

Counting Without Counting

Carl Friedrich Gauss (1777-1855), the "Prince of Mathematicians"

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1. Introduction

What if I told you that prime numbers – those stubborn, unpredictable numbers – actually follow a hidden rhythm?

Think of a 15-year-old boy, sitting alone with a table of logarithms and a list of prime numbers. No computer or calculator. Just paper, patience, and a mind that refused to accept randomness. That boy was **Carl Friedrich Gauss**. He noticed that primes thin out at a rate of roughly $1/\ln(x)$. That observation would take nearly a century to prove. But when it was finally proven, it revealed one of the deepest truths about numbers: **even chaos has a rhythm**.

This essay is the story of that rhythm. It is the story of the Prime Number Theorem, a result so beautiful and so surprising that it connects the distribution of primes to the humble natural logarithm.

Why is this important? Because prime numbers are the building blocks of all integers. Every number you can think of – whether it's 42 or 1,000,000 – is either prime itself or a product of primes. Understanding how primes are distributed is like understanding the DNA of arithmetic.

But here is the real surprise: the Prime Number Theorem is not just a theoretical curiosity. Every time you send a secure message online, buy something with a credit card, or log into your bank account, you are relying on this theorem. You use it every single day – without even knowing it.

Along the way, we will meet legends like Bernhard Riemann, who connected primes to a mysterious function; Jacques Hadamard and Charles Jean de la Vallée Poussin, who finally proved the theorem after 100 years; and a million-dollar mystery called the Riemann Hypothesis that still haunts mathematicians today. So, let us dive in.

2. What is $\pi(x)$?

Before we can count primes, we need to know what they are:

A prime number is a whole number greater than 1 that cannot be made by multiplying two smaller whole numbers.

In simple words: a prime number is divisible only by 1 and itself.

Let us see some examples:

The prime numbers from 1 to 20 are: 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, and 19.

That is **8** primes.

What is $\pi(x)$? The Prime Census Taker

Now that we know what prime numbers are, let us learn how to count them.

Mathematicians use a special symbol to count primes. They write $\pi(x)$.

Do not let the symbol π confuse you. It has nothing to do with **the circle constant 3.14159**. Here, $\pi(x)$ simply means "the number of prime numbers less than or equal to x ".

Let us try some examples:

- $\pi(10) = 4$ because the primes are 2, 3, 5, 7
- $\pi(20) = 8$ because the primes are 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19
- $\pi(30) = 10$ because we add 23 and 29

Now, here is a question for you: Can you guess $\pi(60)$????

The answer is 17. The primes are 2,3,5,7,11,13,17,19,23,29,31,37,41,43,47,53,59.

Now let us look at bigger numbers:

-Do you see what is happening? As x gets larger, $\pi(x)$ grows, but it grows slowly.

-When x becomes 10 times larger, $\pi(x)$ does not become 10 times large.

x	$\pi(x)$
100	25
1,000	168
10,000	1,229
100,000	9,592
1,000,000	78,498

Let us look at the percentage of numbers that are prime:

x	$\pi(x)$	Percentage
100	25	25%
1,000	168	16.8%
10,000	1,229	12.3%
100,000	9,592	9.6%
1,000,000	78,498	7.8%

The percentage keeps dropping. At $x = 100$, 25% of numbers are prime. At $x = 1,000,000$, only 7.8% are prime. The primes are becoming rarer.

Can you guess how many primes are there below one billion?

Here is a fun fact: $\pi(1,000,000,000)$ is about 50,847,534. That means less than 5% of numbers up to one billion are prime!

For centuries, mathematicians asked one question: can we predict $\pi(x)$ without counting every prime? Is there a way to know how many primes there are without checking each number individually? And that is exactly what **Carl Friedrich Gauss** figured out.

3. The Pattern Gauss Saw

In 1792, Gauss did something simple but powerful. He compared two things: a table of prime numbers and a table of logarithms.

What he noticed was surprising.

He saw that the number of primes up to x , written as $\pi(x)$, was very close to x divided by $\ln(x)$.

Here is a table that shows what Gauss saw:

x	$\pi(x)$ (actual)	$x / \ln(x)$ (Gauss's guess)
100	25	21.7
1000	168	144.8
10,000	1,229	1,085.7
100,000	9,592	8,685.9
1,000,000	78,498	72,382.4

Do you see it? The two numbers are close to each other. And as x gets larger, they get closer and closer.

Gauss made a guess:

$$\pi(x) \sim x / \ln(x)$$

This means: the number of primes up to x is approximately x divided by the natural logarithm of x .

He was only 15 years old when he first noticed this. This guess meant that primes are not random. They follow a hidden rhythm. The density of primes around a large number x is about $1 / \ln(x)$. But here is the thing: Gauss could not prove it. It was just a guess. A very good guess. But it would take nearly 100 years before someone could prove he was right. That guess became known as the Prime Number Theorem.

4. The Prime Number Theorem

In 1896, two mathematicians – Jacques Hadamard from France and Charles Jean de la Vallée Poussin from Belgium – independently proved that Gauss's guess was correct. Their proof became known as the Prime Number Theorem.

The theorem says:

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The theorem says:

$$\pi(x) \sim x / \ln(x)$$

As x gets larger and larger, the approximation gets better and better.

Let us see how good the approximation is:

x	$\pi(x)$ (actual)	$x / \ln(x)$ (approximation)	Ratio
1,000,000	78,498	72,382	1.084
10,000,000	664,579	620,420	1.071
100,000,000	5,761,455	5,428,681	1.061
1,000,000,000	50,847,534	48,254,942	1.053

Do you see what is happening? The ratio is getting closer and closer to 1. Here is the mathematical way to write the theorem:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{\pi(x)}{x / \ln x} \right] = 1$$

This means: as x goes to infinity, the ratio goes to 1. The approximation becomes perfect. But the theorem does not stop there. Mathematicians found an even better approximation called the logarithmic integral, written as $\text{Li}(x)$. It is much more accurate:

x	$\pi(x)$ (actual)	$\text{Li}(x)$	Error
1,000,000	78,498	78,628	0.16%
10,000,000	664,579	664,918	0.05%
100,000,000	5,761,455	5,762,209	0.013%

At $x = 100$ million, $\text{Li}(x)$ is wrong by only 0.013%! That is incredibly accurate. So the Prime Number Theorem tells us that primes are not random. They follow a law. They have a rhythm. But there is still one big mystery left...

5. The Riemann Hypothesis

In 1859, a mathematician named Bernhard Riemann – a student of Gauss – wrote an 8-page paper that changed mathematics forever.

But who was Riemann?

Bernhard Riemann was a German mathematician born in 1826. He was shy and nervous, but his mind was one of the greatest in history. He studied under Gauss himself. And in just 8 pages, he opened a door that mathematicians are still trying to close today.

So what did Riemann do?

He was studying a special function called the Zeta Function. Let me explain what that means.

The Zeta Function, written as $\zeta(s)$, is an infinite sum:

$$\zeta(s) = 1 + \frac{1}{2^s} + \frac{1}{3^s} + \frac{1}{4^s} + \frac{1}{5^s} + \dots$$

For example, if $s = 2$:

$$\zeta(2) = 1 + 1/4 + 1/9 + 1/16 + 1/25 + \dots = \pi^2/6$$

That is the famous Basel Problem that Euler solved.

Riemann looked at this function in a new way. He allowed s to be a complex number (a number with a real part and an imaginary part). Then he looked for the zeros of the function – the values of s that make $\zeta(s) = 0$.

He noticed that all the important zeros (called non-trivial zeros) seemed to lie on a single line in the complex plane. That line is where the real part of s equals $1/2$. He guessed that this is true for every non-trivial zero. This guess became known as the Riemann Hypothesis.

If the Riemann Hypothesis is true, we can predict the position of prime numbers with incredible accuracy. The Prime Number Theorem becomes even sharper. Many other theorems in mathematics become true.

If it is false, our understanding of prime numbers would be shattered.

The Clay Mathematics Institute has offered **\$1,000,000** to anyone who can prove or disprove the Riemann Hypothesis.

To this day, no one has claimed the prize.

The Riemann Hypothesis remains one of the most famous unsolved problems in all of mathematics. And it all started with an 8-page paper by a shy student of Gauss.

6. Cryptography and RSA

You might be wondering: why should I care about prime numbers?

The answer is that you use them every single day without knowing it.

Every time you send a secure message on WhatsApp, buy something online with a credit card, or log into your bank account, prime numbers are protecting you.

The most famous encryption system that uses prime numbers is called RSA.

Here is how it works in simple terms:

1. Pick two very large prime numbers, p and q
2. Multiply them together: $N = p \times q$
3. Use N to scramble (encrypt) your message
4. To unscramble (decrypt) the message, you need to know p and q

Why is this secure?

Because multiplying p and q to get N is easy. But if you only have N , finding p and q is extremely hard – especially when p and q are hundreds of digits long.

Let us see a small example:

$$p = 53$$

$$q = 59$$

$$N = 53 \times 59 = 3127$$

If I give you 3127, can you quickly tell me that it is 53×59 ? Probably not.

But if I give you 53 and 59, you can multiply them in one second.

This is the magic of RSA. And it works because there are so many large prime numbers.

How do we know there are many large primes? Thanks to the Prime Number Theorem.

The theorem tells us that primes never run out. They become rarer, but they keep appearing forever. This allows us to pick huge primes for encryption.

So every time you send a secure message, you are using Gauss's 15-year-old guess.

Pretty cool, right?

7. Conclusion

So, what have we learned?

We started with a 15-year-old boy sitting alone with a table of logarithms and a list of prime numbers. That boy was Carl Friedrich Gauss, and he saw something that no one else had seen.

He noticed that primes thin out. The larger the numbers get, the rarer the primes become. And he guessed that the number of primes up to x , written as $\pi(x)$, is approximately x divided by $\ln(x)$.

That guess would take nearly a century to prove. In 1896, Jacques Hadamard and Charles Jean de la Vallée Poussin finally proved that Gauss was right. Their proof became known as the Prime Number Theorem.

But the story did not end there. In 1859, Bernhard Riemann connected the distribution of primes to the zeros of the Zeta Function. He guessed that all the important zeros lie on a single line. That guess, called the Riemann Hypothesis, remains unproven to this day. The Clay Mathematics Institute offers \$1,000,000 to anyone who solves it.

Why should you care? Because every time you send a secure message online, buy something with a credit card, or log into your bank account, you are using prime numbers. You are using Gauss's 15-year-old guess. You use the Prime Number Theorem every single day – without even knowing it. So what is the moral of the story? Prime numbers are not random. They are not chaos. They follow a hidden rhythm. And a teenager with a table of logarithms was the first to hear it. Even chaos has a rhythm.

And that rhythm is written with a logarithm.

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