# On Landau's Function g(n)

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# 1. Introduction

Let  $S_n$  be the symmetric group of n letters. Landau considered the function g(n) defined as the maximal order of an element of  $S_n$ ; Landau observed that (cf. [9])

$$g(n) = \max \operatorname{lcm}(m_1, \dots, m_k) \tag{1}$$

where the maximum is taken on all the partitions  $n = m_1 + m_2 + \cdots + m_k$ of *n* and proved that, when *n* tends to infinity

$$\log g(n) \sim \sqrt{n \log n}.$$
 (2)

More precise asymptotic estimates have been given in [11, 22, 25]. In [25] and [11] one also can find asymptotic estimates for the number of prime factors of g(n). In [8] and [3], the largest prime factor  $P^+(g(n))$  of g(n) is investigated. In [10] and [12], effective upper and lower bounds of g(n) are given. In [17], it is proved that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} g(n+1)/g(n) = 1$ . An algorithm able to calculate g(n) up to  $10^{15}$  is given in [2] (see also [26]). The sequence of distinct values of g(n) is entry A002809 of [24]. A nice survey paper was written by W. Miller in 1987 (cf. [13]).

My very first mathematical paper [15] was about Landau's function, and the main result was that g(n), which is obviously non decreasing, is constant on arbitrarily long intervals (cf. also [16]). I first met A. Schinzel in Paris in May 1967. He told me that he was interested in my results, but that P. Erdős would be more interested than himself. Then I wrote my first letter to Paul with a copy of my work. I received an answer dated of June 12 1967 saying "I sometimes thought about g(n) but my results were very much less complete than yours". Afterwards, I met my advisor, the late Professor Pisot, who, in view of this letter, told me that my work was good for a thesis.

The main idea of my work about g(n) was to use the tools introduced by S. Ramanujan to study highly composite numbers (cf. [19, 20]). P. Erdős was very well aware of this paper of Ramanujan (cf. [1, 4–6]) as well as of the symmetric group and the order of its elements, (cf. [7]) and I think that he enjoyed the connection between these two areas of mathematics. Anyway, since these first letters, we had many occasions to discuss Landau's function. Let us define  $n_1 = 1$ ,  $n_2 = 2$ ,  $n_3 = 3$ ,  $n_4 = 4$ ,  $n_5 = 5$ ,  $n_6 = 7$ , etc. ...,  $n_k$  (see a table of g(n) in [16, p. 187]), such that

$$g(n_k) > g(n_k - 1).$$
 (3)

The above mentioned result can be read:

$$\overline{\lim}(n_{k+1} - n_k) = +\infty. \tag{4}$$

Here, I shall prove the following result:

#### Theorem 1.

$$\underline{\lim}(n_{k+1} - n_k) < +\infty. \tag{5}$$

Let us set  $p_1 = 2, p_2 = 3, p_3 = 5, \ldots, p_k$  = the k-th prime. It is easy to deduce Theorem 1 from the twin prime conjecture (i.e.  $\underline{\lim}(p_{k+1}-p_k)=2$ ) or even from the weaker conjecture  $\underline{\lim}(p_{k+1}-p_k) < +\infty$ . (cf. Sect. 4 below.) But I shall prove Theorem 1 independently of these deep conjectures. Moreover I shall explain below why it is reasonable to conjecture that the mean value of  $n_{k+1} - n_k$  is 2; in other terms one may conjecture that

$$n_k \sim 2k \tag{6}$$

and that  $n_{k+1} - n_k = 2$  has infinitely many solutions. Due to a parity phenomenon,  $n_{k+1} - n_k$  seems to be much more often even than odd; nevertheless, I conjecture that:

$$\underline{\lim}(n_{k+1} - n_k) = 1.$$
(7)

The steps of the proof of Theorem 1 are first to construct the set G of values of g(n) corresponding to the so called superior highly composite numbers introduced by S. Ramanujan, and then, when  $g(n) \in G$ , to build the table of g(n+d) when d is small. This will be done in Sects. 4 and 5. Such values of g(n+d) will be linked with the number of distinct differences of the form P-Q where P and Q are primes satisfying  $x-x^{\alpha} \leq Q \leq x < P \leq x+x^{\alpha}$ , where x goes to infinity and  $0 < \alpha < 1$ . Our guess is that these differences P-Q represent almost all even numbers between 0 and  $2x^{\alpha}$ , but we shall only prove in Sect. 3 that the number of these differences is of the order of magnitude of  $x^{\alpha}$ , under certain strong hypothesis on x and  $\alpha$ , and for that a result due to Selberg about the primes between x and  $x + x^{\alpha}$  will be needed (cf. Sect. 2).

To support conjecture (6), I think that what has been done here with  $g(n) \in G$  can also be done for many more values of g(n), but, unfortunately, even assuming strong hypotheses, I do not see for the moment how to manage it.

I thank very much E. Fouvry who gave me the proof of Proposition 2.

#### 1.1 Notation

p will denote a generic prime,  $p_k$  the k-th prime;  $P, Q, P_i, Q_j$  will also denote primes. As usual  $\pi(x) = \sum_{p \le x} 1$  is the number of primes up to x.

|S| will denote the number of elements of the set S. The sequence  $n_k$  is defined by (3).

## 2. About the Distribution of Primes

**Proposition 1.** Let us define  $\pi(x) = \sum_{p \le x} 1$ , and let  $\alpha$  be such that  $\frac{1}{6} < \alpha < 1$ , and  $\varepsilon > 0$ . When  $\xi$  goes to infinity, and  $\xi' = \xi + \xi/\log\xi$ , then for all x in the interval  $[\xi, \xi']$  but a subset of measure  $O((\xi' - \xi)/\log^3\xi)$  we have:

$$\pi(x+x^{\alpha}) - \pi(x) - \frac{x^{\alpha}}{\log x} \bigg| \le \varepsilon \frac{x^{\alpha}}{\log x}$$
(8)

$$\pi(x) - \pi(x - x^{\alpha}) - \frac{x^{\alpha}}{\log x} \bigg| \le \varepsilon \frac{x^{\alpha}}{\log x}$$
(9)

$$\left|\frac{x}{\log x} - \frac{Q^k - Q^{k-1}}{\log Q}\right| \ge \frac{\sqrt{x}}{\log^4 x} \text{ for all primes } Q, \text{ and } k \ge 2.$$
(10)

*Proof.* This proposition is an easy extension of a result of Selberg (cf. [21]) who proved that (8) holds for most x in  $(\xi, \xi')$ . In [18], I gave a first extension of Selberg's result by proving that (8) and (9) hold simultaneously for all x in  $(\xi, \xi')$  but for a subset of measure  $O((\xi' - \xi)/\log^3 \xi)$ . So, it suffices to prove that the measure of the set of values of x in  $(\xi, \xi')$  for which (10) does not hold is  $O((\xi' - \xi)/\log^3 \xi)$ .

We first count the number of primes Q such that for one k we have:

$$\frac{\xi}{\log\xi} \le \frac{Q^k - Q^{k-1}}{\log Q} \le \frac{\xi'}{\log\xi'}.$$
(11)

If Q satisfies (11), then  $k \leq \frac{\log \xi'}{\log 2}$  for  $\xi'$  large enough. Further, for k fixed, (11) implies that  $Q \leq (\xi')^{1/k}$ , and the total number of solutions of (11) is

$$\leq \sum_{k=2}^{\log \xi' / \log 2} (\xi')^{1/k} = O(\sqrt{\xi'}) = O(\sqrt{\xi}).$$

With a more careful estimation, this upper bound could be improved, but this crude result is enough for our purpose. Now, for all values of  $y = \frac{Q^k - Q^{k-1}}{\log Q}$  satisfying (11), we cross out the interval  $\left(y - \frac{\sqrt{\xi^7}}{\log^4 \xi'}, y + \frac{\sqrt{\xi^7}}{\log^4 \xi'}\right)$ . We also cross out this interval whenever  $y = \frac{\xi}{\log \xi}$  and  $y = \frac{\xi'}{\log \xi'}$ . The total sum of the lengths of the crossed out intervals is  $O\left(\frac{\xi}{\log^4 \xi}\right)$ , which is smaller than

the length of the interval  $\left(\frac{\xi}{\log \xi}, \frac{\xi'}{\log \xi'}\right)$  and if  $\frac{x}{\log x}$  does not fall into one of these forbidden intervals, (10) will certainly hold. Since the derivative of the function  $\varphi(x) = x/\log x$  is  $\varphi'(x) = \frac{1}{\log x} - \frac{1}{\log^2 x}$  and satisfies  $\varphi'(x) \sim \frac{1}{\log \xi}$  for all  $x \in (\xi, \xi')$ , the measure of the set of values of  $x \in (\xi, \xi')$  such that  $\varphi(x)$  falls into one of the above forbidden intervals is, by the mean value theorem  $O\left(\frac{\xi}{\log^3 \xi}\right)$ , and the proof of Proposition 1 is completed.

### 3. About the Differences Between Primes

**Proposition 2.** Suppose that there exists  $\alpha, 0 < \alpha < 1$ , and x large enough such that the inequalities

$$\pi(x+x^{\alpha}) - \pi(x) \ge (1-\varepsilon)x^{\alpha}/\log x \tag{12}$$

$$\pi(x) - \pi(x - x^{\alpha}) \ge (1 - \varepsilon)x^{\alpha} / \log x \tag{13}$$

hold. Then the set

$$E = E(x, \alpha) = \{P - Q; P, Q \text{ primes}, x - x^{\alpha} < Q \le x < P \le x + x^{\alpha}\}$$

satisfies:

 $|E| \ge C_2 x^{\alpha}$ 

where  $C_2 = C_1 \alpha^4 (1 - \varepsilon)^4$  and  $C_1$  is an absolute constant ( $C_1 = 0.00164$  works).

*Proof.* The proof is a classical application of the sieve method that Paul Erdős enjoys very much. Let us set, for  $d \leq 2x^{\alpha}$ ,

$$r(d) = |\{(P,Q); x - x^{\alpha} < Q \le x < P \le x + x^{\alpha}, P - Q = d\}|.$$

Clearly we have

$$|E| = \sum_{\substack{0 < d \le 2x^{\alpha} \\ r(d) \neq 0}} 1 \tag{14}$$

and

$$\sum_{0 < d \le 2x^{\alpha}} r(d) = (\pi(x + x^{\alpha}) - \pi(x))(\pi(x) - \pi(x - x^{\alpha})) \ge (1 - \varepsilon)^2 x^{2\alpha} / \log^2 x.$$
(15)

Now to get an upper bound for r(d), we sift the set

$$A = \{n; x - x^{\alpha} < n \le x\}$$

with the primes  $p \leq z$ . If p divides d, we cross out the n's satisfying  $n \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , and if p does not divide d, the n's satisfying

$$n \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$
 or  $n \equiv -d \pmod{p}$ 

so that we set for  $p \leq z$ :

$$w(p) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \text{ divides } d \\ 2 & \text{if } p \text{ does not divide } d. \end{cases}$$

By applying the large sieve (cf. [14, Corollary 1]), we have

$$r(d) \le \frac{|A|}{L(z)}$$

with

$$L(z) = \sum_{n \le z} \left( 1 + \frac{3}{2}n|A|^{-1}z \right)^{-1} \mu(n)^2 \left( \prod_{p|n} \frac{w(p)}{p - w(p)} \right)$$

( $\mu$  is the Möbius function), and with the choice  $z = (\frac{2}{3}|A|)^{1/2}$ , it is proved in [23] that

$$\frac{|A|}{L(z)} \le 16 \prod_{p \ge 3} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{(p-1)^2} \right) \frac{|A|}{\log^2(|A|)} \prod_{\substack{p \mid d \\ p > 2}} \frac{p-1}{p-2}$$

The value of the above infinite product is 0.6602... < 2/3. We set  $f(d) = \prod_{\substack{p|d \ p>2}} \frac{p-1}{p-2}$ , and we observe that  $|A| \ge x^{\alpha} - 1$ , so that for x large enough

$$r(d) \le \frac{32}{3\alpha^2} \frac{|A|}{\log^2 x} f(d).$$

$$\tag{16}$$

Now, for the next step, we shall need an upper bound for  $\sum_{n \leq x} f^2(n)$ . By using the convolution method and defining

$$h(n) = \sum_{a|n} \mu(a) f^2(n/a)$$

one gets  $h(2) = h(2^2) = h(2^3) = \ldots = 0$  and, for  $p \ge 3$ ,  $h(p) = \frac{2p-3}{(p-2)^2}$ ,  $h(p^2) = h(p^3) = \ldots = 0$ , so that

$$\sum_{n \le x} f^2(n) = \sum_{n \le x} \sum_{a|n} h(a) = \sum_{a \le x} h(a) \left\lfloor \frac{x}{a} \right\rfloor$$
$$\leq x \sum_{a=1}^{\infty} \frac{h(a)}{a} = x \prod_{p \ge 3} \left( 1 + \frac{2p - 3}{p(p - 2)^2} \right) \qquad (17)$$
$$= 2.63985 \dots x \le \frac{8}{3}x.$$

From (15) and (16), one can deduce

$$\frac{(1-\varepsilon)^2 x^{2\alpha}}{\log^2 x} \le \sum_{\substack{0 < d \le 2x^{\alpha} \\ r(d) \ne 0}} r(d) \le \frac{32}{3\alpha^2} \frac{|A|}{\log^2 x} \sum_{\substack{0 < d \le 2x^{\alpha} \\ r(d) \ne 0}} f(d)$$

which implies

$$\sum_{\substack{0 < d \leq 2x^{\alpha} \\ r(d) \neq 0}} f(d) \geq \frac{3\alpha^{2}x^{2\alpha}(1-\varepsilon)^{2}}{32|A|}$$

By Cauchy-Schwarz's inequality, one has

$$\left(\sum_{\substack{0< d\leq 2x^{\alpha}\\r(d)\neq 0}} 1\right) \left(\sum_{\substack{0< d\leq 2x^{\alpha}\\r(d)\neq 0}} f^{2}(d)\right) \geq \frac{9\alpha^{4}x^{4\alpha}(1-\varepsilon)^{4}}{1,024|A|^{2}}$$

and, by (14) and (17)

$$|E| \geq \frac{9\alpha^4 x^{4\alpha} (1-\varepsilon)^4}{1,024|A|^2} \left/ \frac{8}{3} (2x^{\alpha}) \right. = \frac{27}{16,384} \frac{x^{3\alpha} (1-\varepsilon)^4}{|A|^2} \cdot \frac{1}{|A|^2} \left. \frac{1}{|A|^2} \right|^2 \left. \frac{1}{|A|^2} \left( \frac{1}{|A|^2} + \frac{1}{|A|^2} + \frac{1}{|A|^2} + \frac{1}{|A|^2} \right) \right|^2 \left. \frac{1}{|A|^2} \right|^2 \left. \frac{1}{|A|^2} \left( \frac{1}{|A|^2} + \frac{1}{|A|^2} + \frac{1}{|A|^2} + \frac{1}{|A|^2} \right) \right|^2 \left. \frac{1}{|A|^2} \right|^2 \left. \frac{1}{|A|^2} \left( \frac{1}{|A|^2} + \frac{1}{|A|^2} + \frac{1}{|A|^2} + \frac{1}{|A|^2} \right) \right|^2 \left. \frac{1}{|A|^2} \left( \frac{1}{|A|^2} + \frac{1}{|A|^2} + \frac{1}{|A|^2} + \frac{1}{|A|^2} + \frac{1}{|A|^2} + \frac{1}{|A|^2} \right) \right|^2 \left. \frac{1}{|A|^2} \left( \frac{1}{|A|^2} + \frac$$

Since  $|A| \le x^{\alpha} + 1$ , and x has been supposed large enough, Proposition 2 is proved.

# 4. Some Properties of g(n)

Here, we recall some known properties of g(n) which can be found for instance in [16]. Let us define the arithmetic function  $\ell$  in the following way:  $\ell$  is additive, and, if p is a prime and  $k \ge 1$ , then  $\ell(p^k) = p^k$ . It is not difficult to deduce from (1) (cf. [13] or [16]) that

$$g(n) = \max_{\ell(M) \le n} M.$$
(18)

Now the relation (cf. [16, p. 139])

$$M \in g(\mathbb{N}) \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad (M' > M \implies \ell(M') > \ell(M)) \tag{19}$$

easily follows from (18), and shows that the values of the Landau function g are the "champions" for the small values of  $\ell$ . So the methods introduced by Ramanujan (cf. [19]) to study highly composite numbers can also be used for g(n). Indeed M is highly composite, if it is a "champion" for the divisor function d, that is to say if

$$M' < M \implies d(M') < d(M)$$

Corresponding to the so-called superior highly composite numbers, one introduces the set  $G: N \in G$  if there exists  $\rho > 0$  such that

$$\forall M \ge 1, \quad \ell(M) - \rho \log M \ge \ell(N) - \rho \log N.$$
(20)

Equations (19) and (20) easily imply that  $G \subset g(\mathbb{N})$ . Moreover, if  $\rho > 2/\log 2$ , let us define x > 4 such that  $\rho = x/\log x$  and

$$N_{\rho} = \prod_{p \le x} p^{\alpha_p} = \prod_p p^{\alpha_p} \tag{21}$$

with

$$\alpha_p = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p > x \\ 1 & \text{if } \frac{p}{\log p} \le \rho < \frac{p^2 - p}{\log p} \\ k \ge 2 & \text{if } \frac{p^k - p^{k-1}}{\log p} \le \rho < \frac{p^{k-1} - p^l}{\log p} \end{cases}$$

then  $N_{\rho} \in G$ . With the above definition, since  $x \geq 4$ , it is not difficult to show that (cf. [11, (5)])

$$p^{\alpha_p} \le x \tag{22}$$

holds for  $p \leq x$ , whence  $N_{\rho}$  is a divisor of the least common multiple of the integers  $\leq x$ . Here we can prove

**Proposition 3.** For every prime p, there exists n such that the largest prime factor of g(n) is equal to p.

*Proof.* We have g(2) = 2, g(3) = 3. If  $p \ge 5$ , let us choose  $\rho = p/\log p > 2/\log 2$ .  $N_{\rho}$  defined by (21) belongs to  $G \subset g(\mathbb{N})$ , and its largest prime factor is p, which proves Proposition 3.

From Proposition 3, it is easy to deduce a proof of Theorem 1, under the twin prime conjecture. Let P = p + 2 be twin primes, and n such that the largest prime factor of g(n) is p. The sequence  $n_k$  being defined by (3), we define k in terms of n by  $n_k \leq n < n_{k+1}$ , so that  $g(n_k) = g(n)$  has its largest prime factor equal to p. Now, from (18) and (19),

$$\ell(g(n_k)) = n_k$$

and  $g(n_k + 2) > g(n_k)$  since  $M = \frac{P}{p}g(n_k)$  satisfies  $M > g(n_k)$  and  $\ell(M) = n_k + 2$ . So  $n_{k+1} \leq n_k + 2$ , and Theorem 1 is proved under this strong hypothesis.

Let us introduce now the so-called benefit method. For a fixed  $\rho > 2/\log 2$ ,  $N = N_{\rho}$  is defined by (21), and for any integer M,

$$M = \prod_{p} p^{\beta_p}$$

one defines the benefit of M:

$$\operatorname{ben}(M) = \ell(M) - \ell(N) - \rho \log M/N.$$
(23)

Clearly, from (20),  $ben(M) \ge 0$  holds, and from the additivity of  $\ell$  one has

$$\operatorname{ben}(M) = \sum_{p} \left( \ell(p^{\beta_p}) - \ell(p^{\alpha_p}) - \rho(\beta_p - \alpha_p) \log p \right).$$
(24)

In the above formula, let us observe that  $\ell(p^{\beta}) = p^{\beta}$  if  $\beta \geq 1$ , but that  $\ell(p^{\beta}) = 0 \neq p^{\beta} = 1$  if  $\beta = 0$ , and, due to the choice of  $\alpha_p$  in (21), that, in the sum (24), all the terms are non negative: for all p and for  $\beta \geq 0$ , we have

$$\ell(p^{\beta}) - \ell(p^{\alpha_p}) - \rho(\beta - \alpha_p) \log p \ge 0.$$
(25)

Indeed, let us consider the set of points (0,0) and  $(\beta, p^{\beta} \log p)$  for  $\beta$  integer  $\geq 1$ . For all p, the piecewise linear curve going through these points is convex, and for a given  $\rho$ ,  $\alpha_p$  is chosen so that the straight line L of slope  $\rho$  going through  $(\alpha_p, \frac{p^{\alpha_p}}{\log p})$  does not cut that curve. The left-hand side of (25), (which is ben $(Np^{\beta-\alpha_p})$ ) can be seen as the product of log p by the vertical distance of the point  $\left(\beta, \frac{p^{\beta}}{\log p}\right)$  to the straight line L, and because of convexity, we shall have for all p,

$$\operatorname{ben}(Np^t) \ge t \operatorname{ben}(Np), \quad t \ge 1$$
(26)

and for  $p \leq x$ ,

$$\operatorname{ben}(Np^{-t}) \ge t \operatorname{ben}(Np^{-1}), \quad 1 \le t \le \alpha_p.$$

$$(27)$$

### 5. Proof of Theorem 1

First the following proposition will be proved:

**Proposition 4.** Let  $\alpha < 1/2$ , and x large enough such that (10) holds. Let us denote the primes surrounding x by:

$$\dots < Q_j < \dots < Q_2 < Q_1 \le x < P_1 < P_2 < \dots < P_i < \dots$$

Let us define  $\rho = x/\log x$ ,  $N = N_{\rho}$  by (21),  $n = \ell(N)$ . Then for  $n \leq m \leq n + 2x^{\alpha}$ , g(m) can be written

$$g(m) = N \frac{P_{i_1} P_{i_2} \dots P_{i_r}}{Q_{j_1} Q_{j_2} \dots Q_{j_r}}$$
(28)

with  $r \ge 0$  and  $i_1 < \ldots < i_r, j_1 < \ldots < j_r, P_{i_r} \le x + 4x^{\alpha}, Q_{j_r} \ge x - 4x^{\alpha}$ .

*Proof.* First, from (18), one has  $\ell(g(m)) \leq m$ , and from (23) and (18)

$$\operatorname{ben}(g(m)) = \ell(g(m)) - \ell(N) - \rho \log \frac{g(m)}{N} \le m - n \le 2x^{\alpha}$$
(29)

for  $n \leq m \leq 2x^{\alpha}$ .

Further, let  $Q \leq x$  be a prime, and  $k = \alpha_Q \geq 1$  the exponent of Q in the standard factorization of N. Let us suppose that for a fixed m, Q divides g(m) with the exponent  $\beta_Q = k + t$ , t > 0. Then, from (24), (25), and (26), one gets

$$\operatorname{ben}(g(m)) \ge \operatorname{ben}(NQ^t) \ge \operatorname{ben}(NQ) \tag{30}$$

and

$$ben(NQ) = Q^{k+1} - Q^k - \rho \log Q$$
$$= \log Q \left( \frac{Q^{k+1} - Q^k}{\log Q} - \rho \right).$$

From (21), the above parenthesis is nonnegative, and from (10), one gets:

$$\operatorname{ben}(NQ) \ge \log 2 \frac{\sqrt{x}}{\log^4 x}.$$
(31)

For x large enough, there is a contradiction between (29), (30) and (31), and so,  $\beta_Q \leq \alpha_Q$ .

Similarly, let us suppose  $Q \leq x$ ,  $k = \alpha_Q \geq 2$  and  $\beta_Q = k - t$ ,  $1 \leq t \leq k$ . One has, from (24), (25) and (27),

$$\operatorname{ben}(g(m)) \ge \operatorname{ben}(NQ^{-t}) \ge \operatorname{ben}(NQ^{-1})$$

and

$$ben(NQ^{-1}) = Q^{k-1} - Q^k + \rho \log Q$$
$$= \log Q \left(\rho - \frac{Q^k - Q^{k-1}}{\log Q}\right) \ge \log 2 \frac{\sqrt{x}}{\log^4 x}$$

which contradicts (29), and so, for such a Q,  $\beta_Q = \alpha_Q$ .

Now, let us suppose  $Q \le x, \alpha_Q = 1$ , and  $\beta_Q = 0$  for some  $m, n \le m \le n + 2x^{\alpha}$ . Then

$$\operatorname{ben}(g(m)) \ge \operatorname{ben}(NQ^{-1}) = -Q + \rho \log Q = y(Q)$$

by setting  $y(t) = \rho \log t - t$ . From the concavity of y(t) for t > 0, for  $x \ge e^2$ , we get

$$y(Q) \ge y(x) + (Q - x)y'(x) = (Q - x)\left(\frac{\rho}{x} - 1\right)$$
  
=  $(x - Q)\left(1 - \frac{1}{\log x}\right) \ge \frac{1}{2}(x - Q)$ 

and so,

$$\operatorname{ben}(g(m)) \ge \frac{1}{2}(x-Q)$$

which, from (29) yields

$$x - Q \le 4x^{\alpha}.$$

In conclusion, the only prime factors allowed in the denominator of  $\frac{g(m)}{N}$  are the Q's, with  $x - 4x^{\alpha} \leq Q \leq x$ , and  $\alpha_Q = 1$ .

What about the numerator? Let P > x be a prime number and suppose that  $P^t$  divides g(m) with  $t \ge 2$ . Then, from (26) and (23),

$$\operatorname{ben}(Np^t) \ge \operatorname{ben}(Np^2) = P^2 - 2\rho \log P.$$

But the function  $t \mapsto t^2 - 2\rho \log t$  is increasing for  $t \ge \sqrt{\rho}$ , so that,

$$\operatorname{ben}(NP^t) \ge x^2 - 2x > 2x^{\alpha}$$

for x large enough, which contradicts (29). The only possibility is that P divides g(m) with exponent 1. In that case, from the convexity of the function  $z(t) = t - \rho \log t$ , inequality (26) yields

$$\operatorname{ben}(g(m)) \ge \operatorname{ben}(NP) = z(P) \ge z(x) + (P - x)z'(x)$$
$$= (P - x)\left(1 - \frac{1}{\log x}\right) \ge \frac{1}{2}(P - x)$$

for  $x \ge e^2$ , which, with (29), implies

$$P - x \le 4x^{\alpha}.$$

Up to now, we have shown that

$$g(m) = N \frac{P_{i_1} \dots P_{i_r}}{Q_{j_1} \dots Q_{j_s}}$$

with  $P_{i_r} \leq x + 4x^{\alpha}, Q_{j_s} \geq x - 4x^{\alpha}$ . It remains to show that r = s. First, since  $n \leq m \leq n + 2x^{\alpha}$ , and N belongs to G, we have from (18) and (19)

$$n \le \ell(g(m)) \le n + 2x^{\alpha}. \tag{32}$$

Further,

$$\ell(g(m)) - n = \sum_{t=1}^{r} P_{i_t} - \sum_{t=1}^{s} Q_{j_t}$$

and since  $r \leq 4x^{\alpha}$ , and  $s \leq 4x^{\alpha}$ ,

$$\ell(g(m)) - n \le r(x + 4x^{\alpha}) - s(x - 4x^{\alpha})$$
$$\le (r - s)x + 32x^{2\alpha}.$$

From (32),  $\ell(g(m)) - n \ge 0$  holds and as  $\alpha < 1/2$ , this implies that  $r \ge s$  for x large enough. Similarly,

$$\ell(g(m)) - n \ge (r - s)x,$$

so, from (32), (r - s)x must be  $\leq 2x^{\alpha}$ , which, for x large enough, implies  $r \leq s$ ; finally r = s, and the proof of Proposition 4 is completed.

**Lemma 1.** Let x be a positive real number,  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k, b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_k$  be real numbers such that

$$b_k \leq b_{k-1} \leq \ldots \leq b_1 \leq x < a_1 \leq a_2 \leq \ldots \leq a_k$$

and  $\Delta$  be defined by  $\Delta = \sum_{i=1}^{k} (a_i - b_i)$ . Then the following inequalities

$$\frac{x+\Delta}{x} \le \prod_{i=1}^{k} \frac{a_i}{b_i} \le \exp\left(\frac{\Delta}{x}\right)$$

hold.

*Proof.* It is easy, and can be found in [16, p. 159].

Now it is time to prove Theorem 1. With the notation and hypothesis of Proposition 4, let us denote by B the set of integers M of the form

$$M = N \frac{P_{i_1} P_{i_2} \dots P_{i_r}}{Q_{j_1} Q_{j_2} \dots Q_{j_r}}$$

satisfying

$$\ell(M) - \ell(N) = \sum_{t=1}^{r} (P_{i_t} - Q_{j_t}) \le 2x^{\alpha}$$

From Proposition 4, for  $n \leq m \leq 2x^{\alpha}, g(m) \in B$ , and thus, from (18),

$$g(m) = \max_{\substack{\ell(M) \le m \\ M \in B}} M.$$
(33)

Further, for  $0 \le d \le 2x^{\alpha}$ , define

$$B_d = \{ M \in B : \ell(M) - \ell(N) = d \}.$$

I claim that, if d < d' (which implies  $d \le d' - 2$ ), any element of  $B_d$  is smaller than any element of  $B_{d'}$ . Indeed, let  $M \in B_d$ , and  $M' \in B_{d'}$ . From Lemma 1, one has

$$\frac{M}{N} \le \exp\left(\frac{d}{x}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{M'}{N} \ge \frac{x+d'}{x} \ge \frac{x+d+2}{x}$$

Since  $d < 2x^{\alpha} < x$ , and  $e^t \leq \frac{1}{1-t}$  for  $0 \leq t < 1$ , one gets

$$\frac{M}{N} \le \frac{1}{1 - d/x} = \frac{x}{x - d}.$$

This last quantity is smaller than  $\frac{x+d+2}{x}$  if  $(d+1)^2 < 2x+1$ , which is true for x large enough, because  $d \leq 2x^{\alpha}$  and  $\alpha < 1/2$ .

From the preceding claim, and from (33), it follows that, if  $B_d$  is non empty, then

$$g(n+d) = \max B_d.$$

Further, since  $N \in G$ , we know that  $n = \ell(N)$  belongs to the sequence  $(n_k)$  where g is increasing, and so,  $n = n_{k_0}$ . If  $0 < d_1 < d_2 < \ldots < d_s \leq 2x^{\alpha}$  denote the values of d for which  $B_d$  is non empty, then one has

$$n_{k_{0+i}} = n + d_i, 1 \le i \le s.$$
(34)

Suppose now that  $\alpha < 1/2$  and x have been chosen in such a way that (12) and (13) hold. With the notation of Proposition 2, the set  $E(x, \alpha)$  is certainly included in the set  $\{d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_s\}$ , and from Proposition 2,

$$s \ge C_2 x^{\alpha} \tag{35}$$

which implies that for at least one i,  $d_{i+1} - d_i \leq \frac{2}{C_2}$ , and thus

$$n_{k_0+i+1} - n_{k_0+i} \le \frac{2}{C_2}.$$

Finally, for  $\frac{1}{6} < \alpha < \frac{1}{2}$ , Proposition 1 allows us to choose x as wished, and thus, the proof of Theorem 1 is completed.

With  $\varepsilon$  very small, and  $\alpha$  close to 1/2, the values of  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  given in Proposition 2 yield that for infinitely many k's,

$$n_{k+1} - n_k \le 20,000$$

To count how many such differences we get, we define

$$\gamma(n) = \operatorname{Card}\{m \le n : g(m) > g(m-1)\}.$$

Therefore, with the notation (3), we have  $n_{\gamma(n)} = n$ .

In [16, 162-164], it is proved that

$$n^{1-\tau/2} \ll \gamma(n) \le n - c \frac{n^{3/4}}{\sqrt{\log n}}$$

where  $\tau$  is such that the sequence of consecutive primes satisfies  $p_{i+1} - p_i \ll p_i^{\tau}$ . Without any hypothesis, the best known  $\tau$  is > 1/2.

**Proposition 5.** We have  $\gamma(n) \ge n^{3/4-\varepsilon}$  for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , and n large enough.

*Proof.* With the definition of  $\gamma(n)$ , (34) and (35) give

$$\gamma(n+2x^{\alpha}) - \gamma(n) \ge s \gg x^{\alpha} \tag{36}$$

whenever  $n = \ell(N)$ ,  $N = N_{\rho}$ ,  $\rho = x/\log x$ , and x satisfies Proposition 1. But, from (21), two close enough distinct values of x can yield the same N.

I now claim that, with the notation of Proposition 1, the number of primes  $p_i$  between  $\xi$  and  $\xi'$  such that there is at least one  $x \in [p_i, p_{i+1})$  satisfying (8), (9) and (10) is bigger than  $\frac{1}{2}(\pi(\xi') - \pi(\xi))$ . Indeed, for each *i* for which  $[p_i, p_{i+1})$  does not contain any such *x*, we get a measure  $p_{i+1} - p_i \ge 2$ , and if there are more than  $\frac{1}{2}(\pi(\xi') - \pi(\xi))$  such *i*'s, the total measure will be greater than  $\pi(\xi') - \pi(\xi) \sim \xi/\log^2 \xi$ , which contradicts Proposition 1.

From the above claim, there will be at least  $\frac{1}{2}(\pi(\xi') - \pi(\xi))$  distinct N's, with  $N = N_{\rho}, \rho = x/\log x$ , and  $\xi \leq x \leq \xi'$ . Moreover, for two such distinct N, say N' < N'', we have from (21),  $\ell(N'') - \ell(N') \geq \xi$ .

Let  $N^{(1)}$  and  $N^{(0)}$  the biggest and the smallest of these N's, and  $n^{(1)} = \ell(N^{(1)}), n^{(0)} = \ell(N^{(0)})$ , then from (36),

$$\gamma(n^{(1)}) \ge \gamma(n^{(1)}) - \gamma(n^{(0)}) \ge \frac{1}{2} \left(\pi(\xi') - \pi(\xi)\right) \xi^{\alpha} \gg \frac{\xi^{1+\alpha}}{\log^2 \xi}.$$
 (37)

But from (21) and (22),  $x \sim \log N_{\rho}$ , and from (2),

$$x \sim \log N_{
ho} \sim \sqrt{n \log n}$$
 with  $n = \ell(N_p)$ 

 $\mathbf{SO}$ 

$$\xi \sim \sqrt{n^{(1)} \log n^{(1)}}$$

and since  $\alpha$  can be choosen in (37) as close as wished of 1/2, this completes the proof of Proposition 5.

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