

On the Infinitude of Primes of Certain Types

Abstract

Prime numbers and their patterns are a very important topic historically as well as in current times with applications to fields such as cryptography. In this paper, we give different proofs than those available in the literature of infinitude of primes of the type $4k+3$, $6k+5$, and $4k+1$. These are all special cases of the Dirichlet prime number theorem. We have used the technique of Saidak as well as divisibility properties, to give a constructive proof to prove infinitude of the primes of the form $4k+3$ and $6k+5$. The infinitude of primes of the type $3k+2$ is a corollary. In literature, these cases are proved by method of contradiction.

To prove that there are infinitely many primes of the type $4k+1$, we show that every prime factor of a Fermat number $F_n (n \geq 1)$ is of the form $4k+1$ using a classical result on quadratic residues. Also any two Fermat numbers are coprime. Combining these two results has enabled us to prove that there are infinitely many primes of the type $4k+1$.

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1 Introduction

Prime numbers are one of the most important concepts in elementary number theory. Prime numbers can be considered as building blocks of integers. This is formally

known as the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic. It says that every integer greater than 1 can, except for the order of factors, be represented as a product of primes in one and only one way. So the study of primes is essential. An obvious question is whether the number of primes is finite. The answer is negative. Several proofs of the infinitude of primes can be found in the literature. The subject is of great historical importance. It is relevant in modern times as properties of primes are greatly used in encryption algorithms. The properties of primes have been studied extensively in [4], [5]. The properties of whether there are infinitely many composite numbers of a certain type have been studied in [11].

More than 2000 years ago, Euclid proved that there were infinitely many primes by using the method of contradiction (See Chapter 1 of [12]). In 1737, Euler proved the same by showing that the sum of reciprocals of primes diverges (See Chapter 1 of [12]). In 1938, Paul Erdos gave an alternative proof of the same (See Chapter 1 of [12]). There are many beautiful proofs of this classical theorem [3]. There is also a topological proof of the same by Furstenberg proved in 1955 [13]. A group theoretical proof involving Fermat's little theorem and Lagrange's theorem for finite groups to prove the infinitude of primes exists (See Chapter 1 of [12]). One can also prove the infinitude of primes by constructing any infinite set of natural numbers such that any two numbers of the set are coprime. There is an elegant proof attributed to Goldbach (See Chapter 1 of [12]) on these lines. For a few other proofs, you may refer to [2], [7]. We see that the techniques used in each of the proofs are very different from one another. They involve creativity, imagination, mathematical rigour, and diverse thinking. One is never surprised if a very new proof of the infinitude of primes gets proved.

There are several questions that are considered regarding the distribution of primes. The Twin prime conjecture, which asserts there are infinitely many pairs of prime numbers that differ by exactly two, such as (3, 5), (11, 13), is one of them. Another one is the Goldbach conjecture, which states that every even integer greater than 2 is the sum of two prime numbers. Both these are long standing open problems. While studying patterns in primes, several different types of primes and their patterns have been studied. A few interesting ones are Fermat's primes, Fibonacci primes, Sophie Germaine primes, and Mersenne primes.

The question about prime numbers of a certain form is also very interesting. One of the most important results in this area is Dirichlet prime number theorem. (See Chapter 16 of [10]). The proof of this theorem is highly non-trivial. A few cases of the theorem have been proved using elementary number theory (See chapter 1 of [8]).

In this paper, using the idea from a proof of the infinitude of primes given by

Saidak in 2006 [6], we give different proofs of a few cases of Dirichlet prime number theorem. [1], (See chapter 1 of [8]), (See Chapter 16 of [10]). In particular, we give different proofs than those available in the literature to show that there are infinitely many primes of the form $4k + 3$ and $6k + 5$. We also give a new proof to prove the infinitude of primes of the form $4k + 1$. This proof is a combination of ideas from Goldbach's proof of the infinitude of primes (See Chapter 1 of [12]) and another result in number theory (Theorem 2.11 from [8]).

2 Special cases of Dirichlet prime number theorem

In this section, we use the technique in the proof by Saidak to prove that there are infinitely many primes of the type $4k + 3, 6k + 5$ where k is an integer ≥ 0 . For the sake of completeness, let us begin by defining a prime number.

Definition 1 *An integer $p > 1$ is called a prime number, or a prime, in case there is no divisor d of p satisfying $1 < d < p$. If an integer $a > 1$ is not a prime, it is called a composite number.*

Thus, 2, 3, 5, and 7 are primes, but 4, 6, and 9 are composite. 1 is considered neither a prime nor a composite.

We now state the Dirichlet prime number theorem.

Theorem 2 *Dirichlet prime number theorem states that for any two positive coprime integers a and d , there are infinitely many primes of the form $a + kd$, where k is also a positive integer (See Chapter 16 of [10]).*

We now consider special cases of this theorem with $d = 4, a = 3; d = 4, a = 1; d = 3, a = 2; d = 6, a = 5$.

It follows from Dirichlet prime number theorem that there are infinitely many primes of the form $4k + 3, 4k + 1, 3k + 2, 6k + 5$, where k is an integer ≥ 0 . For more elementary proofs that the primes of the type $4k + 3, 4k + 1, 3k + 2, 6k + 5$ are infinite, one may refer to (See Chapter 3 of [9]). These proofs, that are available in the literature, use the method of contradiction.

In this section, we have used the idea of an elegant proof by Saidak [6] to give new proofs of infinitude of primes of the type $4k + 3$ and $6k + 5$.

We begin our proof by proving the following lemma.

Lemma 3 *Let n be a positive integer of the form $4k + 3$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}, k \geq 0$. Then n has at least one prime factor of the form $4k + 3$.*

Proof:

If all the prime factors of n are of the form $4l + 1$, then the product of all such primes will be of the form $4l + 1$. Thus n will be of the form $4l + 1$. This is a contradiction. Thus n has at least one prime factor of the form $4k + 3$ (See the lemma preceding Theorem 3.6 of [9]). We now prove the main theorem.

Theorem 4 *There are infinitely many primes of the form $4k + 3$.*

Proof: Let n be any number of the form $4k + 3$. By lemma 3, n has at least one prime factor of the form $4k + 3$. Consider the numbers $n, n + 4, n + 8$.

All the three numbers $n, n + 4, n + 8$ are of the form $4k + 3$ and by lemma 3 each of them has at least one prime factor of the form $4k + 3$. Note that $(n, n + 4) = (4k + 3, 4k + 7) = (4k + 3, 4) = 1$. Similarly, $(n, n + 8) = (4k + 3, 4k + 11) = (4k + 3, 8) = 1$. Also $(n + 4, n + 8) = (4k + 7, 4k + 11) = (4k + 7, 4) = 1$.

All numbers $n, n + 4, n + 8$ are of the form $4k + 3$, and they have different prime factors. Now $n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, $n + 4 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ and $n + 8 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. Thus $N = n(n + 4)(n + 8) \equiv 3^3 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. Now each of $n, n + 4, n + 8$ is of the form $4k + 3$ and by lemma 3, each has at least one prime divisor of the type $4k + 3$. Also any two of them are coprime. Thus $N = n(n + 4)(n + 8)$ has at least 3 different prime divisors of the form $4k + 3$. Moreover, N is of the form $4k + 3$. Now consider the numbers $N, N + 4, N + 8$. By a similar argument $(N, N + 4) = (N + 4, N + 8) = (N, N + 8) = 1$. So all the divisors (> 1) of $N, N + 4, N + 8$ are different and by lemma 3 each of $N + 4$ and $N + 8$ also has at least one prime factor of the form $4k + 3$. Also N has at least 3 factors of the form $4k + 3$ by construction.

Thus $N_1 = N(N + 4)(N + 8)$ has at least $3 + 1 + 1$ different prime factors of the form $4k + 3$. Similarly, $N_2 = N_1(N_1 + 4)(N_1 + 8)$ has at least 7 different prime factors of the form $4k + 3$.

We can continue this process indefinitely, where we get different primes of the form $4k + 3$ each time.

Thus, there are infinitely many primes of the form $4k + 3$.

On similar lines, we now consider the case of primes of the type $6k + 5$.

Lemma 5 *Let n be a positive integer of the form $6k + 5$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}, k \geq 0$. Then n has at least one prime factor of the form $6k + 5$.*

Proof: Firstly, note that no prime factor of n can be of the form $6k + 3, k \geq 1$ as $6k + 3$ is composite for $k \geq 1$. For $k = 0$, we get a prime 3. But 3 does not divide $6k + 5$ for any integer $k \geq 0$ as $6k + 5 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$. If all the prime factors of n are of the form $6k + 1$, then the product of all such primes will be of the form $6l + 1$. Thus n will be of the form $6l + 1$. This is a contradiction. Thus n has at least one prime factor of the form $6k + 5$.

Theorem 6 *There are infinitely many primes of the form $6k + 5$.*

Proof: Let n be any number of the form $6k + 5$. By lemma 5, n has at least one prime factor of the form $6k + 5$. Consider the numbers $n, n + 6, n + 12$.

All the three numbers $n, n + 6, n + 12$ are of the form $6k + 5$ and by lemma 5 each of them has at least one prime factor of the form $6k + 5$.

The proof that there are infinitely many primes of the form $6k + 5$ proceeds analogously to Theorem 4 with $n, n + 6, n + 12$ replacing $n, n + 4, n + 8$.

Corollary 7 *There are infinitely many primes of the form $3k + 2$.*

Proof: Infinitude of primes of the form $3k + 2$ follows from Theorem 6 as every prime of the form $6k + 5$ is also of the form $3k + 2$.

This can also be proved considering the numbers $n = 3k + 2, n + 3$, and $n + 6$ and arguing similar to Theorem 4 and Theorem 6.

Now we move on to an application of Fermat numbers to prove that there are infinitely many primes of the type $4k + 1$.

3 An application of Fermat Numbers

In this section, we use the notion of a Fermat number and a lemma in elementary number theory to prove that there are infinitely many primes of the type $4k + 1$. Our proof is essentially a synthesis of a proof by Goldbach of infinitude of primes (via pairwise coprime Fermat numbers) augmented with the classical lemma on quadratic residues. This combination of ideas is not found in the literature. We begin by defining Fermat numbers.

Definition 8 *A Fermat number is a positive integer of the form $F_n = 2^{2^n} + 1$, where n is a non-negative integer.*

The first few Fermat numbers are: 3, 5, 17, 257, 65537, 4294967297

Let us only consider the case F_n where $n \geq 1$.

It has been proved that the distinct Fermat numbers F_n, F_m are coprime. i.e. $(2^{2^n} + 1, 2^{2^m} + 1) = 1$. The infinitude of Fermat numbers, and the fact that any two are coprime prove that there are infinitely many primes. This proof has been attributed to Goldbach (See pg. 3, Chapter 1 of [12]).

This is a very useful technique. If we are able to get any set of infinitely many natural numbers, such that any two of them are coprime, then it will be proved that there are infinitely many primes.

We state below a result in elementary number theory, which shall be used to prove the infinitude of primes of the type $4k + 1$.

Lemma 9 *Let p be a prime. $x^2 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ has a solution in integers if and only if $p = 2$ or $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. See Theorem 2.11 from [8].*

Theorem 10 *There are infinitely many primes of the form $4k + 1$.*

Proof: Consider $F_n = 2^{2^n} + 1$. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $F_n - 1 = 2^{2^n} = (2^{2^{n-1}})^2$, because $2^n = 2 \times 2^{n-1}$ gives $2^{2^n} = 2^{2 \times 2^{n-1}} = (2^{2^{n-1}})^2$.

Thus $F_n - 1$ is a perfect square. Moreover for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, F_n is of the form $4k + 1$.

Let p be a prime dividing F_n . Note that $p = 2$ is not possible as F_n is odd. Also $(2^{2^{n-1}})^2 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Using lemma 9, we get $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

For $n \geq 1$, Fermat numbers are of the form $4k + 1$ and there are infinitely many of them. We have also proved that for $n \geq 1$, any prime dividing F_n is of the form $4k + 1$. It is also known that any two distinct Fermat numbers are coprime (Chapter 1 of [12]). We thus get that there are infinitely many primes of the form $4k + 1$.

4 Conclusion

In this paper, we have given proofs different from those available in the literature of the infinitude of primes of the form $4k + 3, 6k + 5, 4k + 1$. Since the proof of infinitude of primes of the type $4k + 3, 6k + 5$ depends on lemma 3 and 5 respectively, it is not always possible to get similar proofs for other cases of Dirichlet prime number

theorem. For example if we try to show that there are infinitely many primes of the form $8k + 3$ we cannot obtain a lemma similar to lemma 3 or lemma 5. In this case, as both 7 and 5 are not of the type $8k + 3$ but 35 is of the type $8k + 3$.

One can try to get different proofs of the fact that there exist infinitely many primes $\equiv 3 \pmod{8}$ or $\equiv 5 \pmod{8}$ or $\equiv 7 \pmod{8}$ or $\equiv 9 \pmod{10}$ or some other cases of this type.

We also pose the following problem: Show that there are infinitely many primes not of the type $ak + b$ where $(a, b) = 1$ and $a, b, k \in \mathbb{N}$.

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