

The Riemann zeta function and the prime number theorem

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The Riemann zeta function

For complex numbers s with $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 1$ the **Riemann zeta function** is defined by

$$\zeta(s) := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s}$$

The Euler product expansion of the Riemann zeta function

The Riemann zeta function Euler's identity

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

Recall that the geometric series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n = \frac{1}{1-r}$, for $r \in \mathbb{C}$ when $|r| < 1$.

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{p \text{ prime}} \frac{1}{1 - p^{-s}} &= \prod_{p \text{ prime}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (p^{-s})^n \\ &= \prod_{p \text{ prime}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (p^n)^{-s} \end{aligned}$$

The Euler product expansion of the Riemann zeta function

$$\begin{aligned}\prod_{p \text{ prime}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (p^n)^{-s} &= (1 + 2^{-s} + 4^{-s} + \dots)(1 + 3^{-s} + 9^{-s} + \dots) \dots \\ &= 1 + 2^{-s} + 3^{-s} + 4^{-s} + 6^{-s} + 9^{-s} + 12^{-s} + \dots.\end{aligned}$$

By the fundamental theorem of arithmetic we conclude that

$$\prod_{p \text{ prime}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (p^n)^{-s} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-s} = \zeta(s).$$



The reciprocal of the Riemann zeta function

The reciprocal of the Riemann zeta function can be defined as

$$\frac{1}{\zeta(s)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(n)}{n^s}.$$

The Euler product expansion of the Riemann zeta function shows that

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{\zeta(s)} &= \frac{1}{\prod_{p \text{ prime}} \frac{1}{1-p^{-s}}} = \prod_{p \text{ prime}} (1 - p^{-s}) \\ &= (1 - 2^{-s}) (1 - 3^{-s}) (1 - 5^{-s}) \dots \\ &= 1 - 2^{-s} - 3^{-s} - 5^{-s} + 6^{-s} + 10^{-s} + 15^{-s} - 30^{-s} + \dots\end{aligned}$$

The reciprocal of the Riemann zeta function

Again by the fundamental theorem of arithmetic it is clear that

$$\prod_{p \text{ prime}} (1 - p^{-s}) = k_1 \frac{1}{1} + k_2 \frac{1}{2^s} + k_3 \frac{1}{3^s} + k_4 \frac{1}{4^s} + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{k_n}{n^s}.$$

In this sum, k_n is determined by the prime factorization of n . Specifically, if n is square-free and $\omega(n)$ is odd, then $k_n = -1$, if n is square-free and $\omega(n)$ is even, then $k_n = 1$, and if n is not square-free then $k_n = 0$, so $k_n = \mu(n)$. Then

$$\frac{1}{\zeta(s)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{k_n}{n^s} = \sum_{1 \leq n \text{ square-free}} (-1)^{\omega(n)} n^{-s} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(n)}{n^s}.$$

□

Another expression involving the Riemann zeta function

We can now show that

$$\frac{\zeta(s)}{\zeta(2s)} = \sum_{1 \leq n \text{ square-free}} \frac{1}{n^s} = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{|\mu(n)|}{n^s}.$$

with some basic arithmetic we can show

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\zeta(s)}{\zeta(2s)} &= \left(\prod_{p \text{ prime}} \frac{1}{1 - p^{-s}} \right) / \left(\prod_{p \text{ prime}} \frac{1}{1 - p^{-2s}} \right) \\ &= \prod_{p \text{ prime}} \frac{1 - p^{-2s}}{1 - p^{-s}} \\ &= \prod_{p \text{ prime}} \frac{(1 + p^{-s})(1 - p^{-s})}{1 - p^{-s}} \\ &= \prod_{p \text{ prime}} (1 + p^{-s}) \\ &= 1 + 2^{-s} + 3^{-s} + 5^{-s} + 6^{-s} + 7^{-s} + 10^{-s} + 11^{-s} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Another expression involving the Riemann zeta function

$$\frac{\zeta(s)}{\zeta(2s)} = 1 + k_2 2^{-s} + k_3 3^{-s} + k_4 4^{-s} + k_5 5^{-s} + k_6 6^{-s} + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{k_n}{n^s}$$

As in the previous proof, for n^{-s} to appear in the sum, n must be square-free, and since there are no negatives in the product terms $(1 + (p_n)^{-s})$, k_n can only be positive. Thus, if n is not square-free, then $k_n = 0$, and if n is square-free, then $k_n = 1$. Then $k_n = |\mu(n)|$, so

$$\frac{\zeta(s)}{\zeta(2s)} = \prod_{p \text{ prime}} (1 + p^{-s}) = \sum_{1 \leq n \text{ square-free}} n^{-s} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{|\mu(n)|}{n^s}.$$



The proportion of k th power-free integers

Recall that the proportion of positive integers that are 2^k -free is $(1 - 2^{-k})$. Moreover, the proportion of positive integers that are free of the k th powers of relatively prime positive integers n_1, \dots, n_m is

$$\prod_{j=1}^m \left(1 - (n_j)^{-k}\right).$$

It follows that the proportion of positive integers that are k th power-free, i.e. are not divisible by any primes to the power of k , is

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

For example, the proportion of square-free integers is

$$\frac{1}{\zeta(2)} = \frac{1}{\pi^2/6} = \frac{6}{\pi^2}.$$

Approximating the proportion of square-free integers

We can use a truncated version of the Euler product expansion of the Riemann zeta function to compute the proportions of square-free integers up to a specific integer.

Let $F(X)$ equal the Euler product expansion of the Riemann zeta function truncated to the X th term, i.e.

$$F(X) := \prod_{p \text{ prime}}^X (1 - p^{-2}),$$

so $F(X)$ gives the proportion of square-free integers from 1 to X .

Approximating the proportion of square-free integers

In the following table, we calculate the value of $F(x)$ and their percent errors relative to the proportion of all positive integers that are square-free, $\frac{6}{\pi^2} \approx 0.607927102$.

X	$F(X)$	Percent error
100	0.60903373	0.18%
200	0.60838189	0.075%
300	0.608225602	0.049%
400	0.608144905	0.036%
500	0.608093228	0.027%
600	0.608065267	0.023%
700	0.608041737	0.019%
800	0.608026443	0.016%
900	0.608013722	0.014%
1000	0.608004307	0.013%

We see that, as X increases, $F(X)$ quickly becomes an excellent approximation of the proportion of square-free integers.

Approximating the proportion of square-free integers

We can conclude that the density of square-free integers from 1 to 1000 is approximately equal to the density of square-free integers.

Additionally, approximating $\frac{1}{\zeta(s)}$ with the truncated product $F(X)$ is fairly accurate.

The von Mangoldt function

We define the **von Mangoldt function** $\Lambda : \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as

$$\Lambda(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } n > 1 \text{ is not a prime power,} \\ \log p & \text{if } n = p^a. \end{cases}$$

The von Mangoldt function

Its first twelve values are

$$\Lambda(1) = 0,$$

$$\Lambda(2) = \log 2,$$

$$\Lambda(3) = \log 3,$$

$$\Lambda(4) = \log 2,$$

$$\Lambda(5) = \log 5,$$

$$\Lambda(6) = 0,$$

$$\Lambda(7) = \log 7,$$

$$\Lambda(8) = \log 2,$$

$$\Lambda(9) = \log 3,$$

$$\Lambda(10) = 0,$$

$$\Lambda(11) = \log 11,$$

$$\Lambda(12) = 0.$$

The natural logarithm in terms of the von Mangoldt function

We can show that

$$\log n = \sum_{1 \leq d|n} \Lambda(d).$$

Proof: Choose $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. In the case that $n = 1$, $\log n = 0 = \Lambda(1) = \sum_{1 \leq d|1} \Lambda(d)$. Hence, we will suppose that $n > 1$. The fundamental theorem of arithmetic gives that n has a unique prime factorization of the form $n = \prod_{i=1}^m p_i^{a_i}$, for $m \geq 1$, p_1, \dots, p_m distinct primes, and $a_1, \dots, a_m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

The natural logarithm in terms of the von Mangoldt function

Let X be the set of prime powers greater than 1 that divide n , i.e. $X = \{p_i^a : 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq a \leq a_i\}$. Λ evaluates to 0 on divisors of n not in X , so

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{1 \leq d|n} \Lambda(d) &= \sum_{d \in X} \Lambda(d) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^{a_i} \Lambda(p_i^j) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m a_i \log p_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m \log p_i^{a_i}.\end{aligned}$$

The natural logarithm in terms of the von Mangoldt function

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{1 \leq d|n} \Lambda(d) &= \sum_{i=1}^m \log p_i^{a_i} \\ &= \log \prod_{i=1}^m p_i^{a_i} \\ &= \log n.\end{aligned}$$

n was chosen arbitrarily, so we are done. \square

Applying the Möbius inversion formula

We can apply the Möbius inversion formula to this result to show that, for $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$,

$$\Lambda(n) = - \sum_{1 \leq d|n} \mu(d) \log d.$$

Proof: Recall that the Möbius inversion formula gives that, for arithmetic functions f and g such that, $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

$$g(n) = \sum_{1 \leq d|n} f(d),$$

it holds that

$$f(n) = \sum_{1 \leq d|n} \mu(d) g(n/d).$$

Applying the Möbius inversion formula

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\Lambda(n) &= \sum_{1 \leq d|n} \mu(d) \log\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \\&= \sum_{1 \leq d|n} \mu(d) (\log n - \log d) \\&= \sum_{1 \leq d|n} \mu(d) \log n - \sum_{1 \leq d|n} \mu(d) \log d \\&= \log n \sum_{1 \leq d|n} \mu(d) - \sum_{1 \leq d|n} \mu(d) \log d \\&= - \sum_{1 \leq d|n} \mu(d) \log d.\end{aligned}$$

Note that first term in the penultimate line vanishes because, in the case that $n = 1$, $\log n = 0$, and in the case that $n > 1$, $\sum_{1 \leq d|n} \mu(d) = 0$. \square

Relation between $\Lambda(n)$ and $\zeta(s)$

The proof of the prime number theorem relies on the identity

$$-\frac{\zeta'}{\zeta}(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Lambda(n)}{n^s}.$$

Proof: Recall the Euler product expansion:

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

Relation between $\Lambda(n)$ and $\zeta(s)$

Applying the Mercator series

$$\log(1+x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k} x^k,$$

we get that

$$\begin{aligned}\log \zeta(s) &= \log \left(\prod_{p \text{ prime}} (1 - p^{-s})^{-1} \right) \\&= \sum_{p \text{ prime}} \log ((1 - p^{-s})^{-1}) \\&= - \sum_{p \text{ prime}} \log(1 - p^{-s}) \\&= - \sum_{p \text{ prime}} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k} (-p^{-s})^k \right)\end{aligned}$$

Relation between $\Lambda(n)$ and $\zeta(s)$

$$\begin{aligned}\log \zeta(s) &= - \sum_{p \text{ prime}} \left(- \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(p^{-s})^k}{k} \right) \\&= \sum_{p \text{ prime}} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{p^{-ks}}{k} \\&= \sum_{p \text{ prime}} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k} \cdot \frac{1}{p^{ks}} \\&= \sum_{p^k \text{ prime power}} \frac{1}{k} \cdot \frac{1}{(p^k)^s} \\&= \sum_{p^k \text{ prime power}} \frac{\log p}{k \log p} \cdot \frac{1}{(p^k)^s}\end{aligned}$$

Relation between $\Lambda(n)$ and $\zeta(s)$

$$\begin{aligned}\log \zeta(s) &= \sum_{p^k \text{ prime power}} \frac{\log p}{\log p^k} \cdot \frac{1}{(p^k)^s} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Lambda(n)}{\log n} \cdot \frac{1}{n^s}.\end{aligned}$$

The last equality holds because $\Lambda(n)$ equals $\log p$ if n is an integer power of prime p and equals 0 if n is not a prime power.

Relation between $\Lambda(n)$ and $\zeta(s)$

We can now take the logarithmic derivative of $\zeta(s)$ to get

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\zeta'}{\zeta}(s) &= \frac{d}{ds} \log(\zeta(s)) \\ &= \frac{d}{ds} \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Lambda(n)}{\log n} \cdot \frac{1}{n^s} \right) \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{d}{ds} \left(\frac{\Lambda(n)}{\log n} \cdot \frac{1}{n^s} \right) \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Lambda(n)}{\log n} \cdot \frac{d}{ds} \left(\frac{1}{n^s} \right)\end{aligned}$$

Relation between $\Lambda(n)$ and $\zeta(s)$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\zeta'}{\zeta}(s) &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Lambda(n)}{\log n} \cdot \left(\frac{\log n}{-n^s} \right) \\ &= - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Lambda(n)}{n^s}.\end{aligned}$$

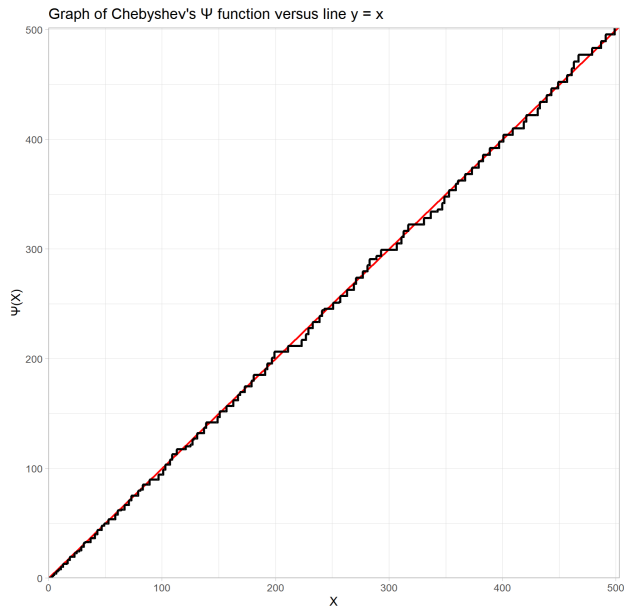
Multiplying both sides of the equation by -1 , we are done. \square

The Chebyshev function

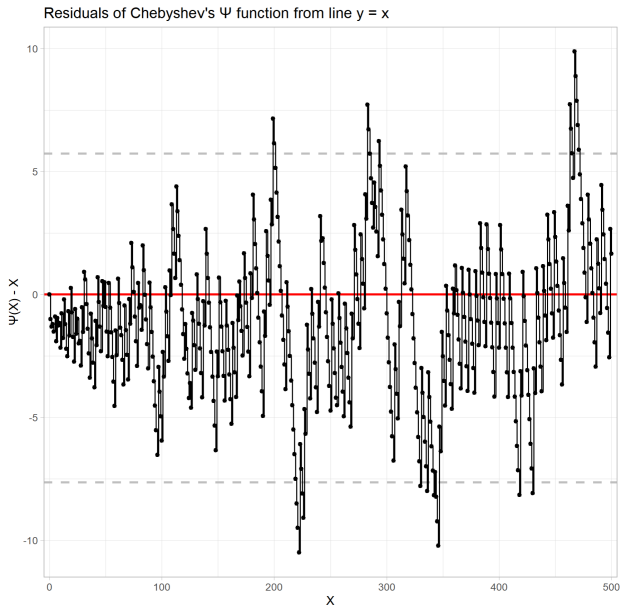
For $X \in \mathbb{R}$, the **Chebyshev function** is defined by

$$\Psi(x) := \sum_{p^k \leq x} \log p.$$

Plotting the Chebyshev function



Plotting the Chebyshev function



Alternative formula for $\Psi(x)$

We can give an exact formula for $\Psi(x)$ in terms of the zeros of the Riemann zeta function:

$$\Psi(x) = x - \sum_{\rho} \frac{x^{\rho}}{\rho} - \frac{\zeta'(0)}{\zeta(0)} - \frac{1}{2} \log(1 - x^{-2}),$$

where ρ iterates over the non-trivial zeros of the Riemann zeta function.

Prime number theorem

Recall the Prime Number Theorem:

$$\text{As } x \rightarrow \infty, \text{ we have that } \pi(x) \sim \frac{x}{\log x},$$

where $\pi(x) := |\{p \leq x : p \text{ is prime}\}|$ is the **prime-counting function**.

We can show that the Riemann hypothesis applied to our alternative formula for $\Psi(x)$ implies the prime number theorem.

Prime number theorem

Step 1: We want to show that for large x , $\Psi(x) \sim x$.

As $x \rightarrow \infty$, we see that the last two terms of our formula for $\Psi(x)$ are negligible:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} \log(1 - x^{-2}) = \frac{1}{2} \log 1 = 0$$

and

$$-\frac{\zeta'}{\zeta}(0) = \log 2\pi,$$

which is negligible as $x \rightarrow \infty$. Thus, as $x \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\Psi(x) \sim x - \sum_{\rho} \frac{x^{\rho}}{\rho}.$$

Prime number theorem

It remains to show that as $x \rightarrow \infty$, $\sum_{\rho} \frac{x^{\rho}}{\rho} \rightarrow 0$.

Assuming the Riemann hypothesis, we have that, for any non-trivial zeros of the Riemann zeta function, ρ , $\operatorname{Re}(\rho) = \frac{1}{2}$. Let ρ be a non-trivial zero of the Riemann zeta function and let $\gamma_{\rho} := \operatorname{Im}(\rho)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{\rho} \frac{x^{\rho}}{\rho} \right| &= \left| \sum_{\rho} \frac{x^{\frac{1}{2} + i\gamma_{\rho}}}{\rho} \right| \\ &= x^{\frac{1}{2}} \left| \sum_{\rho} \frac{x^{i\gamma_{\rho}}}{\rho} \right| \\ &\leq \sqrt{x} \sum_{\rho} \frac{1}{|\rho|}, \end{aligned}$$

where the inequality holds via the triangle inequality because $|x^{i\gamma_{\rho}}| = 1$.

Prime number theorem

Define $N(T) := |\{\rho : \zeta(\rho) = 0, 0 < \gamma_\rho < T, \text{ and } T \in \mathbb{R}\}|$, i.e. $N(T)$ denotes the number of non-trivial zeros of the Riemann zeta function whose imaginary part is positive and less than some real number T .

Then $N(T) \sim \left(\frac{T}{2\pi}\right) \log\left(\frac{T}{2\pi}\right)$, so $\sum_{\rho} \frac{1}{|\rho|}$, which is a sum over all non-trivial zeros of the Riemann zeta function, has approximately $\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{T}{2\pi}\right) \log\left(\frac{T}{2\pi}\right)$ many terms.

Prime Number Theorem

Recall that the T th harmonic number is less than or equal to $\log T$, i.e.

$$\sum_{n=1}^T \frac{1}{n} \leq \log T.$$

Let (ρ_n) be the sequence of the nontrivial zero of the Riemann zeta function with positive imaginary part in order of increasing imaginary part. Let (b_n) be the sequence defined by $b_n = |\rho_n|$, $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Since the real parts of all elements of (ρ_n) are equal and the imaginary part of each element of (ρ_n) is greater than that of its predecessor, (b_n) is an increasing sequence.

Prime number theorem

For sufficiently large T ,

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{n=1}^{N(T)} \frac{1}{|\rho_n|} &= \sum_{n=1}^{N(T)} \frac{1}{b_n} \\ &\leq \log \left(\left(\frac{T}{2\pi} \right) \log \left(\frac{T}{2\pi} \right) \right) \\ &= \log \left(\frac{T}{2\pi} \right) + \log^2 \left(\frac{T}{2\pi} \right) \\ &= \log^2 T + \log T - \log^2(2\pi) - \log(2\pi) \\ &\sim O(\log^2(T)).\end{aligned}$$

Prime number theorem

It follows that, for sufficiently large T ,

$$\begin{aligned}\left| \sum_{\rho} \frac{x^{\rho}}{\rho} \right| &\leq \sqrt{x} \sum_{\rho} \frac{1}{|\rho|} \\ &\leq \sqrt{x} \cdot O(\log^2 T) \\ &\leq O(\sqrt{x} \log^2 T),\end{aligned}$$

which is what we wanted to show. We now have:

$$\text{As } x \rightarrow \infty, \quad \Psi(x) = x - O(\sqrt{x} \log^2 T) \sim x.$$

Prime number theorem

Step 2: We want to use the von Mangoldt function, $\Lambda(n)$, to approximate $\pi(x)$.

Consider

$$\frac{\Lambda(n)}{\log n} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n > 1 \text{ is not a prime power,} \\ 1 & \text{if } n \text{ is prime,} \\ \frac{\log p}{\log n} & \text{if } n = p^a, \end{cases}$$

for $n > 1$. As $n \rightarrow \infty$, $\frac{\log p}{\log n} \rightarrow 0$ because, on average, $n \gg p$.

Prime number theorem

So, we get that

$$\pi(x) \sim \sum_{n=2}^x \frac{\Lambda(n)}{\log n}$$

because the sum adds 0 if n is not a prime power, adds $\frac{\log n}{\log n} = 1$ if n is prime, and adds $\frac{\log p}{\log n}$ if n is an integer power of prime p .

Prime number theorem

Abel's summation formula: for a sequence (a_n) of complex numbers, $A(t) := \sum_{n=0}^t a_n$, $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $x < y$, and continuously differentiable function $\phi \in C^1([x, y])$, we have the following:

$$\sum_{n > x}^y a_n \phi(n) = A(y)\phi(y) - A(x)\phi(x) - \int_x^y A(u)\phi'(u)du.$$

Prime number theorem

Note that

$$\Psi(x) = \sum_{n=1}^x \Lambda(n),$$

by our original definition.

Applying Abel's summation formula with $(\Lambda(n))$ as the sequence of complex numbers and $\phi(n) = \frac{1}{\log n}$ as the function in $C^1([2, x])$, we get:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=2}^x \frac{\Lambda(n)}{\log n} &= \frac{\Psi(x)}{\log x} - \frac{\Psi(2)}{\log 2} + \int_2^x \frac{\Psi(u)}{u \log^2 u} du \\ &= \frac{\Psi(x)}{\log x} - \frac{\log 2}{\log 2} + \int_2^x \frac{\Psi(u)}{u \log^2(u)} du \\ &\sim \frac{\Psi(x)}{\log x} + \int_2^x \frac{\Psi(u)}{u \log^2 u} du. \end{aligned}$$

Prime number theorem

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{n=2}^x \frac{\Lambda(n)}{\log n} &\sim \frac{x + O(\sqrt{x} \log^2 x)}{\log x} + \int_2^x \frac{u + O(\sqrt{u} \log^2 u)}{u \log^2 u} du \\&= \frac{x}{\log x} + \frac{O(\sqrt{x} \log^2 x)}{\log x} + \int_2^x \left(\frac{u + O(\sqrt{u} \log^2 u)}{u} \cdot \frac{1}{\log^2 u} \right) du \\&= \frac{x}{\log x} + O\left(\frac{\sqrt{x} \log^2 x}{\log x}\right) + O\left(\int_2^x \frac{1}{\log^2 u} du\right) \\&= \frac{x}{\log x} + O(\sqrt{x} \log x) + O\left(\int_2^x \frac{1}{\log^2 u} du\right) \\&\sim \frac{x}{\log x}\end{aligned}$$

Prime number theorem

We conclude that as $x \rightarrow \infty$

$$\pi(x) \sim \sum_{n=2}^x \frac{\Lambda(n)}{\log n} \sim \frac{x}{\log x},$$

which is precisely what we set out to prove. \square