Counting prime numbers: the Riemann hypothesis LMS Summer School 2023

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The zeta function $\zeta(s)$ is defined as

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s}, \quad \text{ for } \operatorname{Re}(s) > 1.$$

It was studied by Euler, who evaluated it for all even integers. The most famous of these is the solution to **the Basel problem**:

$$\zeta(2) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$$

Euler gave his first proof in 1734.

Euler's solution to the Basel problem

The goal is to evaluate

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}.$$

Euler started with the formula

$$\frac{\sin(x)}{x} = \prod_{n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}} \left(1 - \frac{x}{n\pi}\right).$$

In analogy with writing a polynomial

$$P(x) = x^{n} + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \ldots + a_{1}x + a_{0}$$

as the product

$$(x-r_1)(x-r_2)\ldots(x-r_n).$$

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Euler did more work on the zeta function. In 1737 he proved the **Euler product formula**:

$$\zeta(s) = \prod_{p \text{ prime}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^s}\right)^{-1}$$

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Euler did more work on the zeta function. In 1737 he proved the **Euler product formula**:

$$\zeta(s) = \prod_{p \text{ prime}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^s}\right)^{-1}$$

This was the first time a connection had been found between the zeta function and the primes. The formula follows from the fundamental theorem of arithmetic.

It would take another 100 years before this connection was explored further and used to begin the study of *the distribution of the primes*.

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Given a number X, how many primes p are there such that $p \le X$?

Log tables

x	0	1	3	3	-4	5 6	:	8 9	1 +	123		5 6 ADD	7 8 9		*	0	x	3 3	4	ś	6	7	8 9	4	123	4 5
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"Even before I had begun my more detailed investigations into higher arithmetic, one of my first projects was to turn my attention to the decreasing frequency of primes, to which end I counted the primes in several chiliads and recorded the results on the attached white pages. I soon recognized that behind all of its fluctuations, this frequency is on the average inversely proportional to the logarithm, so that the number of primes below a given bound n is approximately equal to

$$\int \frac{dn}{\log(n)},$$

where the logarithm is understood to be hyperbolic."

Y. Tschinkel. About the cover: on the distribution of primes—Gauss' tables. Bull. Amer. Math. Soc. 43 (1) (2005), pp.89-91.

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In modern language, Gauss' observation is written in the following way. Write

$$\pi(X) = \sum_{n \leq X} \mathbb{1}(n \text{ is prime}).$$

Then

$$\pi(X) \approx \frac{X}{\log(X)}.$$

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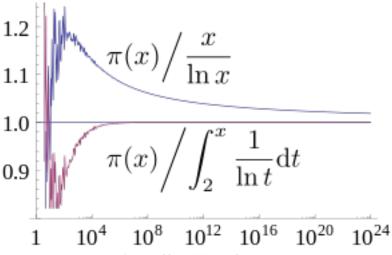
$$\pi(X) \approx \frac{X}{\log(X)}.$$

The statement of the **prime number theorem** is more precise than this. It says that

$$rac{\pi(X)}{X/\log(X)} o 1$$
 as $X o \infty$.

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The prime number theorem



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$$\pi(X) = \frac{X}{\log(X)} + E(X),$$

where $E(X) := \pi(X) - \frac{X}{\log(X)}$.

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The difficult part is bounding the error term E(X).

Showing $E(X)/(X/\log(X)) \to 0$ and $x \to \infty$ proves PNT.

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	X	$\pi(X)$	$\frac{X}{\log(X)}$	$E(X) = \pi(X) - \frac{X}{\log(X)}$
-	10	4	4.3429	-0.3429
	100	25	21.714	3.285
	1000	168	144.764	23.235
	104	1229	1085.74	143.26
	10 ⁵	9592	8685.89	906.11
	10 ⁶	78498	72382.41	6115.59
	10 ⁷	664579	620420.69	44158.31
	10 ⁸	5761455	542681.02	332773.98
	10 ⁹	50847534	48254942.43	2592591.57

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We want a nicer way to write error terms.

We say f(X) = O(g(X)) if $|f(X)| < C \cdot g(X)$ eventually.

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We say f(X) = O(g(X)) if $|f(X)| < C \cdot g(X)$ eventually.

$$X = O(X)$$
$$X^{2} + X + 1 = O(X^{2})$$
$$\sin(X) = O(1)$$
$$10 \sin(X) = O(1)$$

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The prime number theorem has error term

$$\pi(X) = rac{X}{\log(X)} + O\left(rac{X}{\log(X)^2}
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The prime number theorem has error term

$$\pi(X) = \frac{X}{\log(X)} + O\left(\frac{X}{\log(X)^2}\right)$$

In particular,

$$\lim_{X\to\infty}\frac{\pi(X)}{X/\log(X)}\to 1.$$

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Bernhard Riemann (1826-1886) worked mostly in analysis and geometry.

His only contribution to number theory was the paper *"Ueber die Anzahl der Primzahlen unter einer gegebenen Grösse"* (in English: *"On the Number of Primes Less Than a Given Magnitude"*).

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In this paper, he extended the domain of convergence of zeta to $\mathbb{C}\setminus\{1\}$ using a technique called **analytic continuation**. He also proved the **functional equation** of the zeta function.

$$\zeta(s) = 2^s \pi^{s-1} \sin(\frac{\pi s}{2}) \Gamma(1-s) \zeta(1-s).$$

Here $\Gamma(s)$ the is Gamma function, defined by

$$\Gamma(s)=\int_0^\infty t^{s-1}e^{-t}dt.$$

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Technically, Riemann computed an exact formula for a related function

$$\pi^*(X) = \sum_{p^k \leq X} rac{1}{k}.$$

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The formula is

$$\pi^*(X) = \operatorname{li}(X) - \sum_{\zeta(\rho)=0} \operatorname{li}(X^{\rho}),$$

where

$$\operatorname{li}(X) = \int_2^X \frac{1}{\log(t)} dt.$$

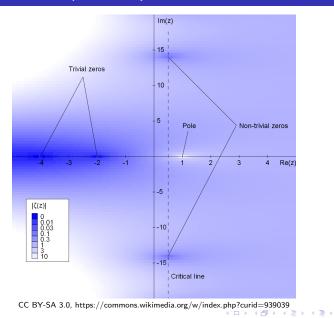
Finally we come back around to the zeta function. The second term in the explicit expression is

 $\sum_{\zeta(\rho)=0} \operatorname{li}(X^{\rho}).$

This sum is taken over all zeros $\rho \in \mathbb{C}$ of zeta.

This was the first indication that the zeros of the zeta function are related to the distribution of the primes.

The zeta function (revisited)



Lewis Combes (University of Sheffield)

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Zero-free regions

To prove PNT, it is enough to show that

 $\zeta(1+it) \neq 0$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

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Using the explicit formula for $\pi(X)$, one proves that

$$\pi(X) = rac{X}{\log(X)} + O(X^ heta\log(X)),$$

where $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is the largest value such that

$$\zeta(\sigma + it) \neq 0$$
 for $\sigma > \theta$.

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The Riemann hypothesis implies the best possible bound

$$\pi(X) = \frac{X}{\log(X)} + O(x^{1/2}\log(X)).$$

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$$\pi^*(X) = \mathrm{li}(X) - \sum_{\substack{\zeta(
ho) = 0 \\ 0 < \mathrm{Re}(
ho) < 1}} \mathrm{li}(X^{
ho}) - \log(2) - \int_X^\infty \frac{1}{t(t^2 - 1)\log(t)} dt.$$

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$$\pi^*(X) = \mathrm{li}(X) - \sum_{\substack{\zeta(\rho) = 0 \\ 0 < \mathrm{Re}(\rho) < 1}} \mathrm{li}(X^{\rho}) - \log(2) - \int_X^{\infty} \frac{1}{t(t^2 - 1)\log(t)} dt.$$

The Möbius inversion formula gives

$$\pi(X) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(n)}{n} \pi^*(X^{\frac{1}{n}}).$$

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So finally we get

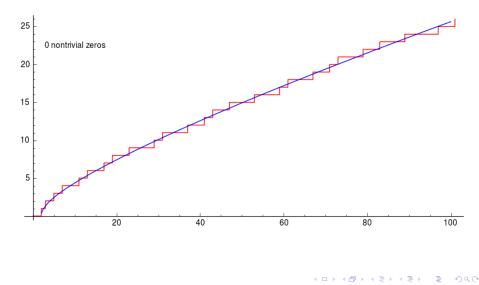
$$\pi(X) = R(X) - \sum_{\zeta(\rho)=0} R(X^{\rho}), \text{ where } R(X) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(n)}{n} \operatorname{li}(X^{\frac{1}{n}}).$$

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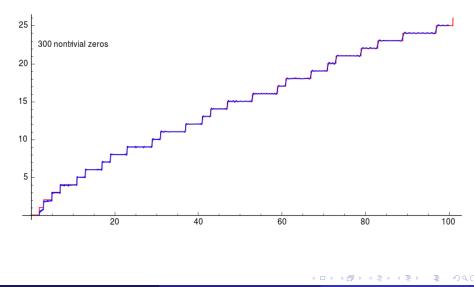
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The explicit formula in action



The explicit formula in action



The state-of-the-art is the Vinogradov-Korobov bound:

$$\zeta(\sigma + it) \neq 0$$

for

$$\sigma \geq 1 - rac{c}{(\log|t|+1)^{2/3}(\log\log(3+|t|))^{1/3}}.$$

This bound doesn't even give a constant width.

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