

Some properties of the sequence $\{p-1\}$

by

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Introduction. It is sometimes necessary to have information about the divisors, and in particular, the prime divisors, of the number $p-1$, where p itself is prime. Erdős [1] proved that the number of these prime factors has normal order $\log \log p$ (whether counted multiply or not), and used the fact that for almost all primes, $p-1$ has a prime factor as large as

$$(1) \quad p^{1/20 \log \log p}.$$

The greatest prime factor of $p-1$, and more generally $p+a$, has received the attention of Goldfeld [5] and Hooley [8], in particular Hooley proved that for every fixed $a < 5/8$, and every a , there are infinitely many primes for which $p+a$ has a prime factor exceeding p^a .

The estimate from below (1) can be improved by means of Selberg's method, and we have

THEOREM 1. *Let $\varepsilon_p \rightarrow 0$ arbitrarily slowly as $p \rightarrow \infty$ through the sequence of primes. Then for almost all primes, $p-1$ has a prime factor exceeding p^{ε_p} .*

By "almost all primes" I mean that the number of exceptional primes upto x is $o(\pi(x))$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$.

Theorem 1 implies the following result.

COROLLARY. *Provided $\varepsilon_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, $\varphi(n)$ has a prime factor exceeding n^{ε_n} for almost all integers n .*

Let $V(x)$ denote the number of distinct values of $\varphi(n) < x$. A more difficult result which I could not prove, would be that $(1+o(1))V(x)$ of these values have a prime factor exceeding x^ε when $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. $V(x)$ is surprisingly small: Erdős and Hall [3] obtained the estimate

$$V(x) \ll \pi(x) \exp\{B\sqrt{\log \log x}\}$$

for each fixed $B > 2\sqrt{2/\log 2}$.

Although Theorem 1 is a consequence of Selberg's method, it may be readily derived from the following result. Goldfeld [5] proved this in the case $w = 1/2$, but the full result is implicit in his method.

THEOREM. Let $P(x, u)$ denote the number of primes $p \leq x$ such that $p-1$ has no prime factor exceeding x^u . Then provided $u \leq 1/2$,

$$(2) \quad P(x, u) \leq \frac{ux}{\log x} + O\left(\frac{x}{\log^2 x}(1 + u \log \log x)\right).$$

The limitation $u \leq 1/2$ arises from Bombieri's theorem, and the estimation of $P(x, u)$ for $u > 1/2$ is much more difficult, as indicated by Hooley's theorem mentioned above.

Suppose that almost all integers n have some property which is preserved when n is multiplied by a prime q , perhaps restricted in some way relative to n . Then we can often use Theorem 1 to show that $p-1$ has the same property, for almost all primes. I would like to mention two results of this type.

THEOREM 2. For every $\eta > 0$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, and almost all primes p , $p-1$ has divisors d_1, d_2, d_3 satisfying

- (i) $0 < \|\log d_1 - \alpha\| < 2^{-(1-\eta)\log \log p}$,
- (ii) $0 < \|\log d_2 - \log d_3\| < 3^{-(1-\eta)\log \log p}$,

where $\|x\|$ denotes the distance from x to the nearest integer to it.

THEOREM 3. For every fixed $A > 3/e$, and almost all primes p ,

$$\sup_z \left| \sum_{\substack{d|p-1 \\ d < z}} \mu(d) \right| < A^{v(p-1)}$$

where $v(p-1)$ denotes the number of distinct prime factors of $p-1$. The result also holds if $\mu(d)$ is replaced by any multiplicative function $f(d)$ such that for all d , $|f(d)| \leq 1$ and

$$\sum \left\{ \frac{1}{p} : f(p) = -1 \right\} = \infty.$$

The two parts of Theorem 2 are derived from similar results concerning almost all integers n proved by Erdős and Hall [2] and Hall [7]. The analogue of Theorem 3 for almost all integers was proved by Erdős and Kátai [4] in the case $A > \sqrt{2}$, and for $A > 3/e$ by Hall [6]. It is quite possible that this is not the best possible constant here: maybe the result is true for $A > 1$.

Proofs of the theorems. Theorem 1 is immediate from (2) so I will go straight on to the corollary. We set

$$\varepsilon = \varepsilon(x) = \sup\{\varepsilon_n : \sqrt{x} \leq n \leq x\}$$

so that it will be sufficient to prove that the number of integers $n < x$ such that $\varphi(n)$ has a prime factor exceeding x^ε is $(1+o(1))x$. Now choose the positive function $\delta(x)$ so that

$$\delta^2(x) = \max\left(\frac{1}{\log x}, \sup\{\varepsilon(y) : y \geq x\}\right).$$

Note that $\delta(x)$ is decreasing and tends to zero. Let E denote the set of primes p in the interval

$$x^{\delta(x)} < p \leq x$$

such that $p-1$ has a prime factor as large as $p^{\delta(x)}$. By Theorem 1,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{p \in E} \frac{1}{p} &\geq \sum_{p \in E} \int_p^x \frac{dt}{t^2} \geq \int_{x^{\delta(x)}}^x (1+o(1))\pi(t) - \pi(x^{\delta(x)}) \frac{dt}{t^2} \\ &\geq (1+o(1)) \log \frac{1}{\delta(x)} + O\left(\frac{1}{\delta(x)\log x}\right) \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\prod_{p \in E} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

If the integer $n < x$ has a prime factor $p \in E$, $\varphi(n)$ being divisible by $p-1$ has a prime factor as large as

$$p^{\delta(x)} \geq (x^{\delta(x)})^{\delta(x)} \geq x^{\varepsilon(x)}.$$

The number of $n < x$ with no prime factor in E is

$$\ll x \prod_{p \in E} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) = o(x)$$

by a theorem of van Lint and Richert [9]. This completes the proof.

Next, we prove Theorem 2. First, for almost all primes, $p-1$ is free of prime factors exceeding $p^{1-\varepsilon_p}$ provided $\varepsilon_p \rightarrow 0$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$. For let $p < x$ be exceptional: we have $p-1 = qm$ and either

$$p < \sqrt{x} \quad \text{or} \quad m < x^\varepsilon, \quad \varepsilon = \sup\{\varepsilon_p : \sqrt{x} < p < x\}.$$

The number of such primes is

$$\leq \sqrt{x} + \sum_{m < x^\varepsilon} \sum_{\substack{q < x/m \\ nq+1 \text{ prime}}} 1 \ll \sqrt{x} + \frac{x}{\log^2 x} \sum_{m < x^\varepsilon} \frac{1}{\varphi(m)}$$

by Satz 4.5 (p. 51) of Prachar [10], and this is $o(\pi(x))$. In view of Theorem 1, we deduce that for almost all primes p , we may write $p-1 = nq$ where

$$p^{\varepsilon_p} < q \leq p^{1-\varepsilon_p}, \quad q \text{ prime.}$$

If now n has divisors d_1, d_2, d_3 satisfying

$$(3) \quad \begin{aligned} 0 < \|\log d_1 - a\| < 2^{-(1-\eta/2)\log \log n}, \\ 0 < \|\log d_2 - \log d_3\| < 3^{-(1-\eta/2)\log \log n}, \end{aligned}$$

on observing that $n \geq \frac{1}{2}p^{\varepsilon_p}$ and so

$$(1-\eta/2)\log \log n \geq (1-\eta/2)\log \log p - \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon_p} + O(1) \geq (1-\eta)\log \log p$$

when $\varepsilon_p \rightarrow 0$ sufficiently slowly, we see that $p-1$ has divisors d_1, d_2, d_3 with the required properties. Next, by the results of Erdős and Hall [2], [7], the sequence of integers n without divisors satisfying (3) has zero asymptotic density, and therefore has zero logarithmic density. That is to say that if \sum' denotes summation over this sequence then

$$\sum'_{n < x} \frac{1}{n} = g(x)\log x, \quad g(x) = o(1).$$

It follows from Cauchy's inequality that

$$\sum'_{n < x} \frac{1}{\varphi(n)} \ll \sqrt{g(x)\log x}.$$

We may now estimate the number of primes $p < x$ which are exceptional in the sense of the theorem. Write

$$2\varepsilon_1 = 2\varepsilon_1(x) = \inf\{\varepsilon_p: \sqrt{x} < p < x\}.$$

We may assume $p > \sqrt{x}$ and that $p-1 = qn$ where $q > x^{\varepsilon_1}$, that is, $n < x^{1-\varepsilon_1}$, also that n is in the exceptional sequence mentioned above. So the number of these primes is

$$\begin{aligned} &\ll \sum'_{n < x^{1-\varepsilon_1}} \sum_{\substack{q < x/n \\ nq-1 \text{ prime}}} 1 + o(\pi(x)) \ll \sum'_{n < x^{1-\varepsilon_1}} \frac{x}{\varphi(n)\log^2 x/n} + o(\pi(x)) \\ &\ll \frac{x\sqrt{g(x)}}{\varepsilon_1^2(x)\log x} + o(\pi(x)) = o(\pi(x)) \end{aligned}$$

if we assume, as we may, that the sequence $\{\varepsilon_p\}$ and so $\varepsilon_1(x)$ tends to zero sufficiently slowly. This completes the proof of Theorem 2.

To prove Theorem 3 we use $\varepsilon_1(x)$ again and estimate the number of exceptional primes $p < x$. We assume once more that $\sqrt{x} < p < x$, and that $p-1 = qn$ where q is a prime exceeding x^{ε_1} . If $q \nmid n$, then

$$\sum_{\substack{d|p-1 \\ d < z}} f(d) = \sum'_{\substack{d|n \\ d < z}} f(d) + f(q) \sum_{\substack{d|n \\ d < z/q}} f(d),$$

and we may make this assumption, as the number of primes $p < x$ with $q^2 | p-1$, $q > x^{\varepsilon_1}$ is $o(\pi(x))$. Thus

$$\sup_x \left| \sum_{\substack{d|p-1 \\ d < z}} f(d) \right| \leq 2 \sup_x \left| \sum_{\substack{d|n \\ d < z}} f(d) \right|.$$

Let B be the geometric mean of $3/e$ and A . By Erdős' result cited above that $\nu(p-1)$ has normal order $\log \log p$, we may assume that

$$2B^{\nu(p-1)} \leq A^{\nu(p-1)}$$

as the number of exceptions is $o(\pi(x))$. Hence if

$$(4) \quad \sup_x \left| \sum_{\substack{d|n \\ d < z}} f(d) \right| < B^{\nu(n)} < B^{\nu(p-1)}$$

p has the property required. Also, $B > 3/e$ so that my theorem [6] shows that (4) holds for almost all n , the exceptions having zero logarithmic density. The rest of the proof follows as in Theorem 2.

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