# **Polynomials and Primes**

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#### 1 Introduction

If f is a polynomial is it possible that an infinite number of  $f(0), f(1), f(2), \ldots$  are prime? It is well known that if  $f \in Z[x]$  then the answer is no. We show this result for  $f \in Q[x]$  and also for  $f \in C[x]$ . We then discuss what happens over other domains and also what happens with two variables. None of what we present is original.

We remind the reader that if p is a prime then -p is a prime. More generally, there are three kinds of numbers: (1) units, which have multiplicative inverses (just -1, 1 in Z), (2) primes, numbers such that if p = ab then one of a, b is a unit, (3) composites, numbers that are neither prime nor units.

#### **2** Polynomials in Z[x]

**Theorem 2.1** Let  $f(x) = \sum_{L=0}^{d} a_L x^L$  be a polynomial over Z. If there exists  $y \in Z$  such that for all  $0 \le m \le 2(d-1)$ , f(y+mf(y)) f(x) is prime then f(x) is constant.

## **Proof:**

Let  $0 \le m \le 2(d-1)$ .

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$$f(y+mf(y)) = \sum_{L=0}^{d} a_L (y+mf(y))^L = \sum_{L=0}^{d} a_L \sum_{i=0}^{L} \binom{L}{i} (mf(y))^i y^{L-i} = \sum_{L=0}^{d} a_L (y^L + \sum_{i=1}^{L} \binom{L}{i} (mf(y))^i) = \sum_{i=1}^{d} a_L (y^L + \sum_{i=1}^{L} \binom{L}{i} (y^L + \sum_{i=1}^{L} \binom{L}{$$

$$\sum_{L=0}^{d} a_L y^L + \sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} a_L \binom{L}{i} (mf(y))^i = f(y) + f(y) (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} a_L \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) \equiv 0 \pmod{f(y)}$$

Hence, for all  $0 \le m \le 2d-2$ , f(y) divides f(y+mf(y)). Since both f(y) and f(y+mf(y))are prime  $f(y+mf(y)) \in \{-f(y), f(y)\}$ . Hence for d+1 values of m we must have that f(f(y)+mf(y)) is the same. Since f is of degree  $\le d$ , f must be constant.

**Corollary 2.2** Let  $f(x) \in Z[x]$ . There are an infinite number of  $y \in Z$  such that f(y) is not prime. Can we actually find a y such that f(y) is not prime?

- **Theorem 2.3** 1. There exists an deterministic algorithm that will, on input  $f(x) = \sum_{L=0}^{d} a_L x^L$ , determine a y such that f(y) is not prime. The algorithm takes 2d 1 evaluations of f.
  - 2. There exists a randomized algorithm that will, on input  $f(x) = \sum_{L=0}^{d} a_L x^L$ , determine a y such that f(y) is not prime. The algorithm takes 1 evaluation of f and has failure probability  $\frac{1}{2d-2}$ .

#### **Proof:**

1) Compute f(1 + mf(1)) as m = 0, 1, ..., 2d - 2 until you get a non prime. By Theorem 2 this algorithm works.

2) Pick a random  $0 \le m \le (2d-1)^2$  and evaluate it. If it's not prime then you succeed, if not then you fail. By a slight modification of Theorem 2 at most 2d-2 of the m will fail, so the probability of failure is  $\frac{2d-2}{(2d-2)^2} = \frac{1}{2d-2}$ .

**Open Question:** Is there a better deterministic algorithm in terms of number of evaluations. Note that since the model of computation is just number-of-evals lower bounds may be possible.

Note 2.4 The above can all be adjusted to find y such that f(y) is composite (so not -1,1) with slightly worse bounds.

## **3** Polynomials in D[x]

What is is about Z that made the proof of Theorem 2 work? The only property of Z that we used was that it had a finite number of units. In this section proof we proof an analog of Theorem 2 for such integral domains.

Throughout this section D is an integral domain with a finite number of units. We denote the set of units U.

The following theorem is from Steven Weintraub's article [2].

**Theorem 3.1** Let  $f(x) = \sum_{L=0}^{d} a_L x^L$  be a polynomial over D. If there exists  $y \in Z$  such that for all  $0 \le m \le |U|(d-1)$ , f(y+mf(y)) f(x) is prime then f(x) is constant.

## **Proof:**

Let  $0 \le m \le |U|(d-1)$ .

$$f(y+mf(y)) = \sum_{L=0}^{d} a_L (y+mf(y))^L = \sum_{L=0}^{d} a_L \sum_{i=0}^{L} \binom{L}{i} (mf(y))^i y^{L-i} = \sum_{L=0}^{d} a_L (y^L + \sum_{i=1}^{L} a_L \binom{L}{i} (mf(y))^i)$$

$$\sum_{L=0}^{d} a_L y^L + \sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} a_L \binom{L}{i} (mf(y))^i = f(y) + f(y) (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} a_L \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) \equiv 0 \pmod{f(y)}$$

Hence, for all  $0 \le m \le 2d-2$ , f(y) divides f(y+mf(y)). Since both f(y) and f(y+mf(y))are prime  $f(y+mf(y)) \in \{uf(y) : u \in U\}$ . Hence for d+1 values of m we must have that f(f(y)+mf(y)) is the same. Since f is of degree  $\le d$ , f must be constant.

**Corollary 3.2** Let  $f(x) \in D[x]$ . There are an infinite number of  $y \in D$  such that f(y) is not prime.

The following has a proof similar to that of Theorem 2.3, and has similar open questions related to it.

- **Theorem 3.3** 1. There exists an deterministic algorithm that will, on input  $f(x) = \sum_{L=0}^{d} a_L x^L$ , determine a y such that f(y) is not prime. The algorithm takes |U|(d-1) evaluations of f.
  - 2. There exists a randomized algorithm that will, on input  $f(x) = \sum_{L=0}^{d} a_L x^L$ , determine a y such that f(y) is not prime. The algorithm takes 1 evaluation of f and has failure probability  $\frac{1}{|U|(d-1)}$ .

Note 3.4 The above can all be adjusted to find y such that f(y) is composite (so not a unit with slightly worse bounds.

## **4** Polynomials in Q[x]

Is there a version of Theorem 2 for Q? There is!

Let  $\omega(B)$  be the number of distinct prime divisors of B.

**Theorem 4.1** Let  $f(x) = \sum_{L=0}^{d} \frac{a_L}{b_L} x^L$  be a polynomial over Q. Let  $B = LCM(b_0, \ldots, b_L)$ . If there exists  $y_1, \ldots, y_{\omega(B)+1} \in \mathsf{Z}$  such that for all  $0 \le m \le 2(d-1)$ , f(y+mf(y)) f(x) is prime then f(x) is constant.

## **Proof:**

Let  $y \in \{y_1, \dots, y_{\omega(B)+1}$ . Let  $0 \le m \le 2(d-1)$ .

$$f(y+mf(y)) = \sum_{L=0}^{d} \frac{a_L}{b_L} (y+mf(y))^L = \sum_{L=0}^{d} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \sum_{i=0}^{L} \binom{L}{i} (mf(y))^i y^{L-i} = \sum_{L=0}^{d} \frac{a_L}{b_L} (y^L + \sum_{i=1}^{L} \binom{L}{i} (mf(y))^i) = \sum_{L=0}^{d} \frac{a_L}{b_L} (y^L + \sum_{i=1}^{L} \binom{L}{i} (y^L +$$

$$\sum_{L=0}^{d} \frac{a_L}{b_L} y^L + \sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} (mf(y))^i = f(y) + f(y) (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}) = f(y) (1 + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L}{b_L} \binom{L}{i} m^i$$

The right hand side has fractions in it so we cannot say anything about divisibility. We multiply both sides to B to clear fractions and obtain

$$Bf(y + mf(y)) = f(y)(B + (\sum_{L=0}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{a_L B}{b_L} {L \choose i} m^i f(y)^{i-1}))$$

Since B, f(y + mf(y)), f(y), and  $(B + \cdots)$  are all in Z, and f(y + mf(y)) and f(y) are primes, we have that either f(y) divides f(y + mf(y)) (so  $f(y + mf(y)) \in \{-f(y), f(y)\}$ ) or f(y) is a prime factor of B. We rephrase this as

$$(\forall y \in \{y_1, \dots, y_{\omega(B)+1} (\forall 0 \le m \le 2(d-1)) [f(y+mf(y)) \in \{-f(y), f(y)\} \text{ OR } f(y) \text{ is prime factor of } B].$$

#### There are two cases.

1)  $(\forall y \in \{y_1, \dots, y_{\omega(B)+1} \ y \text{ is a prime factor of } B$ . This cannot happen since B only has  $\omega(B)$  prime factors.

2)

$$(\exists y \in \{y_1, \dots, y_{\omega(B)+1} (\forall 0 \le m \le 2(d-1)) [f(y+mf(y)) \in \{-f(y), f(y)\}.]$$

Then there would be d + 1 points mapping to the same thing. Hence f is constant.

## **5** Polynomials in C[x]

Is there a version of Theorem 4.1 for C? There is!

**Theorem 5.1** Let  $f(x) = \sum_{L=0}^{d} \frac{a_L}{b_L} x^L$  be a polynomial over C. Let  $B = LCM(b_0, \ldots, b_L)$ . If there exists  $y_1, \ldots, y_{\omega(B)+1} \in \mathsf{Z}$  such that for all  $0 \le m \le 2(d-1)$ , f(y+mf(y)) f(x) is prime then f(x) is constant.

**Proof:** By the premise there are  $(\omega(B) + 1)(2(d - 1) + 1)$  integers that map to integers. Since the polynomial is of degree *d*, by Lagrange interpolation the polynomial is actually in Q[*x*]. Now apply Theorem 4.1.

#### 6 Polynomials in Two Variables

Similar questions for polynomails in two variables are much harder. See Mollin's article [1] for a survey.

## 7 A Polynomials that Produces a Long Sequence of Primes

Euler noted that  $x^2 - x + 41$  is prime for  $x = 0, \dots, 40$ .

Ribenboim (*The new book of prime records, Springer 1995*) mentions a cubic polynomial that produces a run of 24 non-composites:  $x^3 - 34x^2 + 381x - 1511$ .

#### 8 Do Primes Occur Infinitely Often?

If  $f(x) \in Z[x]$  then for an infinite number of y, f(y) is composite. Do we have that for an infinite number of y, f(y) is prime? The short stupid answer is NO: let f(x) = 2x.

Let us rephrase is: Let  $f(x) \in Z[x]$  be such that the coefficients of f are relatively prime. Are there an infinite number of y such that f(y) is prime?

- 1. Dirichlet's theorem: if GCD(a, b) = 1 then f(x) = ax + b is a prime infinitely often.
- 2. Open Question: is  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$  is prime infinitely often.
- 3. Are there any degree  $d \ge 2$  polynomials in Z[x] that produce primes infinitely often. I think this is open, but the good money says that all polynomials have this property.

# References

- R. Rollin. Prime producing quadratics. *The American Mathematical Monthly*, 104:529–544, 1997.
- [2] S. Weintraub. Values of polynomials over integral domains. *The American Mathematical Monthly*, 121:73–74, 2014.