Very recently two old problems on consecutive integers were settled. Catalan conjectured that 8 and 9 are the only consecutive powers. Pirst of all observe that four consecutive integers cannot all be powers since one of them is congruent to 2 modulo 4 . It is considerably more difficult to prove that three consecutive integers can not all be powers; this was accomplished about twenty years ago by Cassels and Makowski. Finally in 1974 using some deep results of Baker, Tijdeman proved that there is an $n_{0}$, whose value can be given explicitly, such that for $n=n_{0}$ $n$ and $n+1$ are not both powers. This settles Catalan's conjecture nearly completely, and there is little doubt that it will be settled in full soon. It has been conjectured that if $x_{1}<x_{2}<x_{3}, \ldots$ is a sequence of consecutive powers, $x_{1}=1, x_{2}=4, \ldots$ then $x_{1+1}-x_{1} \geqslant i^{c}$ for all $i$ and some absolute constant $c$.At the moment this seems intractable. (The paper of Tijdeman will appear in Acta Arithmetica.)

It was conjectured more than a century ago that the product of consecutive integers is never a power. Almost 40 years ago, Rigge and I proved that the product of consecutive integers is never a square, and recently Selfridge and I proved the general conjecture. In fact, our result is, that for every $k$ and 1 there is a prime $p \geq k$ so that if

$$
p^{\alpha_{k, 1}} \| \pi_{1}^{k}(n+1)
$$

then

$$
a_{k, 1} \neq \bmod .(1) .
$$

We conjecture that in fact for all $k>2$ there is a
prime $p \geq k$ with $a_{k, 1}=1$, but this is also intractable at the moment.

It often happens in number theory that every new result suggests many new questions - which is a good thing as it ensures that the supply of Mathemation in inexhaustible! I would now turn to discuss a few more problems and results on consecutive integers and in particular a simple conjecture of mine which is more than 25 years old,

Put

$$
\begin{aligned}
& m=a_{k}(m) b_{k}(m), \\
& a_{k}(m)=\pi p^{a_{p}}
\end{aligned}
$$

where the product extends over all the primes $p \geq k$ and $p^{\alpha}| | m$. Further define

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(n ; k, 1)=\min \left\{a_{k}(n+1) \mid 1 \leq 1 \leq 1\right\} \\
& F(k, 1)=\max \{f(n ; k, 1) \mid 1 \leq n \leq m) .
\end{aligned}
$$

I conjectured that
1)

$$
\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} P(k, k) / k=0
$$

In other words, is it true that for every \& there is a $k_{\varepsilon}$ nuch that for every $k_{i} k_{c}$ at least one of the integers $2_{1}(n+i), i=1, \ldots, 1$, is less than $k_{k}$, 1 am unable to prove this but will outline the proof of
2)

$$
P(k, k)<(1+\varepsilon) k \text { for } k \geqslant k_{0}(e) \text {. }
$$

To prove (2) consider
3)

$$
A(n, k)=\pi_{1}^{k} a_{1}(n+1)
$$

where in (3) the tilde indicates that for every $p \leq k$ we omit one of the integers $n+1$ divisible by a maximal power of $p$. Then the product if $\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{k}}(\mathrm{n}+1)$ han at least $k-\mathrm{k}(\mathrm{k})$ factors and by a simple appilication of the Legendre formula for the factorisation of $k$ ! we obtain
4)

$$
\| a_{k}(n+1) \mid k!.
$$

If (2) did not hold, we have from (4) and Stirling's forman 1
5)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& ((1+c) k)^{k-\pi(k)}<k^{k+1} \exp (-k) \\
& k^{\pi(k)+1}>\exp (k)(1+e)^{k-\pi(k)}
\end{aligned}
$$

or
Now, by the prime number theorem,

$$
\pi(k) \leqslant \frac{(1+c / 10) k}{\log k}
$$

and so from (5),

$$
\begin{aligned}
& k+\left((1+\varepsilon / 10) \frac{k}{10 g k}+1\right)> \\
& >\exp (k) \cdot(1+\varepsilon)+\left(k-\frac{2 k}{100 k}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

which is false if $k$ is large enough, and this contradiction proves (2).

Assume for the moment that (1) has been proved. Then one ean immediately ank for the true order of magnitude of $F(k, k)$. I expect that it is $o\left(k^{\varepsilon}\right)$ for every $e>0$. On the other hand, I can prove that

$$
P(k, k)>\exp \left[c \cdot \frac{\log (k) \log \log \log (k)}{\log \log (k)}\right)
$$

The problem of estimating $F(k, k)$ and the proof of (6) is connected with the following question on the seive of Eratosthenes-Prim-Selberg ; determine or estimate the sm smallest integer $A(k)$ so that one can find, for every $p$ with $A(k) \leq P \leq k$, a residue $u_{p}$ such that for every integer $t \leq k, t$ satisfies one of the congruences to $u_{p}$ modulo $p$. Clearly $F(k, k) \nmid A(k)$. Using the method of Rankin-Chen and myself I proved
7)

$$
A(k) \geqslant \exp (c \cdot \log (k) \log \log \log (k) / \log (k))
$$

Which implies 6, I do not give the proofs here. It would be interenting and useful to prove $A(k)<k^{*}$ for every $k>0$ and sufficiently large $k$.

Now, I shall say a few words about $\mathrm{F}(\mathrm{k}, 1)$ for $\mathrm{k} \neq 1$.
It follows easily from the Chinese Remainder Theorem that
for $1 \leq \pi(k)$ we have $\gamma(k, 1)=-$, since for a suitable $n$, we can make $n+1,1 \leq 1 \leq \pi(k)$ divisible by an arbitrarily large nower of $p_{1}$. It is easy to see that this no longer holds for $1=\pi(k)+1$ and in fact it is not hard to prove that
where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& F(k, *(k)+1)=\pi p^{a} p \\
& p^{a} p \leq \pi(k)<p^{p+1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

As 1 increases it getn much harder to even estimate $F(k, 1)$. Many more problems can be formaulated which I leave to the reader and only state one which is quite fundamental:

Determine or estimate the least $1=1_{k}$ so that $\mathrm{F}\left(\mathrm{k}, 1_{\mathrm{k}}\right)=1$.
In other words, the least $I_{k}$ so that among $I_{k}$ consecutive integers there is always one relatively prime to the primen less than $k$. This question is of course connected With the problem of estimating the differnce of consecutive primes and also with the following problem of Jacobsthal: Denote by $\mathrm{g}(\mathrm{m})$ the least integer no that any set of $\mathrm{g}(\mathrm{m})$ consecutive integers contains one which is relatively prime to $m$. At the recent meeting on Number Theory in Oberwolfach (Nov, ${ }^{75}$ ) Kanold gave an interesting talk on $g(m)$ and the paper will appear soon. Vaughan observed that the selve of Rosser gives $g(m)<(\log (m))+(2+c)$ for $a 11 \varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ if $m$ is sufficiently large. The true order of magnitude is not known.

It seems to me that interesting and difificult problems remain for $1 \mathbf{I}(\mathbf{k})$ too. Here we have to consider the dependence on $\dot{n}$ too. It is not hard to show that for every c>0 there are infinitley many values of $n$ for which

$$
f(n ; k, 1)>(1-\varepsilon)^{1} / n .
$$

The proof of (8) uses some elentry facts of Diophantine approximation and the Chinese Remainder Theorem. We do not
give the details. I do not know how much (8) can be improved. By a deep theorem of Mahler, using the p-adic Thue-Siegel Theorem, $\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{n} ; \mathrm{k}, 1)>\mathrm{n}+(\varepsilon+1 / 1)$. It is quite possible that 9) $1 \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n ; k, 1)^{1} / n=\infty$.

Interesting problems can also be raised if $k$ tends to infinity with $n$; e.g. how large can $f(n ; k, \pi(k))$ become if $k=(1+o(1)) \log (n)$ ? It seems to be difficult to write a really short note on the subject since new problems occur while one is writing!

It would be of some interest to know how many of the integers $a_{k}(n+1)$ must be different. I expect that more than c.k are. If this is proved one of course must determine the best possible value of $c$.

Denote by $K(1)$ the greatest integer helow 1 composed entirely of primes below $k$. Trivially

$$
\min _{n} \max _{1} a_{k}(n+1)=K(1)
$$

To prove (10) observe that on the one hand any set of 1 consecutive integers contains a multiple of $K(1)$, on the other that if 21 divides $t$, then the integers $t!+1, \ldots, t+1$ elearly satisfy ( 10 ), when $n=0$. More generally, try to characterise the set of $n$ which satisy (10). To simplify matters, let $\mathrm{k}=1$ and denote $\mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{k}}$ as the smallest positive integer with $\max _{1} a_{k}(n+1)=k, S_{k}$ as the class of all integers $n$ such that this is true. If $p^{a} p$ is the greatest power of $p$ not exceeding $k$ then

$$
\prod_{p \leq k} p^{\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{p}}+1} \& \quad S_{k} .
$$

Perhaps I am overlooking an obvious explicit construction for $n_{k}$ but at the moment I do not even have good upper or lower bounds for it. When is $k$ ! in $S_{k}$, The smallest such $k$ is 8 and $I$ do not know if there are infinitely many such $k$ 's. By Wilson's theorem, $p!$ is never in $S_{p}$.

To complete this note, I state three more extremal problems in number theory. Put

$$
n!=\pi a_{i}, a_{1} \leq a_{2} \leq a, \cdots \leq a_{n} .
$$

Determine max $\left\{a_{1}\right\}$, It follows easily from Stirling's formula that $a_{1}$ does not exceed ( $\left.n / e\right)(1-c / \log (n))$. I conjectured that for every $n>0$ and suffciently large $n$, $\max a_{1}$ exceeds $(1-n) n / e$.

Put

$$
n!=\pi b_{1}, 1<b_{1}<b_{2}<\ldots<b_{k} \leqslant n
$$

Determine or estimate min $k$.
Clearly $k$ exceeds $n-n / \log (n)$ and by more complicated methods I can prove

$$
\begin{aligned}
& k=n-(1+o(1)) n / \log (n) \\
& k>n-n(\log (n)+c) /(\log (n))^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $c$ is a positive absolute constant.
Put
11)

$$
n!=\pi u_{1}, u_{1} u_{2}<\ldots<u_{k}
$$

Determine or estimate min $u_{k}-k$ is sot ifxed. It is not hard to prove that $u_{k}$ less than $2 n$ has only a finite number of solutions. I only know of two:

$$
6!=8.9 .10
$$

and

$$
14!=16,21,22,24,25,26,27,28 \text {. }
$$

It would be difficult to deterimne all the solutions, although Vaughan has just found some more -

$$
\begin{aligned}
31 & =6 \\
81 & =12 \cdot 14 \cdot 15 \cdot 16 \\
111 & =15 \cdot 16 \cdot 18 \cdot 20 \cdot 21 \cdot 22 \\
151 & =16 \cdot 18 \cdot 20 \cdot 21,22 \cdot 25 \cdot 26,27 \cdot 28
\end{aligned}
$$

and this is all up to 15. Vaughan also tells me

$$
401=42,44,45,48,49,50,51,52,54,55,56,57 .
$$

$$
.58 .59,60,62.63,64,65,66,68,69,72.74,80
$$

