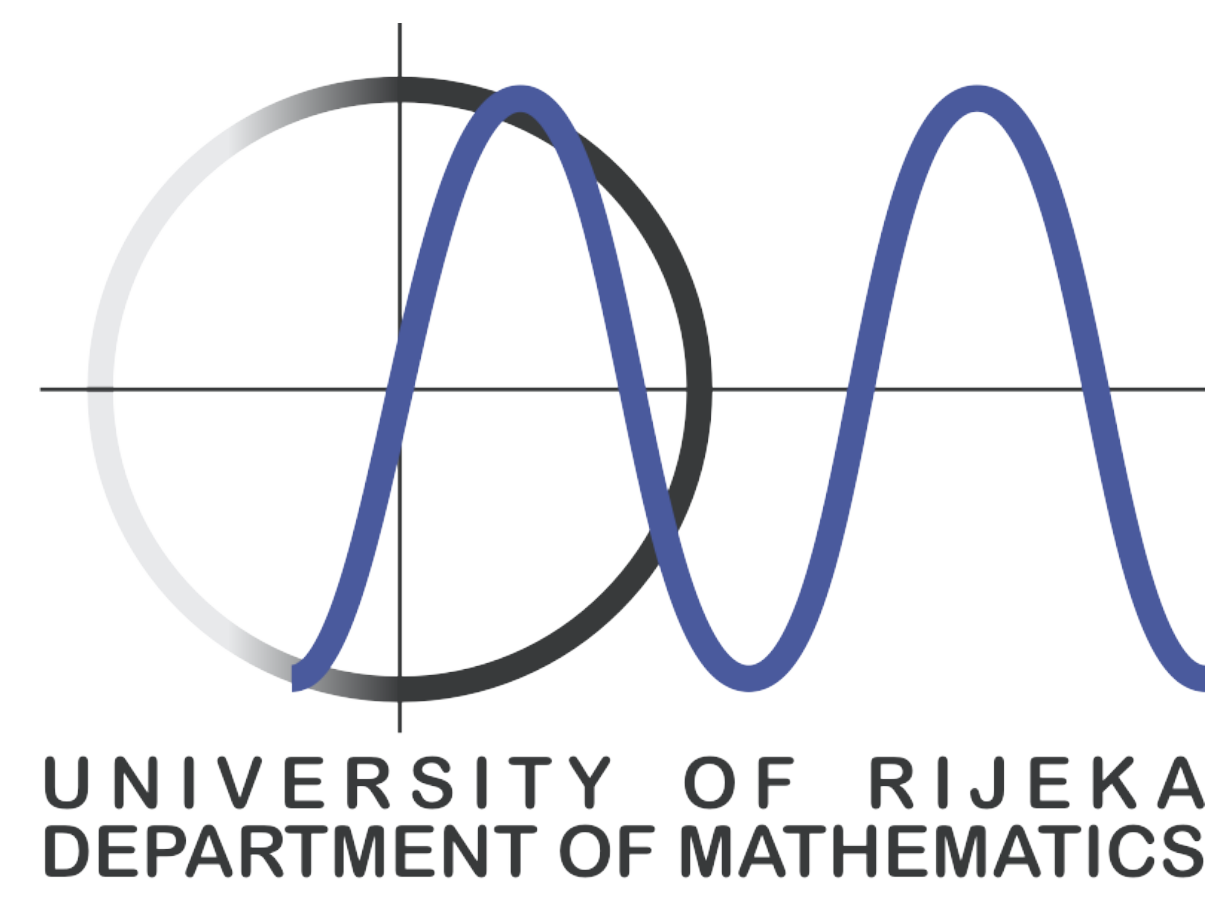


TWO DIVISORS OF $(n^2 + 1)/2$ SUMMING UP TO $\delta n + \delta \pm 2$, δ EVEN

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PREVIOUS RESULTS

Theorem (Ayad, Luca ([1])). *There do not exist an odd integer $n > 1$ and two positive divisors d_1, d_2 of $\frac{n^2+1}{2}$ such that $d_1 + d_2 = n + 1$.*

Dujella and **Luca** ([3]) deal with more general issue where $n + 1$ is replaced by an arbitrary linear polynomial $\delta n + \varepsilon$, $\delta, \varepsilon \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\delta > 0$.

Since d_1, d_2 are divisors of a sum of two coprime squares, then $d_1 \equiv d_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and because of $d_1 + d_2 = \delta n + \varepsilon$, there are two possible cases

$$\delta \equiv \varepsilon \equiv 1 \pmod{2} \text{ or } \delta \equiv \varepsilon + 2 \equiv 0 \text{ or } 2 \pmod{4}.$$

In [3], authors deal with the first case, we deal with the second case. More precisely, we deal with one parametric families of coefficients of the linear polynomial $\delta n + \varepsilon$, namely we deal with $(\delta, \varepsilon) = (\delta, \delta \pm 2)$.

CASE $d_1 + d_2 = \delta n + \delta + 2$

Theorem 1. *There exist infinitely many odd positive integers n for which there exist divisors $d_1, d_2 > 1$ of $\frac{n^2+1}{2}$ such that $d_1 + d_2 = \delta n + \delta + 2$.*

Proof. There exists $d \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$d_1 d_2 = \frac{g(n^2 + 1)}{2d}, \quad g = \gcd(d_1, d_2).$$

From the identity

$$(d_2 - d_1)^2 = (d_1 + d_2)^2 - 4d_1 d_2, \quad (1)$$

we get

$$X^2 - d(\delta^2 d - 2g)Y^2 = 4\delta^2 dg + 8d\delta g + 8dg - 4g^2, \quad (2)$$

for $X = (\delta^2 d - 2g)n + d\delta(\delta + 2)$, $Y = d_2 - d_1$. For $d = g$ and $X = dX'$ the equation (2) becomes pellian equation

$$X'^2 - (\delta^2 - 2)Y^2 = 4(\delta + 1)^2. \quad (3)$$

After introducing substitutions $X' = 2(\delta + 1)U$, $Y = 2(\delta + 1)V$ and dividing (3) by $(2(\delta + 1))^2$, we get a Pell's equation

$$U^2 - (\delta^2 - 2)V^2 = 1, \quad (4)$$

that has infinitely many solutions (U, V) generated by the recursive formulas. The fundamental solution of (4) is $(U_1, V_1) = (\delta^2 - 1, \delta)$. Consequently, (3) has infinitely many solutions (X', Y) .

For $X = 2d(\delta + 1)U$ and $X = (\delta^2 d - 2d)n + d\delta(\delta + 2)$, we obtain

$$n = \frac{2(\delta + 1)U - \delta(\delta + 2)}{\delta^2 - 2}. \quad (5)$$

Because $U \equiv 1 \pmod{(\delta^2 - 1)}$ is satisfied for every solution of (4), we conclude $(\delta^2 - 2) \mid (2(\delta + 1)U - \delta(\delta + 2))$, so n are positive and odd integers.

Example

$$\begin{cases} n = 2\delta + 1, \\ d_1 = 1, \\ d_2 = 2\delta^2 + 2\delta + 1. \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} n = 4\delta^3 + 4\delta^2 - 1, \\ d_1 = 2\delta^2 + 2\delta + 1, \\ d_2 = 4\delta^4 + 4\delta^3 - 2\delta^2 - 2\delta + 1. \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} n = 8\delta^5 + 8\delta^4 - 8\delta^3 - 8\delta^2 + \delta + 1, \\ d_1 = 4\delta^4 + 4\delta^3 - 2\delta^2 - 2\delta + 1, \\ d_2 = 8\delta^6 - 12\delta^4 - 12\delta^3 + 4\delta^2 + 4\delta + 1. \end{cases}$$

CASE $d_1 + d_2 = \delta n + \delta - 2$

Proposition 1. *If Schinzel's hypothesis H is true, then for all $\delta \equiv 4, 6 \pmod{8}$ there exist infinitely many odd integers n for which there exist divisors d_1, d_2 of $\frac{n^2+1}{2}$ such that $d_1 + d_2 = \delta n + \delta - 2$.*

Proof. After applying similar methods described in Theorem 1, we get

$$X^2 - 2(2k^2 - 2k + 1)(\delta k - 1)(\delta k - \delta + 1)Y^2 = (2g(2k - 1))^2. \quad (6)$$

We deal with the associated Pell's equation

$$U^2 - 2(2k^2 - 2k + 1)(\delta k - 1)(\delta k - \delta + 1)V^2 = 1. \quad (7)$$

Solutions of (6) are $(X, Y) = (2g(2k - 1)U, 2g(2k - 1)V)$, where (U, V) are solutions of (7). Additionally, solutions of (6) have to satisfy the congruence

$$X \equiv d\delta\varepsilon \equiv d\delta(\delta - 2) \pmod{2(\delta k - 1)(\delta k - \delta + 1)}, \quad (8)$$

if we require $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $a = 2k^2 - 2k + 1$, $b = \delta k - 1$, $c = \delta k - \delta + 1$. Now, (7) becomes $U^2 - 2abcV^2 = 1$. Let (U_0, V_0) be its fundamental solution. We have $(U_0 - 1)(U_0 + 1) = 2abcV_0^2$. Obviously, a, b, c are odd, which implies V_0 is even. Let $V_0 = 2st$, $s, t \in \mathbb{N}$. We deal with the equation

$$(U_0 - 1)(U_0 + 1) = 8abcs^2t^2.$$

For a, b, c prime prime numbers, the following factorizations are possible:

$$\begin{array}{ll} 1^\pm) & U_0 \pm 1 = 2abcs^2, \quad U_0 \mp 1 = 2^2t^2, \quad 5^\pm) & U_0 \pm 1 = 2bcs^2, \quad U_0 \mp 1 = 2^2at^2, \\ 2^\pm) & U_0 \pm 1 = 2^2abcs^2, \quad U_0 \mp 1 = 2t^2, \quad 6^\pm) & U_0 \pm 1 = 2as^2, \quad U_0 \mp 1 = 2^2bct^2, \\ 3^\pm) & U_0 \pm 1 = 2abs^2, \quad U_0 \mp 1 = 2^2ct^2, \quad 7^\pm) & U_0 \pm 1 = 2bs^2, \quad U_0 \mp 1 = 2^2act^2, \\ 4^\pm) & U_0 \pm 1 = 2acs^2, \quad U_0 \mp 1 = 2^2bt^2, \quad 8^\pm) & U_0 \pm 1 = 2cs^2, \quad U_0 \mp 1 = 2^2abt^2. \end{array}$$

From $U_0^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{(\delta k - 1)}$ and $U_0^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{(\delta k - \delta + 1)}$, we may assume

$$U_0 \equiv -1 \pmod{(\delta k - 1)}, \quad U_0 \equiv 1 \pmod{(\delta k - \delta + 1)}. \quad (9)$$

Let $k \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$. In this case, $a \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$, $b \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$, $c \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$. Our goal is to prove that it is always possible to find infinitely many integers k such that only cases 4^-) and 7^+) of the above factorizations are satisfied. This implies that the congruence (8) is satisfied which, again, implies that (X, Y) are integer solutions. We deal with each of the cases $1^\pm) - 8^\pm)$ separately.

If we require that conditions

$$\left(\frac{a}{c}\right) = \left(\frac{c}{a}\right) = -1 \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\frac{c}{b}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{c}\right) = 1, \quad (10)$$

are satisfied, then only $4^-), 7^+)$ are possible.

In the end, we show that we can find infinitely many integers k such that $k \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$, that are satisfied conditions (10) and that the integers a, b, c are simultaneously prime numbers.

Analogous claims for $\delta \equiv 0, 2 \pmod{8}$ require different approach and methods and are still open problems.

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