

Introduction to Number Theory

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1 Arithmetical Functions

- The Function $[x]$
- Multiplicative Functions
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Subsection 1

The Function $[x]$

The Integral and Fractional Parts of a Real Number

- For any real x , denote by $[x]$ the largest integer $\leq x$, i.e., the unique integer such that $x - 1 < [x] \leq x$.
- $[x]$ is called the **integral part** of x .
- $\{x\} = x - [x]$ is called the **fractional part** of x .
- It satisfies $0 \leq \{x\} < 1$.

Properties of the Integral and Fractional Parts

Proposition

Let x, y be real numbers.

- $[x + y] \geq [x] + [y]$;
- for any positive integer n , $[x + n] = [x] + n$;
- $\left[\frac{x}{n}\right] = \left[\frac{[x]}{n}\right]$.
- We have $\{x + y\} = \begin{cases} \{x\} + \{y\}, & \text{if } \{x\} + \{y\} < 1 \\ \{x\} + \{y\} - 1, & \text{if } \{x\} + \{y\} \geq 1 \end{cases}$

Therefore, $\{x + y\} \leq \{x\} + \{y\}$.

So $[x + y] = x + y - \{x + y\} = [x] + \{x\} + [y] + \{y\} - \{x + y\} \geq [x] + [y]$.

- $[x + n] = x + n - \{x + n\} = x + n - \{x\} = [x] + n$.
- Suppose $\frac{[x]}{n} = q + \frac{r}{n}$ with $0 \leq r < n$.

Then $\left[\frac{x}{n}\right] = \left[\frac{[x] + \{x\}}{n}\right] = \left[q + \frac{r}{n} + \frac{\{x\}}{n}\right] = [q] = \left[\frac{[x]}{n}\right]$.

Max Power of a Prime Dividing a Factorial

Proposition

Let n be a positive integer and p a prime. Suppose $\ell = \max\{k : p^k \mid n!\}$. Then,

$$\ell = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \left[\frac{n}{p^j} \right].$$

- Among the numbers $1, 2, \dots, n$, there are:
 - $\left[\frac{n}{p} \right]$ that are divisible by p ;
 - $\left[\frac{n}{p^2} \right]$ that are divisible by p^2 ;
 - \vdots

So we get

$$\ell = \sum_{m=1}^n \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ p^j \mid m}}^{\infty} 1 = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \sum_{\substack{m=1 \\ p^j \mid m}}^n 1 = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \left[\frac{n}{p^j} \right].$$

A Bound on the Max Power

Corollary

Let n be a positive integer and p a prime. Suppose $\ell = \max\{k : p^k \mid n!\}$. Then,

$$\ell \leq \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p-1} \right\rfloor.$$

- Using the preceding proposition, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \ell &= \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^2} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^3} \right\rfloor + \cdots \\ &\leq \frac{n}{p} + \frac{n}{p^2} + \frac{n}{p^3} + \cdots \\ &= \frac{n}{p} \left(1 + \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{p^2} + \cdots \right) \\ &= \frac{\frac{n}{p}}{1 - \frac{1}{p}} = \frac{n}{p-1}. \end{aligned}$$

The result follows, since ℓ is an integer.

Binomial and Multinomial Coefficients

Corollary

Let m, n be positive integers, with $n \leq m$. The binomial coefficient

$$\binom{m}{n} = \frac{m!}{n!(m-n)!}$$

is an integer.

- For every prime p :
 - The max power of p dividing $m!$ is $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \left[\frac{m}{p^j} \right]$;
 - The max power of p dividing $n!(m-n)!$ is $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \left[\frac{n}{p^j} \right] + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \left[\frac{m-n}{p^j} \right]$.

The result follows by noting that $\left[\frac{m}{p^j} \right] \geq \left[\frac{n}{p^j} \right] + \left[\frac{m-n}{p^j} \right]$.

- More generally, if n_1, \dots, n_k are positive integers such that $n_1 + \dots + n_k = m$, then the expression $\frac{m!}{n_1! \dots n_k!}$ is an integer.

Subsection 2

Multiplicative Functions

Multiplicative Functions

- A real function f defined on the positive integers is said to be **multiplicative** if

$$f(m)f(n) = f(mn), \text{ for all } m, n \text{ with } (m, n) = 1.$$

- If f is multiplicative and does not vanish identically then $f(1) = 1$.
There exists n , such that $f(n) \neq 0$.
Then, $f(n) = f(n \cdot 1) = f(n)f(1)$. It follows that $f(1) = 1$.
- If f is multiplicative and $n = p_1^{j_1} \cdots p_k^{j_k}$ in standard form then

$$f(n) = f(p_1^{j_1}) \cdots f(p_k^{j_k}).$$

- Thus, to evaluate f , it suffices to calculate its values on the prime powers.

A Further Property of Multiplicative Functions

Proposition

If f is multiplicative and if

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

where the sum is over all divisors d of n , then g is a multiplicative function.

- Suppose $(m, n) = 1$.

Then we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 g(mn) &= \sum_{d|mn} f(d) \quad (\text{definition}) \\
 &= \sum_{d|m} \sum_{d'|n} f(dd') \quad ((m, n) = 1) \\
 &= \sum_{d|m} f(d) \sum_{d'|n} f(d') \quad (\text{sums}) \\
 &= g(m)g(n). \quad (\text{definition})
 \end{aligned}$$

Subsection 3

Euler's (Totient) Function $\varphi(n)$

Euler's (Totient) Function $\varphi(n)$

- By $\varphi(n)$ we mean the number of numbers $1, 2, \dots, n$ that are relatively prime to n .

We have, e.g.,

$$\varphi(1) = 1, \quad \varphi(2) = 1, \quad \varphi(3) = 2, \quad \varphi(4) = 2.$$

- We will show, in the next chapter, that φ is multiplicative.

Value of φ on Prime Powers

Proposition

For any prime p ,

$$\varphi(p^j) = p^j - p^{j-1}.$$

- There are p^j numbers between 1 and p^j .

Of those, $\frac{p^j}{p} = p^{j-1}$ are divisible by p .

So we obtain

$$\varphi(p^j) = p^j - p^{j-1}.$$

A Formula for $\varphi(n)$

Claim: $\varphi(n) = n \prod_{p|n} (1 - \frac{1}{p})$.

Let p_1, \dots, p_k be the distinct prime factors of n . Then it suffices to show that $\varphi(n)$ is given by

$$n - \sum_r \frac{n}{p_r} + \sum_{r>s} \frac{n}{p_r p_s} - \sum_{r>s>t} \frac{n}{p_r p_s p_t} + \dots$$

But $\frac{n}{p_r}$ is the number of numbers $1, 2, \dots, n$ that are divisible by p_r ; $\frac{n}{p_r p_s}$ is the number that are divisible by $p_r p_s$; and so on. Hence, the above expression is

$$\sum_{m=1}^n \left(1 - \sum_{p_r|m} 1 + \sum_{\substack{r>s \\ p_r p_s|m}} 1 - \dots \right) = \sum_{m=1}^n \left(1 - \binom{\ell}{1} + \binom{\ell}{2} - \dots \right),$$

where $\ell = \ell(m)$ is the number of primes p_1, \dots, p_k that divide m . Now the summand on the right is $(1-1)^\ell = 0$ if $\ell > 0$, and it is 1 if $\ell = 0$, whence the required result follows.

An Alternative Combinatorial Proof

- The formula

$$n - \sum_r \frac{n}{p_r} + \sum_{r>s} \frac{n}{p_r p_s} - \sum_{r>s>t} \frac{n}{p_r p_s p_t} + \dots$$

can be obtained alternatively as an immediate application of the Inclusion-Exclusion Principle.

The respective sums in the required expression for $\phi(n)$ give the number of elements in the set $1, 2, \dots, n$ that possess precisely $1, 2, 3, \dots$ of the properties of divisibility by p_j for $1 \leq j \leq k$;

The Principle (or rather the complement of it) gives the analogous expression for the number of elements in an arbitrary set of n objects that possess none of k possible properties.

A Sum Formula for φ

Proposition

$$\sum_{d|n} \varphi(d) = n.$$

- As mentioned, φ is multiplicative.

By a preceding proposition, $g(n) = \sum_{d|n} \varphi(d)$ is also multiplicative.

For p a prime, we get

$$\begin{aligned} g(p^j) &= \sum_{d|p^j} \varphi(d) = \varphi(1) + \varphi(p) + \varphi(p^2) + \cdots + \varphi(p^j) \\ &= 1 + (p-1) + (p^2 - p) + \cdots + (p^j - p^{j-1}) = p^j. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, if $n = p_1^{j_1} \cdots p_k^{j_k}$,

$$g(n) = g(p_1^{j_1} \cdots p_k^{j_k}) = g(p_1^{j_1}) \cdots g(p_k^{j_k}) = p_1^{j_1} \cdots p_k^{j_k} = n.$$

Subsection 4

The Möbius Function $\mu(n)$

The Möbius Function $\mu(n)$

- The **Möbius function** is defined, for any positive integer n , as

$$\mu(n) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n \text{ contains a squared factor} \\ (-1)^k, & \text{if } n = p_1 \cdots p_k \text{ as a product of } k \text{ distinct primes} \end{cases}$$

By convention, $\mu(1) = 1$.

Proposition

μ is multiplicative.

- Suppose $(m, n) = 1$. Then $m = p_1^{j_1} \cdots p_k^{j_k}$ and $n = q_1^{i_1} \cdots q_\ell^{i_\ell}$, where $p_1, \dots, p_k, q_1, \dots, q_\ell$ are distinct primes.

Now we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mu(mn) &= \mu(p_1^{j_1} \cdots p_k^{j_k} q_1^{i_1} \cdots q_\ell^{i_\ell}) \\ &= \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if any of } j_1, \dots, j_k, i_1, \dots, i_\ell > 1 \\ (-1)^k (-1)^\ell, & \text{if } j_1 = \cdots = j_k = i_1 = \cdots = i_\ell = 1 \end{cases} \\ &= \mu(p_1^{j_1} \cdots p_k^{j_k}) \mu(q_1^{i_1} \cdots q_\ell^{i_\ell}) = \mu(m) \mu(n). \end{aligned}$$

The Function $\nu(n)$

- Since the Möbius function is multiplicative, the function

$$\nu(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d)$$

is also multiplicative.

- For all prime powers p^j , with $j > 0$, we have $\nu(p^j) = 0$.

Indeed, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \nu(p^j) &= \sum_{d|p^j} \mu(d) = \mu(1) + \mu(p) + \mu(p^2) + \cdots + \mu(p^j) \\ &= 1 + (-1) + 0 + \cdots + 0 = 0. \end{aligned}$$

- Hence we obtain:

$$\nu(n) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n > 1 \\ 1, & \text{if } n = 1 \end{cases}$$

If $n = p_1^{j_1} \cdots p_k^{j_k}$,

$$\nu(n) = \nu(p_1^{j_1} \cdots p_k^{j_k}) = \nu(p_1^{j_1}) \cdots \nu(p_k^{j_k}) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n > 1 \\ 1, & \text{if } n = 1 \end{cases}$$

The Möbius Inversion Formula

Theorem (The Möbius Inversion Formula)

Let f be any arithmetical function, i.e., a function defined on the positive integers. Then

$$g(n) = \sum_{d|n} f(d) \quad \text{iff} \quad f(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d)g\left(\frac{n}{d}\right).$$

(\Rightarrow) We have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{d|n} \mu(d)g\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) &= \sum_{d|n} \sum_{d'|\frac{n}{d}} \mu(d)f(d') = \sum_{d'|n} f(d') \sum_{d|\frac{n}{d'}} \mu(d) \\ &= \sum_{d'|n} f(d')\nu\left(\frac{n}{d'}\right) = f(n). \end{aligned}$$

(\Leftarrow) We also have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{d|n} f(d) &= \sum_{d|n} f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) = \sum_{d|n} \sum_{d'|\frac{n}{d}} \mu\left(\frac{n}{dd'}\right)g(d') \\ &= \sum_{d'|n} g(d') \sum_{d|\frac{n}{d'}} \mu\left(\frac{n}{dd'}\right) \\ &= \sum_{d'|n} g(d')\nu\left(\frac{n}{d'}\right) = g(n). \end{aligned}$$

Euler and Möbius Functions

Theorem

The Euler and Möbius functions are related by the equation

$$\varphi(n) = n \sum_{d|n} \frac{\mu(d)}{d}.$$

- Using the expression $\varphi(n) = n \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(n) &= n \left(1 - \sum_{p_i|n} \frac{1}{p_i} + \sum_{p_i, p_j|n} \frac{1}{p_i p_j} - \dots\right) \\ &= n \left(1 + \sum_{p_i|n} \frac{\mu(p_i)}{p_i} + \sum_{p_i, p_j|n} \frac{\mu(p_i p_j)}{p_i p_j} + \dots\right) = n \sum_{d|n} \frac{\mu(d)}{d}. \end{aligned}$$

- An alternative is to use the formula $n = \sum_{d|n} \varphi(d)$.

Then, by Möbius Inversion, $\varphi(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \frac{n}{d} = n \sum_{d|n} \frac{\mu(d)}{d}$.

Möbius Inversion for Functions over the Reals

Theorem

Let f be a real function.

$$\text{If } g(x) = \sum_{n \leq x} f\left(\frac{x}{n}\right), \text{ then } f(x) = \sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n)g\left(\frac{x}{n}\right).$$

- We have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n)g\left(\frac{x}{n}\right) &= \sum_{n \leq x} \sum_{m \leq \frac{x}{n}} \mu(n)f\left(\frac{x}{mn}\right) \\ &= \sum_{\ell \leq x} \sum_{m|\ell} \mu\left(\frac{\ell}{m}\right)f\left(\frac{x}{\ell}\right) \\ &= \sum_{\ell \leq x} f\left(\frac{x}{\ell}\right) \sum_{d|\ell} \mu(d) \\ &= \sum_{\ell \leq x} f\left(\frac{x}{\ell}\right)v(\ell) = f(x). \end{aligned}$$

Subsection 5

The Functions $\tau(n)$ and $\sigma(n)$

The Functions τ and σ

- For any positive integer n , define:

$$\begin{aligned}\tau(n) &= \text{the number of divisors of } n; \\ \sigma(n) &= \text{the sum of the divisors of } n.\end{aligned}$$

- We have

$$\tau(n) = \sum_{d|n} 1, \quad \sigma(n) = \sum_{d|n} d.$$

- Both $\tau(n)$ and $\sigma(n)$ are multiplicative.

E.g., for $(m, n) = 1$,

$$\tau(m \cdot n) = \sum_{d|mn} 1 = \sum_{(d_1|m, d_2|n)} 1 = \sum_{d_1|m} 1 \cdot \sum_{d_2|n} 1 = \tau(m)\tau(n).$$

Formulas for τ and σ

- For any prime power p^j , we have

$$\tau(p^j) = j+1;$$

$$\sigma(p^j) = 1 + p + \cdots + p^j = \frac{p^{j+1}-1}{p-1}.$$

- Thus, if p^j is the highest power of p that divides n , then

$$\tau(n) = \prod_{p|n} (j+1), \quad \sigma(n) = \prod_{p|n} \frac{p^{j+1}-1}{p-1}.$$

Estimates for the Sizes of $\tau(n)$ and $\sigma(n)$

- We have $\tau(n) < cn^\delta$, for any $\delta > 0$, where c is a number depending only on δ .

The function $f(n) = \frac{\tau(n)}{n^\delta}$ is multiplicative and satisfies $f(p^j) = \frac{j+1}{p^{j\delta}} < 1$, for all but a finite number of values of p and j . The exceptions are bounded in terms of δ .

- Further, we have

$$\sigma(n) = n \sum_{d|n} \frac{1}{d} \leq n \sum_{d \leq n} \frac{1}{d} < n(1 + \log n).$$

Lower Bound for $\varphi(n)$

- The estimate $\sigma(n) < n(1 + \log n)$ implies

$$\varphi(n) > \frac{1}{4} \frac{n}{\log n}, \quad n > 1.$$

In fact the function $f(n) = \frac{\sigma(n)\varphi(n)}{n^2}$ is multiplicative. For any prime power p^j , we have

$$f(p^j) = \sigma(p^j) \frac{\varphi(p^j)}{(p^j)^2} = \frac{p^{j+1} - 1}{p - 1} \frac{p^j - p^{j-1}}{p^{2j}} = 1 - \frac{1}{p^{j+1}} \geq 1 - \frac{1}{p^2}.$$

But

$$\prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^2}\right) \geq \prod_{m=2}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{m^2}\right) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

So $\sigma(n)\varphi(n) \geq \frac{1}{2}n^2$.

Combining with $\sigma(n) < 2n \log n$, for $n > 2$, we get the bound.

Subsection 6

Average Orders

Average Order of τ

Proposition

For every real x ,

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \tau(n) = x \log x + O(x).$$

- We have

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \tau(n) = \sum_{n \leq x} \sum_{d|n} 1 = \sum_{d \leq x} \sum_{m \leq \frac{x}{d}} 1 = \sum_{d \leq x} \left\lfloor \frac{x}{d} \right\rfloor.$$

But $\sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d} = \log x + O(1)$, whence, $\sum_{n \leq x} \tau(n) = x \log x + O(x)$.

- The Proposition implies that

$$\frac{1}{x} \sum_{n \leq x} \tau(n) \sim \log x.$$

Average Order of σ

Proposition

For every real x ,

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \sigma(n) = \frac{1}{12} \pi^2 x^2 + O(x \log x).$$

- We have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \leq x} \sigma(n) &= \sum_{n \leq x} \sum_{d|n} \frac{n}{d} = \sum_{d \leq x} \sum_{m \leq \frac{x}{d}} m \\ &= \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{x}{d} \right] \left(\left[\frac{x}{d} \right] + 1 \right) = \frac{1}{2} x^2 \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d^2} + O\left(x \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d}\right). \end{aligned}$$

But $\sum_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d^2} = \sum_{d=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{d^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = \frac{\pi^2}{6} + O\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$, whence,
 $\sum_{n \leq x} \sigma(n) = \frac{1}{12} \pi^2 x^2 + O(x \log x)$.

- Since $\sum n \sim \frac{1}{2} x^2$, the “average order” of $\sigma(n)$ is $\frac{1}{6} \pi^2 n$.

Average Order of φ

Proposition

For every real x ,

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \varphi(n) = \frac{3}{\pi^2} x^2 + O(x \log x).$$

- We have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \leq x} \varphi(n) &= \sum_{n \leq x} \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \frac{n}{d} = \sum_{d \leq x} \mu(d) \sum_{m \leq \frac{x}{d}} m \\ &= \sum_{d \leq x} \mu(d) \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x}{d} \right)^2 + O\left(\frac{x}{d} \right) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} x^2 \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{\mu(d)}{d^2} + O\left(x \sum_{d \leq x} \frac{\mu(d)}{d} \right). \end{aligned}$$

But $\sum_{d \leq x} \frac{\mu(d)}{d^2} = \sum_{d=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(d)}{d^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = \frac{6}{\pi^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$, whence,
 $\sum_{n \leq x} \varphi(n) = \frac{3}{\pi^2} x^2 + O(x \log x)$.

- Since $\sum n \sim \frac{1}{2} x^2$, the “average order” of $\varphi(n)$ is $\frac{6n}{\pi^2}$.

Probability of Being Relatively Prime

Corollary

The probability that two integers are relatively prime is $\frac{6}{\pi^2}$.

- The experiment consists of drawing an unordered pair of two integers from $1, 2, \dots, n$ at random.

The size of the sample space is $n + \binom{n}{2} = n + \frac{n(n-1)}{2} = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$.

The samples consisting of relatively prime members are

$$\varphi(1) + \varphi(2) + \dots + \varphi(n) = \frac{3}{\pi^2} n^2 + O(n \log n).$$

Thus, at the limit, the probability of a positive outcome is

$$\frac{3n^2}{\pi^2} \cdot \frac{2}{n^2} = \frac{6}{\pi^2}.$$

Subsection 7

Perfect Numbers

Perfect Numbers

- A natural number n is said to be **perfect** if

$$\sigma(n) = 2n,$$

i.e., if n is equal to the sum of its divisors other than itself.

Example: 6 and 28 are perfect numbers.

$$6 = 1 + 2 + 3;$$

$$28 = 1 + 2 + 4 + 7 + 14.$$

- Whether there exist any odd perfect numbers is a notorious unresolved problem.

Even Perfect Numbers

Theorem

An even number is perfect if and only if it has the form $2^{p-1}(2^p - 1)$, where both p and $2^p - 1$ are primes.

- Suppose, first, that $n = 2^{p-1}(2^p - 1)$, where both p and $2^p - 1$ are primes.

Note that the list of divisors of n is

$$1, 2, 2^2, \dots, 2^{p-1}, 2^p - 1, 2(2^p - 1), \dots, 2^{p-1}(2^p - 1) = n.$$

Thus, the sum of those divisors $< n$ is:

$$\begin{aligned} & 1 + 2 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^{p-1} + (2^p - 1)(1 + 2 + \dots + 2^{p-2}) \\ &= \frac{2^p - 1}{2 - 1} + (2^p - 1) \frac{2^{p-1} - 1}{2 - 1} \\ &= (2^p - 1) + (2^p - 1)(2^{p-1} - 1) = 2^{p-1}(2^p - 1). \end{aligned}$$

Even Perfect Numbers (Converse)

- We now prove the necessity.

Suppose $\sigma(n) = 2n$ and $n = 2^k m$, with $k, m > 0$ and m odd.

Then we get

$$2^{k+1}m = 2n = \sigma(n) = \sigma(2^k m) = \sigma(2^k)\sigma(m) = 2^{k+1}\sigma(m).$$

So, for some $\ell > 0$, we have $\sigma(m) = 2^{k+1}\ell$ and $m = (2^{k+1} - 1)\ell$.

If $\ell > 1$, then m would have distinct divisors ℓ, m and 1 .

Thus, $\sigma(m) \geq \ell + m + 1$ and $\ell + m = 2^{k+1}\ell = \sigma(m)$, a contradiction.

Thus $\ell = 1$ and $\sigma(m) = 2^{k+1} = m + 1$. So m is a prime.

Hence, m is a Mersenne prime and, therefore, $k + 1$ is a prime p .

In conclusion, we get $n = 2^k m = 2^{p-1}(2^p - 1)$.

Subsection 8

The Riemann Zeta-Function

The Riemann Zeta Function

- The **Riemann zeta-function** is given by

$$\zeta(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s}, \quad s \text{ a complex variable.}$$

- For $s = \sigma + it$, with σ, t real, the series
 - converges absolutely for $\sigma > 1$;
 - converges uniformly for $\sigma > 1 + \delta$, for any $\delta > 0$.

Zeta-Function and Primes: The Euler Product

Theorem (Zeta Function and Euler Product)

$$\zeta(s) = \prod_p \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{p^s}}, \text{ for all } \sigma > 1.$$

- For any positive integer N ,

$$\prod_{p \leq N} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{p^s}} = \prod_{p \leq N} \left(1 + \frac{1}{p^s} + \frac{1}{p^{2s}} + \dots\right) = \sum_m \frac{1}{m^s},$$

where m runs through all the positive integers that are divisible only by primes $\leq N$.

Moreover,

$$\left| \sum_m \frac{1}{m^s} - \sum_{n \leq N} \frac{1}{n^s} \right| \leq \sum_{n > N} \frac{1}{n^\sigma} \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow \infty} 0.$$

Möbius Function and Zeta Function

Theorem

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

- We have

$$\begin{aligned} \zeta(s) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(n)}{n^s} &= \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m^s} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(n)}{n^s} = \sum_{m,n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m^s} \frac{\mu(n)}{n^s} \\ &= \sum_{m,n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(n)}{(mn)^s} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sum_{d|k} \frac{\mu(d)}{k^s} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^s} \sum_{d|k} \mu(d) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{v(k)}{k^s} = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Euler Function and Zeta Function

Theorem

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

- We have

$$\begin{aligned} \zeta(s) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\varphi(n)}{n^s} &= \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m^s} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\varphi(n)}{n^s} = \sum_{m,n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m^s} \frac{\varphi(n)}{n^s} \\ &= \sum_{m,n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\varphi(n)}{(mn)^s} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sum_{d|k} \frac{\varphi(d)}{k^s} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^s} \sum_{d|k} \varphi(d) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k}{k^s} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^{s-1}} = \zeta(s-1). \end{aligned}$$

τ and Zeta Function

Theorem

$$(\zeta(s))^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\tau(n)}{n^s}.$$

- We have

$$\begin{aligned} (\zeta(s))^2 &= \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m^s} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s} = \sum_{m,n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m^s} \frac{1}{n^s} \\ &= \sum_{m,n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(mn)^s} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sum_{d|k} \frac{1}{k^s} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^s} \sum_{d|k} 1 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\tau(k)}{k^s}. \end{aligned}$$

σ and Zeta Function

Theorem

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

- We have

$$\begin{aligned}\zeta(s)\zeta(s-1) &= \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m^s} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{s-1}} = \sum_{m,n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m^s} \frac{n}{n^s} \\ &= \sum_{m,n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{(mn)^s} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sum_{d|k} \frac{d}{k^s} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^s} \sum_{d|k} d = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sigma(k)}{k^s}.\end{aligned}$$