

Counting Different Kinds of Prime Numbers

Cooper O'Kuhn

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Preliminaries

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Prime Number: a natural number p with no factors besides trivially 1 and p itself.

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Prime Number: a natural number p with no factors besides trivially 1 and p itself.

Examples:

2 and 3 are prime. 4 is not prime because $4 = 2 \times 2$. 5 is prime. 6 is not prime because $6 = 2 \times 3$. etc.

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Theorem (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic)

Every natural number can be written as the product of primes numbers uniquely (up to permutation of the factors)

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Every natural number can be written as the product of primes numbers uniquely (up to permutation of the factors)

Examples:

$$30 = 2 \times 3 \times 5; 74 = 37 \times 2; 100 = 2 \times 2 \times 5 \times 5 \text{ or } 2^2 \times 5^2$$

Counting Primes Themselves

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Theorem (Infinitely Many Primes, Euclid)

There are infinitely many prime numbers.

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Theorem (Infinitely Many Primes, Euclid)

There are infinitely many prime numbers.

For a real number x , define

$$\pi(x) := \#\{\text{prime } p : p \leq x\}.$$

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For a real number x , define

$$\pi(x) := \#\{\text{prime } p : p \leq x\}.$$

E.g.

$$\pi(10) = \#\{2, 3, 5, 7\} = 4, \quad 40 \%$$

$$\pi(100) = \#\{2, 3, 5, 7, \dots, 83, 89, 97\} = 25, \quad 25 \%$$

$$\pi(1000) = \#\{2, 3, 5, 7, \dots, 983, 997\} = 168, \quad 16.8 \%$$

The Prime Number Theorem

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Theorem (Hadamard, de la Vallee Poussin, 1896)

$$\pi(x) \sim \frac{x}{\ln x}$$

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$$\pi(x) \sim \frac{x}{\ln x}$$

i.e.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi(x)}{\left(\frac{x}{\ln x}\right)} = 1.$$

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i.e.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi(x)}{\left(\frac{x}{\ln x}\right)} = 1.$$

More specifically,

$$\pi(x) \sim Li(x)$$

where

$$Li(x) = \int_2^x \frac{1}{\ln t} dt \sim \frac{x}{\ln x}.$$

Prime Number Theorem, Examples

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x	$\pi(x)$	$x/\ln(x)$	% Error
100	25	22	12%
1,000	168	144	14%
10,000	1229	1085	11%

x	$\pi(x)$	$Li(x)$	% Error
100	25	29	16%
1,000	168	176	4.8%
10,000	1229	1245	1.5%

Primes in Arithmetic Progressions

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How do primes behave in arithmetic progressions? e.g. Primes p of the form $p = 4k + 1$ i.e. $1 \pmod{4}$ like 5, 17, 37, etc.

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Modulus and remainder must be coprime i.e. not share any common factors. ex: $9k + 3$ versus $9k + 4$.

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Theorem (Dirichlet)

If a and q are coprime, then there are infinitely many primes which are $a \pmod{q}$.

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*Do primes favor certain arithmetic progressions over others?
For instance, are there more primes which have last digit 1
than there are primes with last digit 3?*

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Let $\phi(q)$ be the number of natural numbers coprime and less than or equal to q . Ex: $\phi(9) = \#\{1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8\} = 6$.

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Let $\pi(x; a, q) := \#\{p \equiv a \pmod{q} : p \leq x\}$

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Example: last digit of the primes less than x .

x	$\pi(x; 1, 10)$	$\pi(x; 3, 10)$	$\pi(x; 7, 10)$	$\pi(x; 9, 10)$	$\frac{\pi(x)}{4}$
100	5	7	6	5	6
1000	40	42	46	38	42
10000	306	310	308	303	307

Example of PNT in Arithmetic Progressions

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Theorem (PNT for Arithmetic Progressions)

For fixed q , we have, as x goes to infinity,

$$\pi(x; a, q) \sim \frac{\pi(x)}{\phi(q)}.$$

Uniformity in q

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Question

How large can we make q so that the PNT in arithmetic progression still holds? Can q grow with x ?

Motivations: sieve theory, pushing theorems to their limits, Generalized Riemann Hypothesis (GRH).

Uniformity in q

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Question

How large can we make q so that the PNT in arithmetic progression still holds? Can q grow with x ?

Motivations: sieve theory, pushing theorems to their limits, Generalized Riemann Hypothesis (GRH).

Theorem

If GRH holds, then for any small fixed $\varepsilon > 0$ and all $q < x^{\frac{1}{2}-\varepsilon}$, we have

$$\pi(x; a, q) \sim \frac{\pi(x)}{\phi(q)}$$

as x goes to infinity.

Siegel-Walfisz Theorem

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Theorem (Siegel-Walfisz)

Let $A > 0$ be a large real number. For any $q < (\ln x)^A$, we have

$$\pi(x; a, q) \sim \frac{\pi(x)}{\phi(q)}.$$

as x goes to infinity.

Strongest unconditional result which achieves uniformity in q .

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as x goes to infinity.

Strongest unconditional result which achieves uniformity in q .

However, note that for large x , $(\ln(x))^A \ll x^{\frac{1}{2}}$.

Bombieri-Vinogradov Theorem

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Do we need to look at individual q ? What about if we introduce some averaging in q ? Can we obtain better results? Would this kind of result even be useful?

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Question

Do we need to look at individual q ? What about if we introduce some averaging in q ? Can we obtain better results? Would this kind of result even be useful?

Let $Error(x; a, q) := \left| \pi(x; a, q) - \frac{\pi(x)}{\phi(q)} \right|$. (Recall:
 $\pi(x; a, q) \sim \frac{\pi(x)}{\phi(q)}$).

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Let

$$E(x; q) = \max_{\substack{1 \leq a < q \\ a, q \text{ coprime}}} E(x; a, q)$$

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Let

$$E(x; q) = \max_{\substack{1 \leq a < q \\ a, q \text{ coprime}}} E(x; a, q)$$

Let $Q \geq 3$ be somewhat large compared with x . Consider

$$\frac{1}{Q} \sum_{q=1}^Q Error(x, q).$$

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The gist: $\frac{1}{Q} \sum_{q=1}^Q Error(x, q)$ is “small” enough to be dealt with in nearly all cases if Q is “somewhat” less than the square root of x .

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More specifically,

Theorem (Bombieri-Vinogradov)

For a small, fixed $\varepsilon > 0$ and any fixed $A > 0$, if $Q < x^{\frac{1}{2}-\varepsilon}$, there exists a constant $c(A)$ such that

$$\sum_{q \leq Q} E(x, q) < c(A) \frac{x}{(\ln(x))^A}.$$

The constant $c(A)$ is ineffective.

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Question

We've looked at primes in degree 1 polynomials $qn + a$. What about higher degree polynomials like $n^2 + 1$ or multivariable polynomials like $a^2 + b^2$?

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Conjecture (Landau)

There are infinitely many primes p of the form $n^2 + 1$.

Examples: $5 = 2^2 + 1$, $17 = 4^2 + 1$, $101 = 10^2 + 1$

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Theorem (Fermat)

Every prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ can be written as the sum of two squares of integers i.e. $p = a^2 + b^2$. Furthermore, this representation is unique.

Examples: $101 = 1^2 + 10^2$ $113 = 7^2 + 8^2$

Question

If $p = a^2 + b^2$ and $a < b$, how small can a be? For example $101 = 1^2 + 10^2$, versus $113 = 7^2 + 8^2$.

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Let

$$\pi_\delta(x) = \#\{p \leq x : p = a^2 + b^2 : a \leq p^{\frac{1}{2}-\delta}\}$$

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If $p = a^2 + b^2$ and $a < b$, how small can a be? For example $101 = 1^2 + 10^2$, versus $113 = 7^2 + 8^2$.

Let

$$\pi_\delta(x) = \#\{p \leq x : p = a^2 + b^2 : a \leq p^{\frac{1}{2}-\delta}\}$$

Theorem (Kubilius)

There exists a $\delta_0 > 0$ such that for all $0 < \delta < \delta_0$, we have

$$\pi_\delta(x) \sim \frac{cx^{1-\delta}}{\ln x}$$

for some constant c .

The current world record for δ_0 is $\frac{12}{37}$.

What we did

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What we did: combined these theorems (and generalized). A taste:

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What we did: combined these theorems (and generalized). A taste: Let

$$\pi_{\delta}(x; r, q) = |\{p \leq x : p = a^2 + b^2 : a < p^{\frac{1}{2}-\delta} : p \equiv r \pmod{q}\}|$$

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Theorem (Khale, O, Panidapu, Sun, Zhang)

(Worded version) The prime counting function $\pi_{\delta}(x; r, q)$ obeys a Bombieri-Vinogradov type theorem as do variants generalized to polynomials in more variables which obey a particular set of algebraic conditions.

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Uses information about $\zeta(s) := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s} = \frac{1}{1^s} + \frac{1}{2^s} + \frac{1}{3^s} + \dots$
for $s > 1$

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Euler Proved:

$$\zeta(s) = \left(\prod_{p \text{ prime}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^s} \right) \right)^{-1}$$

Can view $\zeta(s)$ as a function of complex variable s extended to the entire complex plane (Riemann).

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Zeros of $\zeta(s) \implies$ Poles of $\frac{1}{\zeta(s)} \implies$ Important!

$$\xi(s) = \frac{1}{2} \pi^{-\frac{s}{2}} s(s-1) \Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) \zeta(s),$$

$$\xi(s) = \xi(1-s)$$

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Riemann Hypothesis

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Theorem (Analytic fact)

All zeroes of ζ are either at the negative even integers or in the strip $0 \leq \operatorname{Re}(s) \leq 1$

Theorem (Hadamard, de la Vallee Poussin, 1896)

$\zeta(s) \neq 0$ if $\operatorname{Re}(s) = 1$. Furthermore, PNT follows.

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$\zeta(s) \neq 0$ if $\operatorname{Re}(s) = 1$. Furthermore, PNT follows.

Conjecture (Riemann)

*For $0 < \operatorname{Re}(s) < 1$, $\zeta(s) = 0$ if and only if $\operatorname{Re}(s) = \frac{1}{2}$.
Furthermore,*

$$|\pi(x) - \operatorname{Li}(x)| \leq x^{\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon}.$$

Counting Other Types of Prime Numbers

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Example: primes in arithmetic progressions.

Let

$$\chi(n) := \begin{cases} +1 & n \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ -1 & n \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \\ 0 & n \equiv 0, 2 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

As a sequence, $\chi : 1, 0, -1, 0, 1, 0, -1, 0, 1, 0, -1, 0, \dots$

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Properties

- 1 $\chi(nm) = \chi(n)\chi(m)$
- 2 χ is periodic with period 4.
- 3 If n is odd,

$$\frac{1 + \chi(n)}{2} := \begin{cases} 1 & n \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ 0 & n \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

Fourier Expansion

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More generally, there exist functions $\chi_1, \dots, \chi_{\phi(q)}$ (called Dirichlet characters modulo q) with period q such that $|\chi_j| = 1$ and the function

$$f_{a,q}(n) := \begin{cases} 1 & n \equiv a \pmod{q} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

can be written as

$$f_{a,q}(n) = \frac{1}{\phi(q)} \sum_{j=1}^{\phi(q)} \overline{\chi_j(a)} \chi_j(n)$$

Fourier Expansion

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It suffices to study

$$L(s, \chi) := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\chi(n)}{n^s}$$

to count primes in arithmetic progressions.

L -functions

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These L -functions admit analytic continuation similarly to the ζ -function.

Theorem

No L -functions have any zeroes s with $\operatorname{Re}(s) = 1$. Furthermore, PNT for arithmetic progressions for fixed q follows.

L-functions

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Conjecture (GRH)

$L(s, \chi) = 0$ in the strip $0 \leq \operatorname{Re}(s) \leq 1$ if and only if $\operatorname{Re}(s) = \frac{1}{2}$.