

SUPER SIX PROBLEMS ON PRIMES*

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, we discuss some investigations on primes by proofs. We can see many problems and observations during the classroom teaching. With my outmost interest, whatever observations/note took place in my regular reading/teaching, few of them answered by proofs with good analysis.

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MSC: 11A15, 11T30, 11A51

1 Introduction

Euclid, an ancient Greek philosopher, proved that the number of prime numbers is infinite. Another ancient Greek, Eratosthenes, described a mathematical "sieve" to filter out composite numbers that are the products of the first primes found. These two Greeks allow us to say, without being too rigorous, that the number of prime numbers must be a "countable" infinity. Future articles in this series may include specific types of prime numbers, and ways in which prime numbers are used. Leonhard Euler is a modern mathematician who contributed to the study of prime numbers. One use for prime numbers familiar to many in the fields of cryptography and of computer security is to multiply a pair of large prime numbers for data encryption. Because it is difficult to determine factors of a large number, this is a fairly secure way of encrypting computer data. Whether faster algorithms or "quantum computing" will ever make this approach obsolete are questions that remain unsolved. In this

paper, few of my observations on primes with proofs are given.

2 FIRST TWO OF THEM

- (1) **Prove that the equation $1 + x + x^2 = py$ has integer solutions for infinitely many primes p .**
- (2) **Twin primes are those differ by 2. Show that 5 is the only prime belonging to two such pairs. Show also that there is a one-to-one correspondence between twin primes and positive integers n such that $d(n^2 - 1) = 4$ whereas above $d(k)$ stands for the number of divisors of k .**

Proof of (1): The proof is a modification of the "Euclid" proof [1] that there are infinitely many primes. Let $p_1 = 3$ and by Putting $x = 1$ and $y = 1$, we see that $1 + x + x^2 = py$ has a solution. Now suppose that we have found n

primes p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n such that $1 + x + x^2 = py$ has a solution for any i from 1 to n . We exhibit a new prime p_{n+1} such that $1 + x + x^2 = py$ has a solution. Consider the number $1 + (p_1 \cdot p_2 \dots p_n) + (p_1 \cdot p_2 \dots p_n)^2$. This is an integer > 1 , so has a prime divisor p_{n+1} . For any such p_{n+1} must be distinct from p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n . This is because if $p_{n+1} = p_i$, where $1 \leq i \leq n$, then p_i divides $(p_1 \cdot p_2 \dots p_n) + (p_1 \cdot p_2 \dots p_n)^2 \Rightarrow$ cannot divide $1 + (p_1 \cdot p_2 \dots p_n) + (p_1 \cdot p_2 \dots p_n)^2$. Therefore, we have found a new prime p_{n+1} such that $1 + x + x^2 = p_{n+1}y$ has a solution.

Proof of (2): The number 5 belongs to the pairs (3, 5) and (5, 7). It is clear that 2 do not belong to any pair, and 3 belong to only 1 pair. We show that any prime $p \geq 7$ cannot belong to more than one pair. Suppose to the contrary that p does. Then $p - 2$, p , and $p + 2$ are prime. Note that if x is any integer, then one of $x - 2$, x , or $x + 2$ is divisible by 3. A number divisible by 3 and greater than 3 never be a prime.

For the second part of the question, we ask when $d(n^2 - 1) = 4$. If n is even, then $n - 1$ and $n + 1$ are relatively prime, so $d((n - 1)(n + 1)) = d(n - 1)d(n + 1)$. But 1 is the only k such that $d(k) = 1$. So we must have $d(n - 1) = d(n + 1) = 2$. That forces the pair $(n - 1, n + 1)$ to be a pair of twin primes.

Now examine the cases n odd. Then $(n - 1)(n + 1)$ is divisible by 8, so has the divisors 1, 2, 4 and 8.

Since $d(n^2 - 1) = 4$, it can have no others. Thus $(n^2 - 1) = 8$, giving $n = 3$. So the set A of numbers $n - 1$ such that $d(n^2 - 1) = 4$ consist of 2 plus the smaller primes in a twin prime pair [2]. This set can be easily put in one to one correspondence with the set B of smaller primes in twin prime pairs. Just list the two sets as a_1, a_2, \dots and b_1, b_2, \dots and map a_i to b_i . But the one-to-one correspondence bit has absolutely **nothing** to do with twin primes. For **any** two infinite sets of natural numbers can be put in one to one correspondence.

3 NEXT TWO OF THEM

- (3) Can we represent any prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ in terms of $(a + b)^2 - ab$ with $a > b > 0$?
- (4) Can we represent any prime $p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{5}$ in terms of $(a + b)^2 + ab$ with $a > b > 0$?

Proof of (3): If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, then -3 is the quadratic residue [4] modulo p . That means, there is exist some integer x such that $p \mid (x^2 + 3)$. Now we move to O_{-3} , the ring of integers [3] in the number field $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-3})$, and we write $p \mid (x - \sqrt{-3})(x + \sqrt{-3})$. Clearly p does not divided either one of $(x \pm \sqrt{-3})$, since $\left(\frac{x \pm \sqrt{-3}}{p}\right)$ are not in O_{-3} . But it is known that O_{-3} is a unique factorization domain, implying that if an irreducible divides a product it must divide one of the factors. We deduce that p is not an irreducible in O_{-3} . Let

$\pi = a + b \frac{1 + \sqrt{-3}}{2}$ be a nontrivial factor of p in O_{-3} .

Then the norm of π is a positive nontrivial factor of the norm of p , which is p^2 , so the norm of π is p .

But the norm of π is $(a + b)^2 - ab$.

Proof of (4): If $p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{5}$, then 5 is a quadratic residue modulo p , then $p \mid (x^2 - 5)$ for some x . Now for O_5 , $p \mid (x - \sqrt{5})(x + \sqrt{5})$. As like our previous solution, p divides either one of $x \pm \sqrt{5}$. Since O_5 is known to be UFD [6], so, p is again not irreducible in O_5 . Let

$\pi = a + b \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$ be a non-trivial factor of p in O_5 . Now

by taking norms, we can see that $p = a^2 + ab - b^2$. By simple substitution, we get $(a + b)^2 + ab$.

4 LAST TWO OF THEM

(5) If $(6n - 1, 6n + 1)$ are said to be twin primes except $(3, 5)$, then the following congruence is true: $4(6n - 2)! \equiv -3(1 + 2n) \pmod{36n^2 - 1}$.

(6) For a positive odd integer p and for any two distinct odd primes p_1 and p_2 with $p_1 + p_2 - p = 1$, then $(p - p_1)!(p - p_2)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p} \Leftrightarrow p$ is prime.

Proof of (5): As we know that, Wilson's Theorem [5] $(p - 1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p} \Leftrightarrow p$ is prime. If we assume $6n - 1$ and $6n - 2$ are primes $\Rightarrow (6n - 2)! \equiv -1 \pmod{(6n - 1)}$, and $(6n)! \equiv -1 \pmod{(6n + 1)}$.

similarly, the second congruence can be expressed as $(6n - 2)! \equiv -1(-1)^{-1}(-2)^{-1} = -2^{-1} \pmod{(6n + 1)}$.

Now, by multiplying both the congruencies by 4 yields: $4(6n - 2)! \equiv -4 \pmod{(6n - 1)}$
 $4(6n - 2)! \equiv -2 \pmod{(6n + 1)}$

Now, by checking we realize that, these are indeed the residues of $-3(1 + 2n)$.

Note: If we write twin prime pairs $(p, p + 2)$ in (5), we see $4(p - 1)! \equiv -4 - p \pmod{(p^2 + 2p)}$.

Proof of (6): As we know that, $n! \equiv (-1)^n (p - 1)(p - 2) \dots (p - n) \equiv \frac{(-1)^n (p - 1)!}{(p - n - 1)!} \pmod{p}$.

$$\Rightarrow n!(p - n - 1)! \equiv (p - 1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$$

For n is even and by Wilson's Theorem [5] p is obviously prime. Consider $n = p - p_1$ (even) and note that $p_1 - 1 = p - p_2$ to get one way. In another way, note that, if p is not prime, then it is divisible by some prime $q \leq (p - 1)/2$. Of course, we cannot hold both $q > p - p_1$ and $q > p - p_2$ (since $p_1 + p_2 - p = 1$ would contradict $q \leq (p - 1)/2$) $\Rightarrow q$ must divide at least one of $(p - p_1)!$ and $(p - p_2)!$, when their product different from $-1 \pmod{p}$.

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