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### Abstract

## Notation

Below are the notational preferences of the author.

1. The set of natural numbers  $\mathbb{N}$  does not contain 0.
2.  $p$  always denotes a prime, and by extension  $p_j, p_n$  etc.

## Preliminaries

### Number Theory Results

**Theorem 0.1** (Möbius Inversion). *The Möbius function  $\mu$  is defined for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,*

$$\mu(n) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 1 \\ (-1)^k, & \text{if } n = p_1 p_2 \dots p_k \text{ for distinct } p\text{'s} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

## 1 Introduction to the Riemann Zeta Function

**Definition 1.1** (Zeta Function). *Let  $s \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $\Re(s) > 1$ . Then*

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

The zeta function converges absolutely on  $\Re(s) > 1$  by comparing to the integral  $\int x^{-\Re(s)} dx$ .

**Proposition 1.2.** *On  $\Re(s) > 1$ ,*

$$\zeta(s) = \prod_{p \in \mathbb{N}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^s}\right)^{-1}. \tag{2}$$

**Remark:** This expression also converges absolutely for  $\Re(s) > 1$ . Since

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{p^s}\right)^{-1} = \frac{p^s}{p^s - 1} = 1 + \frac{1}{p^s - 1}$$

and  $\sum (p^s - 1)^{-1}$  converges absolutely by comparison to the zeta function Dirichlet series.

*Sketch of proof.* Write  $s = \sigma + it$ . For each  $p$ ,

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{p^s}\right)^{-1} = \left(\frac{1}{p^s} + \frac{1}{p^{2s}} + \frac{1}{p^{3s}} + \dots\right)$$

converges absolutely for  $\Re(s) > 1$  and uniformly across all  $p$ . We thus take for  $m > N$

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{p \leq N} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^s}\right)^{-1} &= \prod_{p \leq N} \left(\sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1}{p^{ks}} + O(2^{-m\sigma})\right) \\ &\stackrel{(*)}{=} \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{1}{n^s} + O_1\left(\sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{\sigma}}\right) + O(2^{-m\sigma}) \\ &= \zeta(s) + O_1\left(\sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{\sigma}}\right) + O(2^{-m\sigma}) \end{aligned}$$

Where we apply to Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic in (\*) to show that each term  $n^{-s}$  has coefficient 1 determined by the unique prime factorization. As  $m \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $2^{-m\sigma} \rightarrow 0$ . Then we take  $N \rightarrow \infty$ , the tail of the infinite sum converges to zero too.  $\square$

Proposition 1.2 shows an inherent connection of the zeta function with primes. To further see this connection, we need to extend the zeta function.

**Theorem 1.3.**  $\zeta$  extends to a meromorphic function on  $\mathbb{C}$  with a simple pole at  $s = 1$ . By abuse of notation, we identify the extension of the zeta function with  $\zeta$  too.

**Theorem 1.4.** Let  $\xi(s) := \pi^{-s/2} \Gamma(s/2) \zeta(s)$ . Then

$$\xi(s) = \xi(1-s). \quad (3)$$

*Proof.* Using

$$\Gamma(s) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} x^{s-1} dx,$$

we make the substitution  $x = \pi n^2 y$  to get

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(s) &= \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\pi n^2 y} (\pi n^2 y)^{s-1} \pi n^2 dy \\ \implies \frac{\Gamma(s)}{\pi^s n^{2s}} &= \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\pi n^2 y} y^{s-1} dy \end{aligned}$$

So that by the Monotone Convergence Theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} \pi^{-s/2} \Gamma(s/2) \zeta(s) &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(s/2)}{\pi^{s/2} n^s} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\pi n^2 x} x^{s/2-1} dx \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(e^{-\pi n^2 x}\right) x^{s/2-1} dx. \end{aligned}$$

We now let

$$\omega(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-\pi n^2 x}, \quad \theta(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi n^2 x} = 2\omega(x) + 1,$$

and apply Poisson Summation to

$$\begin{aligned} \theta(x) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi n^2 x} \\ &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi y^2 x} e^{-2\pi i k y} dy \\ &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi y^2 x} e^{-2\pi i k y} dy \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi u^2} e^{-2\pi i k u / \sqrt{x}} du \\
&= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} e^{-\pi k^2 / x} \\
&= \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} \theta\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)
\end{aligned}$$

using the substitution  $y\sqrt{x} = u$ . Replacing with  $\omega$ ,

$$\sqrt{x}(2\omega(x) + 1) = 2\omega\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) + 1 \implies \omega\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = \sqrt{x}\omega(x) + \frac{\sqrt{x}}{2} - \frac{1}{2}.$$

We thus write, using  $y = 1/x$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
\xi(s) &= \int_0^1 \omega(x) x^{s/2-1} dx + \int_1^\infty \omega(x) x^{s/2-1} dx \\
&= \int_1^\infty \omega(1/y) y^{-s/2-1} dy + \int_1^\infty \omega(x) x^{s/2-1} dx \\
&= \int_1^\infty \left( \sqrt{y}\omega(y) + \frac{\sqrt{y}}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) y^{-s/2-1} dy + \int_1^\infty \omega(x) x^{s/2-1} dx \\
&= \int_1^\infty \left( \frac{\sqrt{y}}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) y^{-s/2-1} dy + \int_1^\infty \omega(x) \left( x^{s/2-1} + x^{-s/2-1/2} \right) dx \\
&= \frac{1}{1-s} + \frac{1}{s} + \int_1^\infty \omega(x) \left( x^{s/2-1} + x^{-s/2-1/2} \right) dx \\
&= \frac{1}{s(1-s)} + \int_1^\infty \omega(x) \left( x^{s/2-1} + x^{-s/2-1/2} \right) dx.
\end{aligned}$$

$\omega$  decays exponentially in  $x$ , so the integral converges and the last expression is well defined on  $\mathbb{C}$  except when  $s = 1$  or  $s = 0$ . Finally, notice that the last expression is symmetric when  $s$  is replaced with  $(1-s)$ , so proves equation 3.  $\square$

**Remark:** This also gives an analytic continuation of  $\zeta$  in Theorem 1.3, excluding some minor details on the treatment of  $\zeta(0)$  and  $\zeta(1)$ .

**Corollary 1.5.** *On  $\Re(s) > 1$  or  $\Re(s) < 0$ ,  $\zeta(s) \neq 0$ , except  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \zeta(-2n) = 0$ .*

*Proof.* Using the product representation of  $\zeta$  where it converges, none of  $(1-p^{-s})^{-1} = 0$ , so  $\zeta(s) \neq 0$  on  $\Re(s) > 1$ .  $\Gamma$  has no zeros and has a simple pole at  $-n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , so by equation 3 we get the zeros for  $\Re(s) > 0$  are exactly at the negative even integers.  $\square$

**Definition 1.6** (Critical Strip and Critical Line). *We denote the region  $0 \leq \Re(s) \leq 1$  as the **critical strip**. We denote the line  $\Re(s) = 1/2$  as the **critical line**.*

**Corollary 1.7.** *On the critical strip, if  $\zeta(s) = 0$ ,  $\zeta(\bar{s}) = \zeta(1-s) = \zeta(1-\bar{s}) = 0$ .*

*Proof.* This follows from equation 3, and  $\zeta(\bar{s}) = \overline{\zeta(s)}$  holds where the Dirichlet series converges, thus holds everywhere.  $\square$

We now introduce some hypotheses regarding the zeta function, these statements have not been proved, but are supported by a great amount of heuristic evidence.

**Definition 1.8** (Riemann Hypothesis). *The **Riemann Hypothesis** (RH) asserts that on the critical strip,*

$$\zeta(s) = 0 \implies \Re(s) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

**Definition 1.9** (Lindelöf Hypothesis). *Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . The **Lindelöf Hypothesis** (LH) asserts that on the critical line,*

$$\zeta\left(\frac{1}{2} + it\right) = O(t^\epsilon).$$

## 2 The Prime Number Theorem

**Theorem 2.1** (Prime Number Theorem). *Let  $\Pi(x) = \sum_{p \leq x} 1$ . Then*

$$\Pi(x) = (1 + o(1)) \frac{x}{\log x}.$$

In this section we will prove the Prime Number Theorem. However, note that this result is a minor goal of this paper. The Prime Number Theorem provides an illustration of multiple ideas and techniques of manipulating the zeta function. Furthermore, this theorem serves as a starting point for studying primes in short intervals, and demonstrates why the proof of RH (or the weaker LH) is widely sought after, thus sets the stage for zero-density theorems.

**Definition 2.2** (Von Mangoldt Function). *The **Von Mangoldt function**  $\Lambda$  is defined as follows:*

$$\Lambda(n) = \begin{cases} \log p, & \text{if } n = p^k \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{N} \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

The sum of the Von Mangoldt function  $\sum \Lambda(n)$  is a more natural way to express a prime counting function in the language of  $\zeta$ . To see why, consider the expression

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\zeta'(s)}{\zeta(s)} &= (\log \zeta(s))' \\ &= \left[ - \sum_p \log(1 - p^{-s}) \right]' \\ &= - \sum_p \frac{p^s \log p}{1 - p^{-s}} \\ &= - \sum_p \log p \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} p^{-ks} \\ &= - \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{\Lambda(n)}{n^s} \end{aligned}$$

on  $\Re(s) > 1$  where the sum and products are absolutely convergent. We thus motivate the following technique: Let  $\phi$  be smooth and rapidly decaying at infinity, and  $\tilde{\phi}$  be its Mellin transform. Let  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $c \geq 2$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \Lambda(n) \phi\left(\frac{n}{N}\right) &= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \Lambda(n) \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{c-i\infty}^{c+i\infty} \tilde{\phi}(s) \left(\frac{n}{N}\right)^{-s} ds \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{c-i\infty}^{c+i\infty} \tilde{\phi}(s) \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \Lambda(n) \left(\frac{n}{N}\right)^{-s} ds \\ &= \frac{-1}{2\pi i} \int_{c-i\infty}^{c+i\infty} \tilde{\phi}(s) N^s \frac{\zeta'(s)}{\zeta(s)} ds \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

Now take a bump function  $\phi = 1$  on  $[0, 1]$  and 0 outside  $[0 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon]$ . Applying Dominated Convergence theorem on equation 4 gives for  $\epsilon \downarrow 0$ ,

$$\sum_{n \leq N} \Lambda(n) = \frac{-1}{2\pi i} \int_{c-i\infty}^{c+i\infty} \frac{1}{s} N^s \frac{\zeta'(s)}{\zeta(s)} ds \tag{5}$$

Changing the line of integration from  $c$  to  $-\infty$  **need to give bounds on log' zeta**, we get residue contributions from a pole at  $s = 1$ ,  $s = 0$ , as well as all  $\rho$  such that  $\zeta(\rho) = 0$  on the critical strip, and all the trivial zeros. This gives

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \leq N} \Lambda(n) &= N - \sum_{\rho} \frac{N^{\rho}}{\rho} - \frac{\zeta'(0)}{\zeta(0)} + \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{N^{-2k}}{2k} \\ &= N - \sum_{\rho} \frac{N^{\rho}}{\rho} - \frac{\zeta'(0)}{\zeta(0)} + \frac{1}{2} \log(1 - N^{-2}). \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$