

Hello!

- Petru Constantinescu, postdoc with Philippe Michel

- Exercise sessions are important!

Students present their solutions, active participation encouraged!

- Learning process is active, not passive!

- Exam: written, modelled after the exercises.

Topic of the course

Let $\mathbb{N} := \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$.

Goal: Understand multiplicative structure of $\mathbb{N}$

$\mathbb{P} := \{p \in \mathbb{N} : p \text{ prime}\}$.

→ multiplicative building blocks of $\mathbb{N}$

Fundamental theorem of arithmetic

For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\exists! \nu_n : \mathbb{P} \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$
such that $\nu_n(p) = 0$, for almost all $p \in \mathbb{P}$
and $n = \prod_{p \in \mathbb{P}} p^{\nu_n(p)}$, i.e. $n = p_1^{l_1} \dots p_r^{l_r}$.

Goal: Understand the set P .

Theorem (Euclid) $|P| = \infty$.

Proof: Suppose for contradiction P is finite, so $P = \{p_1, \dots, p_r\}$. Let $q := 1 + p_1 \dots p_r$. Then $p_i \nmid q$, $\forall i$. Therefore $q \in P$, contradiction. $\square$

Let $\pi(x) = \# \{p \leq x : p \text{ prime}\}$

Exercise: $\pi(x) \approx \log \log x$.

Refinements:

- Gauss conjectured that $\pi(x) \sim \frac{x}{\log x}$, i.e. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi(x)}{x / \log x} = 1$.

This is true, and is known as the Prime Number Theorem (we prove it in this course). It was proven in 1896 by Hadamard and de la Vallée Poussin (independently), more than 100 years after Gauss made the conjecture.

- Q: Are there infinitely many primes with last digit 3?

More generally, if $(a, b) = 1$, is

$$|\{an + b : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \cap \mathbb{P}| = \infty?$$

Dirichlet: yes!

Proportion of primes $\equiv b \pmod{a}$ is $\frac{1}{\phi(a)}$.

This is Prime Number Theorem in Arithmetic Progressions.

- Is $|\{n^2 + 1 : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \cap \mathbb{P}| = \infty$? Wide open.

Notation:

- Let $f, g: \Delta \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ ($\Delta \subseteq \mathbb{C}$). We say $f = O(g)$ or $f \ll g$ if there is a constant $C > 0$ s.t.

$$|f(z)| \leq C|g(z)|, \quad \forall z \in \Delta.$$

- Let $z_0 \in \Delta$ and $f, g: \Delta \setminus \{z_0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ s.t. g does not vanish near z_0 . We say that $f = o(g)$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$ if $\lim_{\substack{z \rightarrow z_0 \\ z \in \Delta}} \frac{f(z)}{g(z)} = 0$.

We don't explicit limit point if $z_0 = \infty$.

Eg: Let $f(x) = x$ and $g(x) = x^2$.

For $x \geq 1$, $f = O(g)$ but g is NOT $O(f)$.
Also $f = o(g)$.

• We often use "big Oh" notation inside expressions. If $f, g, h: \Delta \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, we write

$$f(z) = g(z) + O(h(z))$$

to mean $|f(z) - g(z)| \leq C|h(z)|$, $\forall z \in \Delta$,
for some $C > 0$.

If $h = o(g)$, we call $g(z)$ main term
and $h(z)$ error term.

Eg: • $(x+1)^2 = x^2 + O(x)$ for $x \geq 1$

• $\lfloor x \rfloor = x + O(1)$.

• $\sqrt{x+1} = \sqrt{x} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} + O(x^{-3/2})$ for $x \geq 1$.
- $\frac{1}{8x^{3/2}} + O(x^{-5/2})$.

Further notation:

• For $f, g: \Delta \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, we say $f \asymp g$ if
 $f = O(g)$ and $g = O(f)$.

• For two positive functions, we write $f(x) \sim g(x)$ as $x \rightarrow a$ if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 1$.

If we write $f(x) \sim g(x)$ it is assumed $a = \infty$.

We will prove PNT:

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

and the stronger version

$$\pi(x) = \text{Li}(x) + O\left(x e^{-c\sqrt{\log x}}\right),$$

for some $c > 0$.

where $\text{Li}(x) = \int_2^x \frac{1}{\log t} dt$

(Exercise: $\text{Li}(x) = x \left(\sum_{j=2}^k \frac{(j-2)!}{(\log x)^j} \right) + O\left(\frac{x \cdot k!}{(\log x)^{k+2}}\right)$)

We obtain this by studying analytic properties of Riemann zeta function $\zeta(s) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{n^s}$ ($\text{Re}(s) > 1$).

Riemann hypothesis (RH) All "non-trivial" zeros of ζ lie on the vertical line $\text{Re}(s) = \frac{1}{2}$.

Note: $\text{RH} \Leftrightarrow \pi(x) = \text{Li}(x) + O_\varepsilon(x^{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon})$.

Arithmetic functions

Def: An arithmetic function is a function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. Denote $\mathcal{A} = \{f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\}$ the set of all arithmetic functions.

Def (Dirichlet convolution). Let $f, g \in \mathcal{A}$. Dirichlet convolution $f * g \in \mathcal{A}$ is defined

$$(f * g)(n) = \sum_{d|n} f(d) g\left(\frac{n}{d}\right).$$

Lemma: $\forall f, g, h \in \mathcal{A}$

- $f * g = g * f$ ($*$ is commutative)
- $(f * g) * h = f * (g * h)$ ($*$ is associative)

Proof: $(f * g)(n) = \sum_{n=ab} f(a) g(b) = \sum_{n=ab} f(b) g(a) = (g * f)(n)$

$$\begin{aligned} ((f * g) * h)(n) &= \sum_{n=ab} h(b) \sum_{a=cd} f(c) g(d) = \\ &= \sum_{n=bcd} h(b) f(c) g(d) = (f * (g * h))(n). \end{aligned}$$

In particular, $(\mathcal{R}, +, *)$ is a commutative $\mathbb{C}$ -algebra with multiplicative unit $\ell(n) = \begin{cases} 1, & n=1 \\ 0, & \text{else.} \end{cases}$

Definition: (Multiplicative functions)

- $f \in \mathcal{R}$ is **multiplicative** if $f \neq 0$ and $f(nm) = f(n)f(m)$, for all coprime integers n, m .

- $f \in \mathcal{R}$ is **completely multiplicative** if $f \neq 0$ and $f(nm) = f(n)f(m)$, $\forall n, m \in \mathbb{N}$.

Remarks • f completely multiplicative $\Rightarrow f$ multiplicative

- f multiplicative $\Rightarrow f(1) = 1$
- f multiplicative $\Rightarrow f$ is determined by its values on $\{p^l : p \in \mathcal{P}, l \in \mathbb{N}\}$.

Examples: • $\text{id}_{\mathbb{N}}$ (comp mult)

- $\ell(n) = 1$ (comp mult)

- $\ell(n) = \begin{cases} 1, & n=1 \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$ (comp mult)

- $\tau(n) = |\{d \in \mathbb{N} : d|n\}|$. (mult)

Pf: $\tau(p^l) = l+1$, for $p \in \mathcal{P}$.
Let $n = p_1^{l_1} \dots p_r^{l_r}$.

$$\{d \in \mathbb{N} : d|n\} = \{p_1^{k_1} \dots p_r^{k_r} : 0 \leq k_i \leq l_i\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \tau(p_1^{l_1} \dots p_r^{l_r}) = (l_1+1) \dots (l_r+1) = \tau(p_1^{l_1}) \dots \tau(p_r^{l_r}).$$

$\Rightarrow \tau$ is mult. $\square$

• $\phi(n) = |(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times|$. (mult).

Pf: CRT: $(n_1, n_2) = 1 \Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n_1 n_2 \mathbb{Z} \cong (\mathbb{Z}/n_1 \mathbb{Z})^\times \times (\mathbb{Z}/n_2 \mathbb{Z})^\times$
as rings.

$$\phi(p^l) = p^{l-1} (p-1).$$

Theorem: If $f, g \in \mathcal{A}$ multiplicative, then $f * g$ multiplicative.

Ex: $\tau = \varepsilon * \varepsilon$ mult, but not completely mult.
 $\tau(4) = 3 \neq 4 = \tau(2)^2$.

Pf: Suppose $(n_1, n_2) = 1$.

$$(f * g)(n_1 n_2) = \sum_{d|n_1 n_2} f(d) g\left(\frac{n_1 n_2}{d}\right) =$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{d_1|n_1 \\ d_2|n_2}} f(d_1 d_2) g\left(\frac{n_1}{d_1} \cdot \frac{n_2}{d_2}\right)$$

$\{d|n_1 n_2\} \rightarrow \{d_1|n_1\} \times \{d_2|n_2\}$
 $d_1 d_2 \leftarrow d$

$$= \sum_{d_2 | n_2} f(d_2) g\left(\frac{n_2}{d_2}\right) \sum_{d_2 | n_2} f(d_2) g\left(\frac{n_2}{d_2}\right)$$

$$= (f * g)(n_2) \cdot (f * g)(n_2). \quad \square$$

Units in $\mathcal{R}$

Theorem $f \in \mathcal{R}$ unit $\Leftrightarrow f(1) \neq 0$.

Pf. " $\Rightarrow$ " Suppose $\exists g \in \mathcal{R}$ st. $f * g = e$.

Then $1 = e(1) = f(1)g(1) \rightarrow f(1) \neq 0$.

" $\Leftarrow$ " We inductively define $g \in \mathcal{R}$ st. $f * g = e$.
Set $g(1) = \frac{1}{f(1)}$.

Suppose $g(1), \dots, g(n-1)$ already defined. Set
 $g(n) := -\frac{1}{f(1)} \sum_{d|n} f(d)g\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)$.

Then $f * g(n) = e(n)$, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. (easy exercise). $\square$

Remark: We denote the inverse of f by f^{-1} .

Proposition: If $f \in \mathcal{A}^*$ multiplicative, then so is f^{-1} .

Proof: Let $g \in \mathcal{A}^*$ multiplicative defined by
 $g(p^l) = f^{-1}(p^l)$, $p \in P$, $l \in \mathbb{N}$.

Then $f * g$ multiplicative and

$$(f * g)(p^l) = \sum_{k=0}^l f(p^k) g(p^{l-k}) = \sum_{k=0}^l f(p^k) f^{-1}(p^{l-k})$$
$$= (f * f^{-1})(p^l) = e(p^l).$$

$\Rightarrow f * g = e$, as both $f * g$ and e are determined uniquely by their values on prime powers.
By uniqueness of inverse, $g = f^{-1}$. $\square$

Example: Let $\mu := \varepsilon^{-1}$ Möbius function.

Lemma: $\mu(n) = \begin{cases} 1, & n = 1 \\ (-1)^r, & n = p_1 \dots p_r \\ 0, & \text{else.} \end{cases}$ product of distinct primes.

Note: $|\mu|$ = indicator set of square-free numbers.

PF: $\mu(1) = 1 \checkmark$

$$\mu(p^1) = -\frac{1}{\varepsilon(1)} \sum_{k=1}^1 \varepsilon(p^k) \mu(p^{1-k}) = -\sum_{k=0}^{1-1} \mu(p^k)$$

$\mu(p) = -1$ and inductively for $l \geq 2$, $\mu(p^l) = 0$.

Now $\mu = \varepsilon^{-1} \Rightarrow \mu$ is mult, so claim follows. $\square$

Theorem (Möbius Inversion Formula). Let $f, g \in \mathcal{A}$.

$$g(n) = \sum_{d|n} f(d), \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow f(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) g\left(\frac{n}{d}\right).$$

Proof: $g = f * \varepsilon \Leftrightarrow g * \mu = (f * \varepsilon) * \mu = f * (\varepsilon * \mu) = f.$ $\square$

Exercise: $\frac{\varphi(n)}{n} = \sum_{d|n} \frac{\mu(d)}{d}.$