Prime numbers: Emergence and victories of bilinear forms decomposition

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1 Towards a proper question: Before 1800

Historical papers on primes often start with a line like: "*The quest for the primes has a long history that begins in ancient Greece with Euclid at least 2300 years ago*." This is fundamentally true ... or is there a catch?

Let us change the lens to see better: there *are* primes in the ring $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ of polynomials in one variable over $\mathbb{Q}$, though no one asks whether one "*knows*" them. They are, they exist and we have a definition and sound algorithms to recognise them. When pushed further, we may answer: "*Yes. There are many of them, infinitely many in fact*." And a question emerges: can you find an irreducible polynomial for any given degree?

This is a completely different problem! This question mixes multiplicative properties together with some size questions! It is not about primes as such but about their sizes. And the problem gets even more entangled in the case of integers, for the size structure is closely linked with addition.

The reader can now understand why questions about primes are often difficult: they are couched in a simple language that hides their difficulty. Take some of the early "*observations*" of the period:[1]

1742: Exchanges initiated by Christian Goldbach with Leonhard Euler led, on 7 June 1742, to the statement: every even integer ≥ 4 is a sum of two primes.[2]

1752: C. Goldbach tells the same L. Euler that every odd integer can be written in the form $p + 2a^2$ where p is a prime number and a an integer.[3]

1775: L. Euler writes that every arithmetic progression starting with 1 contains infinitely many primes.

1792: Carl Friedrich Gauss gives an argument showing that there are approximately $x/\log x$ prime numbers below x, when x becomes large.[4]

1839: Johann Dirichlet proves (in today's terminology!) that every arithmetic progression without any constant factor has infinitely many primes.

1845: Joseph Bertand announces that, for each integer $n > 1$, there exists at least one prime p that satisfies $n < p < 2n$.[5]

1849: Alphonse de Polignac announces in an equally vague manner that every even integer h is the difference of two primes. The case $h = 2$ is known (since Paul Stäckel) as the "prime twin conjecture", according to Heinrich Tietze in 1959 [56].

As the reader can check, all these questions mix both the additive structure and the multiplicative structure. Individually, we understand each structure perfectly well but how do they interact? An obvious interaction is given by distributiv-ity: $2a + 2b = 2(a + b)$, which means that if you sum two even numbers (and this latter property belongs to the multiplicative realm), you still get something that has a multiplicative property: it is ... even! The question 20th-century mathematicians endeavoured to settle is: 'Is this the *only* relation that exists?'[6]

There are many other, confusingly simple-looking questions, as well as far too many false proofs that keep roaming the web every year, some by genuine beginners who just missed a step and some by well-known difficult cases[7] (some of whom sadly occupy academic positions). I hope this paper will help the beginners with some mathematical background to understand where the difficulties lie and where the field is open. The list above contains old questions but modern work has shown deep ties between modular forms in various senses and more classical problems, in particular via the use of Kloosterman sums. Now, classical problems include the evaluation of $\sum_{p \leq X} \lambda(p)$ for cusps forms in the modular case, or the Maass case, or the automorphic case, as well as that of $\sum_{p \leq X} \lambda(p) e^{2i\pi p\alpha}$ for any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$.

Recently, many impressive results concerning primes or the Moebius function have been proved and the second aim of this paper is to present a main tool to attack these problems. Indeed, these achievements are, of course, due to the work of some tenacious individuals but have emerged after a long toiling of a large community. As an outcome, a general and flexible tool has been created, whose history will now be recounted. If this tool is now fairly common knowledge to specialists, this does not imply (by far!) that all the questions above have been answered. This tool is, however, a good weapon, whose conception has reached an evolved enough stage that it should be presented to a more general audience. Some of the ideas here may be useful in other contexts and other fields may also contribute. Such a crossing of borders has, for instance, led ergodic theorists to add their own input, including the impressive work of Ben Green, Terence Tao, Peter Sarnak, Jean Bourgain and many others.

To be complete and before embarking on the storytelling, it should be noted that several other tools have been invented. Here we concentrate on the one that is the most specific to prime numbers.

Now that we have underlined the difficulty of the diverse questions asked, let us turn toward the strategy that has been developed to tackle them. We start at the very beginning of this trade: how to handle prime numbers? We make here the first decision: instead of studying the *set* of prime numbers $\mathcal{P}$, we study its *characteristic function* $\mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{P}}$. We further assume a positive (large) real number X be given and study $\mathbb{1}_{X < \mathcal{P} \leq 2X}$ which takes value 1 on prime numbers p that are such that

$X < p \le 2X$, and 0 otherwise. Studying a set and its characteristic function are of course equivalent but we are now ready to express $\mathbb{1}_{X<\mathcal{P}\le 2X}$ as a linear combination of functions that do not have any special geometrical interpretation.

Historically, there have been two main lines of approach, which converged in 1968:
- The first branch of this story can be nicknamed *combinatorial* and gave birth to *the sieve*.
- The second branch, which I call *Eulerian*, goes through what is nowadays known as *Dirichlet series*.

In the rest of this paper, we shall present the characteristics of both approaches, try to point out how they interacted in history and see how they mingled to create the modern theory.

2 Dirichlet and Riemann: The early history

The Eulerian approach was really started by Bernhard Riemann in his 1859 memoir [53] and came to the fore in 1896; this is the path taken by Jacques Hadamard and à Charles de la Vallée-Poussin [11] to prove the prime number theorem. The next crucial moment was in 1968 when this method hybridised with the combinatorial approach (but this is for later!). The idea of Leonhard Euler was to consider the decomposition

$$\zeta(s) = \sum_{n \ge 1} \frac{1}{n^s} = \prod_{p \ge 2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^s}\right)^{-1}, \qquad (1)$$

where the variable p ranges over the prime numbers. On the right side, one finds the primes, while on the left side, one find only integers: we potentially have a machine to extract information on the primes from information on the integers! L. Euler used it in 1737 to prove that there are infinitely many primes and, in 1796, C. F. Gauss refined the analysis to guess the prime number theorem. It was only in 1837–39 that serious proofs started with G. Dirichlet (followed by B. Riemann in 1859). In fact, L. Euler restricted the variable s above to integer values (he even considered the case $s = 1$ and, in some roundabout way, the case of negative values of s as well!). G. Dirichlet applied the logarithm of both sides of the equation above to handle the product and considered $s > 1$ a real number. Shortly after this work, B. Riemann simplified that in his eight page, epoch defining memoir [53] and took the logarithmic derivative of both members:

$$-\frac{\zeta'(s)}{\zeta(s)} = \sum_{p \ge 2} \left(\frac{\text{Log } p}{p^s} + \frac{\text{Log } p}{p^{2s}} + \frac{\text{Log } p}{p^{3s}} + \cdots\right)$$
$$= \sum_{n \ge 2} \frac{\Lambda(n)}{n^s} \qquad (2)$$

where $\Lambda(n)$ would – 50 years later! – be called the van Mangoldt function. This formula still has the property of the Euler formula: it is potentially a machine to extract knowledge on the primes from information on the integers. The reader may worry that the Λ-function does not only detect primes but also their powers (but the latter are in negligible quantity).

B. Riemann considered complex values of s. The reader may easily guess that an inversion formula (akin to the formula that expresses the Fourier coefficients of a function in terms of this function) using complex analysis links $\sum_{n \le N} \Lambda(n)$ with $-\zeta'/\zeta$ but, to make it work, one needs bounds for this function. The difficulty lies there: the $\zeta(s)$ on the denominator tells us that the *zeroes* of this function are going to give trouble. This is the beginning of the long and yet unfinished chase for these zeroes!

To cut a long story short, when this method applies, it usually gives very precise results. Moreover, it has wide generalisations (to number fields, to curves, be they elliptic or not, to modular forms, etc.). But the weakness of available information on the potential zeroes drastically reduces its range. In modern times, computers have entered the arena and we are now in a position to check numerically that large but finite regions do not contain any zeroes (but this is material for another paper!).

3 Same problem, different tune: The Moebius function

Before introducing the combinatorial approach, let me introduce another player: the Moebius function, named after the German mathematician August Ferdinand Moebius who introduced it in 1832. This player is more discreet than the primes, because it is less geometrical, but it is equally important. Its formal definition reads as follows:

$$\mu(n) = \begin{cases} (-1)^r & \text{when } n = p_1 \cdots p_r, (p_i \ne p_j) \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

This function appears in the inclusion-exclusion formula when applied to the divisor set of an integer as we will see below. It has been noticed, and this was put very formally in theorems by E. Landau in the early 1900s, that studying this function is equivalent to studying the prime numbers. However it is often far from obvious how to translate a property of the Moebius function into a property of the prime numbers: there is no direct dictionary between these two worlds. Note that

$$1/\zeta(s) = \sum_{n \ge 1} \mu(n)/n^s. \qquad (3)$$

As stated above, the difficulty in (2) lies in the denominator. With the Moebius function, we directly study this denominator!

4 The combinatorial approach as seen by Legendre

Without further ado, let us embark on the combinatorial approach introduced far above!

The starting point is due to Erathosthenes and stems from the following remark: an integer from the interval $(X, 2X]$ is prime if and only if it has no divisor strictly larger than 1 and below $\sqrt{2X}$ (assuming that $\sqrt{2X} \le X$, i.e. that X is greater than 2). From this remark, Erathosthenes deduced an efficient algorithm to build tables of all the primes below some limit. The question is how to use this algorithmic efficiency theoretically?

Adrien Marie Legendre put this idea in a *formula* in 1808 but failed to turn it into anything efficient (though this miss would be fruitful!). Let us inspect this approach on the problem of counting the number of primes between X and $2X$. We start with the number of integers between these two bounds, that is $X + O(1)$. From this number, and for each prime

$p \leq \sqrt{2X}$, we remove the number of integers that are divisible by p, i.e. we consider

$$X + O(1)$$

$$- \frac{X}{2} - O(1) - \frac{X}{3} - O(1) - \frac{X}{5} - O(1) - \cdots$$

Now we have removed twice the integers that are divisible by a product of two primes, so we have to add

$$\frac{X}{6} + O(1) + \frac{X}{10} + O(1) + \frac{X}{15} + O(1) + \cdots$$

This times integers divisible for instance by $2 \times 3 \times 5$ are removed three times (divisible by 2, by 3 and by 5), then added three times (divisible by 2×3, by 2×5 and by 3×5), so we still need to remove them ... The inclusion-exclusion principle is the modern way of rigorously and compactly expressing this idea but we will later need the pedestrian mechanism just described. Indeed, the formula of A.-M. Legendre leads to an enormous difficulty: the number of $O(1)$ that appear is about $2^{\pi(\sqrt{2X})}$, where $\pi(\sqrt{2X})$ is the number of primes below $\sqrt{2X}$. The addition of all these error terms gives rise to a gigantic and final $O(2^{(1+o(1))\sqrt{2X}/\log\sqrt{2X}})$, swallowing the main term with no second thoughts! One has to face a sheer wall: the combinatorial explosion. This phenomenon is often met in complexity; here it spoils the efficiency of the formula.

But the Legendre formula also suffers from a congenital disease: if we ignore the error terms, the supposed main term it gives is incorrect in view of the prime number theorem![8]

5 Two earthquakes: V. Brun, 1919, and I. M. Vinogradov, 1937

The Legendre formula was abandoned for more than 100 years, a period during which the Eulerian approach was developed. In 1910, the young Norwegian mathematician Viggo Brun went to Göttingen, at the time one of the main centres of mathematics in Europe. Edmund Landau was developing and systematising the use of analysis in number theory and, more often than not, in prime number theory. There, the young Brun was introduced to classical problems in this field, such as Goldbach's conjecture (one of E. Landau's 1912 ICM list of problems). V. Brun wanted to use combinatorial methods but E. Landau was convinced such methods would never yield anything of interest. E. Landau waited until 1921 before reading V. Brun's memoir! But this is jumping ahead: here we briefly describe this revolutionary work.

The first idea of V. Brun [5] was to give up hope for an equality in the Legendre formula. Since the error terms accumulate too much, let us stop the process before the end. The pedestrian approach described above gives the principle: after an even number of steps, one has a lower bound and after an odd number of steps, an upper bound is produced! So, if we aim only at inequalities, the process can be made to work! Well, when counting the number of primes, this lower bound is ... negative, but the upper bound is much stronger than what was then known!

The Brun method (later called *the Brun sieve*) is exceptionally flexible and this first work was the source of a wealth of activities. The technical side was extremely heavy, and one had to go through page after page of evaluations.

For instance, the Brun sieve [6] gives a sharp upper bound for the number of representations of the even integer N as a sum of two primes. This upper bound is indeed sharp: it is only a multiplicative constant larger than what is expected to be true! This is one of the main ingredients that Lev Šnirel'man used in 1933 [54] to show the existence of a constant C such that every integer is a sum of at most C prime numbers.

The second seismic move occurred in 1937: I. M. Vinogradov [59] proved that every large enough odd integer is a sum of three primes.[9] This achievement relied on a magnificent discovery: Vinogradov found a way to deal with prime numbers! This method is based on the Brun sieve, which is already very intricate, so an anachronical but much clearer exposition is presented here.

When working for my thesis, I realised in 1991 [49], [50] that one could consider that the Brun sieve produces a larger sequence $\mathcal{A}$ that contains the sequence of primes. The sequence $\mathcal{A}$ *envelops* the primes: we lose in size but we gain in control. In functional form, this means that, for any positive function f, we have

$$\sum_{X < p \leq 2X} f(p) \leq \sum_{\substack{a \in \mathcal{A}, \\ X < a \leq 2X}} f(a).$$

What is expressed above is that the Brun sieve does not only give an upper bound for a counting function but also provides us with a *local* upper bound! In truth, the situation is somewhat more complicated, since the sequence $\mathcal{A}$ is maybe infinite but only serves as an upper bound for the primes when the variable is between X and $2X$. Attle Selberg in 1947 extended this setting some more: it is enough to find non-negative coefficients $\beta(n)$ such that, for any non-negative function, one has

$$\sum_{X < p \leq 2X} f(p) \leq \sum_{X < n \leq 2X} \beta(n) f(n),$$

where, here and everywhere else, the letter p always denotes a prime variable. A. Selberg provides a construction of such good coefficients $\beta(n)$, which one should think of as a (weighted) sequence. It is easier to see on these coefficients β what has been gained by switching to an upper bound. There exists a parameter $D > 1$ (say, something like $X^{1/4}$; *strictly less than X anyway*) and coefficients λ_d^* such that

$$\beta(n) = \sum_{\substack{d \mid n, \\ d \leq X^{1/4}}} \lambda_d^*. \tag{4}$$

The major feature which renders this expression tractable is that D is small enough. Furthermore, this parameter is at our disposal. I developed fully this idea of an *enveloping sieve* in [52], but let us go back to I. M. Vinogradov. He writes

$$\mathbb{1}_{X < p \leq 2X} = \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{A}} - \Theta.$$

Nothing has been done so far. I. M. Vinogradov's crucial observation is that Θ has a special shape, namely

$$\Theta(n) = \text{lin. comb. of} \sum_{\ell m = n} a_\ell^{(i)} b_m^{(i)}, \tag{5}$$

where the sequences $(a_\ell^{(i)})$ and $(b_m^{(i)})$ vanish as soon as m or ℓ is either too large or too small; since we have constrained n by $X < n \leq 2X$, if $a_\ell^{(i)} = 0$ as soon as $\ell \leq L$ then the m's with

$m \geq 2X/L$ do not intervene, so our conditions are somewhat redundant. In practice, we will ensure that both $a_\ell^{(i)}$ and $b_m^{(i)}$ vanish when ℓ (or m) is small. This observation is a major turning point. I. M. Vinogradov termed *type I sums* the sums arising from (4) and *type II sums* the sums arising from (5). Along with many others, I prefer to speak of *bilinear sums* for (5) and, of course, to call (4) a *linear sum*! More will be said later on this bilinear structure.

This step being crucial, let me enunciate a simple lemma that shows the power of this bilinear structure.

Lemma 1 (Toy lemma) Given q, $L \geq q$, $M \geq q^2$ and two sequences $|a_\ell|, |b_m| \leq 1$,

$$\left| \sum_{\substack{\ell \leq L, \\ m \leq M}} a_\ell b_m \, e^{2i\pi \ell m/q} \right| \leq 2LM/\sqrt{q}.$$

The condition $|b_m| \leq 1$ can be relaxed if the upper bound is replaced by $2L\sqrt{M \sum_m |b_m|^2}/\sqrt{q}$. The bound L can be replaced by $L(m) \leq L$ depending on m, provided that, given ℓ, the set of m such that $\ell \leq L(m)$ is an interval.

The last condition is typically met by conditions like $\ell \leq X/m$ for some X. An early general version of the toy lemma is to be found in [59, Lemma 4] (see also [10, Lemma 8]). The proof progresses simply by writing the sum to be studied in the form $\sum_{m \leq M} b_m c(m)$ and using Cauchy's inequality. In the resulting sum $\sum_{m \leq M} |c(m)|^2$, open the square and invert summations and the result will follow readily. What has been gained here? If one sets $\gamma(n) = \sum_{\ell m = n} a_\ell b_m$ (ensure that $a_\ell = 0$ when $\ell > L$ and similarly for b_m and m), we see that we are studying

$$\left| \sum_{n \leq N = LM} \gamma_n \, e^{2i\pi n/q} \right|.$$

When the only information we have on γ_n is that it is bounded above in absolute value by 1, the best possible upper bound is $\sum_{n \leq N} |\gamma_n|$, which can be as large as $N = LM$. The above lemma uses the structure and saves a factor $2/\sqrt{q}$! Note the discreet conditions $L \geq q$ and $M \geq q^2$ that are, in fact, essential.

Here is what A. Ingham wrote in Zentralblatt on I. M. Vinogradov's paper:

> This is a fairly simple deduction from Cauchy's inequality, and the essential basis of the result has been available since 1910. It is hardly surprising, however, that its possibilities remained so long unsuspected. For double sums occurring in (1) do not appear naturally in the known treatments of the above problems, and in any case a straightforward application is liable to give only crude results owing to the loss involved in the use of Cauchy's inequality. It is, in fact, in devising ways of adapting the lemma to the various problems, and in elaborating techniques for bringing it to a successful conclusion, (...), that the author reveals his amazing powers.

This is a flexible and powerful principle. Our presentation is voluntarily naive; modern versions rely heavily on the underlying bilinear structure and on Bessel type inequalities for the relevant quasi-orthogonal system. But, again, we are ahead of the subject; let us go back to the beginning of the previous century!

6   The Eulerian approach continued

While sieves and their derivatives occupied the fore, the Eulerian approach was still under scrutiny. The main hurdle being the lack of information on the zeroes, Harald Bohr & Edmund Landau [2] decided in 1914 (somewhat before Brun's discovery) to look for regions that do not have *many* zeroes.[10] What they showed is a *density estimate*; for any $\theta > 1/2$, we have

$$\frac{\#\{\rho = \beta + i\gamma, \zeta(\rho) = 0, |\gamma| \leq T, \beta > \theta\}}{\#\{\rho = \beta + i\gamma, \zeta(\rho) = 0, |\gamma| \leq T, \beta > 0\}} \to 0.$$

This statement says that most of the zeroes have a real part $\leq \theta$ for any $\theta > 1/2$ (and, in fact, by the functional equation, almost all zeroes with positive real part have a real part close to $1/2$). The Riemann hypothesis states that all these zeroes have indeed a real part *equal* to $1/2$; the above statement is a statistical step in this direction. And this statistical step turns out to be a crucial one, since it started a very fecund branch of investigation that delivered new results for the next 80 years (this theory has now somewhat stalled).

H. Bohr & E. Landau studied the function $(1 - \zeta(s)P_D(s))^2$, where P is a finite Euler product: $P_D(s) = \prod_{p \leq D}(1 - p^{-s})^{-1}$. This is one of the striking features of analytic functions: it is possible to bound from above the number of zeroes by bounding from above some integral containing them. Here, H. Bohr & E. Landau integrated $|1 - \zeta(s)P_D(s)|^2$ on a square and proved this quantity to be a multiplicative constant times larger than the number of zeroes in a smaller region, a process later improved upon by John Edensor Littlewood.

The Swedish mathematician Fritz Carlson in 1920 [8] simply replaced the product P_D by a sum $M_D(s) = \sum_{d \leq D} \mu(d)/d^s$ and considered $(1 - \zeta M_D)^2$. He obtained in this manner much better bounds for the number of zeroes with real parts $> \theta$. Many authors continued this line of work: J. E. Littlewood, Alan Titchmarsh, Albert Ingham, Pál Turán, Atle Selberg, Askold Vinogradov and Enrico Bombieri, to name but a few! Since A. I. Vinogradov a *zero detection method* has been used instead of the method described above but this is not the subject here! It is relevant to note that Hermitian methods became more and more important and the large inequality (see (13) below) proved to be an essential tool. Yu Linnik is the pioneer of the line of investigation [40] that became understood as the use of Bessel type inequalities for quasi-orthogonal systems ... More will be said on this subject later!

There are two main highpoints of the theory of density estimates: the Y. Linnik theorem concerning primes in arithmetic progressions in 1944 and the Bombieri-Vinogradov theorem in 1965. In essence, these authors proved statements concerning density of zeroes and this is the major part of their work. These statements were then converted into results concerning the prime numbers, via some ad hoc explicit formula.

The Linnik theorem [41], [42] says that there exist two constants C_0 and q_0 so that, when q is larger than q_0, there exists, for each residue class a modulo q, a prime number congruent to a modulo q and below q^{C_0}.

The Bombieri-Vinogradov theorem [3], [58][11] says that, for each positive constant A, we have

$$\sum_{\substack{q \le \frac{\sqrt{x}}{(\log x)^{A+4}}}} \max_{\substack{1 \le a \le q, \\ \gcd(a,q)=1}} \left| \Delta(X; q, a) \right| \ll \frac{x}{(\log x)^A},$$

$$\text{where } \Delta(X; q, a) = \sum_{\substack{p \le X, \\ p \equiv a[q]}} \log p - \frac{x}{\varphi(q)}. \quad (6)$$

This theorem can be seen as a statistical Generalized Riemann Hypothesis and it serves in many situations as a replacement. And we should also recall the Guido Hoheisel theorem from 1930 [34]:[12] there exist two constants $X_0 \ge 1$ and $\delta_2 \in (0, 1)$ such that every interval $[X, x+X^{\delta_2}]$ contains at least a prime number when $X \ge X_0$. This proof created some turmoil when it was published, as the existence of such a $\delta_2 < 1$ was only known under the hypothesis that no zero with real part $\ge \delta_2$ existed (to be precise, a slightly stronger hypothesis is needed) and seemed close to being equivalent to it. Nowadays, we term a *Hoheisel theorem* any theorem that proves a similar statement with some definite value of δ_2. The initial value provided by Hoheisel was very close to 1.[13]

7 The '68 generation

Patrick Gallagher [20] remarked in 1968 that the process is abnormally convoluted: the proof starts from the series $\sum 1/n^s$, retrieves in some fashion information on its zeroes and deduces from that information on the primes. Why not use a shortcut and skip the zeroes? This is easier said than done but P. X. Gallagher found such a shortcut. He simply multiplied $-\zeta'/\zeta$ by the kernel used for density estimates! This amounts to writing

$$\frac{\zeta'}{\zeta} = 2M_D\zeta' - M_D^2\zeta'\zeta + \frac{\zeta'}{\zeta}(1 - \zeta M_D)^2, \quad (7)$$

where M_D is the Dirichlet polynomial we have defined above. The difficult term is the last one: it is the only one that still has a denominator. But this term is essentially of the shape identified by I. M. Vinogradov! A short dictionary is called for here: one has to convert operations on Dirichlet series into operations on their coefficients. The main rule is that the (arithmetic) convolution is trivialised when expressed in terms of Dirichlet series, i.e.:

$$\gamma_n = \sum_{\ell m = n} a_\ell b_m \Leftrightarrow \sum_{n \ge 1} \frac{\gamma_n}{n^s} = \sum_{\ell \ge 1} \frac{a_\ell}{\ell^s} \sum_{m \ge 1} \frac{b_m}{m^s}.$$

This equality is either formal or valid in the domain of absolute convergence of the three series (lighter hypotheses are possible!). It should be pointed out specifically that this implies

$$\zeta(s)M_D(s) - 1 = \sum_{n > D} \frac{v_n}{n^s}.$$

The coefficients v_n are not important, as we noted earlier; they are bounded by a divisor function.[14] What is really important is that the variable d *cannot* be small.

The first two terms in (7) give rise to linear sums while the last one gives rise to a bilinear one. This transformation was completed by Robert Vaughan in 1975 [57] by removing

a finite polynomial to ζ'/ζ; he introduced, for some parameter y typically like $X^{1/4}$, the finite Dirichlet polynomial

$$F_y(s) = \sum_{n \le y} \Lambda(n)/n^s$$

so that

$$\frac{\zeta'(s)}{\zeta(s)} + F_y(s) = \sum_{n > y} \frac{-\Lambda(n)}{n^s}.$$

Now, multiply together $(\zeta'/\zeta) + F_y$ and $(1 - \zeta M_D)$ and expand as above. This product is a Dirichlet series whose coefficients are a convolution product of two sequences that both vanish when the variable is small: it is indeed of the special shape highlighted by I. M. Vinogradov!

What has been gained in the process?

– The sieve part in I. M. Vinogradov's process was *not* in most cases the main term, while the linear part is *expected* to carry the main term. More will be said on this point later.

– The method is simple and flexible: one can change the kernel; and it applies to other functions instead of the Riemann zeta functions, like the Dedekind zeta functions or Hecke L-series. Note that the multiplicativity is essential but not the functional equation. The method also applies to the Moebius function but so did I. M. Vinogradov's method, as already noticed by Harald Davenport [10]. However, H. Davenport reduced the problem to the case of primes while the present proof is direct.

On using this approach, P. X. Gallagher obtained in 1970 [21] a major theorem that unifies the Linnik and the Bombieri-Vinogradov theorems: the Gallagher prime number theorem, which is still unsurpassed in strength.

Since there has recently been a flourish of works on the Moebius function, and since many people have asked how this theory handles this case, let me be more precise here. The identity to use is a simplification of one I devised recently, as explained later in this survey. It relies on the simpler kernel $(1 - \zeta M_D)$. We consider the identity

$$\frac{1}{\zeta} = \left(\frac{1}{\zeta} - M_D\right)(1 - \zeta M_D) + 2M_D - \zeta M_D^2.$$

It only remains to identify the coefficients! It is best for applications to express the result in functional form. For any function f and provided $D \le X$, we have:

$$\sum_{X < n \le 2X} f(n)\mu(n) = \sum_{m \le D^2} u_m \sum_{\substack{\ell \ge 1, \\ X < \ell m \le 2X}} f(\ell m)$$

$$+ \sum_{\substack{\ell > D, m > D, \\ X < \ell m \le 2X}} \mu(\ell)v_m f(\ell m), \quad (8)$$

where v_m has been defined above and where

$$u_m = - \sum_{\substack{hk = m, \\ h, k \le D}} \mu(h)\mu(k).$$

In the first summation on the right side of (8), we hope to be able to evaluate the summation over ℓ. For instance, in the toy lemma case, one selects $f(x) = \exp(2i\pi x/q)$ and the sum over ℓ is bounded by q, giving rise to a total contribution bounded by $O(qD^2)$. Concerning the second sum, we first note that the variable m ranges $(D, 2X/D)$. We cover this interval by at most $(\log(2X/D^2)/\log 2$ disjoint intervals of the shape

$(M, M']$ for some $M' \leq 2M$. Our toy lemma applies provided that $D \geq q^2$. We note that $\sum_{m \in [M, M']} |v_m|^2 \ll M(\log M)^3$. Collecting our estimates, we have proved that

$$\sum_{X < n \leq 2X} \mu(n) e^{2i\pi n/q} \ll qD^2 + (\log X)^{5/2} \frac{X}{\sqrt{q}},$$

provided $D \geq q^2$ and $D < X$. On selecting $D = q^2$ and assuming that $q \leq X^{2/7}$, this gives our case study result:

$$\sum_{X < n \leq 2X} \mu(n) e^{2i\pi n/q} \ll (\log X)^{5/2} \frac{X}{\sqrt{q}}. \quad (9)$$

This simple result is way beyond the power of the classical Eulerian approach! But the proof we have given requires not more than half a page!

There has recently been renewed activity around the Moebius function, as in [25] and [26], and around a conjecture due to Peter Sarnak.[15] This subject is somewhat off our main road, though we have to specify that getting to the Moebius function is done as above. Recently Jean Bourgain, Peter Sarnak & Tamar Ziegler have given in [4] another way to handle the Moebius function that follows a combinatorial path closer to that of I. M. Vinogradov.

In short, we have reached a point where the Eulerian approach has evolved sufficiently to resemble the combinatorial one! In both cases, the idea is to represent the characteristic function of the primes as a linear combination of linear forms and of bilinear forms. In fact, and this is most apparent in the identity used by Hedi Daboussi in [9] or in the ones used by John Friedlander and Henryk Iwaniec in [18, section 3], one can start from the convolution identity $\Lambda = \mu \star \mathrm{Log}$ and rearrange terms therein, having the size of the variables in mind.

A bilinear decomposition for the primes is one of the main ingredients of Christian Mauduit & Joël Rivat [44] in their proof of the 40 year old conjecture of Gelfand: there exists up to an error term as many prime numbers whose sum of digits in base 2 is odd or even. It is at the heart of the proof of Terence Tao [55] that every odd integer $\neq 1$ is a sum of at most five primes, and also at the heart of Harald Helfgott's proof that every odd integer $\neq 1$ [32], [33] is a sum of at most three primes.[16] The second paper has a final result better than the first one, of course, but T. Tao's paper develops ideas around small intervals containing sums of two primes that are of independent interest. H. A. Helfgott closed, after about 75 years, the proof of I. M. Vinogradov: we knew that the statement was true for large enough integers (and large enough meant really large) and bringing this bound down was no small achievement.

8   Sad news: There are limitations! The main term problem

Let us resume our general analysis. The problem that will be addressed in this section is that, in the initial Vinogradov method, the sieve part does not yield the main term. To understand properly why, here is a simplified presentation of the Vinogradov method I developed some years back. In the Brun sieve, the sequence $\mathcal{A}$ is the sequence of integers that do not have any prime factors less than some given bound z. This parameter is typically between a high power of $\log X$ and X to a power that tends very slowly to 0. To reach the primes from the interval $(X, 2X]$, we still need to remove all the integers that have a prime factor between z and $\sqrt{2X}$. Say that p is such a prime. The bad candidates have thus the form $pm \ldots$ and this is bilinear! Well, almost but not quite: m has to be required to have no prime factors below p if we want the representation pm to be unique and this ties p and m together $\ldots$ Before continuing, it should be noted that the process used is known as the Buchstab iteration [7]. I learned recently while reading the notes of [48] that, in the late '70s, Hans-Egon Richert had performed a similar analysis from the Selberg sieve.

The problem encountered is well identified: to get a proper bilinear form, one needs to *separate* both variables. This problem is serious but often not deadly. One can introduce here the number $\omega_{z, \sqrt{2X}}(m)$ of prime factors of m that lie within $(z, \sqrt{2X}]$, and the representation pm has multiplicity $\omega^*(pm)$, say, so it is enough to divide by this number. Now, though, p and m are tied in $\omega^*(pm)$! Well, yes, but less so. For most m's, i.e. for the ones that are not divisible by p, we have $\omega^*(pm) = 1 + \omega^*(m)$; the other ones correspond to integers of the shape $p^2 k$ and, since p is large enough, they are of a (usually) negligible quantity.

Since the sequence $\mathcal{A}$ that comes from the Brun sieve is larger than the primes, it leads to a larger main term! Hence what we treat like an error term contains, in fact, part of the main term. In the linear/bilinear approach, the linear part can in usual problems be shown to have the proper size, at least if believed conjectures do hold. But *the way* the bilinear form is treated induces a loss of precision that can be deadly! On our toy problem, for instance, (9) is a lot less than what is expected, namely at least:

$$\sum_{X < n \leq 2X} \mu(n) e^{2i\pi n/q} \ll (\log X)^{100} \frac{X}{q} \quad (10)$$

for $q \leq X^{2/7}$. But, if we were to prove such a statement, we would prove that there are no Siegel zeroes or, equivalently, that the class number of the imaginary quadratic field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-q})$ is at least $\gg q^{1/2}/(\log q)^{200}$. In fact "simply" improving the power of q from $1/2$ to $(1/2) + \delta$ for any $\delta > 0$ would be a major achievement. We will see below more as to where this limitation comes from. The best result to date [51, Corollary 5][17] reads

$$\sum_{X < n \leq 2X} \mu(n) e^{2i\pi n/q} \ll \frac{X}{\sqrt{q}} \prod_{p|q} \left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}\right) \quad (11)$$

for $q \leq X^{1/9}$. The last product is just an annoying blemish. In the case of a prime modulus q, proving that the implied constant is < 1 would prove that there are no Siegel zeroes!

J. Friedlander & H. Iwaniec managed in their awesome work [18], [19] to overcome in some delicate cases this enormous difficulty.

There is another major limitation. The toy lemma has been presented with an additive character $e^{2i\pi n/q}$ but what happens with a multiplicative character? The bilinear form becomes trivial and nothing can be gained anymore. A path could be to express these multiplicative characters, modulo q say, in terms of additive ones modulo q. Such a process loses $\sqrt{q}$ due to the size of the Gauss sum, reducing the saving acquired to nil!

9 Other identities and divisors: The philosophy extends

It has been mentioned several times that this method offers flexibility but the reader has only seen two identities so far. In his state thesis in 1980, Étienne Fouvry used Vaughan's identity recursively.[18] At the time of writing the corresponding paper [15], Roger Heath-Brown had published in [30] and [29] a systematised version that E. Fouvry preferred to use. This systematised version consists of selecting the kernel $(1 - \zeta M_D)^k$ for an integer parameter k to be chosen (É. Fouvry took $k = 12$, for instance, and later reduced to $k = 7$).

In 1961, Y. Linnik produced in [43] another kind of identity by considering $\log \zeta = \log(1 - (1 - \zeta))$ together with the Taylor expansion of $\log(1 - z)$ around $z = 1$. We present the modification due to Heath-Brown in [30, Lemma 3] in which the zeta function is multiplied by the finite Euler product P_D introduced above in F. Carlson's proof. The function $\log(\zeta P_D)$ is also the Dirichlet series $\sum_{n \geq 2}^* \frac{\Lambda(n)}{\log n} \frac{1}{n^s}$, where the star means that n has only prime factors $> D$; it is expedient here to introduce the product Π_D of all the primes not more than D. The condition on n is then simply that n and D are coprime. On the other side the function $(1 - \zeta P_D)^k$ has for any positive integer k the Dirichlet series representation $(-1)^k \sum_{n \geq 1}^* d_k^\sharp(n)/n^s$, where the summation is again restricted to integers n prime to Π_D and where $d_k^\sharp(n)$ is the number of ways of writing the integer n as a product of k integers, all *strictly larger than 1*. We get, when n is prime to Π_D,

$$\frac{\Lambda(n)}{\log n} = \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k} d_k^\sharp(n). \tag{12}$$

On restricting n to the range $(X, 2X)$ and assuming that $D^{K+1} > 2X$, the summation above can be truncated at $k \leq K$. Moreover, if we abort the summation at an odd (or even) number of steps, we get an upper (or lower) bound, as in the inclusion-exclusion principle!

But a closer look at Linnik's identity is called for: *it transposes problems for primes into problems for divisor functions*. This is what transpires from É. Fouvry's work [15]: if one knows well enough the divisor functions, up to products of six divisors, then this implies an improved Bombieri-Vinogradov theorem of the primes: the inequality $q \leq \sqrt{x}/(\log x)^{A+4}$ could be replaced by $q \leq x^{\frac{1}{2}+\delta}$ for some positive δ. Such a theorem would be *stronger* than the Generalized Riemann Hypothesis! The reader can see rapidly how modular forms come into play here: the distribution of the divisor function is linked with the distribution of Kloosterman sums, which are in turn coefficients of modular forms.

This feature of Y. Linnik's identity can be found again in R. Heath-Brown's identity if one forces k to be so large that $D^k > X$. In this manner, the bilinear part does not come into play for integers below X! In functional form, this reads:

$$\sum_{n \leq X} \Lambda(n) f(n) = \sum_{1 \leq r \leq k} \binom{k}{r} (-1)^{r+1} \times$$
$$\sum_{\substack{n_1, \cdots, n_r \leq D, \\ n_{r+1}, \cdots, n_{2r}, \\ n_1 \cdots n_{2r} \leq X}} \mu(n_1) \cdots \mu(n_r) \log n_{2r} f(n_1 \cdots n_{2r}).$$

This is all well and good but we already have difficulties treating products of three divisors (see the groundbreaking [36]) not to mention products of four of them, so it may be more efficient to simply consider these divisor functions as convolution products and resort to I. M. Vinogradov's bilinear form approach. In the above, one may tie some variables together, say d_1 and d_2, in a single $m = d_1 d_2$ affected by the coefficient u_m defined above!

The divisor angle can, however, be made to bear with more efficiency if one aims at a result weaker than a Bombieri-Vinogradov theorem. É. Fouvry put this philosophy into practice in [16]: the quantity considered is, for some fixed a and some positive δ:

$$\sum_{q \leq x^{\frac{1}{2}+\delta}} c(q) \Delta(X; q, a),$$

with the weights $c(q)$ fairly general and, yet again, convolution products of special kinds (Δ is defined in (6)). This is at the heart of the recent breakthrough of Ytang Zhang [60]: there exist infinitely many pairs of primes p and p' such that $|p - p'| \leq 7 \cdot 10^7$. The argument follows the pathway opened in 2006 by Daniel Goldston, János Pintz and Cem Yıldırım [23], [22] but the main novelty comes from the treatment of the error term or, more precisely, in curbing the proof so that it produces an error term of a special form, as already noted by A. Ingham in his assessment of I. M. Vinogradov's work. Studying this error term is also no small task! Let us note that this entails controlling bilinear terms of the form we have already seen but also some convolution of three divisors; or a three-linear form; or, as Y. Zhang puts it, *a type III sum*.

10 The combinatorial approach, revival time

While the work on identities has been going strong, a different line continued from I. M. Vinogradov's approach. We have seen that the correcting term from the sieve part contained part of the main term and that a coarse treatment via Cauchy's inequality was not enough. Some authors, however, developed a gentler treatment in some cases; such a line started in [31] where the authors obtained a strong improvement on the Hoheisel theorem (any $\delta_2 > 11/20$ is accessible; compare with Hoheisel's initial value!). Combinatorial ideas are put into effect and show their teeth! This has been amplified, developed and refined by Glyn Harman in several papers [27], [28], [1] in what this author calls his *adaptative sieve*. This is surely a very accomplished work and it led to the best results in many problems (like $\delta_2 = 0.525$).

In this section I should mention the development in [12, Section 6] and, in particular, Theorem S thereof. This subtle theorem ensures that the sequence of primes will be properly distributed in some sequences, provided one knows how to bound some linear sums as well as some bilinear ones. This step is extremely difficult in this application, as the accessible information is not enough for a usual approach! A special combinatorial treatment is required which is contained in the Theorem S mentioned, in particular for handling products of three divisors of about the same size.[19] This falls within the general philosophy we have developed so far. The novelty here is that the bilinear form arising from I. M. Vinogradov's approach is treated with more care and the main term extracted from it.

11   Treating the bilinear forms

This paper has covered at length that a bilinear structure was involved in all these representations, whether directly via Eulerian identities or after more work via combinatorial means (and now both methods mix happily!) but the way to treat this bilinear part has up to now remained extremely coarse, essentially via the toy lemma above. Even at this level of coarseness, the method yields impressive results but a better understanding is called for. And it will show again how the sieve ideas and the Eulerian approach mingle together. In most of the problems on primes, the treatment of the bilinear sum is the most difficult part and, in return, what we are able to prove at this level conditions the kind of identity one has to prove or choose.

One way to start telling this part of the story is through the Bombieri-Vinogradov theorem. In the initial proof, the one that deals with density estimates of zeroes, a major role is played by an inequality that finds its origin in the work of Y. Linnik: the large sieve inequality. It was later discovered by Hugh Montgomery [45] that this inequality could be used in a sieve context and ... led to results as strong as the Selberg sieve! In some sense, this inequality is *dual* to the Selberg sieve [37] and this notion of duality has to be understood in the usual sense, i.e. when a bilinear coupling is at stake. Let me state a special case of this inequality in the strong form given by H. L. Montgomery & R. C. Vaughan [46], and at the same time by A. Selberg with a different proof:

$$\sum_{q\leq Q}\sum_{\substack{1\leq a\leq q,\\ \gcd(a,q)=1}}\left|\sum_{n\leq X}b_n e^{2i\pi na/q}\right|^2 \leq \sum_{n\leq X}|b_n|^2 (X+Q^2), \quad (13)$$

valid for any sequence of complex numbers (b_n). Such an inequality is of course reminiscent of our toy lemma above. It should be looked upon as a Bessel type inequality for a quasi-orthogonal system. From a practical viewpoint, if we were given any single sum above, say $\sum_{n\leq X}b_n e^{2i\pi na_0/q_0}$, Cauchy's inequality would give us the bound $\sqrt{\sum_{n\leq X}|b_n|^2 X}$ and it is the best possible at this level of generality. The above inequality tells us that, for the same price, we can bound many more sums! This is provided Q^2 is less than X, which will be our case of use. So the idea is to put as much as we can on the left side and use this bound. The reader will not be surprised to find an inequality of this type in H. A. Helfgott's work.

When compared with our toy lemma result, the reader may worry about the missing $1/\sqrt{q}$ ...and rightly so! But we have a summation above of length about q over a modulo q: in the toy lemma, simply split the variable ℓ according to its residue class modulo q. There remains a slight difficulty, as ℓ is not guaranteed to be coprime with q but this hurdle is easily overcome.

This principle can be pushed very far and many more sums incorporated on the left side! To prove (11), and elaborating on unpublished material by A. Selberg in 1972–73 and of Yoishi Motohashi [47], I developed in [51] a quasi-orthogonal family of identities for the primes, where the polynomial M_D is replaced by a family $M_D^{(r)}$. One of the first lemmas of the proof is the following (version of an) inequality

due to Y. Motohashi [47, Lemma 3], with $R = \sqrt{N/T}$:

$$\sum_{\substack{r\leq R/q,\\ \gcd(r,q)=1}}\frac{1}{\varphi(r)}\sum_{\substack{1\leq a\leq q,\\ \gcd(a,q)=1}}\int_{-T}^{T}\left|\sum_{n\leq N}\frac{b_n c_r(n)}{n^{it}}e^{2i\pi\frac{na}{q}}\right|^2 dt \ll X\sum_{n\leq X}|b_n|^2,$$

provided that b_n vanishes as soon as n has a factor in common with q. Here $c_r(n)$ is the Ramanujan sum. The reader should not be scared of such an inequality, for it is a gentle monster! If we take $t=0$, $a=1$ and $r=1$, the inner sum is simply $\sum_{n\leq N}b_n e^{2i\pi n/q}$ as in the toy lemma case. But for the same price, we have added an integration over t in a large range (this part has been classical since P. X. Gallagher [21, Theorem 3]), as well as a summation over r which comes from A. Selberg.

The inequality above says that the three families of "characters" $(c_r(n))_r$, $(n^{it})_t$ and $(e^{2i\pi na/q})_a$ are quasi-orthogonal in themselves but also when mixed one with the other.

How can one put that into practice? That's more easily said than done but here are some hints: when p is a prime number prime to r, the Ramanujan function of order r takes value -1 at p, i.e. $c_r(p) = -1$. As a consequence, when $r \leq X$, and for any function f, we have

$$\sum_{X<p\leq 2X} f(p) = -\sum_{X<p\leq 2X} f(p)c_r(p).$$

We can use this fact to introduce an average over r and, for instance, for any non-negative function g, we find that

$$\left|\sum_{X<p\leq 2X} f(p)\right|^2 = \frac{\displaystyle\sum_{r\leq X}g(r)\left|\sum_{X<p\leq 2X}f(p)c_r(p)\right|^2}{\displaystyle\sum_{r\leq X}g(r)}.$$

On using a bilinear form representation, this $c_r(p)$ will become a $c_r(\ell m)$ and if we can prove a proper Bessel inequality, only one term on the right side will contribute: we will save the denominator! A similar process is used in [14]. See also [13] and [39] for more comments on *amplification* techniques.

The summation over r can be regained by the process above but a similar process does not apply to the other "characters" and this is where the limitation comes from: we do not know that the sequence (b_n) does not conspire with some $e^{i\pi na_0/q}/n^{it_0}$ for instance to give rise to a large contribution. We would be surprised if this were to happen, of course, but, at this level, we do not know how to eliminate this possibility. We say in short that the *diagonal* contribution matters most. There has been a good amount of work to try to dispense with it. The general theme is to go back to the proof of the large sieve type inequalities we use: in these proofs, the Fourier transform has an important role, very often in conjunction with the Poisson summation formula or spectral theory (as for instance in [12]). So the idea is to introduce such a Fourier transform where a smooth variable occurs and use the Poisson summation formula. This is for instance what is used in [17]. The Linnik dispersion method [43] is another similar L^2-mechanism that eliminates the diagonal contribution (see for instance [15, Section 3]).

12   This is *not* the end!

I hope the reader now has a proper idea of the flexible tool praised so much in the introduction! There remain large parts of unexplored territory, as well as some peaks in the distance … A.-M. Legendre asked long ago whether every interval $(N^2, (N + 1)^2)$ contains a prime when N is a positive integer. This is roughly equivalent to showing that an interval of length $\sqrt{x}$ around x contains a prime: the methods we have give $x^{0.525}$ but, even after all the plausible refinements, reaching $x^{0.5}$ will require a novel input. The sum $\sum_{p \leq X} \mu(p - 1)$ is still a mysterious entity and there are many other problems on primes that are unsolved, at present time just out of our grasp but who knows what will happen tomorrow!

Notes

1. Such observations sometimes had the status of theorems and sometimes the status of truth, or maybe "*experimental truth*", since the very notion of proof was shaky at the time.
2. Historians later discovered that René Descartes had stated this property some 50 years before. One of the modern princes of arithmetic Pál Erdös commented: "It is better that the conjecture be named after Goldbach because, mathematically speaking, Descartes was infinitely rich and Goldbach was very poor."
3. He was wrong: 6077 is an exception but it seems to be the last one!
4. This will become the "prime number theorem".
5. This not-so-easy proof is very popular, the downside being that few know that much more is accessible. For instance, there is a prime p satisfying $2n < p < 3n$ provided $n \geq 2$.
6. I am skipping here the fascinating *abc*-conjecture, which is known to hold in the case of $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ and has created some turmoil recently in the case of $\mathbb{Z}$ …
7. No. I won't give you my list!
8. This "main" term is $\prod_{p \leq \sqrt{2X}}(1 - \frac{1}{p})X$, which is equivalent, by one of Mertens' theorems, to $2e^{-\gamma}X/\log X$. We have $2e^{-\gamma} = 1.122\cdots$ while the prime number theorem will, almost a century later, show that it should be 1.
9. At the time, I. M. Vinogradov was also nearly drowned under the administrative work he had to cope with as director of the Steklov Institute!
10. By the way, Harald Bohr was the rising Danish star while V. Brun, two years older, was the Norwegian rising star. Harald Bohr was also an accomplished football player and was, together with his teammates, responsible for the greatest defeat of the French national team (17 to 1!).
11. The Russian mathematician Askold Ivanovich Vinogradov is not to be confused with the other Russian mathematician (the mathematical great-grandchild of Pafnuty Lvovich Chebyshev) whose work is at the heart of this paper: Ivan Matveyevich Vinogradov
12. G. Hoheisel was the mathematical grandchild of David Hilbert.
13. Any $\delta_2 > 1 - (1/33\,000)$ would do. This is really small!
14. We have $\nu_n = \sum_{\substack{d \mid n \\ d \leq D}} \mu(d)$ when $n \geq 2$ and 0 otherwise. And thus $|\nu_n| \leq d(n)$.
15. See also [35, (13.7)]; P. Sarnak's conjecture somehow quantifies this statement. See also [24].
16. Both papers have been submitted; there are good reasons to believe in their solidity but rules are rules and the checking should be completed before the results are fully accepted!
17. As I said, rules are rules and the result I mention now has only been submitted!
18. He iterated it 12 times! The formulas obtained were so long that he printed them in landscape format …
19. For the reader who wants to follow this proof in a gentler manner, and who can read French, I recommend the book [38].

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