) and we shall investigate a problem closely related to the above Carmichael's conjecture (C). Let $n$ be an integer greater than 2 and $\zeta_n$ be a positive $n$th root of unity. We denote the $n$th cyclotomic field $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)$ by $K_n$ and the Galois group of $K_n/Q$ by $G(n)$. Then $G(n)$ is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z}/n \mathbb{Z})^\times$, the multiplicative group of residue classes $(\bmod n)$, prime to $n$. In this paper, we shall consider several conditions for $m$ and $n$ such that $G(n) \cong G(m)$ but $K_n \neq K_m$. Since the order of the Galois group $G(n)$ equals to $\varphi(n)$, one can easily see this problem is closely related to Carmichael's conjecture (C) and a precise version of (C).

1 Main Theorem

Note that, for any odd $n$, the fields $K_n$ and $K_{2n}$ coincide, whence it suffices to deal in the sequel with the cases $n \not\equiv 2 \pmod 4$. Hence $n \neq m$ implies $K_n \neq K_m$ for these cases and our problem is nothing but to find $n > m$ such that $G(n) \cong G(m)$.

First we consider the case when $G(n)$ is cyclic, that is, $n = 4$ or $p^r$, where $p$ is an odd prime and $r \geq 1$. Then we have

**Lemma 1.** With the above notation, the following conditions are equivalent.

i) $n > m$ and $G(n)$ and $G(m)$ are cyclic groups of the same order.

ii) $\{n, m\} = \{4, 3\}$ or $\{p^r, p^r - p^r - 1 + 1\}$, where $p$ and $p^r - p^r - 1 + 1$ are odd primes ($r \geq 2$).

Proof. Since it is obvious that (ii) implies (i), it suffices to show that (i) implies (ii). If $n = 4$, then $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^\times \cong (\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})^\times$ for every integer $m$. If $n = p^r$ and $m = q^s$, where $q$ is also an odd prime, then $G(n) \cong G(m)$ implies $p^r - 1 (p - 1) = q^s - 1 (q - 1)$.

In the case $r = s = 1$ or $r \geq 2$ and $s \geq 2$, we have $p = q$ and $r = s$, that is, $n = m$. Hence $r = 1$, $s \geq 2$ or $r \geq 2$, $s = 1$. From the assumption $n > m$, one sees $r \geq 2$ and $s = 1$, that is, $n = p^r$ and $m = q = p^r - p^r - 1 + 1 (r \geq 2)$, which completes the proof.

Let $g_r(x)$ ($r \geq 2$) be the polynomial $x^r - x^{k-1} + 1$. Modifying Selmar's result (c.f. exm.1.22 in [2]), one can easily show the following lemma.

**Lemma 2.** When $r \not\equiv 2 \pmod 6$, $g_r(x)$ is irreducible. When $r \equiv 2 \pmod 6$, $(x^2 - x + 1) | g_r(x)$ and the quotient $g_r(x)/(x^2 - x + 1)$ is irreducible.

Proof. Let $h(x) = x^r + c_1 x^{r-1} + \cdots + c_r = (x - \alpha_1) \cdots (x - \alpha_r)$ be the polynomial such that $h(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ and $c_r \neq 0$, with the roots $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r \in \mathbb{C}$. We put $S(h) = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \alpha_i -$
$\alpha_i^{-1}$. Then one sees $S(h) \in \mathbb{Q}$ and, for the case $c_r = \pm 1$, one sees $S(h) \in \mathbb{Z}$. When $h(x) = h_1(x)h_2(x)$, with monic polynomials $h_i(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ and $\deg h_i \geq 1$, it is obvious that $S(h) = S(h_1) + S(h_2)$. In the case $g_r(x)$ with $r \equiv 2 \pmod{6}$, one sees $S(g_r) = -1$. Using the fact that $|\alpha_i| \not\equiv 1$ for $1 \leq i \leq r$, one sees $S(h) \leq -1$ for any factor $h(x)g_r(x)$, where $h(x)$ is a monic polynomial in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. Hence for the case $g_r(x) = p(x)q(x)$, with monic polynomials $p(x), q(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, one sees $S(g_r) = S(p) + S(q) \leq -2$, which contradicts the fact $S(g_r) = -1$. Therefore $g_r(x)$ is irreducible for the case $r \equiv 2 \pmod{6}$. In the case $r \equiv 2 \pmod{6}$, we can show the desired results in the same way as above.

Combining these lemmas, we have the following theorem.

**Theorem 1.** Under the assumption of Schinzel-Sierpiński hypothesis, there exist infinitely many pairs of cyclic cyclotomic fields $K_n \not\sim K_m$ such that $G(n) \cong G(m)$.

**Proof.** From Theorem 1, there exist isomorphic cyclic Galois groups $G_p, q$. Put $f_n$ such that $f_n = 1$ and Lemma 2, $f_1(x)$ and $f_2(x)$ satisfy the condition $(*)$ of (S).

Hence, from Schinzel-Sierpiński hypothesis, there are infinitely many pairs of odd primes $p, q$ such that $q = f_2(p) = p^r - p^{r-1} + 1$. Putting $n = p^r$ and $m = q = p^r - p^{r-1} + 1$, one can take infinitely many pairs of cyclotomic fields $K_n \not\sim K_m$ with isomorphic cyclic Galois groups $G(n) \cong G(m)$. Under the same assumption, one can get the following more general result:

**Theorem 2.** Let $t$ be any integer greater than 2. Then, under the assumption of Schinzel-Sierpiński hypothesis, there exist infinitely many different cyclotomic fields $K_{n_1}, \ldots, K_{n_t}$ such that $G(n_1) \cong G(n_2) \cong \cdots \cong G(n_t)$.

**Proof.** From Theorem 1, there exist $n_{01}, n_{11}$ such that $(n_{01}, n_{11}) = 1$ and $G(n_{01})$ and $G(n_{11})$ are isomorphic cyclic groups. Let $a$ be a minimal integer such that $t \leq 2^a$. Then, inductively one gets the two sets of integers $\{n_{01}, n_{02}, \ldots, n_{0a}\}$ and $\{n_{11}, n_{12}, \ldots, n_{1a}\}$ which satisfy the following conditions,

$(n_{ij}, n_{kl}) = 1$ for $(i, j) \not= (k, l)$ and $G(n_{0j}) \cong G(n_{1j})$ $(1 \leq j \leq a)$.

For any $v = (n_{01}, \ldots, n_{0a}) \in (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^a$, we put $N(v) = n_{01} \times n_{02} \times \cdots \times n_{0a}$. We denote $n_{01} \times n_{02} \times \cdots \times n_{0a}$ by $N_0$. Then for any $v \not= v' \in (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^a$, we have $K_{N(v)} \not\sim K_{N(v')}$ and $G(N(v)) \cong G(N(v')) \cong G(N_0)$, which completes the proof.

**Remark 1.** The proofs of above theorems give a method of construction of the cyclotomic fields with isomorphic Galois groups.

For example $n_{01} = 3 = 2^2 - 2 + 1$, $n_{02} = 43 = 7^2 - 7 + 1$, $n_{03} = 101 = 5^3 - 5^2 + 1$ and $n_{11} = 4 = 2^2$, $n_{12} = 49 = 7^2$, $n_{13} = 125 = 5^3$ satisfy the conditions in the proof of Theorem 2. Therefore, putting $N_0 = 13029 = 3 \times 43 \times 101$, $N_1 = 14847, N_2 = 16125, N_3 = 17372, N_4 = 18375, N_5 = 19796, N_6 = 21500, N_7 = 24500$, one gets 8 cyclotomic fields $K_{N_i} \not\sim K_{N_j}$ $(0 \leq i \not= j \leq 7)$ with isomorphic Galois groups $G(N_i) \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/42\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/100\mathbb{Z}$. 

2 Several Applications

In this section, we shall consider the integer solutions \((x, y)\) which satisfy the equation
\[(E_a) \quad \varphi(x) = y^a,\]
where \(a\) is a fixed integer greater than 2.

Since \(\varphi(2^{a+1}) = 2^a\), one sees \((x, y) = (2^{a+1}, 2)\) satisfies the equation \((E_a)\). Hence \((E_a)\) has at least one integer solution for any \(a\).

Let \((x, y)\) be a solution of \((E_a)\), then, for any prime divisor \(p\) of \(x\), we have \(\varphi(p^a x) = p^a \varphi(x) = (py)^a\). Hence \((p^a x, py)\) is also a solution of \((E_a)\).

Moreover, let \((x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)\) be the solutions of \((E_a)\) and \((x_1, x_2) = 1\), then \(\varphi(x_1) \varphi(x_2) = \varphi(x_1 \varphi(x_2)) = (y_1y_2)^a\). Hence \((x_1x_2, y_1y_2)\) is a new solution of \((E_a)\). Hence we have shown the following lemma.

**Lemma 3.** The solutions of \((E_a)\) satisfy the following properties.

1. Let \((x, y)\) be a solution of \((E_a)\) and \(p\) is a prime divisor of \(x\), then \((p^a x, py)\) is a solution of \((E_a)\).
2. Let \((x_1, y_1)\) and \((x_2, y_2)\) be solutions of \((E_a)\) and \((x_1, x_2) = 1\), then \((x_1x_2, y_1y_2)\) is a solution of \((E_a)\)

Let \((x_1, y_1)\) and \((x_2, y_2)\) be the solutions of \((E_a)\). By abuse of language, we call two solutions \((x_1, y_1)\) and \((x_2, y_2)\) are coprime when \((x_1, x_2) = 1\). From Lemma 3 (1) and the fact \(\varphi(2^{a+1}) = 2^a\), one sees \((E_a)\) has infinitely many integer solutions \((2^{ab+1}, 2^b)\), where \(b \geq 0\). But, it is not obvious that \((E_a)\) has infinitely many coprime solutions.

First, we consider the case \(a = 2\). Then the equation \((E_2)\) has a solution \((x, y)\) with a prime \(x\), if and only if \(x\) is a prime of the form \(y^2 + 1\). Hence, if one assumes Hardy-Littlewood’s conjecture on the prime values of the irreducible quadratic polynomials, the equation \((E_2)\) has infinitely many coprime integer solutions \((x, y)\) with primes \(x\). Moreover, using Theorem 1, one can also show \((E_2)\) has infinitely many coprime integer solutions as follows.

Let \(p\) and \(q\) are odd primes such that \(q = p^r - p^{r-1} + 1\) \((r \geq 2)\). Put \(x = p^r q\). Then \(\varphi(x) = \varphi(p^r) \varphi(q) = (p-1)^2\). Therefore, under the assumption of Shinzel-Sierpiński hypothesis (S), one can show the equation \((E_2)\) has infinitely many coprime integer solutions with composite number \(x\).

In the same way as \((E_2)\), we have the following theorem.

**Theorem 3.** Under the assumption of Shinzel-Sierpiński hypothesis, the equation \(E_a\) has infinitely many coprime integer solution \((x, y)\) for any \(a \geq 2\).

Proof. Put \(f_1(x) = x, f_2(x) = g_{r_2}(x), \ldots, f_a(x) = g_{r_a}(x)\), where \(r_2, \ldots, r_a\) are natural numbers \(\not\equiv (\text{mod } 6)\) or 2 and \(2 \leq r_2 \leq \cdots \leq r_a\). Let \(b\) be a natural number such that \(b = 1 - r_2 - \cdots - r_a \text{ (mode } a\). We denote the quotient \((b + 1 + r_2 + \cdots + r_a)/a\) by \(c\). From the assumption, there are infinitely many primes \(p\) such that \(q_2 = f_2(p) = p^{r_2} - p^{r_2-1} + 1, \ldots, q_a = f_a(p) = p^{r_a} - p^{r_a-1} + 1\), are also primes. Put \(n = q_2q_3 \cdots q_a\). Then \(\varphi(n) = \varphi(p^{r_2}) \varphi(q_2) \cdots \varphi(q_a) = p^{r_2-1}(p-1) \times p^{r_3-1}(p-1) \times \cdots \times p^{r_a-1}(p-1) = (p-1)^a p^{r_2+r_3+\cdots+r_a-a} = (p-1)(p^{r_2-1})^a\). Hence \((E_a)\) has infinitely many coprime integer solutions.
We note that the proof of the above theorem gives a method of constructing the coprime solutions for $(E_a)$. To make a long story short, we consider the numerical examples for the case $r = 3$.

Examples. In the case $p = 3$, one sees $g_3(3) = 7$, $g_3(3) = 19$ and $g_5(3) = 163$ are primes. Putting $N_0 = 3 \cdot 7 \cdot 19$ and $N_1 = 3 \cdot 19 \cdot 163$, we have $\varphi(N_0) = 6^3$ and $\varphi(N_1) = 18^3$.

In the case $p = 5$, one sees $g_3(5) = 101$ and $g_7(5) = 62501$ are primes. Putting $N_2 = 5^2 \cdot 101 \cdot 62501$, we have $\varphi(N_2) = 500^3$.

In the case $p = 7$, one sees $g_2(7) = 43$ and $g_5(7) = 14407$ are primes. Putting $N_3 = 7^2 \cdot 43 \cdot 14407$, we have $\varphi(N_3) = 294^3$.

In the case $p = 11$, one sees $g_{11}(11) = 259374246011$ and $g_{25}(11)$

= 98497326758076110947118411 are primes. Putting $N_4 = 11^3 \cdot g_{11}(11) \cdot g_{25}(11)$, we have $\varphi(N_4) = (11^{12} \cdot 10)^3$.

In the case $p = 13$, one sees $g_2(13) = 157$ and $g_3(13) = 2029$ are primes. Putting $N_5 = 13 \cdot 157 \cdot 2029$, we have $\varphi(N_5) = 156^3$.

Thus we have obtained coprime solutions $(N_1, 18), \ldots, (N_5, 156)$ for $(E_3)$.

In the same way as above, one might get other coprime solutions for each $(E_a)$.

References


The Galois group and Frobenius elements

Every automorphism of $\mu_n$ is given as power map $\zeta^s$ for some $s$, and therefore—in view of that we just showed the Galois group $\text{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta^n)/\mathbb{Q})$ being equal to $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$—every element of $\text{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta^n)/\mathbb{Q})$ acts on the roots of unity $\zeta^s$. This Galois element we shall denote by $s$, that is, $s$ is given by the expression. Isomorphic with a subgroup of the group of units $\mathbb{F}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{\times}$, and its order divides that of $\mathbb{F}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{\times}$, in other words $n|p^f - 1$, or $p^f \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. This lemma shows that if $h$ is the order of $p$ modulo $n$, then $h|f$. On the other hand, we checked above that $f|h$, and hence $f = h$. We have. This makes Galois groups into relatively concrete objects and is particularly eective when the Galois group turns out to be a symmetric or alternating group.

2. Automorphisms of fields as permutations of roots.

The Galois group of a polynomial $f(T) \in K[T]$ over $K$ is dened to be the Galois group of a splitting eld for $f(T)$ over $K$. We do not require $f(T)$ to be irreducible in $K[T]$. Example 2.1. Galois groups for infinite extensions are profinite groups.

The subject in which symmetry groups of differential equations are studied along the lines traditional in Galois theory. This is actually an old idea, and one of the motivations when Sophus Lie founded the theory of Lie groups. It has not, probably, reached deinside form. Grothendieck’s Galois theory.