

THE BINARY GOLDBACH CONJECTURE AND CIRCLES OF PARTITION

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ABSTRACT. In this paper we use a new method to study problems in the additive number theory (see [1]). With the notion of circle of partition as a set of points whose weights are natural numbers of a particular subset under an additive condition we be able to prove that infinitely many natural numbers ≥ 6 have at least one representation as the sum of two prime numbers. This means a statement nearby the original binary Goldbach conjecture.

1. Introduction

The Goldbach conjecture dates from 1742 out of the correspondence between the Swiss mathematician Leonard Euler and the German mathematician Christian Goldbach. The problem has two folds, namely the binary case and the ternary case. The binary case ask if every even number ≥ 6 can be written as a sum of two primes, where as the ternary case ask if every odd number ≥ 7 can be written as a sum of three prime numbers. The ternary case has, however, been solved quite recently in the preprint [2] culminating several works. Though the binary problem remains unsolved as of now there has been substantive progress as well as on its variants. The first milestone in this direction can be found in (see [6]), where it is shown that every even number can be written as the sum of at most C primes, where C is an effectively computable constant. In the early twentieth century, G.H Hardy and J.E Littlewood assuming the Generalized Riemann hypothesis (see [9]), showed that the number of even numbers $\leq X$ and violating the binary Goldbach conjecture is much less than $X^{\frac{1}{2}+c}$, where c is a small positive constant. Jing-run Chen [4], using the methods of sieve theory, showed that every even number can either be written as a sum of two prime numbers or a prime number and a number which is a product of two primes. It also known that almost all even numbers can be written as the sum of two prime numbers, in the sense that the density of even numbers representable in this manner is one [8], [7]. It is also known that there exist a constant K such that every even number can be written as the sum of two prime numbers and at most K powers of two, where we can take $K = 13$ [5].

In [1] we have developed a method which we feel might be a valuable resource and a recipe for studying problems concerning partition of numbers in specified subsets of \mathbb{N} . The method is very elementary in nature and has parallels with configurations of points on the geometric circle.

Let us suppose that for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we can write $n = u + v$ where $u, v \in \mathbb{M} \subset \mathbb{N}$ then the new method associate each of this summands to points on the circle generated

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in a certain manner by $n > 2$ and a line joining any such associated points on the circle. This geometric correspondence turns out to be useful in our development, as the results obtained in this setting are then transformed back to results concerning the partition of integers.

2. The Circle of Partition

Here we repeat the base results of the method of circles of partition developed in [1].

Definition 2.1. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathbb{M} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. We denote with

$$\mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{M}) = \{[x] \mid x, y \in \mathbb{M}, n = x + y\}$$

the **Circle of Partition** generated by n with respect to the subset \mathbb{M} . We will abbreviate this in the further text as CoP. We call members of $\mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{M})$ as points and denote them by $[x]$. For the special case $\mathbb{M} = \mathbb{N}$ we denote the CoP shortly as $\mathcal{C}(n)$. We denote with $\|[x]\| := x$ the **weight** of the point $[x]$ and correspondingly the weight set of points in the CoP $\mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{M})$ as $\|\mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{M})\|$. Obviously holds

$$\|\mathcal{C}(n)\| = \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\}.$$

Definition 2.2. We denote the line $\mathbb{L}_{[x],[y]}$ joining the point $[x]$ and $[y]$ as an axis of the CoP $\mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{M})$ if and only if $x + y = n$. We say the axis point $[y]$ is an axis partner of the axis point $[x]$ and vice versa. We do not distinguish between $\mathbb{L}_{[x],[y]}$ and $\mathbb{L}_{[y],[x]}$, since it is essentially the same axis. The point $[x] \in \mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{M})$ such that $2x = n$ is the **center** of the CoP. If it exists then we call it as a **degenerated axis** $\mathbb{L}_{[x]}$ in comparison to the **real axes** $\mathbb{L}_{[x],[y]}$. We denote the assignment of an axis $\mathbb{L}_{[x],[y]}$ to a CoP $\mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{M})$ as

$$\mathbb{L}_{[x],[y]} \hat{=} \mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{M}) \text{ which means } [x], [y] \in \mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{M}) \text{ with } x + y = n.$$

Proposition 2.3. *Each axis is uniquely determined by points $[x] \in \mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{M})$.*

Proof. Let $\mathbb{L}_{[x],[y]}$ be an axis of the CoP $\mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{M})$. Suppose as well that $\mathbb{L}_{[x],[z]}$ is also an axis with $z \neq y$. Then it follows by Definition 2.2 that we must have $n = x + y = x + z$ and therefore $y = z$. This cannot be and the claim follows immediately. \square

Corollary 2.4. *Each point of a CoP $\mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{M})$ except its center has exactly one axis partner.*

Proof. Let $[x] \in \mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{M})$ be a point without an axis partner being not the center of the CoP. Then holds for every point $[y] \neq [x]$ except the center

$$x + y \neq n.$$

This contradicts to the Definition 2.1. Due to Proposition 2.3 the case of more than one axis partners is impossible. This completes the proof. \square

3. The Fundamental Theorem and its Conclusion

Theorem 3.1 (Fundamental). *Let $n, r \in \mathbb{N}$, $\mathbb{M} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{M})$ be a nonempty CoP with an axis $\mathbb{L}_{[x], [n-x]} \hat{\in} \mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{M})$ ¹. If holds $x + r \in \mathbb{M}$ then $\mathcal{C}(n + r, \mathbb{M})$ is a nonempty CoP too.*

Proof. Since $\mathbb{L}_{[x], [n-x]} \hat{\in} \mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{M})$, x and $n - x$ are members of \mathbb{M} . And due to the premise also $x + r \in \mathbb{M}$. Then holds

$$n + r - (x + r) = n - x \in \mathbb{M}.$$

Ergo there is an axis $\mathbb{L}_{[x+r], [n+r-(x+r)]} \hat{\in} \mathcal{C}(n + r, \mathbb{M})$ and $\mathcal{C}(n + r, \mathbb{M})$ is nonempty. \square

Corollary 3.2. *Let the requirements of Theorem 3.1 be fulfilled. If the base set \mathbb{M} is an infinite set and there exists a nonempty CoP $\mathcal{C}(n_o, \mathbb{M})$ then there exist infinitely many positive integers $n > n_o$ with nonempty CoPs $\mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{M})$.*

Proof. Let $\mathbb{L}_{[x], [n-x]}$ be an axis of $\mathcal{C}(n_o, \mathbb{M})$. Then is due to Theorem 3.1 also $\mathcal{C}(n_o + r_1, \mathbb{M})$ nonempty with $r_1 > 0$ and if $x + r_1 \in \mathbb{M}$. From this CoP we can continue this process with $r_2 > 0$ to the nonempty CoP $\mathcal{C}(n_o + r_1 + r_2, \mathbb{M})$. Since the base set is an infinite set this process can be repeated infinitely many. \square

Lemma 3.3. *It is possible to construct all CoPs $\mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{P})$ containing a certain member $[x_o]$ with $n \geq 2x_o$.*

Proof. We start with $n_o = 2x_o$. Since $[x_o] \in \mathcal{C}(n_o, \mathbb{P})$, x_o is prime. The CoP $\mathcal{C}(n_o, \mathbb{P})$ contains the degenerated axis $\mathbb{L}_{[x_o]}$. The next prime after x_o is x_1 and $r_1 = x_1 - x_o$. By virtue of Theorem 3.1 the CoP $\mathcal{C}(n_o + r_1, \mathbb{P})$ contains the axis $\mathbb{L}_{[x_1], [n_1-x_1]}$ with $n_1 = n_o + r_1$. Because of $x_o = \frac{n_o}{2}$ holds

$$x_o + r_1 = \frac{n_o}{2} + r_1 > \frac{n_o + r_1}{2} = \frac{n_1}{2} \longrightarrow x_1 > n_1 - x_1.$$

And also in virtue of Theorem 3.1 holds $n_1 - x_1 = n_o - x_o = \frac{n_o}{2}$. Since x_1 is the immediate subsequent prime after x_o there is no CoP $\mathcal{C}(n, \mathbb{P})$ with $n_o < n < n_1$ containing $[x_o]$.

We continue as the next step with $\mathcal{C}(n_1, \mathbb{P})$ and its member $[x_1]$. In the same way like in the previous step we come to $\mathcal{C}(n_2, \mathbb{P})$ and its axis $\mathbb{L}_{[x_2], [n_2-x_2]}$ and in virtue of Theorem 3.1 $n_2 - x_2 = n_o - x_o$.

These steps we can repeat infinitely many often and we obtain the chain

$$\mathcal{C}(n_o, \mathbb{P}), \mathcal{C}(n_1, \mathbb{P}), \mathcal{C}(n_2, \mathbb{P}), \dots \mathcal{C}(n_s, \mathbb{P}), \dots$$

containing all the point $x_o = \frac{n_o}{2}$. The only CoPs which are not constructed in this way are the CoP with $n < n_o$. But these CoPs will be constructed by the chains of CoPs starting from all $n < n_o \mid n \geq 6$.

Hence by construction of all chains of CoPs starting with [3] we obtain all CoPs containing a fixed member $[x_o]$ for $x_o \geq 3$. \square

¹The axis can also be a degenerated axis with $x = n - x = \frac{n}{2}$ if it exists.

Theorem 3.4 (Infinite Goldberg). *There are infinitely many even positive integers $n \geq 6$ having at least one representation as sum of two primes.*

Proof. As an equivalent to the claim we prove that there exist nonempty CoPs for almost all generators $n \geq 6$. We construct by virtue of Lemma 3.3 chains of nonempty CoPs starting with generators $n = 2p$ for all $p \geq 3$. These are infinitely many chains with infinite lengths for each. By this procedure we reproduce all nonempty CoPs. But whether each even number ≥ 6 generates a CoP in this pool, remains still open. \square

T. Estermann [7] could prove in 1938 a similar result using analytical methods. But our proof uses only elementary instruments and is more constructive, is even programmable.

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