

## ON PRIME NUMBERS

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### I. RAREFACTION OF PRIMES IN THE SERIES OF INTEGERS

Let  $p$  be a prime number and  $\pi(n)$  the number of primes up to  $n$ , inclusive. In the capricious succession of primes in the series of integers, the inequality

$$\pi(2n) < 2\pi(n) \quad (n > 10) \quad (1)$$

shows a certain regularity. It is equivalent to the following proposition.

**Theorem 1:** The first  $n$  integers contain more primes than the  $n$  following, for  $n$  greater than 10.

I submitted this proposition as a conjecture to Professor G. Robin of the University of Limoges, with two remarks:

—It is true for  $n < 10,000$ , as I have verified it on the computer.

—The inequalities

$$\frac{n}{\log n} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2 \log n}\right) < \pi(n) < \frac{n}{\log n} \left(1 + \frac{3}{2 \log n}\right) \quad (n \geq 52)$$

established by Rosser and Schoenfeld [1] are not sufficient to prove (1), for they give

$$2\pi(n) - \pi(2n) > \frac{2n}{\log n \log 2n} \left[ \log 2 - \frac{3(\log n)^2 - (\log 2n)^2}{2 \log n \log 2n} \right],$$

where the expression in brackets is negative.

Robin sent me the following ingenious demonstration of Theorem 1: Suppose that for  $n \geq n_0$

$$\frac{n}{\log n} \left(1 + \frac{a}{\log n}\right) \leq \pi(n) \leq \frac{n}{\log n} \left(1 + \frac{b}{\log n}\right). \quad (2)$$

Then for  $n \geq n_0$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_n = 2\pi(n) - \pi(2n) &\geq \frac{2n}{\log n \log 2n} \left[ \log 2 + \frac{a(\log 2n)^2 - b(\log n)^2}{\log 2n \log n} \right] \\ &\geq \frac{2n}{\log n \log 2n} [\log 2 + (a - b)]. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, if  $b - a < \log 2$ ,  $\Delta_n > 0$  for  $n \geq n_0$ .

We shall see that we can choose  $a = 5/6$  for  $n \geq 10,000$ , and verify directly afterward that we can also do this for  $n \geq 227$ . We take  $b = 3/2$ . We write, as

usual,  $\theta(n) = \sum_{p \leq n} \log p$ . Then (see [1], p. 359),

$$\theta(n) = n + R(n),$$

where  $R(n) < \frac{an}{\log n}$  for  $a = \frac{5}{6}$  and  $n > 10,000$ .

Lemma: We have

$$\pi(n) \geq \frac{n}{\log n} + \frac{5}{6} \frac{n}{(\log n)^2} \quad (n \geq 227).$$

For  $n > n_0 = 10,000$ , with  $\log_i(n) = \int_2^n \frac{dt}{\log t}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \pi(n) - \pi(n_0) &= \int_{n_0}^n \frac{d\theta(t)}{\log t} \\ &= \log_i(n) - \log_i(n_0) + \frac{R(n)}{\log n} - \frac{R(n_0)}{\log n_0} + \int_{n_0}^n \frac{R(t)dt}{t(\log t)^2} \\ &\geq \log_i(n) - \log_i(n_0) - \frac{an}{(\log n)^2} - a \int_{n_0}^n \frac{dt}{(\log t)^3} \end{aligned}$$

since  $R(n_0) < 0$ .

Let

$$f(n) = \log_i(n) - \frac{n}{\log n} - \frac{n}{(\log n)^2}.$$

Then,  $f'(n) = 2/(\log t)^3$ ; hence,

$$f(n) - f(n_0) = 2 \int_{n_0}^n \frac{dt}{(\log t)^3}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \pi(n) - \frac{n}{\log n} - \frac{n}{(\log n)^2} &\geq \frac{-an}{(\log n)^2} + \left(1 - \frac{a}{2}\right)[f(n) - f(n_0)] \\ &\quad + \pi(n_0) - \frac{n_0}{\log n_0} - \frac{n_0}{(\log n_0)^2}. \end{aligned}$$

So, for  $n_0 = 10,000$ ,

$$\pi(n_0) = 1229 > \frac{n_0}{\log n_0} + \frac{n_0}{(\log n_0)^2}.$$

Since  $f(n) > f(n_0)$ , we have

$$\pi(n) \geq \frac{n}{\log n} + \frac{5}{6} \frac{n}{(\log n)^2} \quad (n \geq 10,000).$$

**Remark:** G. Robin adds: "In [2] the authors claim to have proved (1) and state their demonstration will be published at a later date. As far as I know, it has not yet appeared, but as we saw, the proof is an easy consequence of the results from Rosser and Schoenfeld."

Professor Robin also sent me a demonstration of a more general proposition, which I submitted to him again as a conjecture.

**Theorem 2:** For all integers  $k$  and  $n$  greater than 2,

$$\pi(kn) < k\pi(n). \tag{2}$$

Suppose (3) is verified for  $n \geq n_0$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} k\pi(n) - \pi(kn) &\geq \frac{kn}{\log n \log kn} \left[ \log k + \frac{a(\log kn)^2 - b(\log n)^2}{\log kn \log n} \right] \\ &\geq \frac{kn}{\log n \log kn} [\log k + (a - b)]. \end{aligned}$$

We have seen that with  $n_0 \geq 10,000$ , we can take  $a = 5/6$ ,  $b = 3/2$ . So

$$\log k + (a - b) > 0 \quad \text{for } k \geq 2.$$

For  $n \geq 59$ , we can choose  $a = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $b = \frac{3}{2}$ ; consequently,  $\log k + (a - b) > 0$ , for  $k \geq 3$ . We verify directly afterward that (3) holds for  $k = 3$  and  $n < 59$ . For  $n \geq 17$ , we can choose  $a = 0$  and  $b = \frac{3}{3}$ ; consequently,  $\log k + (a - b) > 0$ , for  $k \geq 5$ .

The case  $k = 4$  being treated as  $k = 2$ , it remains to study (3) for  $n \leq 16$ . We did this successively for

$$13 \leq n \leq 16, \quad 11 \leq n \leq 12, \quad 7 \leq n \leq 10, \quad 5 \leq n \leq 6, \quad 3 \leq n \leq 4,$$

using for  $\pi(km)$  the majoration

$$\pi(n) < \frac{5}{4} \frac{n}{\log n} \quad (n \geq 2).$$

## II. RAREFACTION OF TWINS IN THE SERIES OF PRIMES

Twins are two primes with a difference of 2.

**Theorem 3:** In the infinite series of great primes, twins are extremely rare.

Let  $p_n$  be the  $n^{\text{th}}$  prime number. The probability that 7, for instance, does not divide  $p_n + 2$  is  $5/6$ , for the equiprobable remainders in the division of  $p_n$  by 7 are 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6. The probability  $P_n$  that  $p_n + 2$  will be a prime is also

$$P_n = \prod_{2 < p < \sqrt{p_n}} \frac{p-2}{p-1}.$$

Therefore, if  $n$  tends to infinity,  $P_n$  tends to zero, like

$$\prod_{p < \sqrt{p_n}} \frac{p-1}{p},$$

which is greater.

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Remark: Our reasoning is not quite rigorous, because we utilize implicitly the independence of prime numbers. A conjecture in [3] substitutes an approached value of  $P_n$ ,

$$\prod_{2 < p < p_n \cdot 0,5615\dots} \frac{p-2}{p-1} \quad \text{to} \quad \prod_{2 < p < p_n \cdot 0,5} \frac{p-2}{p-1},$$

where  $0,5615\dots = e^{-\gamma}$ , with Euler's constant  $\gamma = 0,5772\dots$ . Mertens proved that

$$\log P_m \prod_{i \leq m} \frac{p_i - 1}{p_i}$$

tends to  $e^{-\gamma}$ , if  $m$  tends to infinity.

Yet our reasoning carries away, I think, any doubt that the probability  $P_n$  tends to zero. If you disagree, consider Theorems 3 and 4 as conjectures.

**Theorem 4:** The series of primes presents arbitrarily great intervals without twins.

Indeed, if every interval of  $k$  consecutive primes presented at least one pair of twins, the probability  $P_n$  would be at least  $1/k$  and could not tend to zero.

Remarks (see [4]):

1. The table below gives an idea of the rarefaction of twins; the 150,000 first integers after  $10^n$  present  $t$  pairs of twins:

$n$	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
$t$	584	461	314	309	259	211	191	166

2. One estimates empirically that the number of pairs of twins up to  $n$  has the order of

$$132032 \frac{n}{(\log n)^2}.$$

The estimate leads one to believe there exist an infinity of twin primes.

### REFERENCES

1. L. Schoenfeld. "Shaper Bounds for the Chebychev Functions  $\theta(x)$  and  $\psi(x)$ ." *Mathematics of Computation* 30 (1976):337-360.
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