

## A REMARK ON PRIME REPUNITS

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ABSTRACT. A formula for the generating function of prime repunits is given in terms of a Lambert series using S. Golomb's formula.

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### 1. INTRODUCTION AND MAIN RESULT

Identities can be sometimes used to prove that certain sequences of numbers are infinite. Recall the following known example attributed to J. Hacks in Dickson's *History of the theory of numbers*. From the well-known formula  $\prod_p \left(\frac{1}{1-1/p^2}\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$  (Euler) and the fact that  $\pi^2$  is irrational (Legendre) one obtains that the number of primes  $p$  is infinite (if the number of primes were finite then the left hand side would be a rational number). Of course, this is not a simple proof, see [1].

The aim of this note is, using Solomon Golomb's formula (2.1) (see [2]), to give a formula which involves the generating function of prime repunits and to make a remark with the above idea. We need some notation first.

A *repunit* is a natural number whose decimal expansion contains only the digit one:  $R_n := \underbrace{1 \cdots 1}_n = \frac{10^n - 1}{9}$ . It is known that  $R_n$  is a prime repunit for  $n = 2, 19, 23, 317, 1031$ . An open question is to know whether the number of prime repunits is infinite.

For a natural number  $m_0$  we write  $m_0 = p_1^{r_1} \cdots p_\ell^{r_\ell}$  where  $p_i$  are distinct primes and  $r_i \geq 1$  (we shall always use  $p$  to denote a prime number). We write lcm for the least common multiple, gcd for the greatest common divisor and  $\mu$  to denote the Möbius function. We denote by  $\nu(m_0)$  an additive function i.e. a function defined at positive integer numbers so that  $\nu(a) + \nu(b) = \nu(ab)$  if  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ . Also, we write as usual  $\omega(p_1^{r_1} \cdots p_\ell^{r_\ell}) = \ell$  and  $\Omega(n)$  the (completely) additive function which counts the number of prime divisors of  $n$  with multiplicity.

Define the function

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2010 *Mathematics Subject Classification*. 11A41.

*Key words and phrases*. Primes. Repunits.

Research supported in part by Conicet.

$$S_\nu(z) := \sum_{\substack{n \geq 5 \\ R_n \text{ prime}}} z^n \nu(R_n).$$

Observe that  $S_\nu(z)$  is the generating function of the prime repunits greater than 1111.

For  $d > 1$ ,  $\gcd(d, 10) = 1$  we define  $m = m(d)$  the multiplicative order of 10 mod  $d$  i.e.  $m$  is the smallest positive integer such that  $10^m = 1 \pmod{d}$ . Define  $F_d(z)$  as:

$$F_d(z) := \begin{cases} \frac{z^m}{1-z^{6m}} + \frac{z^{5m}}{1-z^{6m}}, & \text{if } m = 1, 5 \pmod{6}, \text{ and } 5 \leq m, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (1.1)$$

We prove the following theorem.

**Theorem.** *Let  $\nu$  be any additive function such that  $\nu(d) = O(d^k)$  for some positive  $k$ . Then in a neighborhood of zero one has*

$$2\nu(3)S_\nu(z) = -\nu(3)^2 \left( \frac{z^7}{1-z^6} + \frac{z^5}{1-z^6} \right) + \sum_{\substack{d \geq 7 \\ \gcd(d, 10) = 1}} \mu(d)\nu(d)^2 F_d(z). \quad (1.2)$$

**Remarks:** The right hand side of (1.2) converges in some neighborhood of zero. Indeed one has  $m \geq \log d$  (log is the logarithm in base 10). Therefore for, say,  $|z| < \frac{1}{2}$ ,

$$\sum_{\substack{d \geq 7 \\ \gcd(d, 10) = 1}} |\mu(d)\nu(d)^2 F_d(z)| \leq O\left(\sum_{d=1}^{\infty} d^{2k} |z|^m\right) \leq O\left(\sum_{d=1}^{\infty} d^{2k} |z|^{\lceil \log d \rceil}\right),$$

the last series being convergent in a suitable neighborhood of zero, where  $\lceil \cdot \rceil$  is the nearest integer function.

In the spirit of the beginning of this note we observe the following immediate corollary of (1.2) (taking  $\nu(p) = 1$ ): *assume that there exists a natural number  $q \geq 11$ , such that the (absolutely convergent) series*

$$\sum_{\substack{d \geq 7 \\ \gcd(d, 10) = 1}} \mu(d)\omega(d)^2 F_d\left(\frac{1}{q}\right) = \sum_{\substack{d \geq 7 \\ \gcd(d, 10) = 1}} \mu(d)\Omega(d)^2 F_d\left(\frac{1}{q}\right)$$

*is an irrational number. Then the number of prime repunits is infinite. (Note: both series are equal due to the factor  $\mu(d)$ .)*

Of course, these series are difficult to analyze and they bear some similarity with the Lambert series  $\sum_1^\infty \frac{1}{2^n - 1}$  which have been proved irrational by Erdős [8] (see also [7]). The difficulty arises due to the extra arithmetical elements present of  $\mu$ ,  $\omega$  (or  $\Omega$ ) and the dependence on  $m$  and  $d$  in  $F_d$ .

As an easy exercise one can prove that if the number of prime repunits is infinite then the above series is irrational for  $q = 100$ . Hint: Use (1.2) and the fact that the number  $S_\omega(\frac{1}{100})$ , whose decimal expansion contains only the digits 0, 1 is an irrational number (this number has the digit 1 in place  $2n$  iff  $1111 < R_n$  is prime). To see this notice that if  $R_n$  is prime then  $n$  must be prime (see below Lemma 2.1 i)).

Finally observe that for an odd square-free number  $1 < d = p_1 \cdots p_\ell$  (distinct primes) with  $\gcd(d, 10) = 1$  the number  $m(d)$  can be obtained as follows: if  $1 \leq n_i$  is the smallest integer such that  $10^{n_i} = 1 \pmod{p_i}$  then  $m(d) = \text{lcm}\{n_1, \dots, n_\ell\}$ . To see this notice that  $m | \text{lcm}\{n_1, \dots, n_\ell\}$  for  $10^{\text{lcm}\{n_1, \dots, n_\ell\}} = 1 \pmod{p_i}$  and therefore  $10^{\text{lcm}\{n_1, \dots, n_\ell\}} = 1 \pmod{d}$ . On the other hand  $10^m = 1 \pmod{d}$  and thus  $10^m = 1 \pmod{p_i}$ ; therefore  $n_i | m$  and then  $\text{lcm}\{n_1, \dots, n_\ell\} | m$ .

## 2. PROOF

For the proof of the theorem we need the following auxiliary lemma.

**Lemma 2.1.**

- i) If  $R_n$  is prime then  $n$  must be prime.
- ii) If  $10^n - 1$  has at most two distinct prime factors, then either  $n = 1, 2, 3$ , or  $n \geq 5$  and  $R_n$  is prime.

Proof: i) If  $n = ab$  then  $\frac{10^{ab}-1}{3^2} = \frac{10^{ab}-1}{10^b-1} \frac{10^b-1}{3^2}$ .

ii) Assume that  $10^n - 1$  has exactly one prime divisor. But  $10^n - 1 = 3^r$ , with  $n, r > 1$  has no solution because this is a special case of Catalan's equation (see [3]).

Therefore, assume that  $10^n - 1$  has exactly two prime divisors and  $n$  is coprime to 3. We write  $10^n - 1 = 3^{2+a}p^r$  and then  $R_n = 3^ap^r$ . If  $a > 0$  then we must have  $3|n$  (the sum of the digits of a number must be divisible by 3 if the number is divisible by 3; the sum of the digits of  $R_n$  is  $n$ ). This is absurd and therefore  $a = 0$ . Bugeaud and Mignotte [6], who completed a theorem of Shorey and Tijdeman ([5], Theorem 5 i)), showed that  $R_n$  is not a perfect power if  $1 < n$ . Thus  $R_n$  is prime if  $n$  is coprime to 3.

Now if  $3|n$  then

$$10^n - 1 = (10^{n/3} - 1)(10^{2n/3} + 10^{n/3} + 1),$$

and the second factor is  $3 \pmod{9}$ , so 3 divides  $n$  but 9 does not. So, the second factor must have some other prime factor  $p > 3$ , therefore the first factor is a power of 3, again false for  $n > 3$  by results on Catalan's equation. Thus  $n = 3$ . ■

We recall S. Golomb's formula (see [2])

$$\sum_{d|m'=p_1^{r_1} \cdots p_\ell^{r_\ell}} \mu(d) \nu(d)^2 = \begin{cases} -\nu(p_1)^2, & \text{if } \ell = 1, \\ 2\nu(p_1)\nu(p_2), & \text{if } \ell = 2, \\ 0, & \text{if } \ell > 2. \end{cases} \quad (2.1)$$

This could be proved by grouping  $d$  as having one divisor, two divisors, three divisors etc., as

$$\begin{aligned}
 & -\binom{\ell-1}{0} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \nu(p_i)^2 + \left\{ \binom{\ell-1}{1} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \nu(p_i)^2 + 2 \binom{\ell-2}{0} \sum_{i<j} \nu(p_i)\nu(p_j) \right\} \\
 & - \left\{ \binom{\ell-1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \nu(p_i)^2 + 2 \binom{\ell-2}{1} \sum_{i<j} \nu(p_i)\nu(p_j) \right\} + \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

which gives the desired formula (2.1) after grouping terms.

We have, using (2.1) and the above lemma, that

$$2\nu(3)S_{\nu}(z) = \sum_{\substack{n \geq 5 \\ n=1,5 \pmod 6}} z^n \left\{ \sum_{d|10^n-1} \mu(d)\nu(d)^2 \right\}.$$

Indeed this last formula follows from (2.1) which gives zero in the case that  $m' = 10^n - 1$  has three or more prime divisors and from the fact that if  $R_n > 1111$  is a prime repunit then  $n$  must be prime and therefore  $n = 1$  or  $n = 5, \text{ mod } 6$ ,  $n \geq 5$ .

We continue our proof. We have

$$\sum_{\substack{n \geq 5 \\ n=1,5 \pmod 6}} z^n \left\{ \sum_{d|10^n-1} \mu(d)\nu(d)^2 \right\} = \sum_{\substack{d=3 \\ \gcd(d,10)=1}}^{\infty} \mu(d)\nu(d)^2 \left\{ \sum_{\substack{n \geq 5 \\ n=1,5 \pmod 6 \\ 10^n=1 \pmod d}} z^n \right\}.$$

Notice that, for fixed  $d$ , the positive solutions of  $10^n = 1 \pmod d$  are given by the set  $\{m, 2m, 3m, 4m, \dots\}$ .

Assume  $d \geq 3$ ,  $\gcd(d, 10) = 1$  and  $d$  is a square-free number. Then  $\sum_{10^n=1 \pmod d} z^n = z^m + z^{2m} + z^{3m} + z^{4m} + \dots$  and therefore the sum

$$\sum_{\substack{n=1,5 \pmod 6 \\ 10^n=1 \pmod d}} z^n = (z^m + z^{7m} + \dots) + (z^{5m} + z^{11m} + \dots)$$

if  $m = 1, 5 \pmod 6$ , and is zero otherwise. Thus

$$\sum_{\substack{n \geq 5 \\ n=1,5 \pmod 6 \\ 10^n=1 \pmod d}} z^n = \begin{cases} \frac{z^m}{1-z^{6m}} + \frac{z^{5m}}{1-z^{6m}}, & \text{if } m = 1, 5 \pmod 6; 5 \leq m, \\ \frac{z}{1-z^6} + \frac{z^5}{1-z^6}, & \text{if } m = 1, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \tag{2.2}$$

But if  $m = 1$  then one must have  $d = 3$ . So

$$\sum_{\substack{d=3 \\ \gcd(d,10)=1}}^{\infty} \mu(d)\nu(d)^2 \left\{ \sum_{\substack{n \geq 5 \\ n=1,5 \pmod 6 \\ 10^n=1 \pmod d}} z^n \right\} =$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& -\nu(3)^2 \left( \frac{z^7}{1-z^6} + \frac{z^5}{1-z^6} \right) + \sum_{\substack{d=7 \\ \gcd(d,10)=1}}^{\infty} \mu(d)\nu(d)^2 \left\{ \sum_{\substack{n \geq 5 \\ n \equiv 1,5 \pmod{6} \\ 10^n \equiv 1 \pmod{d}}} z^n \right\} = \\
& -\nu(3)^2 \left( \frac{z^7}{1-z^6} + \frac{z^5}{1-z^6} \right) + \sum_{\substack{d=7 \\ \gcd(d,10)=1}}^{\infty} \mu(d)\nu(d)^2 F_d(z),
\end{aligned}$$

where (1.1) follows from (2.2).

**Acknowledgment.** We thank Edgardo Güichal for useful conversations and we are grateful to the referee for his/her careful reading and constructive remarks.

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*Recibido: 25 de noviembre de 2010*

*Revisado: 12 de agosto de 2011*

*Aceptado: 29 de febrero de 2012*