#### Lecture 1: Introduction to Analytic Number Theory

Lanling King

University of HOK

April 2025

#### **About These Slides**

- I'll try to make the slides self-contained.
- A prior course in complex analysis is helpful, but not absolutely necessary — I'll review tools as we go.
- Suggested texts:
  - Tom M. Apostol Introduction to Analytic Number Theory
  - M. Ram Murty Problems in Analytic Number Theory
  - H. Iwaniec & E. Kowalski Analytic Number Theory (advanced)

### What is Analytic Number Theory?

- It's a branch of mathematics where we study properties of whole numbers using tools from calculus.
- Questions often involve primes for example: "How many primes are less than a million?"
- We'll use ideas like limits, infinite series, and functions to explore these patterns.
- It turns out that some of the deepest results in number theory come from this approach.
- Many problems in analytic number theory are incredibly easy to state
   but surprisingly difficult to solve.

#### The Riemann Zeta Function and Riemann Hypothesis

• The Riemann zeta function is defined (for  $\Re(s) > 1$ ) by the infinite series:

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

### The Riemann Zeta Function and Riemann Hypothesis

• The Riemann zeta function is defined (for  $\Re(s) > 1$ ) by the infinite series:

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

• The Riemann hypothesis states that all nontrivial zeros of the Riemann zeta function lie on the critical line  $\Re(s) = \frac{1}{2}$ .

#### The Riemann Zeta Function and Riemann Hypothesis

• The Riemann zeta function is defined (for  $\Re(s) > 1$ ) by the infinite series:

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

- The Riemann hypothesis states that all nontrivial zeros of the Riemann zeta function lie on the critical line  $\Re(s) = \frac{1}{2}$ .
- The Riemann Hypothesis remains unsolved it is one of the 7 Clay Millennium Prize Problems, with a \$1,000,000 reward.

• The Twin Prime Conjecture states that there are infinitely many primes p such that p+2 is also prime.

- The Twin Prime Conjecture states that there are infinitely many primes p such that p+2 is also prime.
- It is easy to state, but remains unsolved after more than 2000 years.

- The Twin Prime Conjecture states that there are infinitely many primes p such that p+2 is also prime.
- It is easy to state, but remains unsolved after more than 2000 years.
- In 2005, Goldston-Pintz-Yıldırım (GPY) developed a method showing primes often come unusually close together.

- The Twin Prime Conjecture states that there are infinitely many primes p such that p+2 is also prime.
- It is easy to state, but remains unsolved after more than 2000 years.
- In 2005, Goldston–Pintz–Yıldırım (GPY) developed a method showing primes often come unusually close together.
- In 2013, Yitang Zhang proved that there are infinitely many pairs of primes less than 70,000,000 apart — the first bounded gap!

- The Twin Prime Conjecture states that there are infinitely many primes p such that p + 2 is also prime.
- It is easy to state, but remains unsolved after more than 2000 years.
- In 2005, Goldston–Pintz–Yıldırım (GPY) developed a method showing primes often come unusually close together.
- In 2013, Yitang Zhang proved that there are infinitely many pairs of primes less than 70,000,000 apart — the first bounded gap!
- Soon after, James Maynard simplified the method and improved the bound; Tao helped lead a massive online project (Polymath8) that brought it under 250.

- The Twin Prime Conjecture states that there are infinitely many primes p such that p + 2 is also prime.
- It is easy to state, but remains unsolved after more than 2000 years.
- In 2005, Goldston–Pintz–Yıldırım (GPY) developed a method showing primes often come unusually close together.
- In 2013, Yitang Zhang proved that there are infinitely many pairs of primes less than 70,000,000 apart — the first bounded gap!
- Soon after, James Maynard simplified the method and improved the bound; Tao helped lead a massive online project (Polymath8) that brought it under 250.
- The conjecture remains open, but these results showed that primes are much more clustered than we once knew.

There are infinitely many prime numbers.

There are infinitely many prime numbers.

*Proof.* Assume that there are only finitely many primes  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$ .

#### There are infinitely many prime numbers.

*Proof.* Assume that there are only finitely many primes  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$ . Consider the number:

$$m = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdots p_n + 1$$

#### There are infinitely many prime numbers.

*Proof.* Assume that there are only finitely many primes  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$ . Consider the number:

$$m = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdots p_n + 1$$

Then m must be divisible by some prime  $p_k$  from our list (since every integer has a prime factor).

#### There are infinitely many prime numbers.

*Proof.* Assume that there are only finitely many primes  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$ . Consider the number:

$$m = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdots p_n + 1$$

Then m must be divisible by some prime  $p_k$  from our list (since every integer has a prime factor). But then  $p_k \mid m$  and  $p_k \mid p_1 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n$ , so:

$$p_k \mid m - p_1 \cdots p_n = 1$$

#### There are infinitely many prime numbers.

*Proof.* Assume that there are only finitely many primes  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$ . Consider the number:

$$m = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdots p_n + 1$$

Then m must be divisible by some prime  $p_k$  from our list (since every integer has a prime factor). But then  $p_k \mid m$  and  $p_k \mid p_1 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n$ , so:

$$p_k \mid m - p_1 \cdots p_n = 1$$

This is a contradiction — no prime divides 1.

#### There are infinitely many prime numbers.

*Proof.* Assume that there are only finitely many primes  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$ . Consider the number:

$$m = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdots p_n + 1$$

Then m must be divisible by some prime  $p_k$  from our list (since every integer has a prime factor). But then  $p_k \mid m$  and  $p_k \mid p_1 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n$ , so:

$$p_k \mid m - p_1 \cdots p_n = 1$$

This is a contradiction — no prime divides 1. Therefore, there must be infinitely many primes.  $\Box$ 

### Theorem 2: Bounding the *k*th Prime

**Definition.** Let  $\pi(x)$  be the number of primes  $\leq x$ .

#### Theorem 2: Bounding the kth Prime

**Definition.** Let  $\pi(x)$  be the number of primes  $\leq x$ . **Theorem 2.** 

$$p_k \le 2^{2^k}$$
 for all  $k \ge 1$ 

#### Theorem 2: Bounding the kth Prime

**Definition.** Let  $\pi(x)$  be the number of primes  $\leq x$ .

Theorem 2.

$$p_k \le 2^{2^k}$$
 for all  $k \ge 1$ 

*Idea:* We adapt Euclid's proof to build increasingly large primes, using induction.

Base case: k = 1

$$p_1 = 2 \le 2^2 = 4$$

Base case: k = 1

$$p_1 = 2 \le 2^2 = 4$$

**Inductive step:** Assume  $p_j \le 2^{2^j}$  for all  $1 \le j < k$ 

Base case: k = 1

$$p_1 = 2 \le 2^2 = 4$$

**Inductive step:** Assume  $p_j \le 2^{2^j}$  for all  $1 \le j < k$ 

Then by Euclid's idea:

$$p_k \leq p_1 \cdots p_{k-1} + 1$$

Base case: k = 1

$$p_1 = 2 \le 2^2 = 4$$

**Inductive step:** Assume  $p_j \le 2^{2^j}$  for all  $1 \le j < k$ 

Then by Euclid's idea:

$$p_k \leq p_1 \cdots p_{k-1} + 1$$

Using the inductive bounds:

$$p_k \leq 2^{2^1} \cdot 2^{2^2} \cdots 2^{2^{k-1}} + 1 = 2^{2^1 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^{k-1}} + 1$$

Base case: k = 1

$$p_1 = 2 \le 2^2 = 4$$

**Inductive step:** Assume  $p_j \le 2^{2^j}$  for all  $1 \le j < k$ 

Then by Euclid's idea:

$$p_k \leq p_1 \cdots p_{k-1} + 1$$

Using the inductive bounds:

$$p_k \le 2^{2^1} \cdot 2^{2^2} \cdot \dots \cdot 2^{2^{k-1}} + 1 = 2^{2^1 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^{k-1}} + 1$$

But  $2^1 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^{k-1} = 2^k - 2$ , so:

$$p_k \le 2^{2^k - 2} + 1 \le 2^{2^k}$$

∴ The bound holds. □

**Theorem.** For  $x \ge 2$ , we have:

$$\pi(x) \ge \log \log x$$

**Theorem.** For  $x \ge 2$ , we have:

$$\pi(x) \ge \log \log x$$

Proof.

• First, check that the inequality holds for  $2 \le x \le 4$  (e.g.,  $\pi(4) = 2 \ge \log \log 4 \approx 0.83$ ).

**Theorem.** For  $x \ge 2$ , we have:

$$\pi(x) \ge \log \log x$$

Proof.

- First, check that the inequality holds for  $2 \le x \le 4$  (e.g.,  $\pi(4) = 2 \ge \log \log 4 \approx 0.83$ ).
- Now let x > 4, and choose  $s \in \mathbb{N}$  such that:

$$2^{2^s} \le x < 2^{2^{s+1}}$$

**Theorem.** For  $x \ge 2$ , we have:

$$\pi(x) \ge \log \log x$$

Proof.

- First, check that the inequality holds for  $2 \le x \le 4$  (e.g.,  $\pi(4) = 2 \ge \log \log 4 \approx 0.83$ ).
- Now let x > 4, and choose  $s \in \mathbb{N}$  such that:

$$2^{2^s} \le x < 2^{2^{s+1}}$$

• By Theorem 2,  $x \ge 2^{2^s} \Rightarrow \pi(x) \ge s$ .

**Theorem.** For  $x \ge 2$ , we have:

$$\pi(x) \ge \log \log x$$

Proof.

- First, check that the inequality holds for  $2 \le x \le 4$  (e.g.,  $\pi(4) = 2 \ge \log \log 4 \approx 0.83$ ).
- Now let x > 4, and choose  $s \in \mathbb{N}$  such that:

$$2^{2^s} \le x < 2^{2^{s+1}}$$

- By Theorem 2,  $x \ge 2^{2^s} \Rightarrow \pi(x) \ge s$ .
- Taking logs twice:

$$x < 2^{2^{s+1}} \Rightarrow \log x < 2^{s+1} \log 2 \Rightarrow \frac{\log \log x}{\log 2} < s+1$$

**Theorem.** For  $x \ge 2$ , we have:

$$\pi(x) \ge \log \log x$$

Proof.

- First, check that the inequality holds for  $2 \le x \le 4$  (e.g.,  $\pi(4) = 2 \ge \log \log 4 \approx 0.83$ ).
- Now let x > 4, and choose  $s \in \mathbb{N}$  such that:

$$2^{2^s} \le x < 2^{2^{s+1}}$$

- By Theorem 2,  $x \ge 2^{2^s} \Rightarrow \pi(x) \ge s$ .
- Taking logs twice:

$$x < 2^{2^{s+1}} \Rightarrow \log x < 2^{s+1} \log 2 \Rightarrow \frac{\log \log x}{\log 2} < s+1$$

Thus:

$$\pi(x) \ge s > \frac{\log \log x}{\log 2} - 1 > \log \log x \quad \text{for } x > 4.$$

**Theorem.** For  $x \ge 2$ , we have:

$$\pi(x) \ge \log \log x$$

Proof.

- First, check that the inequality holds for  $2 \le x \le 4$  (e.g.,  $\pi(4) = 2 \ge \log \log 4 \approx 0.83$ ).
- Now let x > 4, and choose  $s \in \mathbb{N}$  such that:

$$2^{2^s} \le x < 2^{2^{s+1}}$$

- By Theorem 2,  $x \ge 2^{2^s} \Rightarrow \pi(x) \ge s$ .
- Taking logs twice:

$$x < 2^{2^{s+1}} \Rightarrow \log x < 2^{s+1} \log 2 \Rightarrow \frac{\log \log x}{\log 2} < s+1$$

Thus:

$$\pi(x) \ge s > \frac{\log \log x}{\log 2} - 1 > \log \log x \quad \text{for } x > 4.$$

**Theorem.** For  $x \ge 2$ , we have:

$$\pi(x) \ge \log \log x$$

Proof.

- First, check that the inequality holds for  $2 \le x \le 4$  (e.g.,  $\pi(4) = 2 \ge \log \log 4 \approx 0.83$ ).
- Now let x > 4, and choose  $s \in \mathbb{N}$  such that:

$$2^{2^s} \le x < 2^{2^{s+1}}$$

- By Theorem 2,  $x \ge 2^{2^s} \Rightarrow \pi(x) \ge s$ .
- Taking logs twice:

$$x < 2^{2^{s+1}} \Rightarrow \log x < 2^{s+1} \log 2 \Rightarrow \frac{\log \log x}{\log 2} < s+1$$

Thus:

$$\pi(x) \ge s > \frac{\log\log x}{\log 2} - 1 > \log\log x \quad \text{for } x > 4.$$

 $\therefore$  The inequality holds for all  $x \geq 2$ .  $\square$ 

#### Fermat Primes

**Definition.** The *n*th **Fermat number** is defined as:

$$F_n=2^{2^n}+1$$

**Definition.** The *n*th **Fermat number** is defined as:

$$F_n=2^{2^n}+1$$

**Examples:** 

$$F_0 = 3$$

$$F_1 = 5$$

$$F_2 = 17$$

$$F_3 = 257$$

$$F_4 = 65537$$

**Definition.** The *n*th **Fermat number** is defined as:

$$F_n=2^{2^n}+1$$

**Examples:** 

$$F_0 = 3$$
  
 $F_1 = 5$   
 $F_2 = 17$   
 $F_3 = 257$   
 $F_4 = 65537$ 

These five numbers are all prime — they are known as the **Fermat primes**.

**Definition.** The *n*th **Fermat number** is defined as:

$$F_n=2^{2^n}+1$$

**Examples:** 

$$F_0 = 3$$
  
 $F_1 = 5$   
 $F_2 = 17$   
 $F_3 = 257$   
 $F_4 = 65537$ 

These five numbers are all prime — they are known as the **Fermat primes**. However, it is conjectured that no other Fermat numbers are prime.

**Definition.** The *n*th **Fermat number** is defined as:

$$F_n=2^{2^n}+1$$

**Examples:** 

$$F_0 = 3$$
  
 $F_1 = 5$   
 $F_2 = 17$   
 $F_3 = 257$   
 $F_4 = 65537$ 

These five numbers are all prime — they are known as the **Fermat primes**. However, it is conjectured that no other Fermat numbers are prime. In fact, it is known that  $F_n$  is composite for  $5 \le n \le 32$  (and beyond!).

**Definition.** The *n*th **Fermat number** is defined as:

$$F_n=2^{2^n}+1$$

**Examples:** 

$$F_0 = 3$$
  
 $F_1 = 5$   
 $F_2 = 17$   
 $F_3 = 257$   
 $F_4 = 65537$ 

These five numbers are all prime — they are known as the **Fermat primes**. However, it is conjectured that no other Fermat numbers are prime. In fact, it is known that  $F_n$  is composite for  $5 \le n \le 32$  (and beyond!). Fermat originally believed that all  $F_n$  would be prime — Euler disproved this by showing  $F_5$  is divisible by 641.

**Theorem.** If *n* and *m* are integers with  $1 \le n < m$ , then:

$$gcd(F_n, F_m) = 1$$
 where  $F_k = 2^{2^k} + 1$ 

**Theorem.** If *n* and *m* are integers with  $1 \le n < m$ , then:

$$gcd(F_n, F_m) = 1$$
 where  $F_k = 2^{2^k} + 1$ 

Proof.

• Let m = n + k for some  $k \ge 1$ .

**Theorem.** If n and m are integers with  $1 \le n < m$ , then:

$$gcd(F_n, F_m) = 1$$
 where  $F_k = 2^{2^k} + 1$ 

Proof.

- Let m = n + k for some  $k \ge 1$ .
- We will show that  $F_n \mid F_m 2$ .

**Theorem.** If n and m are integers with  $1 \le n < m$ , then:

$$gcd(F_n, F_m) = 1$$
 where  $F_k = 2^{2^k} + 1$ 

Proof.

- Let m = n + k for some  $k \ge 1$ .
- We will show that  $F_n \mid F_m 2$ .
- Note:  $F_m 2 = 2^{2^m} 1$

**Theorem.** If n and m are integers with  $1 \le n < m$ , then:

$$gcd(F_n, F_m) = 1$$
 where  $F_k = 2^{2^k} + 1$ 

Proof.

- Let m = n + k for some  $k \ge 1$ .
- We will show that  $F_n \mid F_m 2$ .
- Note:  $F_m 2 = 2^{2^m} 1$
- Let  $x = 2^{2^n}$ . Then:

$$F_n = x + 1, \quad F_m - 2 = x^{2^k} - 1$$

**Theorem.** If n and m are integers with  $1 \le n < m$ , then:

$$gcd(F_n, F_m) = 1$$
 where  $F_k = 2^{2^k} + 1$ 

Proof.

- Let m = n + k for some  $k \ge 1$ .
- We will show that  $F_n \mid F_m 2$ .
- Note:  $F_m 2 = 2^{2^m} 1$
- Let  $x = 2^{2^n}$ . Then:

$$F_n = x + 1, \quad F_m - 2 = x^{2^k} - 1$$

$$\frac{F_m-2}{F_n}=\frac{x^{2^k}-1}{x+1}\in\mathbb{Z}\Rightarrow F_n\mid F_m-2$$

**Theorem.** If n and m are integers with  $1 \le n < m$ , then:

$$gcd(F_n, F_m) = 1$$
 where  $F_k = 2^{2^k} + 1$ 

Proof.

- Let m = n + k for some  $k \ge 1$ .
- We will show that  $F_n \mid F_m 2$ .
- Note:  $F_m 2 = 2^{2^m} 1$
- Let  $x = 2^{2^n}$ . Then:

$$F_n = x + 1, \quad F_m - 2 = x^{2^k} - 1$$

So:

$$\frac{F_m-2}{F_n}=\frac{x^{2^k}-1}{x+1}\in\mathbb{Z}\Rightarrow F_n\mid F_m-2$$

• If  $d \mid F_n$  and  $d \mid F_m$ , then  $d \mid 2$ .

**Theorem.** If n and m are integers with  $1 \le n < m$ , then:

$$gcd(F_n, F_m) = 1$$
 where  $F_k = 2^{2^k} + 1$ 

Proof.

- Let m = n + k for some  $k \ge 1$ .
- We will show that  $F_n \mid F_m 2$ .
- Note:  $F_m 2 = 2^{2^m} 1$
- Let  $x = 2^{2^n}$ . Then:

$$F_n = x + 1, \quad F_m - 2 = x^{2^k} - 1$$

$$\frac{F_m-2}{F_n}=\frac{x^{2^k}-1}{x+1}\in\mathbb{Z}\Rightarrow F_n\mid F_m-2$$

- If  $d \mid F_n$  and  $d \mid F_m$ , then  $d \mid 2$ .
- But all Fermat numbers are odd, so d = 1.

**Theorem.** If n and m are integers with  $1 \le n < m$ , then:

$$gcd(F_n, F_m) = 1$$
 where  $F_k = 2^{2^k} + 1$ 

Proof.

- Let m = n + k for some  $k \ge 1$ .
- We will show that  $F_n \mid F_m 2$ .
- Note:  $F_m 2 = 2^{2^m} 1$
- Let  $x = 2^{2^n}$ . Then:

$$F_n = x + 1, \quad F_m - 2 = x^{2^k} - 1$$

$$\frac{F_m-2}{F_n}=\frac{x^{2^k}-1}{x+1}\in\mathbb{Z}\Rightarrow F_n\mid F_m-2$$

- If  $d \mid F_n$  and  $d \mid F_m$ , then  $d \mid 2$ .
- But all Fermat numbers are odd, so d = 1.

**Theorem.** If n and m are integers with  $1 \le n < m$ , then:

$$gcd(F_n, F_m) = 1$$
 where  $F_k = 2^{2^k} + 1$ 

Proof.

- Let m = n + k for some k > 1.
  - We will show that  $F_n \mid F_m 2$ .
  - Note:  $F_m 2 = 2^{2^m} 1$
  - Let  $x = 2^{2^n}$ . Then:

$$F_n = x + 1, \quad F_m - 2 = x^{2^k} - 1$$

$$\frac{F_m-2}{F_m}=\frac{x^{2^k}-1}{x+1}\in\mathbb{Z}\Rightarrow F_n\mid F_m-2$$

- If  $d \mid F_n$  and  $d \mid F_m$ , then  $d \mid 2$ .
- But all Fermat numbers are odd, so d = 1.
- $\therefore$  gcd $(F_n, F_m) = 1$ .  $\square$