### Tannakian symbols and multiplicative functions

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YTM2017, Stockholm, July 2017

#### Intro

We have many new results in number theory - here we hope to give a flavour of the most important ideas.

#### Outline:

- 1. Lambda-rings
- 2. Tannakian symbols
- 3. Multiplicative functions
- 4. Motives
- Miracles

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The operations  $\psi^1$ ,  $\psi^2$ , ... are called **Adams operations**, and we will denote them by  $\mathrm{Ad}^1$ ,  $\mathrm{Ad}^2$ , etc.

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For a general commutative ring (i.e. with possible torsion), we must use the **lambda-operations** (not the Adams operations) as starting point for the definition, and the axioms become more complicated.

Example: Consider (complex) representations of a compact connected complex Lie group.

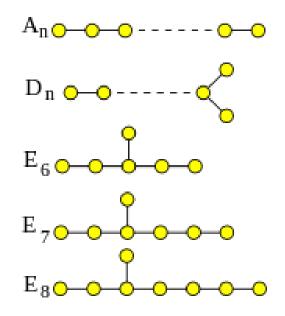
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The Grothendieck ring is generated **as a lambda-ring** by elements in one-to-one correspondence with the *arms* of the Dynkin diagram.



### Examples of lambda-rings:

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- ▶ Borger's lambda-algebraic geometry ("over  $\mathbb{F}_1$ ")

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Question: How to give concrete examples of lambda-rings?

Answer: Tannakian symbols.

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Example:  $\frac{\{2,2,5,5\}}{\{1,1,1\}}$ 

$$\frac{\{5\}}{\{1,-1\}} \oplus \frac{\{1,1,1\}}{\{-1\}} = \frac{\{5,1,1,1\}}{\{1,-1,-1\}} = \frac{\{5,1,1\}}{\{-1,-1\}}$$

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$$\mathsf{Ad}_{\bigcirc}^2\Big(\frac{\{-1,-1,2,5\}}{\{1,-2,7\}}\Big) = \frac{\{(\cancel{-1})^2,(-1)^2,\cancel{2^2},5^2\}}{\{\cancel{2^2},(\cancel{-2})^2,7^2\}} = \frac{\{1,25\}}{\{49\}}$$

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Let U be a set. We write  $TS(M)^U$  for the set of functions from U to TS(M) (think of this as vectors of symbols, indexed by U).

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Can we use Tannakian symbols to describe "all lambda-rings in nature"???

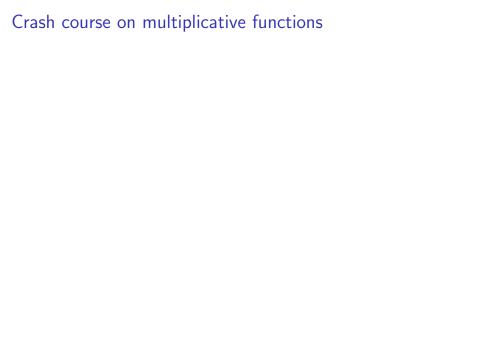
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Today: Focus on a single application, namely **new lambda-ring structures on multiplicative functions**.



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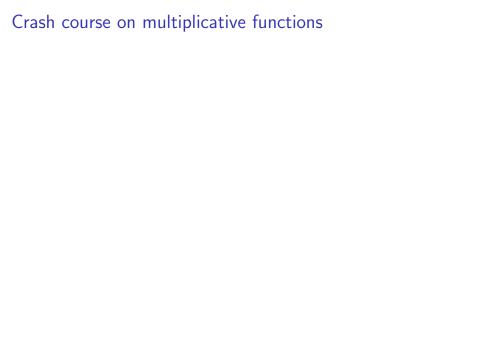
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Super-important point: These axioms imply that the function values  $f(p^e)$  at prime power arguments completely determine the function.



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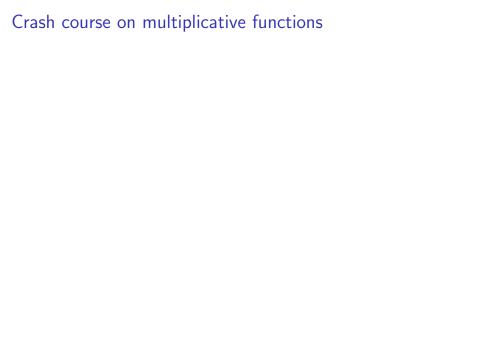
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Remark: Almost all multiplicative functions appearing in nature are rational.



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Let's focus on the Euler  $\varphi$  function.

Definition:  $\varphi(n)$  is the number of positive integers  $x \leq n$  that are coprime to n.

#### Values:

n	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	 20
$\varphi(n)$	1	1	2	2	4	2	6	4	6	4	10	4	 8

However, this display hides many of the patterns in the function values, and it is often better to tabulate only the function values  $f(p^e)$  in a two-dimensional array indexed by the prime p and the exponent e. Here is what happens for the Euler function:

	e=1	e=2	e = 3	e = 4	e = 5	e = 6
p = 2	1	2	4	8	16	32
p = 3	2	6	18	54	162	486
<i>p</i> = 5	4	20	100	500	2500	12500
p = 7	6	42	294	2058	14406	100842

We call this the **Bell table** of the multiplicative function  $\varphi$ .

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At p = 5:

$$1 + 4t + 20t^2 + 100t^3 + 500t^4 + \ldots = \frac{1 - t}{1 - 5t}$$

General computation:

$$1 + (p-1)t + (p^{2} - p)t^{2} + (p^{3} - p^{2})t^{3} + \dots =$$

$$= (1 + pt + p^{2}t^{2} + p^{3}t^{3} + \dots) - (t + pt^{2} + p^{2}t^{3} + \dots) =$$

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Tannakian symbol of the Euler  $\varphi$  function:  $\frac{\{p\}}{\{1\}}$ 

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Essentially all identities in the number theory literature can be proven like this, and generalized.

# Example: 1

Bell table:

	e=1	e = 2	e=3	e = 4	<i>e</i> = 5	<i>e</i> = 6
p = 2	1	1	1	1	1	1
p = 3	1	1	1	1	1	1
p = 5	1	1	1	1	1	1
p = 7	1	1	1	1	1	1
p = 11	1	1	1	1	1	1

$$\frac{\{1\}}{\varnothing}$$

# Example: 0

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p = 11	0	0	0	0	0	0

$$\frac{\emptyset}{\emptyset}$$

# Example: Id

Values: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19...

#### Bell table:

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p = 2	2	4	8	16	32	64
p = 3	3	9	27	81	243	729
p = 5	5	25	125	625	3125	15625
p = 7	7	49	343	2401	16807	117649
p = 11	11	121	1331	14641	161051	1771561

$$\frac{\{p\}}{\varnothing}$$

#### Example: *Id*<sub>2</sub>

Values: 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81, 100, 121, 144, 169, 196,

225, 256, 289, 324, 361...

Bell table:

	e=1	e=2	e = 3	e = 4	e = 5	
p = 2	4	16	64	256	1024	
p = 3	9	81	729	6561	59049	5
<i>p</i> = 5	25	625	15625	390625	9765625	24
p = 7	49	2401	117649	5764801	282475249	1384
p = 11	121	14641	1771561	214358881	25937424601	31384

$$\frac{\{p^2\}}{\varnothing}$$

#### Example: au

Definition:  $\tau(n)$  is the number of ordered factorizations of n.

Values: 1, 2, 2, 3, 2, 4, 2, 4, 3, 4, 2, 6, 2, 4, 4, 5, 2, 6, 2...

Bell table:

	e=1	e=2	e = 3	e = 4	e = 5	<i>e</i> = 6
p = 2	2	3	4	5	6	7
p = 3	2	3	4	5	6	7
p = 5	2	3	4	5	6	7
p = 7	2	3	4	5	6	7
p = 11	2	3	4	5	6	7

$$\frac{\{1,1\}}{\varnothing}$$

#### Example: $\tau_4$

Let  $\tau_k(n)$  be the number of ordered factorizations of n into k factors. Then  $\tau_k$  is a multiplicative function. For k=2 we recover the  $\tau$  function from earlier.

For k = 4, the values are: 1, 4, 4, 10, 4, 16, 4, 20, 10, 16, 4, 40, 4, 16, 16, 35, 4, 40, 4...

#### Bell table:

	e=1	e=2	e=3	e = 4	<i>e</i> = 5	<i>e</i> = 6
p = 2	4	10	20	35	56	84
p = 3	4	10	20	35	56	84
p = 5	4	10	20	35	56	84
p = 7	4	10	20	35	56	84
p=11	4	10	20	35	56	84

$$\frac{\{1,1,1,1\}}{\varnothing}$$

Definition:  $\lambda(n) = (-1)^{\Omega(n)}$  where  $\Omega(n)$  is the number of prime factors of n (with multiplicity).

The Bell table of the Liouville function:

	e=1	e=2	<i>e</i> = 3	e = 4	<i>e</i> = 5
p = 2	-1	1	-1	1	-1
p = 3	-1	1	-1	1	-1
p = 5	-1	1	-1	1	-1
p = 7	-1	1	-1	1	-1

$$\frac{\{-1\}}{\varnothing}$$

Definition:  $\Theta(n)$  is the number of square-free divisors of n.

The Bell table of the  $\Theta$  function:

	e=1	<i>e</i> = 2	<i>e</i> = 3	e = 4	e = 5
p = 2	2	2	2	2	2
p = 3	2	2	2	2	2
p = 5	2	2	2	2	2
p = 7	2	2	2	2	2

### Example: The core function

Values: 1, 2, 3, 2, 5, 6, 7, 2, 3, 10, 11, 6, 13, 14, 15, 2, 17, 6, 19...

#### Bell table:

	e=1	e=2	e=3	e=4	e=5	<i>e</i> = 6
p = 2	2	2	2	2	2	2
p = 3	3	3	3	3	3	3
p = 5	5	5	5	5	5	5
p = 7	7	7	7	7	7	7
p = 11	11	11	11	11	11	11

$$\frac{\{1\}}{\{-p+1\}}$$

#### Example: $\beta$

 $Values:\ 1,\ 1,\ 2,\ 3,\ 4,\ 2,\ 6,\ 5,\ 7,\ 4,\ 10,\ 6,\ 12,\ 6,\ 8,\ 11,\ 16,\ 7,\ 18.\ldots$ 

#### Bell table:

	e=1	e=2	e=3	e = 4	<i>e</i> = 5	<i>e</i> = 6
p = 2	1	3	5	11	21	43
p = 3	2	7	20	61	182	547
p = 5	4	21	104	521	2604	13021
p = 7	6	43	300	2101	14706	102943
p=11	10	111	1220	13421	147630	1623931

$$\frac{\{p,-1\}}{\varnothing}$$

# Example: $\psi$

Values: 1, 3, 4, 6, 6, 12, 8, 12, 12, 18, 12, 24, 14, 24, 24, 24, 18, 36, 20...

#### Bell table:

	e=1	e=2	<i>e</i> = 3	<i>e</i> = 4	<i>e</i> = 5	<i>e</i> = 6
p = 2	3	6	12	24	48	96
p = 3	4	12	36	108	324	972
p = 5	6	30	150	750	3750	18750
p = 7	8	56	392	2744	19208	134456
p=11	12	132	1452	15972	175692	1932612

$$\frac{\{p\}}{\{-1\}}$$

## Example: $\theta$

Values: 1, 2, 2, 2, 4, 2, 2, 2, 4, 2, 4, 2, 4, 4, 2, 2, 4, 2...

#### Bell table:

	e=1	e=2	e=3	e = 4	e = 5	<i>e</i> = 6
p = 2	2	2	2	2	2	2
p = 3	2	2	2	2	2	2
p = 5	2	2	2	2	2	2
p = 7	2	2	2	2	2	2
p = 11	2	2	2	2	2	2

$$\frac{\{1\}}{\{-1\}}$$

### Example: $\mu$

 $Values:\ 1,\ -1,\ -1,\ 0,\ -1,\ 1,\ -1,\ 0,\ 0,\ 1,\ -1,\ 0,\ -1,\ 1,\ 1,\ 0,\ -1,\ 0,\ -1\dots$ 

Bell table:

	e=1	e = 2	e=3	e = 4	e = 5	<i>e</i> = 6
p = 2	-1	0	0	0	0	0
p = 3	-1	0	0	0	0	0
p = 5	-1	0	0	0	0	0
p = 7	-1	0	0	0	0	0
p = 11	-1	0	0	0	0	0

$$\frac{\varnothing}{\{1\}}$$

### Example: $\gamma$

#### Bell table:

	e=1	e = 2	e=3	e = 4	e=5	<i>e</i> = 6
p = 2	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1
p = 3	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1
p = 5	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1
p = 7	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1
p = 11	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1

$$\frac{\{1\}}{\{2\}}$$

# Example: $\xi$

 $Values:\ 1,\ 1,\ 1,\ 0,\ 1,\ 1,\ 0,\ 0,\ 1,\ 1,\ 0,\ 1,\ 1,\ 1,\ 0,\ 1,\ 0,\ 1\ldots$ 

Bell table:

	e=1	e = 2	e = 3	e = 4	e = 5	<i>e</i> = 6
p = 2	1	0	0	0	0	0
p = 3	1	0	0	0	0	0
p = 5	1	0	0	0	0	0
p = 7	1	0	0	0	0	0
p = 11	1	0	0	0	0	0

$$rac{arnothing}{\{-1\}}$$

### Example: $\epsilon_2$

This is the characteristic function of square numbers.

Values: 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, . . .

#### Bell table:

	e=1	e=2	e=3	e = 4	<i>e</i> = 5	<i>e</i> = 6
p = 2	0	1	0	1	0	1
p = 3	0	1	0	1	0	1
p = 5	0	1	0	1	0	1
p = 7	0	1	0	1	0	1
p = 11	0	1	0	1	0	1

$$\frac{\{1,-1\}}{\varnothing}$$

### Example: $\epsilon_3$

This is the characteristic function of cube numbers.

Values: 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0...

#### Bell table:

	e=1	e = 2	e=3	e = 4	<i>e</i> = 5	<i>e</i> = 6
p = 2	0	0	1	0	0	1
p = 3	0	0	1	0	0	1
p = 5	0	0	1	0	0	1
p = 7	0	0	1	0	0	1
p = 11	0	0	1	0	0	1

$$\frac{\{1,\omega,\omega^2\}}{\varnothing}$$

## Example: $\sigma_0$

 $Values: \ 1, \ 2, \ 2, \ 3, \ 2, \ 4, \ 2, \ 4, \ 3, \ 4, \ 2, \ 6, \ 2, \ 4, \ 4, \ 5, \ 2, \ 6, \ 2 \ldots$ 

#### Bell table:

	e=1	e = 2	e = 3	e = 4	e = 5	<i>e</i> = 6
p = 2	2	3	4	5	6	7
p = 3	2	3	4	5	6	7
p = 5	2	3	4	5	6	7
p = 7	2	3	4	5	6	7
p = 11	2	3	4	5	6	7

$$\frac{\{1,1\}}{\varnothing}$$

# Example: $\sigma_1$ (or $\sigma$ )

Values: 1, 3, 4, 7, 6, 12, 8, 15, 13, 18, 12, 28, 14, 24, 24, 31, 18, 39, 20...

#### Bell table:

	e=1	e=2	<i>e</i> = 3	<i>e</i> = 4	e = 5	<i>e</i> = 6
p = 2	3	7	15	31	63	127
p = 3	4	13	40	121	364	1093
p = 5	6	31	156	781	3906	19531
p = 7	8	57	400	2801	19608	137257
p = 11	12	133	1464	16105	177156	1948717

$$\frac{\{p,1\}}{\varnothing}$$

### Example: $\sigma_2$

Values: 1, 5, 10, 21, 26, 50, 50, 85, 91, 130, 122, 210, 170, 250, 260, 341, 290, 455, 362...

Bell table:

	e=1	<i>e</i> = 2	e = 3	e = 4	e = 5	
p = 2	5	21	85	341	1365	
p = 3	10	91	820	7381	66430	5
p = 5	26	651	16276	406901	10172526	25
p = 7	50	2451	120100	5884901	288360150	141
p = 11	122	14763	1786324	216145205	26153569806	3164

$$\frac{\{1,p^2\}}{\varnothing}$$

### Example: $\sigma_3$

Values: 1, 9, 28, 73, 126, 252, 344, 585, 757, 1134, 1332, 2044,

2198, 3096, 3528, 4681, 4914, 6813, 6860...

Bell table:

	e=1	e=2	e=3	e = 4	e =
p = 2	9	73	585	4681	374
p = 3	28	757	20440	551881	14900
p = 5	126	15751	1968876	246109501	307636
p = 7	344	117993	40471600	13881758801	4761443
p = 11	1332	1772893	2359720584	3140788097305	41803889

$$\frac{\{1,p^3\}}{\varnothing}$$

Main goal: Understand all operations on multiplicative functions!

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In addition, we have "extended" known operations on varieties and on L-functions to all multiplicative functions.

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In addition, we have "extended" known operations on varieties and on L-functions to all multiplicative functions.

All these operations can be organized into two lambda-ring structures on  $Mult(\mathbb{C})$  (the set of all multiplicative functions).

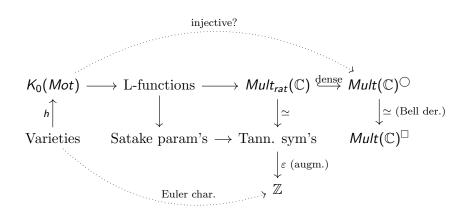
Motivation for looking at multiplicative functions: Understand the Grothendieck ring of motives (the "ultimate representation ring"). Basic examples of motives:

- Any variety V over  $\mathbb{Q}$  or  $\mathbb{F}_q$  gives a motive. Examples: Number fields, the Fermat equation, elliptic curves, higher-genus curves, Calabi-Yau varieties, . . .
- For any integer i and any variety V, we have the motive  $h^i(V)$ , which captures the i'th cohomology of V. This motive can be "twisted" and sometimes decomposed further.

Let  $K_0(Mot)$  be "the Grothendieck ring of motives over  $\mathbb{Z}$ ".

- Instead of motives, we could also use Galois representations or automorphic representations.
- Augmentation on motives is just the Euler characteristic.

We have a diagram, in which all arrows (except from Varieties) are homomorphisms of lambda-rings!



#### Notes:

- ▶ By "L-functions" we mean L-functions with Euler products.
- ▶ By "Varieties" we mean smooth projective varieties over ℚ (think "nonsingular", "compact", "defined as the zero locus of some polynomials").
- Special cases of Satake parameters are Hecke eigenvalues and Frobenius eigenvalues.
- We have glossed over a subtlety related to the definition of  $\varepsilon$ .

The L-function of an elliptic curve may look like this:

	e=1	<i>e</i> = 2	e = 3	e = 4	<i>e</i> = 5
p = 2	1	-1	-3	-1	5
p = 3	0	-3	0	9	0
<i>p</i> = 5	-3	4	3	-29	72
p = 7	-1	-6	13	29	-120
p = 11	-1	1	-1	1	-1

The Hasse-Weil zeta function of the elliptic curve  $y^2 + y = x^3 - x^2$  gives:

	e=1	e = 2	<i>e</i> = 3	e = 4	e = 5
p = 2	5	5	5	25	25
p = 3	5	15	20	75	275
p = 5	5	35	140	595	3025
p = 7	10	60	310	2400	

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p = 2	5	5	5	25	25
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One of the numbers appearing in the Birch-Swinnerton-Dyer conjecture for this curve is 5.

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For functions which are less nice, but motivic, there is a *metric* such that the first rows determine the zeta type up to some small error.

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Analogy: The rows of a motivic Bell table are like the decimals of a real number

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For functions which are less nice, but motivic, there is a *metric* such that the first rows determine the zeta type up to some small error.

Analogy: The rows of a motivic Bell table are like the decimals of a real number

Geometry of motives? All motives seem to sit as lattice points inside a certain Hilbert space, which sits inside  $Mult(\mathbb{C})$ .

Dirichlet convolution: 
$$(f \oplus g)(n) = \sum f(a)g(b)$$

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$$(f \boxtimes g)(n) = f(n) \cdot g(n)$$

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Tensor product: 
$$(f \otimes g)(n) = (complicated)$$

The last operation corresponds to Cartesian product of varieties, tensor product of motives, and (almost) Rankin-Selberg product of L-functions.

$$Ad_{\bigcirc}^{k}(f)(n) = \sum_{a_1, \dots, a_k} f(a_1)f(a_2)\cdots f(a_k)\omega_k^{\Omega(a_1)+2\Omega(a_2)+\dots+k\Omega(a_k)}$$

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$$\operatorname{Ad}_{\bigcirc}^{k}(f)(n) = \sum_{a_1 a_2 \cdots a_k = n^k} f(a_1) f(a_2) \cdots f(a_k) \omega_k^{\Omega(a_1) + 2\Omega(a_2) + \dots + k\Omega(a_k)}$$

$$\mathsf{Ad}^k_\square(f)(n) = f(n^k)$$

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$$\operatorname{Ad}_{\bigcirc}^{k}(f)(n) = \sum_{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k = n^k} f(a_1) f(a_2) \cdots f(a_k) \omega_k^{\Omega(a_1) + 2\Omega(a_2) + \dots + k\Omega(a_k)}$$

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$$\widehat{\mathsf{Ad}}_{\bigcirc}^k = (complicated)$$

The last operation here is defined so that it corresponds to an operation called *base change* on varieties over finite fields.

Main results on lambda-ring structures:

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Miracle 3: Exactly the same thing is true for the box operations.

Miracle 4: There is an operation from  $Mult(\mathbb{C} \text{ to } Mult(\mathbb{C})$  which is an isomorphism from the first lambda-ring to the second. We call this the Bell derivative.

Definition: The **Bell derivative** of a multiplicative function f is the function  $(f \boxtimes \tau) \ominus f$ 

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Theorem: The fixed points of the Bell derivative are precisely the completely multiplicative functions.



Important point: All operations can be implemented in a computer.

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Miracle 6: Almost all operations can be expressed explicitly using Tannakian symbols. In particular, this is true for the two examples which were "complicated".

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$$g(n) = \sum_{r=1}^{n} f(gcd(r, n))$$

is also multiplicative.

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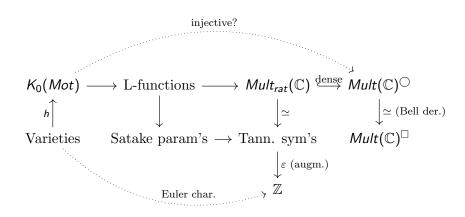
Example 2: If f is a multiplicative function, then

$$g(n) = \sum_{r=1}^{n} f(gcd(r, n))$$

is also multiplicative.

In our language, we have  $g=f\oplus \varphi$ 

Recall the diagram, in which all arrows (except from Varieties) are homomorphisms of lambda-rings!



The end

Thank you!

The end

Thank you!

Next talk: More examples and applications, and code.

Recap:

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- ▶ Re-prove and generalize many known theorems
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The next few slides will give just a **few examples** of what we can do.



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#### The idea is:

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- ▶ Define a multiplicative function  $N_V$  using point counts in finite fields.
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- ▶ Define a multiplicative function  $N_V$  using point counts in finite fields.
- ▶ Define  $H_V$  to be the Bell antiderivative of  $N_V$ .
- ▶ Pick a good prime and compute the Tannakian symbol of  $H_V$ .
- Plot the Tannakian symbol.

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Define the multiplicative function  $N_V$  by setting, for every prime power  $q = p^e$ :

 $N_V(q)=$  number of points of V in the finite field  $\mathbb{F}_q$ 

We work with the prime 5 throughout these examples. We choose a variety V, here we take the genus 4 curve given by the projective equation

$$y^2z^7 = x^9 + x^3z^6 + z^9$$

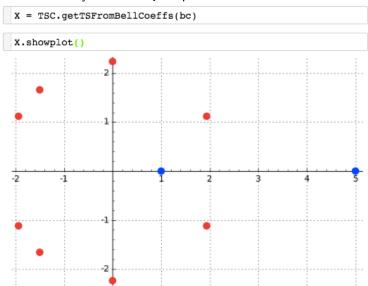
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The next slide shows a screenshot from our Sage code, where we see the values of  $N_V$  and for  $H_V$  for q=1,5,25,125,625,...

```
K = GF(5)
 2 R.<t> = PolynomialRing(K)
 3 V = HyperellipticCurve(t^9 + t^3 + 1)
 N V values = [1] + H.count points exhaustive(n=20)
 5 print N V values
[1, 9, 27, 108, 675, 3069, 16302, 78633, 389475, 1954044, 9768627,
48814533, 244072650, 1220693769, 6103414827, 30517927308, 152587347075,
762939337869, 3814712047902, 19073477713833, 95367442165875]
 1 H V values = BellAntiderivative(N V values)
 2 print H V values
[1, 9, 54, 279, 1404, 7029, 35279, 176904, 885654, 4429404, 22148154,
110741904, 553710654, 2768554404, 13842773154, 69213866904, 346069335654,
1730346679404, 8651733398154, 43258666991904, 2162933349606541
   X = TSC.getTSFromBellCoeffs(H V values)
   X.showplot()
```

The Tannakian symbol of  $H_V$  at p=5 is illustrated here:



We make four observations - the unbelievable thing is that these observations hold for any variety in any dimension, provided the variety is projective and nonsingular.

- 1. The Bell antiderivative of  $N_V$  is rational (otherwise our Tannakian symbol wouldn't exist).
- 2. All elements of the Tannakian symbol lie on circles with radii 1,  $\sqrt{5}$  and 5.
- There is a certain symmetry with respect to reflection in the middle circle, not really visible in the case of curves.
- 4. The number of points on the *m*'th circle is the *m*'th Betti number.

The Weil conjectures consist of four statements:

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- 2. Deligne's "Riemann hypothesis"
- 3. Functional equation/Poincaré duality
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These are equivalent to our observations made above.

Just one more example, this time using a two-dimensional complex manifold (so four-dimensional over the reals).

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Let's try also a 4-fold (a product of a genus 2 curve with a genus 4 curve):

```
W = HyperellipticCurve(t^5+t^2+1)
N_W_values = [1] + W.count_points_exhaustive(n=20)
H_W_values = BellAntiderivative(N_W_values)
Y = TSC.getTSFromBellCoeffs(H_W_values)
(X*Y).showplot()
```

Just one more example, this time using a two-dimensional complex manifold (so four-dimensional over the reals).

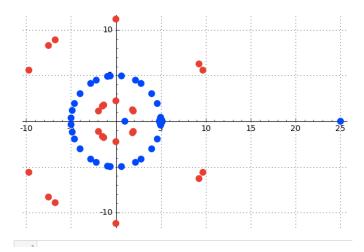
Here we compute the Tannakian symbol (at the prime p=5) of a product of two curves (of genus 2 and genus 4).

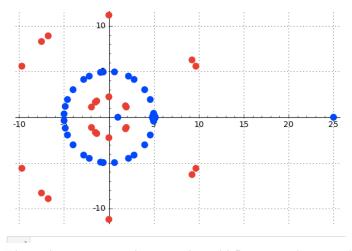
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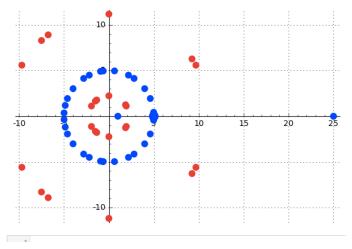
Note the last line, where we take the tensor product of two Tannakian symbols and ask Sage to plot it.







The red points contribute to the odd Betti numbers, and the big red circle has 12 points, meaning the third Betti number is 12.



The red points contribute to the odd Betti numbers, and the big red circle has 12 points, meaning the third Betti number is 12. This is of course consistent with the Künneth formula.

Here's some code for computing the second and third Betti number, in case the points are too close to each other for manual counting.

```
In [136]: 1 (X*Y).filter(lambda x: 5.1 < abs(x) < 24.9).odddimension().029 seconds

Out[136]: 12

In [137]: 1 (X*Y).filter(lambda x: 4.9 < abs(x) < 5.1).evendimension().025 seconds

Out[137]: 34
```

The second Betti number is 34 in this case.

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Here  $q = p^e$  is any prime power.

Here is the Bell table of  $N_V$ :

	e=1	e=2	<i>e</i> = 3	e = 4	<i>e</i> = 5	e = 6
p = 2	1	3	7	15	31	63
p = 3	2	8	26	80	242	728
p = 5	4	24	124	624	3124	15624
p = 7	6	48	342	2400	16806	117648
p=11	10	120	1330	14640	161050	1771560

Here is the Bell table of  $I_V$ :

	e=1	<i>e</i> = 2	e = 3	e = 4	e = 5	e = 6
p = 2	1	2	4	8	16	32
p = 3	2	6	18	54	162	486
p = 5	4	20	100	500	2500	12500
p = 7	6	42	294	2058	14406	100842
p = 11	10	110	1210	13310	146410	1610510

(Remark: This happens to be the Euler  $\varphi$  function.)

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Think carefully about what happens here.  $N_V$  comes from point counting in finite fields, and  $I_V$  comes from point counting using modular arithmetic.

The two functions  $N_V$  and  $I_V$  really should not have any relation beyond the first column!!!

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However, we have found that...

- ▶ The Bell derivative of  $I_V$  is equal to  $N_V$  (!)
- ► This works in general for cellular varieties, e.g. projective spaces and Grassmannians.

For varieties which are not cellular, this is not true, but it could be interesting to investigate other possible relations between  $N_V$  and  $I_V$ .

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Let us look at a single example - we take the affine variety  $\ensuremath{V}$  defined by

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Let us look at a single example - we take the affine variety  ${\it V}$  defined by

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Note again: No-one expects any relation beyond the first column.

### The Bell table of $N_V$ :

	e=1	e = 2	e = 3	e = 4	<i>e</i> = 5
p = 2	2	4	8	16	32
p = 3	3	27	27	27	243
p = 5	3	19	147	667	3043
p = 7	7	91	343	2107	16807

### The Bell table of $I_V$ :

	e=1	e=2	e = 3	e = 4	<i>e</i> = 5
p = 2	2	2	4	8	16
p = 3	3	9	27	81	243
p = 5	3	15	75	375	1875
p = 7	7	49	343	2401	16807

The first columns must be identical because  $\mathbb{F}_{
ho}=\mathbb{Z}/
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For p = 2, one row is a shift of the other. Why?

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For p=5, one row is chaotic and the other one is a geometric sequence. Why?

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For p = 3 and p = 7, every second point count agree. Why?

What happens for bigger primes?

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What happens for other curves, or higher-dimensional varieties?

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To the best of our knowledge, no-one has observed these patterns before

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However, the lambda operations do not appear in the number theory literature, with only two exceptions:

- ► The notion of a **central character** of an L-function. This is analogous to the top exterior power of a vector bundle.
- ► An **old theorem of Ramanujan** for the sigma function, generalized by Busche.

The Ramanujan-Busche identities are usually stated as follows (from the book of McCarthy: Introduction to Arithmetical functions).

Theorem 1.12. If f is a multiplicative function then the following statements are equivalent:

- (1) f is a convolution of two completely multiplicative functions.
- (2) There is a multiplicative function F such that for all m and n ,

$$f(mn) = \sum_{d \mid (m,n)} f(m/d) f(n/d) F(d) .$$

(3) There is a completely multiplicative function  $\, B \,$  such that for all  $\, m \,$  and  $\, n \,$  ,

$$f(m) f(n) = \sum_{d \mid (m,n)} f(mn/d^2) B(d)$$
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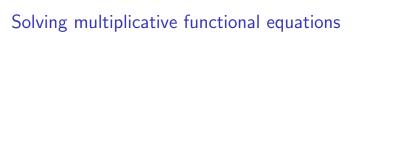
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This is a nice reformulation of the Ramanujan-Busche identities, but it also opens the door to generalizations of this theorem and other similar ones.



The following identity is known:

$$\sum_{d|n^2} (-1)^{\Omega(d)} \tau(d) \tau\left(\frac{n^2}{d}\right) = \tau(n)$$

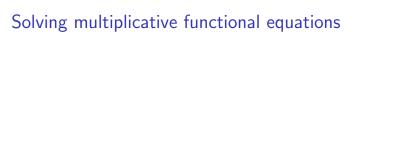
The following identity is known:

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But here is a challenge: Can you find all multiplicative functions f such that the identity

$$\sum_{d|n^2} (-1)^{\Omega(d)} f(d) f\left(\frac{n^2}{d}\right) = f(n)$$

holds?



This is a nontrivial problem, but using Bell tables and Tannakian symbols we can solve it (and many other similar problems) completely.

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- ► The characteristic functions of cubes, of 7'th powers, of 15'th powers, etc.

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As examples, solutions here include:

- ▶ All the functions  $\tau_k$  (counting ordered factorizations into k factors)
- ► The characteristic functions of cubes, of 7'th powers, of 15'th powers, etc.
- ▶ None of the other functions seen in examples above.

Another example, to illustrate the use of Tannakian symbols in proofs. We want to prove that

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We can prove the statement for all n, using Tannakian symbols.

### Computer code and automatic generation of new identities

Before finishing, we show some work in progress on implementing all our operations in CoCalc (formerly SageMathCloud), and automating the proofs of identities like the previous one.

All code is openly available and can be run online at CoCalc without installing anything locally.

Thanks for your attention :-)