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**Abstract:** Further analysis of the demonstration in Porras-Ferreira and Andrade (2014) that prime numbers always occupy one of eight columns in a 30-column array and infinite rows such that  $P_n = [1,7,11,13,17,19,23,29] + 30n$ , for  $n \ge 0$  (except for 1 which is not prime for n = 0 and the primes 2, 3 and 5, the only primes that occupy columns 2, 3 and 5) showed that composite numbers  $N_c$  generated in the eight columns where prime numbers orderly locate, follow a defined pattern originated in the same primes located in the different columns. This pattern has two characteristics; the first one establishes the row number n where a composite numbers will be located and the second characteristic gives the value of the prime factors of each composite number.

The method above permits the prediction of the location for cells where composite numbers will occur and their prime factors in a simple way. In a simple illustration, prime number 7, being the smallest of the order equation of prime numbers (eight columns in a 30-column array), establishes a six-row sequence where primes can be located and one row where 7 will always be a prime factor to infinity accompanying with other prime factors that originate composite numbers. Each prime factor, different from 7, originates a similar sequence, but being greater, their sequence can intersect the sequence of 7 in some n\_leaving always free rows in the eight columns where prime numbers will locate to infinity in the eight columns in a 30-column array.

Dirichlet's theorem establishes that there are infinite primes of the form an + b, for n = 1, 2, ..., where a, b are primitive integer numbers. This equation is the same of the order of prime numbers  $p_n = [1,7,11,13,17,19,23,29] + 30n$ , where a = 30, b = [1,7,11,13,17,19,23,29] and n is the same for both equations, therefore if the mathematical transformation of any conjecture to the form  $P_n = [1,7,11,13,17,19,23,29] + 30n$ , for  $n \ge 0$ , is possible, such form will contain infinite primes and the conjecture will be true according to Dirichlet's theorem. According to that, the demonstration of the infinitude of Mersenne primes, Fermat primes and 4x + 1 primes are shown as well the demonstration that there are not odd perfect numbers.

**Keywords:** Dirichlet's Theorem, Mersenne Primes, Fermat primes, 4x + 1 primes, Perfect Numbers, Prime Numbers Formation.

#### **1. INTRODUCTION**

Many of the questions around prime numbers that remained open until recently have been solved by means of using the found order of prime numbers as expressed in Porras-Ferreira and Andrade (2014) [1]. Often having an elementary formulation, many of these conjectures have withstood a proof for decades: for all four of Landau's problems from 1912 [2] solutions were offered in [3]. Goldbach's conjecture: "every even integer greater than 2 can be expressed as the sum of two primes" [4] has an explicit solution in [3] including the "weak" Goldback's conjecture. The twin prime conjecture: "there are infinitely many pairs of primes whose difference is 2" [5] and that there are infinite prime numbers of the form  $a^2 + 1$ " (e.g. Euler, 1760) [6] were solved using the found order as well as the 1379 Conjecture Porras-Ferreira and Andrade-Amaya, (2015) [3]. Some other famous patterns of primes have also been conjectured with like the order the French monk Marin Mersenne devised of the form  $2^p - 1$ , with *p* a prime [7] from which today the Great Internet Mersenne Prime Search (GIMPS) is looking for another even larger prime [8][9], the conjecture whether there are infinite Fermat's primes of the form  $F_y = 2^{2^y} + 1$  [10], and many other proposed patterns that are not mentioned here for simplicity.

In Porras-Ferreira and Andrade (2015) [1] it was established that prime numbers in a systematic form always occupy one of eight columns in a 30-column array and infinite rows such that  $P_n =$ 

[1,7,11,13,17,19,23,29] + 30n, for  $n \ge 0$  (except for 1 which is not prime for n = 0 and the primes 2, 3 and 5, the only primes that occupy the columns 2, 3 and 5). Later, in Porras-Ferreira and Andrade-Amaya (2015) [3] this order array was tested and used for solving several conjectures related to the sequences for prime numbers. The natural inquietude was to follow the study of the behavior of the location for composite numbers in the eight columns where prime numbers are positioned in the 30-column array and the application of Dirichlet's theorem [11] in the eight columns in a 30-column array where the primes are formed, to solve other conjectures related to prime numbers as infinitude of Mersenne primes [12], Fermat primes [13] and primes 4x + 1 for  $x \ge 1$  [14].

In antiquity, several mathematicians thought that numbers of the form  $2^p - 1$  were primes for all p primes [15]. Hudalricus Regius in 1536 [15], demonstrated that  $2^{11} - 1$  was not a prime. Pietro Cataldi in 1603 [15], correctly verified that  $2^{17} - 1$  and  $2^{19} - 1$ , were both primes, but also enunciated that for p = [23, 29, 31, 37]. Fermat in 1640 [16] demonstrated that Cataldi were wrong for p = [23, 27]. Later, Marin Mersenne, a French monk, in 1644 [17], correctly established that for p = [2, 3, 5, 7, 13, 17, 19, 31, 67, 127, 257] the resultant numbers were primes but mistakenly established that for the rest primes p > 257 the resultant numbers were prime and Power in 1900 [6] probed for p = [89, 107]. Finally in 1947, a complete verification was done, resulting in the correct list p = [2, 3, 5, 7, 13, 17, 19, 31, 61, 67, 89, 107, 257].

Because of his work, all prime numbers of the form  $2^p - 1$ , where p is a prime number, receive the name of Mersenne primes  $(M_p)$  [18], denoted as:

$$M_p = 2^p - 1$$

Mersenne primes are related to the even perfect numbers. A perfect number is a positive integer that is equal to the sum of its proper positive divisors, that is, the sum of its positive divisors excluding the number itself (also known as its aliquot sum). Equivalently, a perfect number is a number that is half the sum of all of its positive divisors (including itself) i.e.  $\sigma_1(n) = 2n$ .

This definition is ancient, appearing as early as Euclid's Elements (VII.22)<sup>1</sup> where it is called " $t\epsilon\lambda\epsilon\iotao\varsigma$  $\dot{\alpha}\rho\iota\theta\mu\delta\varsigma$ " (perfect, ideal, or complete number). Euclid also proved a formation rule (IX.36) whereby p(p + 1)/2 is an even perfect number whenever p is what is now called a Mersenne prime. Much later, Euler proved that all even perfect numbers are of this form. It is not known whether there are any odd perfect numbers [19], or if infinitely many even perfect numbers exist.

Fermat conjectured in 1650 that every Fermat number is Fermat prime. The much more commonly encountered Fermat numbers are a special case [20],[21] and [22], given by the binomial number of the form  $F_y = 2^{2^y} + 1$  and Eisenstein in 1844 proposed as a problem the proof that there are an infinite number of Fermat primes (Ribenboim 1996, p. 88 [23]). At present, however, the only Fermat numbers  $F_y$  for  $y \ge 5$  for which primality or compositeness has been established are all composite. Fermat believed that all numbers of the above form are prime numbers; that is, that  $F_y$  is prime for all integral values of y. This is indeed the case for y = [0.1.2.3.4]. However, the Swiss mathematician Leonhard Euler (1707–83) showed that Fermat's conjecture is false for y = 5:  $2^{2^5} = 2^{32} + 1 = 4,294,967,297$ , which is divisible by 641. Using computers, mathematicians have not yet found any Fermat primes for y greater than 4. So far, Fermat's original hypothesis seems to have been wrong. The search continues for Fermat numbers  $F_y$  that are prime for  $y \ge 4$ .

## 2. THE PATTERN PRODUCED BY THE PRIME NUMBER 7 IN THE POSITION OF COMPOSITE NUMBERS IN THE PRIME NUMBERS ORDER ARRAY

The prime number 7 establishes an initial pattern in the Prime Numbers Order Array, where composite numbers will locate themselves every seven rows in each of the eight columns where prime numbers are. The method to find the initial cell  $n_1$ , where 7 as prime factor will appear and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Euclid's Elements (Ancient Greek: Στοιχεῖα *Stoicheia*) is a mathematical and geometric treatise consisting of 13 books written by the ancient Greek mathematician Euclid in Alexandria c. 300 BC

furthermore, the form of calculating the *n*-row where composite numbers that have 7 as a prime factor was established in Porras-Ferreira and Andrade [1] in equations (1) and (2).

Taken into account that equation (1), form prime numbers  $P_n$  and composite numbers  $N_c$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_n = [1,7,11,13,17,19,23,29] + 30n \text{ for } n \ge 0\\ N_c = [1,7,11,13,17,19,23,29] + 30n \text{ for } n \ge 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
(1)

There will be no prime numbers in cells:

1 -

$$n = \begin{bmatrix} n_1 + p_1 k \\ n_1 + p_2 k \\ n_1 + \cdots k \\ n_1 + p_n k \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow k \ge 1$$
(2)

Where *n* are the rows where there are no primes,  $n_1$  is the first row of any of the eight columns where primes are located and where  $p_n$  appears for the first time. That is to say that from cell  $n_1$ , the multiplication table of prime numbers  $p_1, p_2, ..., p_n$  that conform the composite number  $N_c$  is created.

The *n* row from where no primes will be generated can be predicted by using the residue until reaching 0. The example for following procedure for prime p = 7 column 1 is:

In row 1 column 1:  $31 \div 7 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$ . In row 2 column 1:  $61 \div 7 \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$ . That is to say the increment factor is 5 - 3 = 2. The residue 5 become 0 in row 3 column 1 (5+2=7):  $91 \div 7 \equiv 0 \pmod{7}$ , in other words in row $n_1 = 3$  of column 1, there will be a multiple of 7 and in n = 3 + 7k for  $k \ge 0$  there will be no prime numbers in column 1 (only composite numbers where one of its prime factor is 7). Same procedure can be followed to establish in what row  $n_1$  and n of the other seven columns composite numbers with 7 as one of its prime factors will be located. Table I shows cells  $n_1$  of equation (2) where 7 appears for the first time as prime factor of the composite numbers in each of the eight columns in Equation (1). The other primes that compose the composite number in row  $n_1$ , will begin a different sequence of rows n where there will be composite numbers. Table I also shows the values for cells n for two of the initial prime factors that compose the composite number  $N_c$  and the respective n rows what are not primes for  $k \ge 0$ .

**Table I.** Rows  $n_1$  and n of each column where composite numbers with 7 as prime factor will be located in the array according to equations (1) and (2) and values of  $N_c$  for  $k \ge 0$ .

Rows n	Column 1	Column 7	Column 11	Column 13	Column 17	Column 19	Column 23	Column 29
<i>n</i> <sub>1</sub>	3	7	5	4	2	1	6	3
$N_c$ in $n_1$ for 7	7*13	7*31	7*23	7*19	7*11	7*7	7*29	7*17
$n = n_1 + 7k$ for $p_1 = 7$	3 + 7k	7 + 7k	5 + 7 <i>k</i>	4 + 7k	2 + 7k	1 + 7k	6 + 7 <i>k</i>	3 + 7k
n for other primes (Eq. 2)	3 + 13k	7 + 31k	5 + 23k	4 + 19k	2 + 11k	1 + 7k	6 + 29 <i>k</i>	3 + 17k

In Figure 1 for the case of prime number 7 it is possible to see the repeating pattern in each column where prime numbers are formed.



Fig1. Repeating pattern locations of composite numbers being one of them the number 7 (prime)

Table II shows the case for the composite numbers that have the prime 11 as one of its factors; similar to Table 1 for the prime 7 and so on it can be shown how the other primes that will be appearing for the first time as factor of  $N_c$  will follow the same behavior.

**TableII.** Rows  $n_1$  and n of each column where composite numbers with 11 as prime factor will be located in the array according to equations (1) and (2) and values of  $N_c$  for  $k \ge 0$ .

Rows n	Column 1	Column 7	Column 11	Column 13	Column 17	Column 19	Column 23	Column 29
<i>n</i> <sub>1</sub>	4	6	11	8	2	21	4	6
$N_c$ in $n_1$ for 11	11*11	11*17	11*31	11*23	11*7	11*59	11*13	11*19
$n = n_1 + 11k$ for $p_1 = 11$	4 + 11k	6 + 11k	11 + 11k	8 + 11k	2 + 11k	21 + 11k	4 + 11k	6 + 11k
n for other primes (Eq. 2)	4 + 11k	6 + 17k	11 + 31k	8 + 23k	2 + 7k	21 + 59k	4 + 13k	6 + 19 <i>k</i>

Taking into account that Equation (1) for composite numbers  $N_c$ , can be expressed as:

$$N_c = p_m([1,7,11,13,17,19,23,29] + 30k)$$
 for  $k \ge 0$ 

Where  $p_m$  corresponds to the value of the new prime numbers that would be appearing in  $n_1$  of equation (2) and that haven't appeared before as a factor of  $N_c$ . Table III gives some examples for column 1: the prime number 31 appeared for the first time in row  $n_1 = 1$  and will appear again in  $n = n_1 + 31k = 1 + 31 = 32$  for k = 1, as factor of the composite number  $N_c = p_m(1 + 30k) = 31(1 + 30) = 31 * 31$  for k = 1. The same way it is fullfilled for all values of  $n_1$  and  $p_m$  that will be resulting from equations (2) and (3).

k	$p_m$	$n_1$	n		N <sub>c</sub>	
1				32		31*31
2	31	1	1+31k	63	31(1+30k)	31*61
3				94		31*91
1				124		61*61
2	61	63	63+61k	185	61(31+30k)	61*91
3				246		61*121
1				276		91*91
2	91	185	185+91k	367	91(61+30k)	91*121
3				458		91*151

**TableIII.** *Examples for equations (2) and (3) for* k = [1,2,3]

In the same way, it is possible to calculate in what cell in the other columns will appear the prime number as a factor of composite numbers using the Residue System. For example the prime numbers  $p_1$  in column 1 and  $p_7$  in column 7, will appear as a factor in the others columns according to table IV.

**TableIV.** Examples for prime numbers  $p_n$  in column 1, will appear as a factor in the others columns

Concept	Column 1	Column 7	Column 11	Column 13	Column 17	Column 19	Column 23	Column 29
Form	30 <i>n</i> +1	30 <i>n</i> +7	30 <i>n</i> +11	30 <i>n</i> +13	30 <i>n</i> +17	30 <i>n</i> +19	30 <i>n</i> +23	30 <i>n</i> +29
Value	$p_1$	$7p_{1}$	$11p_1$	13 <i>p</i> <sub>1</sub>	17 <i>p</i> <sub>1</sub>	19 <i>p</i> <sub>1</sub>	$23p_1$	$29p_1$
Cell	n	7 <i>n</i>	11 <i>n</i>	13 <i>n</i>	17 <i>n</i>	19 <i>n</i>	23 <i>n</i>	29n
Compisite		210 <i>n</i> +7	330 <i>n</i> +11	390 <i>n</i> +13	510 <i>n</i> +17	570 <i>n</i> +19	690 <i>n</i> +23	87 <i>n</i> +29
Value	$13p_{7}$	$p_7$	$23p_7$	19p <sub>7</sub>	11p <sub>7</sub>	$7p_{7}$	$29p_7$	$17p_7$
Cell	<i>n</i> +3	n	<i>n</i> +5	<i>n</i> +4	<i>n</i> +2	<i>n</i> +1	<i>n</i> +6	<i>n</i> +3
Composite	30( <i>n</i> +3)+1		30( <i>n</i> +5)+11	30( <i>n</i> +4)+13	30( <i>n</i> +2)+17	30( <i>n</i> +1)+19	30( <i>n</i> +6)+23	30(n+3)+2

## **3.** PROOF OF THE EXISTENCE OF A UNIQUE PATTERN IN THE PRIME NUMBERS GIVEN BY EQUATION (1)

The importance of equations (1) and (2), in the case for number 7, which is the smallest prime in the equation, establishes a repetitive pattern every seven rows, leaving six rows where prime numbers will be located in the eight columns and one row where definitively never prime numbers will be located in the 30-column array, as shown in Table 1. This pattern repeats to infinity. Prime numbers

(3)

greater than 7 that would appear as factors of the composite number  $N_c$  also originates repetitive patterns that will locate cells  $n_1$  and n where composite numbers form as shown in Tables 1 and 2, complying equations (2) and (3). These patterns will have a greater separation between one cell to other cells n where prime numbers will be located with respect to the pattern of the prime number 7 because they are primes greater than 7. Eventually these patterns would be super imposed among them when they take the same value of cell n in equation (2).

The above confirms that there is only one pattern defined in equation (1) for all prime numbers, always existing cells where prime numbers will be located in each of the eight columns of the array to infinity and warranty that in one of them there will be prime numbers located. Table V shows some examples up to row n = 59 where equations (1) (2) and (3) are verified, for prime numbers Equation (1), as for composite numbers Equations (2) and (3).

Rows *n* Column 1 Column 7 Column 11 Column 13 Column 17 Column 19 Column 23 Column 29 7\*7 7\*11 7\*13 7\*17 11\*11 7\*19 11\*13 7\*23 13\*13 11\*17 7\*29 11\*19 7\*31 13\*17 11\*23 13\*19 7\*37 7\*41 17\*17 13\*23 17\*19 7\*43 7\*47 11\*31 7\*49\*7\*7 19\*19 13\*29 7\*53 17\*23 7\*59 13\*31 11\*37 7\*61 19\*23 11\*41 7\*67 11\*43 13\*37 17\*29 7\*71 23\*23 7\*73 11\*47 17\*31 13\*41 7\*7\*11 19\*29 7\*79 13\*43 7\*83 11\*53 19\*31 13\*47 7\*89 17\*37 7\*7\*13 11\*59 23\*29 11\*71 7\*97 13\*53 17\*41 19\*37 7\*101 23\*31 7\*103 7\*107 17\*43 11\*67 7\*109 13\*59 19\*41 11\*71 7\*113 13\*61 17\*47 11\*73 19\*43 7\*119(7\*17) 29\*29 7\*11\*11 23\*37 11\*79 13\*67 7\*127 19\*47 29\*31 17\*53 11\*83 7\*131 13\*71 7\*7\*19 23\*41 13\*73 7\*137 31\*31 7\*139 11\*89 23\*43 7\*11\*13 17\*59 19\*53 13\*79 17\*61 7\*149 7\*151 11\*97 29\*37 13\*83 23\*47 7\*157 11\*101 19\*59 7\*7\*23 11\*103 17\*67 31\*37 13\*89 19\*61 7\*167 7\*163 

**TableV.** The location and formation of prime and composite numbers in the 30-column array according to equations (1), (2) and (3).

7\*13\*13

11\*113

19\*67

29\*43

29\*81

23\*53

7\*179

13\*97

11\*107

17\*71

7\*181

7\*173

17\*73

31\*41

11\*109

43	1291	1297	1301	1303	1307	7*11*17	13*101	1319
44	1321	1327	11*11*11	31*43	7*191	13*103	17*79	17*71
45	7*193	23*59	1361	29*47	1367	37*37	1373	7*197
46	1381	19*73	13*107	7*11*19	11*127	1399	23*61	1409
47	17*83	13*109	7*7*29	1423	1427	1429	1433	1439
48	11*131	1447	1451	1453	31*47	1459	7*11*19	13*113
49	1471	7*211	1481	1483	1487	1489	1493	1499
50	19*79	11*137	1511	17*89	37*41	7*7*31	1523	11*139
51	1531	29*53	23*67	1543	7*13*17	1549	1553	1559
52	7*223	1567	1571	11*11*13	19*83	1579	1583	7*227
53	37*43	1597	1601	7*239	1607	1609	1613	1619
54	1621	1627	7*233	23*71	1637	11*149	31*51	17*97
55	13*127	1657	11*151	1663	1667	1669	7*239	23*73
56	41*41	7*241	19*89	1693	1697	1699	13*131	1709
57	29*59	19*103	1721	1723	11*157	7*13*19	1733	37*47
58	1741	1747	17*103	1753	7*251	1759	41*43	29*61
59	7*253	1777	13*137	1783	1787	1789	11*163	7*257

A General Solution for the Conjectures Related To the Infinity of Prime Numbers that Take any Special Form

Table V has the following information:

- Contains nine columns, the first is *n* and the other are the eight columns of the Array where prime numbers are located and where composite numbers also appear.
- Colors represent a different prime factor, for example Green represents the composite numbers that have the prime 7 as factor, Grey shows the prime 11 etc.
- It can be observed how these composite numbers follow the behavior established in equation (3) as they form in Table 4. In some cases cell with one pattern coincide with another pattern for composite numbers. For example cell 31 of column 1 coincide with the pattern generated by the prime 7 as factor of the composite number that formed in row 3 and the prime number 19, factor of the composed number that formed in row 12.
- Prime Numbers are located in the cells in White color.
- Another important aspect is that each column where the factor 7 generates for the first time, the other factor of the composite number is precisely the prime number in the other columns, for example, for column 1: number 7 as a factor is accompanying by the 13, the first prime in column 13: for column 7: number 7 is accompanying by the 31, which is the first prime in column 1; for column 11: number 7 is accompanying by number 23 which is the first prime in column 23 and so on, until column 29, where number 7 is accompanying by number 17, which is the first prime of column 17. Same accompanying complies for the rest of the prime numbers that appear for the first time, as composite number, following equations (2) and (3) as it was shown also for prime 11 in Table 2.

#### 4. RELATION OF THE PRIMES ORDER ARRAY AND DIRICHLET'S THEOREM

Dirichlet's theorem [11] demonstrated that: If a and b are primitive integer numbers among them, then, the arithmetic progression an + b for n = 1, 2, ..., contain infinite primes.

Taking from Equation (1) a = 30, b = [1,7,11,13,17,19,23,29], n = 1, 2, ..., according to Dirichlet's theorem, the infinity of prime numbers in each of the eight columns of the array is then confirmed. In that sense, any conjecture for prime numbers that can be expressed in the form of Equation (1), by the rule of Dirichlet's theorem it must have infinite primes and it is true. In this sense, the solutions of conjectures about the infinity Mersenne primes  $2^p - 1$ , Fermat's primes  $2^{2^y} + 1$  for  $y \ge 0$  and primes 4x + 1 for  $x \ge 1$  will be demonstrated.

## **3.1.** The implication of Dirichlet's theorem and prime order array to proof there are infinity Mersenne Primes [24]

Table VI ([24] and [25]); show the 48 Mersenne primes, found in the <u>Great Internet Mersenne Prime</u> <u>Search Program (GIMPS)</u>, the last discovered in 2013. The Great Internet Mersenne Prime Search (GIMPS) is a collaborative project of volunteers<sup>2</sup> who use freely available software to search

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Volunteer computing is an arrangement in which people (**volunteers**) provide computing resources to projects, which use the resources to do distributed computing and/or storage.

for Mersenne prime numbers. GIMPS is said to be one of the first large scale distributed computing projects over the Internet for research purposes.

No.	p	Digits in $p$	$M_p$	Digits in $M_p$	Discoverer	By
1	2	1	3	1	B C	Unknown
2	3	1	7	1	B C	Unknown
3	5	1	31	2	B C	Unknown
4	7	1	127	3	B C	Unknown
5	13	2	8191	4	1456	Unknown
6	17	2	131071	6	1588	Cataldi
7	19	2	524287	6	1588	Cataldi
8	31	2	2147483647	10	1772	Euler
9	61	2	2305843009213693951	19	1883	Pervushin
10	89	2	618970019449562111	27	1911	Powers
11	107	3	162259276010288127	33	1914	Powers
12	127	3	170141183884105727	39	1876	Lucas
13	521	3	686479766115057151	157	30/01/1952	Robinson
14	609	3	531137992031728127	183	30/01/1952	Robinson
15	1.279	4	104079321168729087	386	25/06/1952	Robinson
16	2.203	4	147597991697771007	664	07/10/1952	Robinson
17	2.281	4	446087557132836351	687	09/10/1952	Robinson
18	3.217	4	259117086909315071	969	08/09/1957	Riesel
19	4.253	4	190797007350484991	1.281	03/11/1961	Hurwitz
20	4.423	4	285542542608580607	1.332	03/11/1961	Hurwitz
21	9.689	4	478220278225754111	2.917	11/05/1963	Gillies
22	9.941	4	346088282789463551	2.993	16/05/1963	Gillies
23	11.213	5	281411201696392191	3.376	02/06/1963	Gillies
24	19.937	5	431542479968041471	6.002	04/03/1971	Tuckerman
25	21.701	5	448679166511882751	6.533	30/10/1978	Noll y Nickel
26	23.209	5	402874115779264511	6.987	09/02/1979	Noll
27	44.497	5	854509824011228671	13.395	08/04/1979	Nelson y Slowinski
28	86.243	5	536927995433438207	25.962	25/09/1982	Slowinski
29	110.503	6	521928313465515007	33.265	28/01/1988	Colquitt y Welsh
30	132.049	6	512740276730061311	39.751	20/09/1983	Slowinski
31	216.091	6	746093103815528447	65.050	06/09/1985	Slowinski
32	756.839	6	174135906544677887	227.832	19/02/1992	Slowinski y Gage
33	859.433	6	129498125500142591	258.716	10/01/1994	Slowinski y Gage
34	1.257.787	7	412245773089366527	378.632	03/09/1996	Slowinski y Gage
35	1.398.269	7	814717564451315711	420.921	13/11/1996	GIMPS / J. Armengaud
36	2.976.221	7	623340076729201151	895.932	24/08/1997	GIMPS / G. Spence
37	3.021.377	7	127411683024694271	909.526	27/01/1998	GIMPS / R. Clarkson
38	6.972.593	7	437075744924193791	2.098.960	01/06/1999	GIMPS / N. Hajratwala
39	13.466.917	8	924947738256259071	4.053.946	14/11/2001	GIMPS / M. Cameron
40	20.996.011	8	125976895855682047	6.320.430	17/11/2003	GIMPS / M. Shafer
41	24.036.583	8	299410429733969407	7.235.733	15/05/2004	GIMPS / J. Findley
42	25,964,951	8	122164630. 577077247	7.816.230	18/02/2005	GIMPS / M. Nowak
43	30.402.457	8	315416475652943871	9.152.052	15/12/2005	GIMPS / Curtis v Boone
44	32.582.657	8	124575026. 053967871	9.808.358	04/09/2006	GIMPS / Curtis v Boone
45	37.156.667	8	202254406308220927	11.185.272	06/09/2008	GIMPS / Hans-M. Elvenich
46	42 643 801	8	169873516 562314751	12,837,064	12/04/2009	GIMPS / Odd M Strindmo
47	43 112 609	8	316470269 697152511	12.037.004	23/08/2008	GIMPS / Edson Smith
48	57 885 161	8	581887266 724285051	17 425 170	25/01/2013	GIMPS / Curtis Cooper
1 70	57.005.101	0	20100/200/27202/21	11.723.170	20101/2013	Shin S / Cuius Cooper

TableVI. 48 Mersenne Primes found until 2013, [24] [25]

An analysis of Table VI shows that:

1. All Mersenne primes end in 1 or 7. Porras-Ferreira and Andrade in [1] established the way on how prime numbers form through Equation (1).

Then, it could be thought that Mersenne Primes, only would have the form  $M_n = 30n + [1, 11, 7, 17]$ . However, further detail discard the forms 30n + [11, 17], letting only the forms 30n + [1, 7] for Mersenne primes, because:

• Mersenne Primes cannot end in 11.

Proof:

 $2^p - 1 = 30n + 11$ 

 $2^p - 12 = 30n$ 

3 divide-12, but it won't divide  $2^p$  which is an even integer no multiple of 3. Therefore  $M_n \neq 30n + 11$ .

• They can't end in 17 either.

Proof:

 $2^p - 1 = 30x + 17$ 

 $2^p - 18 = 30x$ 

3 divide-18, but it doesn't divide  $2^p$  which is an even integer no multiple of 3. Therefore  $M_n \neq 30n + 17$ .

• Mersenne Primes can finish in 1.

Proof:

$$2^{p} - 1 = 30x + 1$$
  

$$2(2^{p-1} - 1) = 30n$$
  

$$2^{p-1} - 1 = 15n$$
  

$$16^{\frac{p-1}{4}} - 1 = 15n$$
  
Making  $a = \frac{p-1}{4}$ , being a integer and  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , would be:

 $16^a - 1 = 15n$  where  $16^a - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{15}$ . (16 elevated to any power will always end in 6, that subtracting 1 would end in 5, likewise it is divisible by 3, being the sum of its digits multiples of 3.

Examples, for a = 1, then 16 - 1 = 15, for a = 2 then 256 - 1 = 255 multiple of 3 and 5.

For this case  $n = \frac{16^a - 1}{15}$  and  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

• Mersenne primes can end in 7.

Proof:

$$2^{p} - 1 = 30n + 7$$
  
 $8\left(2^{\frac{p-3}{4}} - 1\right) = 30n$   
 $4(2^{\frac{p-3}{4}} - 1) = 15n$   
Making  $a = \frac{p-3}{4}$ , being *a* integer and  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  would be:  
 $4(16^{a} - 1) = 15n$  where  $16^{a} - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{15}$ . For this case  $n = \frac{4(16^{a} - 1)}{15}$  and  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ .  
2. Prime numbers *p* can have the form:

$$p = 30n + [1, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29]$$

With the restrictions expressed in 1c. and 1d. therefore the forms of p would be:

$$p = \begin{cases} 30n + [1, 13, 17, 29] \text{ for } n \text{ even} \\ 30n + [7, 11, 19, 23] \text{ for } n \text{ odd} \end{cases} \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$
$$p = \begin{cases} 30n + [7, 11, 19, 23] \text{ for } n \text{ even} \\ 30n + [1, 13, 17, 29] \text{ for } n \text{ odd} \end{cases} \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$$

3. Mersene primes are infinite, according to Dirichlet's theorem [11] and the form of prime numbers given by Porras-Ferreira and Andrade (2014) [1], where:

$$M_n = 2^p - 1 = 30n + 1$$
 for  $n = \frac{16^a - 1}{15}$ ,  $a = \frac{p - 1}{4}$  and  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , or  
 $M_n = 2^p - 1 = 30n + 7$  for  $n = \frac{4(16^a - 1)}{15}$ ,  $a = \frac{p - 3}{4}$  and  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ 

. . . .

with exception of 3 and 7 that are Mersenne Primes also.

## 3.2. The Implication of Dirichlet's Theorem and Prime Order Array to Proof There are Infinite Primes 4x + 1 For $x \ge 1$

On the conjecture of the existence of infinite primes of the form 4x + 1 for  $x \ge 1$  a demonstration is not known, as there is a way of demonstrating that there are infinite primes 4x - 1 for  $x \ge 1$ . [14].

Demonstration that there are infinite primes 4x + 1 for  $x \ge 1$ :

From Equation (1) for  $n \ge 1$ :

- $1 + 30n \equiv 1 \pmod{4} = 4x + 1$  for even *n*, where x = 30n/4
- $7 + 30n \equiv 1 \pmod{4} = 4x + 1$  for odd *n*, where x = (6 + 30n)/4
- $11 + 30n \equiv 1 \pmod{4} = 4x + 1$  for odd *n*, where x = (10 + 30n)/4
- $13 + 30n \equiv 1 \pmod{4} = 4x + 1$  for even *n*, where x = (12 + 30n)/4
- $17 + 30n \equiv 1 \pmod{4} = 4x + 1$  for even *n*, where x = (16 + 30n)/4
- $19 + 30n \equiv 1 \pmod{4} = 4x + 1$  for odd *n*, where x = (18 + 30n)/4
- $23 + 30n \equiv 1 \pmod{4} = 4x + 1$  for odd *n*, where x = (28 + 30n)/4
- $29 + 30n \equiv 1 \pmod{4} = 4x + 1$  for even *n*, where x = (28 + 30n)/4

According to Dirichlet's theorem [11] and the form of prime numbers given by Porras-Ferreira and Andrade (2014) [1], there are infinite solutions of prime numbers ending in [1, 13, 17, 29] for even n and for prime numbers ending in [7, 11, 19, 23] for odd n, therefore there are infinite primes 4x + 1 for  $x \ge 1$ .

Because it has been able to effect the transformation 4x + 1 to the general form of the prime numbers given by Equation (1), leads to the conclusion that there are infinite prime of the 4x + 1 form. Table VII shows some examples of primes for different values of odd and even *n* (Equation (1)), calculating the respective *x* value for 4x + 1 primes. The respective prime number meets the two forms simultaneously (Equation (1) and 4x + 1 forms):

**Table VII.** Examples of primes 4x + 1 compared with primes of Equation (1), for values of odd and even n

Form	n	Primes	x	Form
	71	2137	534	
7 + 30n	101	3037	759	4x + 1
	361	10837	2709	
	71	2141	535	
11 + 30n	101	3041	760	4x + 1
	107	3221	805	
	3	109	27	
19 + 30 <i>n</i>	101	3049	762	4x + 1
	105	3169	792	
	71	2153	538	
23 + 30n	113	3413	853	4x + 1
	361	10853	2713	
	40	1201	300	
1 + 30n	112	3361	840	4x + 1
	148	4441	1110	
	40	1213	303	
13 + 30n	112	3373	843	4x + 1

A General Solution for the Conjectures Related To the Infinity of Prime Numbers that Take any Special Form

	386	11593	2898	
	40	1217	304	
17 + 30n	120	3617	904	4x + 1
	386	11597	2899	
	40	1229	307	
29 + 30n	130	3929	982	4x + 1
	228	6869	1717	

#### Q.E.D.

Also let *p* be an odd prime. Then  $x^2 \equiv -1 \mod p$  has a solution (i.e. -1 is a quadratic residue of *p*) iff  $p \equiv 1 \mod 4$ . In [3] was demonstrated infinite primes exist that form  $p = x^2 + 1$ , then infinite primes exist that form 4x + 1. By another form, suppose there are finitely many  $p_1, p_2, ..., p_k$ . If  $N = (2p_1p_2 ... p_k)^2 + 1$  where N > 1 and odd, therefore exist and odd prime p|N, where  $p = p_m$  for some  $1 \le m \le k$ , but  $(2p_1p_2 ... p_k)^2 \equiv -1 \mod p$  where  $p \equiv 1 \mod 4$  then  $p|(2p_1p_2 ... p_k)^2$  and p|1 is false. So there exist infinite *p* where  $p > p_k$  and it is possible to continue in the same way as  $p_k \to \infty$ . This procedure is similar to the demonstration that exist infinite primes made by Euclid and special cases of a remarkable theorem due to Dirichlet [11] and prime order array [1].

The other way to prove this is by reduction *ad absurdum*, i.e. assuming that there is a prime p congruent  $1 \mod 4$ , which is the largest. As a result, if  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$  are primes congruent  $1 \mod 4$ , then  $p_i \le p$  for all  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ . On the other hand, p = 1 + 4x for some  $x \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then, taking into account the fundamental theorem of arithmetic, x can be represented as

$$x = p_1^{k_1} \times p_2^{k_2} \times \dots \times p_r^{k_2}$$

Where  $k_1, k_2, ..., k_r$ , are non-negative integers,  $r \le n$ .

Defining a number q as well:

$$q = 1 + 4xp$$
$$= 1 + 4p_1^{k_1} \times p_2^{k_2} \times \dots \times p_r^{k_2} \times p$$

Here, it is obvious that, q is not divisible by any prime, since it would always result residue 1, then q is divisible only by 1 and by itself, i.e., q is prime, which turns out to be contradictory since we had assumed that p was the largest prime, and we have found that q is prime, q > p and  $q \equiv 1 \mod 4$ , so there are infinite primes 1 + 4x.

# 3.3. The Implication of Dirichlet'S Theorem and Prime Order Array to Proof there are Infinite Fermat Primes $F_y = 2^{2^y} + 1$ For $y \ge 1$

For this conjecture on whether there are infinite Fermat primes  $F_y = 2^{2^y} + 1$ , the solution is derived from the previous demonstration, since the factor  $2^{2^y}$  can be transform to 4x:

$$2^{2^{y}} = 4^{z}$$
, where  $z = 2^{y-1}$ ,  $4x = 4^{z}$  and  $x = 4^{z-1}$ .

Given that z is always even,  $4^z$  will always end in 6, therefore Fermat primes form is: 30n + 17. As there are infinite prime solutions  $30n + 17 \equiv 1 \pmod{4} = 4x + 1$ , for even *n*, therefore must exist infinite solutions of prime  $4^z + 1 \equiv 2^{2^y} + 1 \equiv 4x + 1 \equiv 30n + 17$  for  $x = 4^{z-1} = 4^{2^{y-1}-1}$ ,  $z = 2^{y-1}$  and  $n = \frac{4^{z-16}}{30} = \frac{4^{2^{y-1}}-16}{30}$ , for  $y \ge 2$ . Note for y = [0, 1], Fermat primes are 3 and 5 and they are the only different primes from form 30n + 17

Table VIII gives examples of Fermat primes, where the form  $2^{2^{y}} + 1$ , 4x + 1 and 30n + 17 are met.

у	Ζ	4 <sup>z</sup>	n	x	$4^{z} + 1 \equiv 2^{2^{y}} + 1 \equiv 4x + 1 \equiv 30n + 1$
2	2	16	0	4	17
3	4	256	8	64	257
4	8	65536	2184	16384	65567

**Table VIII.** *Examples of Fermat primes*  $F_y = 2^{2^y} + 1$ 

To date the largest Fermat prime number known is 65537. Verifications for z = [16, 32, 64, 128, 256, 512, 1024] have been made and the resulting numbers are composites, however as primes of form 30n + 17 are infinite there is no reason for values of  $n = \frac{4^z - 16}{30}$  with higher values of z > 1024, can be Fermat primes where *n* is an exponential progression and in Equation (2), *n* is an arithmetic progression.

#### Q.E.D.

Whether there is heuristic argument that suggests there is only a finite number of them. This argument is to due to Hardy and Wright [26].

Recall that the Prime Number Theorem says  $\Pi(x) \sim \frac{x}{\log x}$ , where  $\Pi(x)$  is the number of primes  $\leq x$ . Hence  $\Pi(x) < \frac{Ax}{\log x}$  for some constant *A*, and the probability that *x* is a prime is at most  $\frac{A}{\log x}$ . For  $2^{2^y} + 1$ , the probability that it is a prime is  $\leq \frac{A}{\log (2^{2^y} + 1)} \leq \frac{A}{\log 2^{2^y}} = \frac{A}{2^y \log x} \leq \frac{A}{2^y}$ . Hence, the expected number of primes in this form is  $\leq \sum_{0}^{\infty} \frac{A}{2^y} = 2A$  which is a finite number.

However, it is necessary to be careful that there arguments do not prove that there are really only finitely many Fermat primes. After all, they are only heuristic, as it can be seen in a similar arguments:

1. Use the same reasoning to argue that there are infinitely many twin primes. Recall the Prime Number Theorem can be stated using limit:  $\lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{\Pi(x)}{\frac{x}{\log x}} = 1$ . Hence give  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a number X such that  $1 - \varepsilon < \frac{\Pi(x)}{\frac{x}{\log x}}$  for all x > X

Thus, the probability that x and x + 2 are both primes is  $\frac{\Pi(x)}{x} \cdot \frac{\Pi(x+2)}{x+2} > \frac{1}{\log x} \cdot \frac{1}{\log(x+2)} (1-\varepsilon)^2$  for x > X. So the expected number of twin primes is  $\sum_{0}^{m} \frac{1}{x} (1-\varepsilon)^2 + \sum_{m}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} (1-\varepsilon)^2$  which diverges. There are infinitely many primes in the form of  $2^x + 1$ .

Using the exact same argument, the expected number of primes in this form is  $\sum_{0}^{m} \frac{1}{x} (1-\varepsilon)^2 + m \infty 1x(1-\varepsilon)^2$  which diverges.

But  $2^x + 1$  primes and  $2^{2^y} + 1$  primes are the same set. This latter argument suggests Hardy and Wright's argument does not take into account of the properties of Fermat primes. It is to say that the variable x is not that random. It works largely because gaps between successive Fermat numbers are extremely large. Nevertheless, given any number (even a number of a particular form), it is more likely to be a composite than prime. Therefore, bounding the probability of it being a prime by a lower bound gives a weaker argument that bounding it from above then there are infinitely many Fermat prime as it was demonstrated.

#### **3.4.** Analysis on Perfect Numbers

A positive integer n is called a perfect number if it is equal to the sum of all its positive integers divisors excluding n [27]. Mersenne primes are connected with perfect numbers thru the equation

$$2^{p-1}(2^p - 1) = 2^{p-1}M_n = n \tag{4}$$

This demonstration was made by Euclid 2500 years ago showing that  $2^p - 1$  should be a Mersenne Prime. In the XVIII century Euler probe the convers meaning that every perfect number has to have the form of Equation (4). That demonstration is in [14], [28] and [29].

The reason why perfect numbers comply with the above for  $M_n$  and the other primes don't can be demonstrated as follows:

Proof:

- Let *n* be a perfect number and  $M_p$  a prime number *M* different from a Mersenne prime.
- Equation (4) would be:  $2^{p-1}M = n$

- The sum of the factors of  $2^{p-1}$  is  $2^{p-1} 1$ , (for example the sum of the factors of  $2^{5-1} = 16$  is  $2+4+8+1 = 15 = 2^{5-1} 1$ .
- The sum of all divisors of n for p is  $(2^{p-1}-1)$  and the sum of its factors by M would be  $(2^{p-1}-1)M$ .
- Therefore the sum of all divisors of n would be:  $(2^{p-1} 1)M + (2^{p-1} 1) + 2^{p-1} = 2^{p-1}M M + 2(2^{p-1}) 1 = n = 2^{p-1}M$
- $M = 2(2^{p-1}) 1 = 2^p 1$  .....according to 4.
- $M = M_p$  Therefore what was assumed in 1 is false .....according to 6.

#### Q.E.D.

The above demonstration left all even numbers n in equation (4) as perfect and as it was said, Euler proves that all even perfect numbers have that form.

The second question analyzed is to prove that odd perfect numbers cannot exist. For example Roberts, T. 2008 [30] has done studies on the form of an odd perfect number; Goto, T; Ohno, Y. 2008 [31] established that odd perfect numbers have a prime factor exceeding  $10^8$  and Ochem, Pascal and Rao, Michaël., 2012 [32] established that odd perfect numbers are greater than  $10^{1500}$ , but it is not necessary to go there according to the following demonstration:

Proof:

- Let  $n = n_p$  an odd perfect number.
- The fundamental theorem of integer numbers say that all integer number can be decomposed in its prime factors. As n is odd its prime factors are odd,  $n = p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_m$  where  $p_m$  is the m esim odd prime factor that compose n.
- Initially assuming that m = 2, meaning there are 2 prime factors where  $p_2 \ge p_1$  and  $n = p_1 p_2$
- By definition of a perfect number, for  $n = n_{p_2}$  be a perfect number  $(n_{p_2}$  is a perfect number with two prime factors), must be equal to the sum of all its integer positive divisors excluding n, therefore:

$$n_{p_2} = 1 + p_1 + p_2$$

• According to 1, 3 and 4

$$n = p_1 p_2 = n_{p_2} = 1 + p_1 + p_2$$

but,

$$n = p_1 p_2 = (p_1 - 1)p_2 + p_2 = n_{p_2} = 1 + p_1 + p_2$$

therefore:

$$(p_1 - 1)p_2 = 1 + p_1$$

Being  $p_1 \ge 3$  and  $p_2 \ge p_1 \ge 3$ , then  $(p_1 - 1)p_2 \ne 1 + p_1$  and  $n = (p_1 - 1)p_2 + p_2 \ne n_{p_2} = 1 + p_1 + p_2$ , therefore, there are not odd perfect numbers with two odd prime factors.

- Assuming that m > 2 where  $p_1 \le p_2 \le p_3 \le \cdots \ p_m$  and  $n = p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_m$  that can be reduced to:  $n/p_a = p_1 p_2$  where  $p_a = p_3 \dots p_m$
- According to 5.  $\frac{n}{p_a} \neq n_{p_2}$ , therefore  $n \neq n_{p_2}p_a = n_{p_m} = 1 + p_1 + p_2 + p_3 + \dots p_m + p_2p_3 \dots pm + p_1p_3 \dots pm + p_1p_2 \dots pm + \dots + p_1p_2p_3 \dots pm 1$ . In conclusion, there cannot be an odd number equal to a perfect number.

Q.E.D.

The complete exercise for m = 3 is as follow,

$$n = p_1 p_2 p_3$$

$$n_{p_3} = 1 + p_1 + p_2 p_3 + p_2 + p_1 p_3 + p_3 + p_1 p_2$$

$$n = p_2 p_3 + (p_1 - 1) p_2 p_3 = p_2 p_3 + (p_1 - 1) p_3 + (p_1 - 1) (p_2 - 1) p_3$$

$$= p_2 p_3 + (p_1 - 1) p_3 + (p_1 - 1) (p_2 - 1) + (p_1 - 1) (p_2 - 1) (p_3 - 1)$$

$$= 1 - p_1 - p_2 - p_3 + p_1 p_2 + p_1 p_3 + p_2 p_3 + (p_1 - 1) (p_2 - 1) (p_3 - 1)$$

$$n = n_{p_3}$$

$$(p_1 - 1) (p_2 - 1) (p_3 - 1) = 2p_1 + 2p_2 + 2p_3$$

but:

 $(p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1)(p_3 - 1) \neq 2(p_1 + p_2 + p_3)$ therefore:

 $n \neq n_{p_3}$ 

Note: In Equation (5) it is easy to prove that when  $p_{1,2} = 3$  and  $p_3 \le 7$  then:

$$(p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1)(p_3 - 1) < 2(p_1 + p_2 + p_3)$$
 and when  $p_1 \ge 3$  and  $p_{2,3} \ge 5$  then:

$$(p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1)(p_3 - 1) > 2(p_1 + p_2 + p_3)$$

The effect of multiplication in the left side is greater than the effect of sum in the right side of Equation (5).

#### 5. CONCLUSION

Prime numbers are infinite along each one of the eight columns where they are located in the 30column array. This means that composite numbers that may form in Equation (1) never will fill all cells of each of those columns, complying the patterns given by Equations (2) and (3) to infinity. It can happen, for example in some cells within the repetitive pattern of the factor 7, all cells can be filled for all composite numbers, but there will be others going to infinity where this won't happen. Therefore there will always be prime numbers occupying the cells where there are no composite numbers as  $n \to \infty$ . Because of the above, the pattern of order of the prime numbers given by Equation (1) is confirmed.

Applying Dirichlet's theorem the infinity of the prime numbers along each of the columns in Equation (1) is confirmed, so that if any conjecture on prime numbers obey to a pattern that can be algebraically transformed to the form of Equation (1), there will be warranty of the certainty of such conjecture, since there is no limit where the conjecture and the equivalent p values are the same as  $n \operatorname{row} \to \infty$ .

It was demonstrated that Mersenne primes only end in 1 and 7 therefore they are of the form 30n + [1, 7] for  $n \ge 1$ , with exception of 3 and 7 that are Mersenne primes. Using Dirichlet theorem and what was established in Porras-Ferreira and Andrade [1], it was demonstrated that Mersenne primes are infinite. Also it was demonstrated that primes 4x + 1 and Fermat primes are infinite as special cases of a remarkable theorem due to Dirichlet [11] and prime order array [1].

Likewise, Mersenne primes are part of all even perfect numbers, as was demonstrated by Euclid and Euler, it was demonstrated that primes different of Mersenne primes can't be part of even perfect numbers. Finally it was demonstrated that odd perfect numbers cannot exist.

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