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On Intervals (kn, (k+1)n) Containing a Prime for All n > 1

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Abstract

We study values of k for which the interval (kn, (k + 1)n) contains a prime for every n > 1. We prove that the list of such integers k includes 1, 2, 3, 5, 9, 14 and no others, at least for $k \leq 100,000,000$. Moreover, for every known k in this list, we give a good upper bound for the smallest $N_k(m)$, such that if $n \geq N_k(m)$, then the interval (kn, (k + 1)n) contains at least m primes.

1 Introduction and main results

In 1850, Chebyshev proved the famous Bertrand postulate (1845) that every interval [n, 2n] contains a prime (for a very elegant version of his proof, see Redmond [10, Theorem 9.2]).

Other nice proofs were given by Ramanujan in 1919 [8] and Erdős in 1932 (reproduced in Erdős and Surányi [4, p. 171–173]). In 2006, El Bachraoui [1] proved that every interval [2n, 3n] contains a prime, while Loo [6] proved the same statement for every interval [3n, 4n]. Moreover, Loo found a lower bound for the number of primes in the interval [3n, 4n]. In 1952, Nagura [7] proved that there is always a prime between n and $\frac{6}{5}n$ for $n \ge 25$. From his result, it follows that the interval [5n, 6n] always contains a prime. In this paper we prove the following:

Theorem 1. The list of integers k for which every interval (kn, (k+1)n), n > 1, contains a prime includes k = 1, 2, 3, 5, 9, 14 and no others, at least for $k \le 100, 000, 000$.

To prove Theorem 1, in Section 3 we introduce and study the so-called k-Chebyshev primes. We give them, and the generalized Ramanujan primes, the best estimates of the form p_{tn} , where p_n is the *n*-th prime. Note that the core of the proof of Theorem 1 is Proposition 9, which in turn depends on Proposition 8.

In passing, for every k = 1, 2, 3, 5, 9, 14, we give an algorithm for finding the smallest $N_k(m)$, such that for $n \ge N_k(m)$, the interval (kn, (k+1)n) contains at least m primes.

Proof of Theorem 1 is completed in Section 7 by computer research of sequence <u>A218831</u> in [13].

2 Case k = 1

Ramanujan [8] not only proved Bertrand's postulate, but also provided the smallest integers $\{R(m)\}$, such that if $x \ge R(m)$, then the interval $(\frac{x}{2}, x]$ contains at least m primes, or equivalently, $\pi(x) - \pi(x/2) \ge m$. It is easy to see that it is sufficient to consider *integer* x, and it is also evident that every term of $\{R(m)\}$ is prime. The numbers $\{R(m)\}$ are called *Ramanujan primes* [14]. It is sequence A104272 in [13]:

$$2, 11, 17, 29, 41, 47, 59, 67, 71, 97, \dots$$
(1)

Since $\pi(x) - \pi(x/2)$ is not a monotonic function, to calculate the Ramanujan numbers one should have an effective upper bound for R(m). Ramanujan [8] showed that

$$\pi(x) - \pi(x/2) > \frac{1}{\ln x} \left(\frac{x}{6} - 3\sqrt{x}\right), \ x > 300.$$
⁽²⁾

In particular, for $x \ge 324$, the left-hand side is positive and thus ≥ 1 . Using direct descent, he found that $\pi(x) - \pi(x/2) \ge 1$ from $x \ge 2$. Thus R(1) = 2, which proves the Bertrand postulate. Further, e.g., for $x \ge 400$, the left-hand side of (2) is more than 1 and thus ≥ 2 . Again, using direct descent, he found that $\pi(x) - \pi(x/2) \ge 2$ from $x \ge 11$. Thus R(2) = 11, etc. Sondow [14] found that $R(m) < 4m \ln(4m)$ and conjectured that

$$R(m) < p_{3m} \tag{3}$$

which was proved by Laishram [5]. Since, for $n \ge 2$, $p_n \le en \ln n$ (cf. [3, Section 4]), then (3) yields $R(m) \le 3em \ln(3m)$, $m \ge 1$. Let x = 2n. If $2n \ge R(m)$, then $\pi(2n) - \pi(n) \ge m$. Thus the interval (n, 2n) contains at least m primes, if

$$n \ge \left\lceil \frac{R(m)+1}{2} \right\rceil = \begin{cases} 2, & \text{if } m = 1; \\ \frac{R(m)+1}{2}, & \text{if } m \ge 2. \end{cases}$$

Let $N_1(m)$ denote the smallest number such that if $n \ge N_1(m)$, then the interval (n, 2n) contains at least m primes. It is clear that $N_1(1) = R(1) = 2$. If $m \ge 2$, formally the condition $x = 2n \ge 2N_1(m)$ is not stronger than the condition $x \ge R(m)$, since the latter holds for x even and odd. Therefore, for $m \ge 2$, we have $N_1(m) \le \frac{R(m)+1}{2}$. Let us show that, in fact, we have the equality

Proposition 2. For $m \ge 2$,

$$N_1(m) = \frac{R(m) + 1}{2}.$$
(4)

Proof. Note that the interval $\left(\frac{R(m)-1}{2}, R(m) - 1\right)$ cannot contain more than m-1 primes. Indeed, it is an interval of type $\left(\frac{x}{2}, x\right)$ for integer x and the following such interval is $\left(\frac{R(m)}{2}, R(m)\right)$. By definition, R(m) is the *smallest* number such that if $x \ge R(m)$, then $\left\{\left(\frac{x}{2}, x\right)\right\}$ contains $\ge m$ primes. Therefore, the supposition that the interval $\left(\frac{R(m)-1}{2}, R(m) - 1\right)$ contains $\ge m$ primes contradicts the minimality of R(m). Since the following interval of type (y, 2y) with integer $y \ge \frac{R(m)-1}{2}$ is $\left(\frac{R(m)+1}{2}, R(m) + 1\right)$, Eq. (4) then follows.

So the sequence $\{N_1(m)\}$, by (1), is <u>A084140</u> in [13]:

$$2, 6, 9, 15, 21, 24, 30, 34, 36, 49, \dots$$

$$(5)$$

3 Generalized Ramanujan numbers

Our research is based on a generalization of Ramanujan's method. With this aim, we define generalized Ramanujan numbers (cf. [12, Section 10], and the earlier comment in <u>A164952</u> in [13]).

Definition 3. Let v > 1 be a real number. A v-Ramanujan number, $R_v(m)$, is the smallest integer such that if $x \ge R_v(m)$, then $\pi(x) - \pi(x/v) \ge m$.

It is known [10] that all v-Ramanujan numbers are primes. In particular, $R_2(m) = R(m)$, m = 1, 2, ... are the proper Ramanujan primes.

Definition 4. For a real number v > 1 the *v*-Chebyshev number, $C_v(m)$, is the smallest integer such that if $x \ge C_v(m)$, then $\vartheta(x) - \vartheta(x/v) \ge m \ln x$, where $\vartheta(x) = \sum_{p \le x} \ln p$ is the Chebyshev function.

Since $\frac{\vartheta(x) - \vartheta(x/v)}{\ln x}$ can increase by 1 only when x is prime, then all v-Chebyshev numbers are primes.

Proposition 5. We have

$$R_v(m) \le C_v(m). \tag{6}$$

Proof. Let $x \ge C_v(m)$. Then we have

$$m \le \frac{\vartheta(x) - \vartheta(x/v)}{\ln x} = \sum_{\frac{x}{v} (7)$$

Thus, if $x \ge C_v(m)$, then always $\pi(x) - \pi(x/v) \ge m$. By Definition 3, this means that $R_v(m) \le C_v(m)$.

Now we give upper bounds for $C_v(m)$ and $R_v(m)$.

Proposition 6. Let $x = x_v(m) \ge 2$ be any number for which

$$\frac{x}{\ln x} \left(1 - \frac{1300}{\ln^4 x} \right) \ge \frac{vm}{v-1}.$$
(8)

Then

$$R_v(m) \le C_v(m) \le x_v(m). \tag{9}$$

Proof. We use the following inequality of Dusart [3] (see his Theorem 5.2):

$$|\vartheta(x) - x| \le \frac{1300x}{\ln^4 x}, \ x \ge 2$$

Thus we have

$$\vartheta(x) - \vartheta(x/v) \ge x \left(1 - \frac{1}{v} - 1300 \left(\frac{1}{\ln^4 x} - \frac{1}{v \ln^4 \frac{x}{v}} \right) \right)$$
$$\ge x \left(1 - \frac{1}{v} \right) \left(1 - \frac{1300}{\ln^4 x} \right).$$

If now

$$x\left(1-\frac{1}{v}\right)\left(1-\frac{1300}{\ln^4 x}\right) \ge m\ln x, \ x \ge x_v(m),$$

then

$$\vartheta(x) - \vartheta(x/v) \ge m \ln x, \ x \ge x_v(m)$$

and, by Definition 4, $C_v(m) \leq x_v(m)$. So, according to (6), we conclude that $R_v(m) \leq x_v(m)$.

Proposition 6 gives the terms of sequences $\{C_v(m)\}, \{R_v(m)\}\$ for every $v > 1, m \ge 1$. In particular, if k = 1 we find $\{C_2(m)\}$:

$$11, 17, 29, 41, 47, 59, 67, 71, 97, 101, 107, 127, 149, 151, 167, 179, 223, 229, 233, 239, 241, 263, 269, 281, 307, 311, 347, 349, 367, 373, 401, 409,$$
(10)
$$419, 431, 433, 443, \ldots$$

This sequence requires a separate comment. We observe that up to $C_2(100) = 1489$ only two terms of this sequence $(C_2(17) = 223 \text{ and } C_2(36) = 443)$ are not Ramanujan numbers, and the sequence is missing only the following 6 Ramanujan numbers: 181,227,439,491,1283,1301and no others up to the 104-th Ramanujan number 1489. The latter observation shows how much the ratio $\frac{\vartheta(x)}{\ln x}$ exactly approximates $\pi(x)$. Similar observations are also valid for the following sequences for $v = \frac{k+1}{k}$ (and undoubtedly require an additional special study):

for
$$k = 2, \{C_v(m)\},\$$

$$13, 37, 41, 67, 73, 97, 127, 137, 173, 179, 181, 211, 229, 239, \dots;$$
(11)

for $k = 2, \{R_v(m)\},\$

 $2, 13, 37, 41, 67, 73, 97, 127, 137, 173, 179, 181, 211, 229, 239, \dots;$ (12)

for k = 3, $\{C_v(m)\}$,

$$29, 59, 67, 101, 149, 157, 163, 191, 227, 269, 271, 307, 379, \dots;$$
(13)
for $k = 3, \{R_v(m)\},$

 $11, 29, 59, 67, 101, 149, 157, 163, 191, 227, 269, 271, 307, 379, \dots;$ (14) for $k = 5, \{C_v(m)\},$

- $59, 137, 139, 149, 223, 241, 347, 353, 383, 389, 563, 569, 593, \dots;$ (15) for $k = 5, \{R_v(m)\},$
- $29, 59, 137, 139, 149, 223, 241, 347, 353, 383, 389, 563, 569, 593, \dots;$ (16) for $k = 9, \{C_v(m)\},$
- $223, 227, 269, 349, 359, 569, 587, 593, 739, 809, 857, 991, 1009, \dots;$ (17) for $k = 9, \{R_v(m)\},$

$$127, 223, 227, 269, 349, 359, 569, 587, 593, 739, 809, 857, 991, 1009, \dots;$$
(18)
for $k = 14, \{C_v(m)\},$

 $307, 347, 563, 569, 733, 821, 1427, 1429, 1433, 1439, 1447, 1481, \dots;$ (19) for $k = 14, \{R_v(m)\},$

 $127, 307, 347, 563, 569, 733, 1423, 1427, 1429, 1433, 1439, 1447, \dots$ (20)

Remark 7. In fact, Dusart [3, Theorem 5.2] gives several inequalities of the form

$$|\vartheta(x) - x| \le \frac{ax}{\ln^b x}, \ x \ge x_0(a, b)$$

From a computing point of view, the values a = 1300, b = 4 from Dusart's theorem are not always the best. The analysis for $x \ge 25$ shows that the condition

$$x\left(1-\frac{1}{v}\right)\left(1-\frac{ax}{\ln^b x}\right) \ge m\ln x$$

is satisfied for the smallest $x_v(m) = x_v(m; a, b)$, using the following values of a and b from Dusart's theorem:

a = 3.965, b = 2 for x in range (25, $7 \cdot 10^7$]; a = 1300, b = 4 for x in range ($7 \cdot 10^7, 10^9$]; a = 0.001, b = 1 for x in range ($10^9, 8 \cdot 10^9$]; a = 0.78, b = 3 for x in range ($8 \cdot 10^9, 7 \cdot 10^{33}$]; a = 1300, b = 4 for $x > 7 \cdot 10^{33}$,

which minimizes the amount of calculations for v-Chebyshev primes.

4 Bounds of type (3)

Proposition 8. We have

$$C_2(m-1) \le p_{3m}, \ m \ge 2;$$
 (21)

$$R_{\frac{3}{2}}(m) \le p_{4m}, \ m \ge 1; \ C_{\frac{3}{2}}(m-1) \le p_{4m}, \ m \ge 2;$$
 (22)

$$R_{\frac{4}{3}}(m) \le p_{6m}, \ m \ge 1; \ C_{\frac{4}{3}}(m-1) \le p_{6m}, \ m \ge 2;$$
 (23)

$$R_{\frac{6}{5}}(m) \le p_{11m}, \ m \ge 1; \ C_{\frac{6}{5}}(m-1) \le p_{11m}, \ m \ge 2;$$
 (24)

$$R_{\frac{10}{9}}(m) \le p_{31m}, \ m \ge 1; \ C_{\frac{10}{9}}(m-1) \le p_{31m}, \ m \ge 2;$$
 (25)

$$R_{\frac{15}{14}}(m) \le p_{32m}, \ m \ge 1; \ C_{\frac{15}{14}}(m-1) \le p_{32m}, \ m \ge 2.$$
 (26)

Proof. Firstly, let us find some values of $m_0 = m_0(k)$, such that, at least, for $m \ge m_0$ all formulas (21)–(26) hold. According to (8) and (9), it is sufficient to show that, for $m \ge m_0$, we can take p_{tm} , where t = 3, 4, 6, 11, 31, 32 for formulas (21)-(26) respectively, in the capacity of $x_v(m)$. As we noted in Remark 7, in order to find possibly smaller values of m_0 , we use the bound

$$\frac{x}{\ln x} \left(1 - \frac{3.965}{\ln^2 x} \right) \ge \frac{vm}{v-1} \tag{27}$$

instead of (8). In order to get $x = p_{mt}$ satisfying this inequality, note that [11]

$$p_n \ge n \ln n.$$

Therefore, it is sufficient to consider p_{mt} satisfying the inequality

$$\ln p_{tm} \le \left(1 - \frac{1}{v}\right) t \ln(tm) \left(1 - \frac{3.965}{\ln^2(tm\ln(tm))}\right).$$

On the other hand, for $n \ge 2$, (see [3, (4.2)])

$$\ln p_n \le \ln n + \ln \ln n + 1.$$

Thus, it is sufficient to choose m so large that the following inequality holds

$$\ln(tm) + \ln\ln(tm) + 1 \le \left(1 - \frac{1}{v}\right) t \ln(tm) \left(1 - \frac{3.965}{\ln^2(tm\ln(tm))}\right),$$

or, since $1 - \frac{1}{v} = \frac{1}{k+1}$, that

$$\frac{\ln(tm) + \ln\ln(tm) + 1}{\ln(tm)(1 - \frac{3.965}{\ln^2(tm\ln(tm))})} \le \frac{t}{k+1}.$$
(28)

For example, let k = 1, t = 3. We can choose $m_0 = 350$. Then the left-hand side of (28) equals $1.4976 \cdots < 1.5$. This means that at least for $m \ge 350$, the estimate (21) is valid. Using a computer for $m \le 350$, we obtain (21) for $m \ge 2$. Other bounds are proved in the same way.

5 Bounds and formulas for $N_k(m)$

Proposition 9.

$$N_k(1) = 2, \ k = 2, 3, 5, 9, 14.$$
 (29)

For $m \ge 2, k \ge 1$,

$$N_k(m) \le \left\lceil \frac{R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m)}{k+1} \right\rceil; \tag{30}$$

besides, if $R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m) \equiv 1 \pmod{k+1}$, then

$$N_k(m) = \left\lceil \frac{R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m)}{k+1} \right\rceil = \frac{R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m) + k}{k+1}$$
(31)

and, if $R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m) \equiv 2 \pmod{k+1}$, then

$$N_k(m) = \left\lceil \frac{R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m)}{k+1} \right\rceil = \frac{R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m) + k - 1}{k+1}.$$
(32)

Proof. If $m \ge 2$, formally, the condition $x = (k+1)n \ge (k+1)N_k(m)$ is not stronger than the condition $x \ge R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m)$, since the first one is valid only for x multiple of k+1. Therefore, for $m \ge 2$, (30) holds. It allows calculation of terms in the sequence $\{N_k(m)\}$ for k > 1, $m \ge 2$. Since $N_k(1) \le N_k(2)$, then, having $N_k(2)$, we can also prove (29) using direct calculation. Now let $R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m) \equiv 1 \pmod{k+1}$. Note, that for $y = (R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m) - 1)/(k+1)$ the interval

$$(ky, (k+1)y) = \left(\frac{k}{k+1} \left(R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m) - 1\right), R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m) - 1\right)$$
(33)

cannot contain more than m-1 primes. Indeed, it is an interval of type $\left(\frac{k}{k+1}x, x\right)$ for integer x, and the following such interval is

$$\left(\frac{k}{k+1}\left(R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m)\right), R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m)\right)$$

By definition, $R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m)$ is the *smallest* number such that if $x \ge R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m)$, then $\{(\frac{k}{k+1}x, x)\}$ contains $\ge m$ primes. Therefore, the supposition that the interval (33) contains $\ge m$ primes contradicts the minimality of $R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m)$. Since the following interval of type (ky, (k+1)y) with integer $y \ge \frac{k}{k+1}(R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m)-1)$ is

$$\left(\frac{k}{k+1}(R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m)+k), \ R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m)+k\right),$$

then (31) follows.

Finally, let $R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m) \equiv 2 \pmod{k+1}$. Again, for $y = (R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m) - 2)/(k+1)$ the interval

$$(ky, (k+1)y) = \left(\frac{k}{k+1}(R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m) - 2), R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m) - 2\right)$$
(34)

cannot contain more than m-1 primes. Indeed, comparing interval (34) with interval (33), we see that they contain the same integers except for $R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m)-2$, which is multiple of k+1. Therefore, they contain the same number of primes, and this number does not exceed m-1. Again, since the following interval of type (ky, (k+1)y) with integer $y \ge \frac{k}{k+1}(R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m)-2)$ is

$$\left(\frac{k}{k+1}(R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m)+k-1), \ R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m)+k-1\right),$$

then (32) follows.

As a corollary from (29), (31) and (32), we obtain the following formula in case k = 2. Proposition 10.

$$N_2(m) = \begin{cases} 2, & \text{if } m = 1; \\ \left\lceil \frac{R_3(m)}{2} \right\rceil, & \text{if } m \ge 2. \end{cases}$$
(35)

Note that, if $k \ge 3$ and $R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}(m) \equiv j \pmod{k+1}$, $3 \le j \le k$, then, generally speaking, (30) is not an equality. Evidently, $N_k(m) \ge N_k(m-1)$, and it is interesting that the equality is attainable (see sequences (37)–(40) below).

Example 11. Let k = 3, m = 2. Then $v = \frac{4}{3}$ and, by (14), $R_{\frac{4}{3}}(2) = 29 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Therefore, by (31), $N_3(2) = \frac{29+3}{4} = 8$. Indeed, interval $(3 \cdot 7, 4 \cdot 7)$ already contains only prime 23.

Example 12. Let k = 3, m = 3. Then, by (14), $R_{\frac{4}{3}}(3) = 59 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. Here $N_3(3) = 11$ which is essentially less than $\left[R_{\frac{4}{3}}(3)/4\right] = 15$. Indeed, each interval

 $(3 \cdot 15, 4 \cdot 15), (3 \cdot 14, 4 \cdot 14), (3 \cdot 13, 4 \cdot 13), (3 \cdot 12, 4 \cdot 12), (3 \cdot 11, 4 \cdot 11)$

contains more than 2 primes and only interval $(3 \cdot 10, 4 \cdot 10)$ contains only 2 primes.

In any case, Proposition 9 allows us to calculate terms of sequence $\{N_k(m)\}\$ for every considered value of k. So, we obtain the following few terms of $\{N_k(m)\}\$:

for k = 2,

$$2, 5, 13, 14, 23, 25, 33, 43, 46, 58, 60, 61, 71, 77, 80, 88, 103, 104, \dots;$$

$$(36)$$

for k = 3,

$$2, 8, 11, 17, 26, 38, 40, 41, 48, 57, 68, 68, 70, 87, 96, 100, 108, 109, \ldots;$$
(37)

for k = 5,

$$2, 7, 17, 24, 25, 38, 41, 58, 59, 64, 65, 73, 95, 97, 103, 106, 107, 108, \dots;$$
 (38)

for k = 9,

$$2, 14, 23, 23, 34, 36, 57, 58, 60, 60, 77, 86, 100, 100, 102, 123, 149, \dots;$$

$$(39)$$

for k = 14,

 $2, 11, 24, 37, 38, 39, 50, 96, 96, 96, 96, 97, 97, 125, 125, 132, 178, 178, \ldots$ (40)

Remark 13. If, as in [1, 6], instead of intervals (kn, (k+1)n), we consider intervals [kn, (k+1)n], then sequences (5) and (36)–(38) would begin with 1.

6 Method of small intervals

If we know a theorem of the type: for $x \ge x_0(\Delta)$, the interval $(x, (1+\frac{1}{\Delta})x]$ contains a prime, then we can calculate a bounded number of the first terms of sequences (5) and (36)–(40). Indeed, put $x_1 = kn$, such that $n \ge \frac{x_0}{k}$. Then $(k+1)n = \frac{k+1}{k}x_1$ and, if $1 + \frac{1}{\Delta} < \frac{k+1}{k}$, i.e., $\Delta > k$, then

$$\left(x_1, \ (1+\frac{1}{\Delta})x_1\right] \subset (kn, (k+1)n).$$

Thus, if $n \ge \frac{x_0}{k}$, then the interval (kn, (k+1)n) contains a prime, and using method of finite descent, we can find $N_k(1)$. Further, put $x_2 = (1 + \frac{1}{\Delta})x_1$. Then interval $(x_2, (1 + \frac{1}{\Delta})x_2]$ also contains a prime. Thus the union

$$\left(x_1, (1+\frac{1}{\Delta})x_1\right] \cup \left(x_2, (1+\frac{1}{\Delta})x_2\right] = \left(x_1, (1+\frac{1}{\Delta})^2x_1\right]$$

contains at least two primes. This means that if $(1 + \frac{1}{\Delta})^2 x_1 < (k+1)n$ or $(1 + \frac{1}{\Delta})^2 < 1 + \frac{1}{k}$, then

$$\left(x_1, \ (1+\frac{1}{\Delta})^2 x_1\right] \subset (kn, (k+1)n)$$

and the interval (kn, (k+1)n) contains at least two primes; again, using method of finite descent, we can find $N_k(2)$ etc. If $(1 + \frac{1}{\Delta})^m < 1 + \frac{1}{k}$, then

$$\left(x_1, \ (1+\frac{1}{\Delta})^m x_1\right] \subset (kn, (k+1)n)$$

and the interval (kn, (k + 1)n) contains at least m primes and we can find $N_k(m)$. In this way, we can find $N_k(m)$ for $m < \frac{\ln(1+\frac{1}{k})}{\ln(1+\frac{1}{\Delta})}$. In 2002, Ramaré and Saouter [9] proved that the interval $(x(1-28314000^{-1}), x)$ always contains a prime if x > 10726905041, or, equivalently, the interval $(x, (1+28313999^{-1})x)$ contains a prime if x > 10726905419. This means that, e.g., we can find $N_{14}(m)$ for $m \le 1954471$. Unfortunately, this method cannot give the exact bounds and formulas for $N_k(m)$ as (30)–(32).

We can also consider a more general application of this method. Consider a fixed infinite set P of primes which we call P-primes. Furthermore, consider the following generalization of v-Ramanujan numbers.

Definition 14. For v > 1, a (v, P)-Ramanujan number, $R_v^{(P)}(m)$, is the smallest integer such that if $x \ge R_v^{(P)}(m)$, then $\pi_P(x) - \pi_P(x/v) \ge m$, where $\pi_P(x)$ is the number of *P*-primes not exceeding x.

Note that every (v, P)-Ramanujan number is P-prime. If we know a theorem of the type: for $x \ge x_0(\Delta)$, the interval $\left(x, \left(1 + \frac{1}{\Delta}\right)x\right]$ contains a P-prime, then using the above described algorithm, we can calculate a bounded number of the first (v, P) -Ramanujan numbers. For example, let P be the set of primes $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. From the result of Cullinan and Hajir [2] it follows, in particular, that for $x \geq 106706$, the interval (x, 1.048x) contains a P-prime. Using the same algorithm, we can calculate the first 14 (2, P)-Ramanujan numbers. They are

$$7, 31, 43, 67, 97, 103, 151, 163, 181, 223, 229, 271, 331, 337.$$

$$(41)$$

Analogously, if P is the set of primes $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$, then the sequence of (2, P)-Ramanujan numbers begins

$$11, 23, 47, 59, 83, 107, 131, 167, 227, 233, 239, 251, 263, 281, \ldots;$$
 (42)

if P is the set of primes $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then the sequence of (2, P)-Ramanujan numbers begins

$$13, 37, 41, 89, 97, 109, 149, 229, 233, 241, 257, 277, 281, 317, \dots;$$

$$(43)$$

and, if P is the set of primes $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, then the sequence of (2, P)-Ramanujan numbers begins

$$7, 23, 47, 67, 71, 103, 127, 167, 179, 191, 223, 227, 263, 307, \dots;$$

$$(44)$$

Let $N_k^{(P)}(m)$ denote the smallest number such that for $n \ge N_k^{(P)}(m)$, the interval (kn, (k + 1)n) contains at least m P-primes. It is easy to see that formulas (30)–(32) hold for $N_k^{(P)}(m)$ and $R_{\frac{k+1}{k}}^{(P)}(m)$. In particular, in cases k = 1, 2 we have the formulas

$$N_1^{(P)}(m) = \frac{R_2^{(P)}(m) + 1}{2}, \quad N_2^{(P)}(m) = \left[\frac{R_{\frac{3}{2}}^{(P)}(m)}{3}\right].$$
 (45)

Therefore, the following sequences for $N_1^{(P)}(m)$, correspond to sequences (41)–(44) respectively:

$$4, 16, 22, 34, 49, 52, 76, 82, 91, 112, 115, 136, 166, 169, \dots;$$

$$(46)$$

$$6, 12, 24, 30, 42, 54, 66, 84, 114, 117, 120, 126, 132, 141, \ldots;$$

$$(47)$$

$$7, 19, 21, 45, 49, 55, 75, 115, 117, 121, 129, 139, 141, 159, \dots;$$

$$(48)$$

$$4, 12, 24, 34, 36, 52, 64, 84, 90, 96, 112, 114, 132, 154, \dots$$

$$(49)$$

7 The proof of Theorem 1

For $k \ge 1$, let a(k) denote the least integer n > 1 for which the interval (kn, (k+1)n) contains no prime; if no such n exists, we put a(k) = 0. Taking into account (29), note that

a(k) = 0 for k = 1, 2, 3, 5, 9, 14. Consider sequence $\{a(k)\}$. Its first few terms are (A218831 in [13])

 $0, 0, 0, 2, 0, 4, 2, 3, 0, 2, 3, 2, 2, 0, 6, 2, 2, 3, 2, 6, 3, 2, 4, 2, 2, 7, 2, 2, 4, 3, \dots$ (50)

Calculations of a(k) for $k \in [1, 15]$, except for k = 1, 2, 3, 5, 9, 14, give positive values of a(k). Computer calculations of a(k) in the range $\{16, \ldots, 10^8\}$ show that all values of a(k) in this range are positive and belong to the interval [2, 16]. This completes the proof.

In conclusion, we present a distribution of numbers of values a(k) = 2, 3, ..., 16 within intervals $\{[1, 10^7(i)]\}, i = 1, ..., 10$. All these numerical results are obtained using the following *Mathematica* program:

```
start=2;cutOff=100;
a218831=Table[
NestWhile[#+1&,start,
Union[PrimeQ[Range[# k+1,# (k+1)-1]]]!={False}&,
1,cutOff],
{k,1,100000000}]/.{cutOff+start->0};
```

We have for a(k) = 2 the numbers

```
8729394, 17566347, 26437886, 35330619, 44238546, 53158353, 62087802, 71025543, 79969616, 88921064.
```

In general, here we have a simple explicit formula: the number of $a(k) = 2, k \leq K$ is $K + 1 - \pi(2K + 1)$. Further, let

 $A_t(K) = |\{k \le K : a(k) = t\}|.$

In cases $t \geq 3$ we have no explicit formulas. But, taking into account the distribution of primes into residue classes, a rough argument suggests that $A_t(K) \simeq c_t K(\ln K)^{2-t}$. For example, for a(k) = 3 within the considered intervals we have the numbers

1061880, 2050703, 3014798, 3963752, 4901317, 5830488, 6752801, 7668802, 8580597, 9486975,

and one can hope that $c_3 \approx 1.7 \cdots$. In other cases we have

t = 4: 173835, 321315, 461745, 597249, 729660, 859605, 987238, 1113288, 1237558, 1360344;

t = 5: 25108, 45086, 63177, 80407, 97199, 113213, 128850, 144474, 159648, 174577;

t = 6: 7312, 12542, 17150, 21536, 25714, 29734, 33616, 37243, 40952, 44503;

t = 7: 1753, 2918, 3841, 4749, 5590, 6373, 7201, 7950, 8691, 9378;

t = 8: 449,703,918,1109,1309,1507,1670,1810,1977,2141;

$$\begin{split} t &= 9: \ 149, 216, 278, 342, 400, 440, 508, 558, 606, 647; \\ t &= 10: \ 73, 109, 138, 164, 186, 203, 222, 232, 249, 262; \\ t &= 11: \ 18, 25, 29, 31, 35, 36, 42, 46, 48, 49; \\ t &= 12: \ 13, 15, 17, 19, 21, 25, 26, 29, 30, 31; \\ t &= 13: \ 2, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 4, 7, 7; \\ t &= 14: \ 4, 5, 6, 6, 6, 6, 7, 7, 7, 8; \\ t &= 15: \ 0, 2, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3; \\ t &= 16: \ 4, 5, 5, 5, 5, 5, 5, 5, 5, 5, 5, 5, 5 \end{split}$$

For those t when the difference

$$\frac{A_t(10^8)}{10^8} (8\ln 10)^{t-2} - \frac{A_t(10^7)}{10^7} (7\ln 10)^{t-2}$$

remains less than 0.5, we can get an impression about the change of c_t depending on t. So, $c_2 = 1$ and approximately $c_3 = 1.7$, $c_4 = 4.6$, $c_5 = 11$, $c_6 = 49$.

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