## ON THE INFINITUDE OF SOPHIE GERMAIN PRIMES

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ABSTRACT. In this paper we obtain the estimate

$$\#\left\{ p \leq x \mid 2p+1, p \in \mathbb{P} \right\} \geq (1+o(1)) \frac{\mathcal{D}}{(2+2\log 2)} \frac{x}{\log^2 x}$$

where  $\mathbb{P}$  is the set of all prime numbers and  $\mathcal{D} := \mathcal{D}(x) \geq 1$ . This proves that there are infinitely many primes  $p \in \mathbb{P}$  such that  $2p + 1 \in \mathbb{P}$  is also prime.

### 1. Introduction and statement

Let  $\mathbb P$  denotes the set of all prime numbers, then we say a prime p is a Sophie Germain prime - named after the French mathematician Sophie Germain who encountered it in her investigations of Fermat's Last Theorem - if 2p+1 is also a prime number. The motivation for the study of Sophie Germain primes is quite clear from a practical point of view (see [3]), as it owes it's application to cryptography and primality testing [2]. There has also been lot of computational work in verifying pushing the barrier of the largest known Sophie Germain prime, a worthwhile endeavor since the infinitude of such primes has been conjectured to hold. In the current paper we obtain a lower bound for the number of such primes less than a given threshold, thereby confirming the infinitude of such primes.

Let us denote  $\theta: \mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$  to be the Chebyshev theta function defined by

$$\theta(n) := \begin{cases} \log p & \text{if} \quad n \in \mathbb{P} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

then an natural step to take to obtain an estimate for the number of such primes is to an obtain an estimate for the correlation

$$\sum_{n \le x} \theta(n)\theta(2n+1)$$

or at the very least a non-trivial lower bound followed by a consequent appeal of partial summation to remove the weighted function  $\theta$ . Analyzing such correlations is by no means an easy tussle but an appeal to the area method [1] provides with at least a non-trivial lower bound.

### 2. Preliminary results

In this section we restate and prove an earlier result which will certainly serve it's purpose and in many ways can be viewed as a black box to obtaining further results in the sequel. The proof of this result can be found in [1]. It could have been ignored and refereed but we deem it appropriate keeping in mind our intention to make the paper comprehensive.

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**Theorem 2.1.** Let  $\{r_j\}_{j=1}^n$  and  $\{h_j\}_{j=1}^n$  be any sequence of real numbers, and let r and h be any real numbers satisfying  $\sum_{j=1}^n r_j = r$  and  $\sum_{j=1}^n h_j = h$ , and

$$(r^2 + h^2)^{1/2} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (r_j^2 + h_j^2)^{1/2},$$

then

$$\sum_{j=2}^{n} r_j h_j = \sum_{j=2}^{n} h_j \left( \sum_{i=1}^{j} r_i + \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} r_i \right) - 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} r_j \sum_{k=1}^{n-j} h_{j+k}.$$

Proof. Consider a right angled triangle, say  $\Delta ABC$  in a plane, with height h and base r. Next, let us partition the height of the triangle into n parts, not neccessarily equal. Now, we link those partitions along the height to the hypothenus, with the aid of a parallel line. At the point of contact of each line to the hypothenus, we drop down a vertical line to the next line connecting the last point of the previous partition, thereby forming another right-angled triangle, say  $\Delta A_1B_1C_1$  with base and height  $r_1$  and  $h_1$  respectively. We remark that this triangle is covered by the triangle  $\Delta ABC$ , with hypothenus constituting a proportion of the hypothenus of triangle  $\Delta ABC$ . We continue this process until we obtain n right-angled triangles  $\Delta A_jB_jC_j$ , each with base and height  $r_j$  and  $h_j$  for  $j=1,2,\ldots n$ . This construction satisfies

$$h = \sum_{j=1}^{n} h_j \text{ and } r = \sum_{j=1}^{n} r_j$$

and

$$(r^2 + h^2)^{1/2} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (r_j^2 + h_j^2)^{1/2}.$$

Now, let us deform the original triangle  $\Delta ABC$  by removing the smaller triangles  $\Delta A_j B_j C_j$  for  $j=1,2,\ldots n$ . Essentially we are left with rectangles and squares piled on each other with each end poking out a bit further than the one just above, and we observe that the total area of this portrait is given by the relation

$$\mathcal{A}_{1} = r_{1}h_{2} + (r_{1} + r_{2})h_{3} + \dots + (r_{1} + r_{2} + \dots + r_{n-2})h_{n-1} + (r_{1} + r_{2} + \dots + r_{n-1})h_{n}$$

$$= r_{1}(h_{2} + h_{3} + \dots + h_{n}) + r_{2}(h_{3} + h_{4} + \dots + h_{n}) + \dots + r_{n-2}(h_{n-1} + h_{n}) + r_{n-1}h_{n}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} r_{i} \sum_{k=1}^{n-j} h_{j+k}.$$

On the other hand, we observe that the area of this portrait is the same as the difference of the area of triangle  $\Delta ABC$  and the sum of the areas of triangles  $\Delta A_j B_j C_j$  for  $j=1,2,\ldots,n$ . That is

$$A_1 = \frac{1}{2}rh - \frac{1}{2}\sum_{j=1}^{n} r_j h_j.$$

This completes the first part of the argument. For the second part, along the hypothenus, let us construct small pieces of triangle, each of base and height  $(r_i, h_i)$  (i = 1, 2..., n) so that the trapezoid and the one triangle formed by partitioning

becomes rectangles and squares. We observe also that this construction satisfies the relation

$$(r^2 + h^2)^{1/2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (r_i^2 + h_i^2)^{1/2},$$

Now, we compute the area of the triangle in two different ways. By direct strategy, we have that the area of the triangle, denoted A, is given by

$$\mathcal{A} = 1/2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i \right) \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} h_i \right).$$

On the other hand, we compute the area of the triangle by computing the area of each trapezium and the one remaining triangle and sum them together. That is,

$$\mathcal{A} = h_n/2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^n r_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} r_i \right) + h_{n-1}/2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} r_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n-2} r_i \right) + \dots + 1/2r_1 h_1.$$

By comparing the area of the second argument, and linking this to the first argument, the result follows immediately.  $\Box$ 

**Corollary 2.1.** Let  $f: \mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , then we have the decomposition

$$\sum_{n \leq x-1} \sum_{j \leq x-n} f(n) f(n+j) = \sum_{2 \leq n \leq x} f(n) \sum_{m \leq n-1} f(m).$$

*Proof.* Let us take  $f(j) = r_j = h_j$  in Theorem 2.1, then we denote by  $\mathcal{G}$  the partial sums

$$\mathcal{G} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(j)$$

and we notice that

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sqrt{(h_j^2 + r_j^2)} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sqrt{(f(j)^2 + f(j)^2)}$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sqrt{(f(j)^2 + f(j)^2)}$$
$$= \sqrt{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(j).$$

Since  $\sqrt{(\mathcal{G}^2 + \mathcal{G}^2)} = \mathcal{G}\sqrt{2} = \sqrt{2}\sum_{j=1}^n f(j)$  our choice of sequence is valid and, therefore the decomposition is valid for any arithmetic function.

#### 3. Main results

In this section we state the main Lemma and establish our main result.

**Theorem 3.1.** Let  $f : \mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Suppose there exists some constant  $1 \leq \mathcal{N} := \mathcal{N}(x) < x$  such that

$$\sum_{n \le x} f(n)f(n+l_o) = \frac{\mathcal{N}(x)}{x} \sum_{n \le x-1} \sum_{j \le x-n} f(n)f(n+j)$$

for arbitrary  $l_o$  with  $1 \le l_o < x$  then

$$\sum_{n \le x} f(n)f(n+l_o) = \frac{\mathcal{N}(x)}{x} \sum_{2 \le n \le x} f(n) \sum_{m \le n-1} f(m).$$

*Proof.* This is an easy consequence of Corollary 2.1.

Remark 3.2. The function  $\frac{\mathcal{N}(x)}{x}$  in the statement of Theorem 3.1 can more be thought of as the local density function of the correlation

$$\sum_{n \le x} f(n)f(n+l_o)$$

for arbitrary  $l_o$  in the interval [1, x]. Indeed this function will always exists for any arithmetic function so long as it depends on the size of the arbitrary shift  $l_o \in \mathbb{N}$  and consequently on the range of summation [1, x].

**Theorem 3.3.** Let  $\mathbb{P}$  denotes the set of all prime numbers, then we have the estimate

$$\# \{ p \le x \mid 2p+1, p \in \mathbb{P} \} \ge (1+o(1)) \frac{\mathcal{D}}{(2+2\log 2)} \frac{x}{\log^2 x}$$

where  $\mathcal{D} := \mathcal{D}(x) > 1$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\theta: \mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be the Chebyshev theta function defined as

$$\theta(n) := \begin{cases} \log p & \text{if} \quad n \in \mathbb{P} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

so that by virtue of Corollary 2.1 we obtain the decomposition

(3.1) 
$$\sum_{n \le x} \theta(n)\theta(n+(n+1)) = \frac{\mathcal{D}}{x} \sum_{2 \le n \le x} \theta(n) \sum_{m \le n-1} \theta(m)$$

for  $\mathcal{D} := \mathcal{D}(x) > 1$ . Now using the weaker estimate found in the literature

$$\sum_{n \le x} \theta(n) = (1 + o(1))x$$

we obtain the following estimates by an appeal to summation by parts

$$\sum_{2 \le n \le x} \theta(n) \sum_{m \le n-1} \theta(m) = (1+o(1)) \sum_{2 \le n \le x} \theta(n) n$$

$$= (1+o(1))x \sum_{2 \le n \le x} \theta(n) - \int_{2}^{x} \left(\sum_{2 \le n \le t} \theta(n)\right) dt$$

$$= (1+o(x))x^{2} - \int_{2}^{x} (1+o(1))t dt$$

$$= (1+o(1))x^{2} - (1+o(1))\frac{x^{2}}{2} + O(1)$$

$$= (1+o(1))\frac{x^{2}}{2}.$$
(3.2)

By plugging (3.2) into (3.1) we obtain the estimate

$$\sum_{n \le x} \theta(n)\theta(n + (n+1)) = \frac{\mathcal{D}}{x}(1 + o(1))\frac{x^2}{2}$$
$$= (1 + o(1))\frac{\mathcal{D}}{2}x.$$

On the other hand, we can write

$$\sum_{n \le x} \theta(n)\theta(n+(n+1)) = \sum_{\substack{p \le x \\ 2p+1 \in \mathbb{P}}} \log p \log(2p+1)$$

$$\approx \sum_{\substack{p \le x \\ 2p+1 \in \mathbb{P}}} \log^2 p + (\log 2) \sum_{\substack{p \le x \\ 2p+1 \in \mathbb{P}}} \log p$$

$$\leq (1+\log 2) \sum_{\substack{p \le x \\ 2p+1 \in \mathbb{P}}} \log^2 p$$

$$(3.3)$$

so that by an application of partial summation we have

(3.4) 
$$\sum_{\substack{p \le x \\ 2p+1 \in \mathbb{P}}} \log^2 p \le \log^2 x \sum_{\substack{p \le x \\ 2p+1 \in \mathbb{P}}} 1.$$

By combining (3.2), (3.1) and (3.4) the lower bound follows as a consequence.  $\square$ 

Corollary 3.1. There are infinitely many primes  $p \in \mathbb{P}$  such that  $2p + 1 \in \mathbb{P}$ .

*Proof.* This is a consequence of Theorem 3.3.

# REFERENCES

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