

## ON SOME CONJECTURES RELATED TO THE GOLDBACH CONJECTURE

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ABSTRACT. In the first part of this note we consider the problem of representing integers as a sum of a square and an almost prime and in the second part we turn to investigate distribution of roots of certain class of reciprocal polynomials. In both cases we will show a connection with the celebrated Goldbach conjecture stating that every even integer  $2n \geq 4$  can be expressed as a sum of two primes.

1. For a positive integer  $r$  let  $P_r$  denote a positive integer having at most  $r$  prime factors distinct or not. Such an integer  $P_r$  is called an almost prime of order  $r$ . Obviously, if  $r = 1$ , then  $P_1$  is a prime number. We consider the problem of representing an integer  $n$  in the form  $n = m^2 + P_r$ , where  $m$  is a nonnegative integer. By the definition of  $P_r$  it follows that if such representation exists for some  $r$ , then it also holds for any  $r' > r$ , hence one should investigate this problem for a smallest possible  $r$ .

If  $r = 1$ , then it is well known that there are infinitely many integers  $n$  which cannot be written in the form  $m^2 + p$ , for example, no integer of the form  $(3k+2)^2$  with  $k \geq 1$  is of this form. Therefore we assume  $r \geq 2$ . Typically, analytic and sieve methods are used to handle problems of this kind and the corresponding results will hold for sufficiently large integers.

*The case  $r = 3$ .* Here we make the following observation:

**Theorem 1.** *Every sufficiently large integer  $n$  can be represented in the form*

$$n = m^2 + P_3.$$

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*Proof.* First we consider the case  $n \neq k^2$ . The above claim follows from the result on the linear weighted sieve [5]:

$$(1) \quad |\{n, 1 \leq n \leq x, F(n) = P_{g+1}\}| \geq \frac{2}{3} \prod_p \frac{1 - \rho(p)/p}{1 - 1/p} \frac{x}{\log x},$$

for  $x \geq x_0 = x_0(F)$  where  $F(n)$  is an irreducible polynomial of degree  $g$  ( $\geq 1$ ) with integer coefficients and  $\rho(p)$  is the number of solutions to the congruence  $F(a) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  with an additional assumption  $\rho(p) < p$  for all  $p$ .

This result applies in our case with  $F(x) = n - x^2$ . It also follows that if  $n$  is not a square then there exists a positive constant  $c$  such that the number of representations is at least  $c(\sqrt{n}/\log n)$ .

If  $n = k^2$  for some integer  $k$ , then our polynomial is reducible and the inequality (1) does not apply. In this case we appeal to the well-known result of Chen [1] stating that every sufficiently large even integer  $2k$  admits representation in the form:

$$(2) \quad 2k = p + P_2.$$

From this it follows that  $P_2 - k = k - p$ , hence  $k - m = p$ , and  $k + m = P_2$  for some integer  $m$ . Multiplying the last two equations we get  $n = k^2 = m^2 + pP_2 = m^2 + P_3$  which proves this case.

*The case  $r = 2$ .* The above argument underlines a connection between representations of integers as a sum of a square and an almost prime and of even integers written as a sum of two almost primes. The most transparent connection holds in the case  $r = 2$  which is expressed as follows:

**Theorem 2.** *If every integer  $n \geq 3$  can be expressed as  $n = m^2 + P_2$  in two different ways, then the Goldbach conjecture holds true.*

*Proof.* Let  $n = k^2$ ,  $k \geq 2$ , and  $p, q, r, s$  be primes, and suppose that  $k^2$  has two different representations in the above form. It is clear that  $k^2 = m_1^2 + p = m_2^2 + q$  cannot happen, since each representation implies  $k - m_1 = k - m_2 = 1$ , hence they are the same representations. If

$k^2 = m_1^2 + p = m_2^2 + sr$ , then  $k - m_1 = 1$ , forcing  $k - m_2 = r$  say, and consequently  $2k = r + s$ . Finally, if  $k^2 = m_1^2 + pq = m_2^2 + rs$ , then either  $k - m_1 = 1$  or  $k - m_2 = 1$  but not both. Therefore, either  $2k = p + q$  or  $2k = r + s$ .  $\square$

Numerical computation supports the following conjecture:

**Conjecture 1.** *Every integer  $n \geq 3$  can be expressed as  $n = m^2 + P_2$  in two different ways.*

This has been verified in the range  $1 \leq n \leq 100,000$ . If  $n \neq k^2$ , then we may apply the result of Iwaniec [2] which mutatis mutandis can be formulated as follows.

**Theorem.** *If  $G(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$  is an irreducible polynomial with  $c$  odd, then*

$$|\{x \leq n; G(x) = P_2\}| > C \frac{x}{\log x}$$

for sufficiently large  $n$  and positive constant  $C$ .

Thus, in our case if  $n$  is odd we take  $G(x) = n - x^2$ , and if  $n$  is even, then we take  $G(x) = 2l - 1 - 4x - 4x^2$ , where  $n = 2l$ . In both cases the assumption  $n \neq k^2$  implies that the polynomials are irreducible.

As we saw above, Conjecture 1 implies the Goldbach conjecture. The assumption that  $n = m^2 + P_2$  in two different ways might be replaced by requiring that  $m < \sqrt{n} - 1$ . If this is the case, then any representation  $k^2 = m^2 + P_2$  is equivalent to  $2k = p + q$ , where  $P_2 = pq$  and with  $m = (q - p)/2$ , ( $q \geq p$ ). Such a requirement rules out the possibility of  $k^2 = m^2 + p$ , where  $p$  is a prime. In view of this observation, we make another conjecture.

**Conjecture 2.** *Every integer  $n \geq 3$  can be expressed as  $n = m^2 + P_2$ , where*

$$0 \leq m \leq \sqrt{n} - 1.$$

Again, the Iwaniec result implies that sufficiently large integers  $n \neq k^2$  admit such a representation and, as observed above, if  $n = k^2$ , then the number of such representations is exactly the same as the number of representations of  $2k = p + q$  in the Goldbach problem.

Let  $E_G(x)$  denote the number of exceptional even integers in the Goldbach conjecture, i.e.,  $E_G(x) = |\{4 \leq 2n \leq x, 2n \neq p + q\}|$ , then, as we know (see [4]), there exists a positive (effectively computable) constant  $2\delta$  such that  $E_G(x) < x^{1-2\delta}$ . Based on this and the result of Iwaniec we may formulate the following.

**Theorem 3.** *Let  $E(x) = |\{3 \leq n \leq x, n \neq m^2 + P_2, 0 \leq m < \sqrt{n} - 1\}|$ . Then there exists a positive (effectively computable) constant  $\delta$  such that, for all large  $x$ ,*

$$E(x) < x^{(1/2)-\delta}.$$

We have also investigated the problem of representing integers  $n$  in the form  $n = m^2 + pq$  where  $p$  and  $q$  are primes. Let  $R(n)$  and  $R'(n)$  denote the number of representations of  $n$  as above, under the assumptions  $0 \leq m$  and  $0 \leq m < \sqrt{n} - 1$ , respectively. In the range  $3 \leq n \leq 100,000$ , we found that  $R(n) > 0$  and  $R'(n) > 0$  for all integers  $n$  except  $n = 3, 12, 17, 28, 32, 72, 108, 117, 297$  and  $657$ . For large  $n$  the expected values of  $R(n)$  and  $R'(n)$  will attend their local minima at squares, the case of reducible polynomials. On the other hand, we found the following values:

If  $n \in [9001, 10000]$ , then the minimum value of  $R(n)$  is 7 and it occurs at  $n = 97^2$ , and the next smallest value is 8 for  $n = 5^2 19^2$ ,  $n = 2^2 2311$  and  $n = 2^4 5^4$ . In the interval  $[99001, 100000]$  the minimum value is 10 for  $n = 2^4 79^2$  and the next smallest is 28 for  $n = 2^2 67 \cdot 373$  and 42 for  $n = 3^4 5^2 7^2$ .

It is easy to see that, if  $R'(n) > 0$  for  $n = k^2$ , then  $2k = p + q$ . We also expect that, for sufficiently large  $n \neq k^2$ ,  $R(n) > 0$  and  $R'(n) > 0$  might be provable since it is likely that the number of representations of  $n$  in the form  $m^2 + pq$  exceeds the number of representations in the form  $m^2 + p$ .

**2.** In this part we will work with reciprocal polynomials, which are products of the following polynomials of degree four:

$$f_{pq}(x) = (px^2 - 2nx + q)(qx^2 - 2nx + p),$$

where  $p$  and  $q$  are prime numbers,  $n$  is a positive integer and  $pq < n^2$ .

Let us make several observations. If  $n$  is the exceptional Goldbach integer, then obviously 1 is not a root of the polynomial  $f_{pq}$ . The polynomial has four real positive roots and, since it is reciprocal, two of them are in the interval  $(0, 1)$ . Furthermore, it is easy to verify that if  $p \neq q$ , then all the roots are distinct.

Suppose now that  $p, q, r, s$  are pairwise distinct primes, and consider the polynomial:

$$f_{pqr}(x) = f_{pq}(x)f_{rs}(x).$$

We shall prove the following.

**Lemma.** *Let  $p, q$  and  $r, s$  be pairwise distinct odd primes such that  $pq < n^2$  and  $rs < n^2$ . Let  $\alpha_i, i = 1, 2, 3, 4$ , be the roots of the polynomial  $f_{pq}$  and  $\beta_j, j = 1, 2, 3, 4$ , the roots of the polynomial  $f_{rs}$ . Then  $\alpha_k = \beta_l$  implies that  $2n = p + q$  and  $2n = r + s$ .*

*Proof.* The condition  $\alpha_k = \beta_l$  is of the form  $[n \pm (\sqrt{n^2 - pq})]/p = [n \pm (\sqrt{n^2 - rs})]/r$  where arbitrary signs  $+$  or  $-$  can be placed in the numerators. Routine calculation shows that the former equality implies:

$$(3) \quad (rq - ps)^2 = 4n^2(q - s)(r - p).$$

Let us rewrite (3) in the form:

$$(4) \quad [r(q - s) + s(r - p)]^2 = 4n^2(q - s)(r - p),$$

from which it follows that  $q > s$  and  $r > p$ , or  $q < s$  and  $r < p$ . Consider (4) modulo  $r - p$ . We obtain  $r^2(q - s)^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{r - p}$ . Since  $(r, r - p) = 1$ , then it follows that  $(q - s)^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{r - p}$ . Similarly, considering (4) modulo  $q - s$ , we obtain that  $(r - p)^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{q - s}$ . The above two congruences tell us that the even integers  $r - p$  and  $q - s$  have exactly the same prime divisors. Let  $t$  be a prime such that  $t^a || q - s$  and  $t^b || r - p$ , where  $a < b$ . Then  $t^{2a}$  exactly

divides the left-hand side of (4), however  $t^{a+b}$  divides the right-hand side; hence, we must have  $a = b$ . It follows that  $q - s = r - p = u$ , say. Therefore, (4) becomes

$$(r + s)^2 u^2 = 4n^2 u^2,$$

implying  $2n = r + s$ . Note that if (4) is changed to the form:

$$[q(r - p) + p(q - s)]^2 = 4n^2 (q - s)(r - p),$$

then we would get  $2n = p + q$ .  $\square$

The lemma tells us that if  $2n$  is an exceptional Goldbach integer, then for all pairwise distinct primes  $p, q, r, s$ , the polynomial  $f_{pqrs}$  has all distinct roots, four of them in the interval  $(0, 1)$ . It can be generalized as follows:

Let  $P_n$  be a set of primes such that, for every  $p, q \in P_n$ ,  $pq < n^2$ , and let  $T_n$  be a subset of  $P_n$  of even order  $2k$ , say. Now let  $\Pi$  be a set of ordered pairs of primes, where all the primes are taken from  $T_n$ , and each prime of  $T_n$  occurs exactly once in only one ordered pair.

Define

$$f_{\Pi} = \prod_{(p,q) \in \Pi} f_{pq}.$$

We have the following:

**Theorem.** *If  $2n$  is an exceptional Goldbach integer, then the polynomial  $f_{\Pi}$  is reciprocal of degree  $4k$ , it has  $4k$  distinct roots such that  $2k$  of them are in the interval  $(0, 1)$ .*

*Remark.* It also follows from the lemma that if any two roots of the polynomial  $f_{\Pi}$  are equal, then they must be equal to 1. Moreover, if  $2n$  is an exceptional Goldbach integer, then the polynomial  $f_{\Pi}$  (of degree  $\geq 4$ ) has at most four rational roots. It can happen only if  $2n = 1 + pq$ , where the roots are  $1/p, 1/q, p$  and  $q$ .

**Final comments.** Suppose that the polynomial  $f_{\Pi}$  is of degree  $4k$  and that  $2n$  is an exceptional Goldbach integer. Then, since  $2k$  of its

roots are in the interval  $(0, 1)$ , the Dirichlet box principle tells us that two roots exist whose distance is at most  $1/2k$ . The fact that all the roots are distinct is equivalent to nonvanishing of its discriminant.

There is an interesting result of Mahler [3] which relates the minimal distance between the roots of a polynomial and its discriminant.

More precisely, let  $m \geq 2$ , and  $f(x) = a_0x^m + a_1x^{m-1} + \dots + a_{m-1}x + a_m = a_0 \prod_{i=1}^m (x - \alpha_i)$ . Let  $P = \prod_{1 \leq h < k \leq m} (\alpha_h - \alpha_k)$ . Define the discriminant  $D(f)$  of the polynomial  $f$  by  $D(f) = a_0^{2m-2} P^2$ . In the case if  $\alpha_i \neq \alpha_j$  for  $i \neq j$ , let  $\Delta(f) = \min_{1 \leq h < k \leq m} |\alpha_h - \alpha_k|$ . Finally, let  $M(f) = |a_0| \prod_{h=1}^m \max(1, |\alpha_h|)$  and  $L(f) = \sum_{i=1}^m |a_i|$ .

**Theorem** (Mahler). *With the above notations:*

$$(5) \quad \Delta(f) > \sqrt{3} m^{-(m+2)/2} |D(f)|^{1/2} M(f)^{-(m-1)}$$

and, moreover,  $2^{-m} L(f) \leq M(f) \leq L(f)$ .

One may investigate further the zeros of polynomials  $f_{\prod}$  using inequality (5). Let us assume that  $2n$  is an exceptional Goldbach integer and consider the polynomial  $f_{pqrs}$ , where the odd primes  $p, q, r, s$  are pairwise distinct.

The determinant of the polynomial  $f_{pqrs}$  (in a factored form) is equal to:

$$\begin{aligned} D(f_{pqrs}) &= 256(n^2 - pq)^2(n^2 - rs)^2 \\ &\quad \times (p - q)^4(p + q - 2n)^2(p + q + 2n)^2 \\ &\quad \times (r - s)^4(r + s - 2n)^2(r + s + 2n)^2 \\ &\quad \times [(qr - ps)^2 + 4n^2(p - r)(q - s)]^4 \\ &\quad \times [(pr - qs)^2 + 4n^2(p - s)(q - r)]^4. \end{aligned}$$

Since the set  $P_n$  has at least  $n/\log n$  primes, therefore the set  $\prod$  might have at least  $n/(2 \log n)$  pairs of primes. Hence, there exist two pairs  $(p, q)$  and  $(r, s)$ , say, and two zeros  $\alpha_{pq}$  and  $\alpha_{rs}$  such that  $|\alpha_{pq} - \alpha_{rs}| < (2 \log n)/n$ . This together with inequality (5) may suggest further investigations of consequences under the assumption that  $2n$  is an exceptional Goldbach integer.

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