

12 JANUARY 2012

## MODULAR ARITHMETIC & PRIME NUMBERS

A note on history: ~~the~~ when math makes headline on the NYT.

→ Andrew Wiles and Richard Taylor solves Fermat's Last Theorem.

• Fermat's Last Theorem:

$$a^n + b^n = c^n \quad a, b, c \in \mathbb{N}$$

only valid if  $a, b, c = 0$  or  $n = 1, 2$ .

• Proof of the above "theorem" is long and can only be understood by few ppl.

• Last "Theorem"?

⇒ Fermat never provided the proof himself but only mentioned that he had produced a marvelous theorem that was too long to fit on the margin of his book.

⇒ ~~the~~ The case when  $n=3$  and  $n=4$  was proven by Pascal + Euler, respectively.

⇒ ~~the~~ Subsequent mathematician thinks that Fermat probably did not prove the theorem... only an incorrect version assuming unique factorization.

## THE STORY OF PRIMES

Setup: Looking at  $\mathbb{Z}$ , more precisely the structure and behavior of prime numbers

Def Ring is a collection of numbers which allow addition and multiplication w/ the "usual rules" (associativity, commutativity, distributivity)

e.g.  $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{Q}$ , Gaussian Integers  $\overset{\mathbb{Z}}{a+bi}$

non-e.g.  $\mathbb{N}$  (subtraction is not closed... although we ~~do~~ need not insist on division)

Def a number  $p$  is prime if whenever  $p$  divides a product  $p \mid ab$ , then  $p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b$ .

Def a number  $p$  is irreducible if ~~if~~ when  $p=ab$ , then at least  $a$  or  $b$  is a unit (i.e. has an inverse)

Fact: Within the integers, primes and irreducibility are the same.

( I think it may be because integers only has two inverse,  $-1$  and  $1$  )

Consequence: If  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then there is a factorization  
 $n = c \cdot p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_k$  where  $c$  is a unit and  $p_i$  are primes

e.g.

$$6 = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 = (-1) \cdot 2 \cdot -3$$

Moreover, if

$$d \cdot q_1 \cdot \dots \cdot q_l = n = c \cdot p_1 \cdot \dots \cdot p_k$$

where  $c$  and  $d$  are units, and  $p_i$  and  $q_i$  are primes

then,  $k=l$  and, with suitable reordering,  $q_i = \pm p_i$

= unique factorization property

ex, when  $n \notin \mathbb{Z}$ :

$$\mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\sqrt{-5} \in a + b\sqrt{-5} \quad \&$$

$\Rightarrow$  closed under addition

$\Rightarrow$  multiplication:

$$(a + b\sqrt{-5})(a_1 + b_1\sqrt{-5}) = (aa_1 - 5bb_1) + (ab_1 + ba_1)\sqrt{-5}$$

= closed under multiplication.

In this ring, unique factorization property DOES NOT HOLD

if  $n=6$

$$6 = 2 \cdot 3 = (1 + \sqrt{-5})(1 - \sqrt{-5})$$

$$\text{and } 2 \neq 1 + \sqrt{-5}, 1 - \sqrt{-5} \quad \text{and} \quad 3 \neq 1 + \sqrt{-5}, 1 - \sqrt{-5}$$

### INTERESTING FACTS ABOUT PRIMES

Harmonic Series goes as follows

$$\frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} + \dots$$

We note that harmonic series diverges by following argument:

$$\frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} + \dots$$

$$\left( \frac{1}{1} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} \right) + \dots$$

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \dots = \infty$$

$\Rightarrow$  we will have infinite  $\frac{1}{2}$ s in above series

$\Rightarrow$  since the ~~harmonic~~ <sup>harmonic</sup> series is at least as great as the ~~harmonic~~ <sup>above</sup> series, the harmonic series must also diverge.

Thm There are infinite numbers of prime

Proof by Euclid

Suppose we had a finite list of primes,  $p_1, \dots, p_k$ . If we consider  $N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_k + 1$ ,  $N$  will not be divisible by any of those finite number of primes. (e.g. consider a number not divisible by 2 and 3. Simplest method of finding such number is  $2 \cdot 3 + 1 = 7$ )

So  $p_i \nmid p_1 \cdot \dots \cdot p_k + 1$

By unique factorization,  $N = p_i \cdot \dots \cdot p_k + 1$  is a product of primes and a unit.

↳  $N$  is a large number and is not a unit

→ No list on the finite list of primes divides  $N$ . There must exist a prime not captured by the list of primes above.

→ In this manner, we can produce infinite # of primes.

Euler Product

Recall  $\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots$

consider  $\frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{p}}$  where  $p$  is prime. Then, we consider

$$\frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{3}} \cdot \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{5}} \cdot \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{7}} \cdot \dots$$

$$= (1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots) \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{9} + \dots) \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{25} + \dots) \cdot \dots$$

Consider "foil" method, we see that  $1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \cdot \dots = 1$ ,  $1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \cdot \dots = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\frac{1}{3} \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \cdot \dots$

and, eventually

$$= 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \dots = \sum \frac{1}{n}$$

Consequence

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{11} + \frac{1}{15} + \dots \quad \text{diverges}$$

## DENSITY OF PRIMES

Q: How LARGE IS THE  $k^{\text{th}}$  PRIME NUMBER?

Thm Let  $\pi_k$  be the  $k^{\text{th}}$  prime number. We can make a statistic statement:

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi_k}{k \cdot \ln(k)} = 1$$

This is bizarre and remarkable fact about primes, but it tells us ~~nothing~~ on the spaces between primes. It can be that primes are separated by 2 integers or million integers.

We consider twin primes, pair of primes with difference of 2 (e.g. 11, 13).

Q: Are there infinitely many primes?

$\Rightarrow$  It is known that  $\sum_{p \text{ twin}} \frac{1}{p} < \infty$ .

$\Rightarrow$  equivalent statement is that above summation is not very large since it converges?

Consider prime triplets:

$$p \quad p+2 \quad p+4$$

We assert that apart from 3, 5, 7 such form of prime cannot exist.

$\Rightarrow$  if we divide  $p$  by 3, we have 2 cases

(1)  $p$  is prime and thus 3 cannot divide  $p$  without producing a remainder. Suppose the remainder is 1. Then, since we consider a number  $p+2$ , this number must be divisible by 3. So triplet cannot exist.

(2) If the remainder was 2, then  $p+4$  must be divisible by 3. Therefore, triplet cannot exist.

What if we consider ~~primes~~ prime triplets with distance other than 2?

Thm

$$A = (a, a+n, a+2n, a+3n, \dots) \quad a, n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Then, unless  $a|n$  there are infinitely many primes in  $A$

So triplet, quadruplets, ... exists if you consider a large  $n$

ex. 11, 17, 23

equidistance/ $n=6$

Larger the distance, longer the sequence of primes of equidistance

= e.g. 10 sequence of primes may ~~be~~ have  $n=10$  billion.

### OPEN QUESTIONS OF MATH

⇒ Solve and be on the cover of NYT.

Q: Is it possible to write each even integer  $> 2$  as a sum of two primes?

eg.  $4=2+2$     $6=3+3$     $8=3+5$     $20=13+7$

Goldbach Conjecture claims "yes you can".

Q:  $\frac{1}{1^s} + \frac{1}{2^s} + \frac{1}{3^s} + \dots$  (harmonic series, modified) =  $\zeta(s)$  Riemann Zeta Function

$s=1$  ⇒ zeta function diverges (or has a pole)

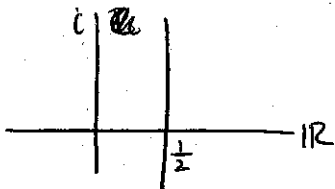
$s=2, 4$ , or any other integer: the value of zeta function shows up in physics

~~Q:~~ Describe all poles of the zeta function:

Generally believed answer.

If you allow  $s$  to be complex, then all (interesting i.e.  $s \neq 1$ )

lies on the line  $\text{Re}(s) = \frac{1}{2}$



||  
Riemann Hypothesis, one of Clay Problems