$$2x^2 \equiv x^2 + y^2 \equiv z^2 \pmod{p}.$$

By definition, x^2 is a quadratic residue of p. The above congruence implies $2x^2$ is also a quadratic residue of p. If p were of the form $8t \pm 3$, then 2 would be a quadratic nonresidue of p and since x^2 is a quadratic residue of p, $2x^2$ would be a quadratic nonresidue of p, a contradiction. Thus p must be of the form $8t \pm 1$.

Now, if we assume that there is a finite number of primes of the form $8t \pm 1$, and if we let m be the product of these primes, then we obtain a contradiction by imitating the above proof that there are infinitely many primes.

REFERENCE

1. W. Sierpinski. "Pythagorean Triangles." Scripta Mathematica Studies, No. 9. New York: Yeshiva University, 1964.

AN APPLICATION OF PELL'S EQUATION

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The following problem solution is a good classroom presentation or exercise following a discussion of Pell's equation.

Statement of the Problem

Find all natural numbers α and b such that

$$\frac{\alpha(\alpha+1)}{2}=b^2.$$

An alternate statement of the problem is to ask for all triangular numbers which are squares.

Solution of the Problem

$$\frac{\alpha(\alpha+1)}{2} = b^2 \Longleftrightarrow \alpha^2 + \alpha = 2b^2 \Longleftrightarrow \alpha^2 + \alpha - 2b^2 = 0 \Longleftrightarrow \alpha = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{1+8b^2}}{2} \Longleftrightarrow \exists$$

an odd integer t such that $t^2 - 2(2b)^2 = 1$.

This is Pell's equation with fundamental solution [1, p. 197] t=3 and 2b=2 or, equivalently, t=3 and b=1. Note that t=3 implies

$$\alpha = \frac{-1 \pm 3}{2},$$

but, according to the following theorem, we may discard α = -2. Also note that t is odd.

Theorem 1: If D is a natural number that is not a perfect square, the Diophantine equation $x^2 - Dy^2 = 1$ has infinitely many solutions x, y.

All solutions with positive x and y are obtained by the formula

$$x_n + y_n \sqrt{D} = (x_1 + y_1 \sqrt{D})^n,$$

where x_1 , y_1 is the fundamental solution of x^2 - $\mathcal{D}y^2$ = 1 and where n runs through all natural numbers.

A comparison of $(x_n+y_n\sqrt{2})(3+2\sqrt{2})$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}\begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$ shows that all solutions of $t^2-2(2b)^2=1$ are obtained by

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} t_n \\ 2b_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} t_{n+1} \\ 2b_{n+1} \end{pmatrix}$$

and hence all solutions of $\frac{\alpha(\alpha+1)}{2}=b^2$ are obtained from $a_n=\frac{t_n-1}{2}$, $b_n=\frac{2b_n}{2}$.

Note that t_n is odd for all n so a_n is an integer.

CENTRAL FACTORIAL NUMBERS AND RELATED EXPANSIONS

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1. INTRODUCTION

The central factorials have been introduced and studied by Stephensen; properties and applications of these factorials have been discussed among others and by Jordan [3], Riordan [5], and recently by Roman and Rota [4].

For positive integer m,

$$x^{[m,b]} = x\left(x + \frac{1}{2}mb - b\right)\left(x + \frac{1}{2}mb - 2b\right) \cdot \cdot \cdot \left(x - \frac{1}{2}mb + b\right)$$

defines the generalized central factorial of degree m and increment b. This definition can be extended to any integer m as follows:

$$x^{[0,b]} = 1$$

 $x^{[-m,b]} = x^2/x^{[m+2,b]}$, m a positive integer.

The usual central factorial (b = 1) will be denoted by $x^{[m]}$. Note that these factorials are called "Stephensen polynomials" by some authors.

Carlitz and Riordan [1] and Riordan [5, p. 213] studied the connection constants of the sequences $x^{[m]}$ and x^n , that is, the central factorial numbers t(m, n) and T(m, n):

$$x^{[m]} = \sum_{n=0}^{m} t(m, n)x^{n}, x^{m} = \sum_{n=0}^{m} T(m, n)x^{[n]};$$

these numbers also appeared in the paper of Comtet [2]. In this paper we discuss some properties of the connection constants of the sequences $x^{[m,\,\theta]}$ and $x^{[n,\,h]}$, $h\neq g$, of generalized central factorials, that is, the numbers $K(m,\,n,\,s)$:

$$x^{[m,g]} = \sum_{n=0}^{m} g^{m} h^{-n} K(m, n, s) x^{[n,h]}, s = h/g.$$

2. EXPANSIONS OF CENTRAL FACTORIALS

The central difference operator with increment a, denoted by δ_a , is defined by

$$\delta_{\alpha}f(x) = f(x + \alpha/2) - f(x - \alpha/2)$$

Note that

$$\delta_{a} = E_{a}^{\frac{1}{2}} - E_{a}^{-\frac{1}{2}} = E_{a}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \Delta_{a}, \qquad (2.1)$$