

## Step #1

Do not laugh at notations; invent them, they are powerful. In fact, mathematics is, to a large extent, invention of better notations.

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Richard Feynman

### Hello to Big-Oh

If  $f$  and  $g$  are complex-valued functions, we say “ $f$  is big-Oh of  $g$ ”, and write  $f = O(g)$ , to mean that there is a constant  $C \geq 0$  such that  $|f| \leq C|g|$  for all indicated (or implied) values of the variables. We refer to  $C$  as the “implied constant”. For instance,

$$x = O(x^2) \quad \text{on } [1, \infty), \quad \text{with } C = 1 \text{ an acceptable implied constant,}$$

while

$$x \neq O(x^2) \quad \text{on } [0, 1].$$

As a more complicated example,

$$\log(1+x) = x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + O(x^3) \quad \text{on } [-9/10, 9/10],$$

meaning: there is a function  $E(x)$  with  $\log(1+x) = x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + E(x)$  on  $[-9/10, 9/10]$  with  $E(x) = O(x^3)$  on  $[-9/10, 9/10]$ . You can prove this using the Maclaurin series for  $\log(1+x)$ . (Really; try it!)

#### 1.1. Basic properties

(a) For any constant  $c$ , we have  $c \cdot O(g) = O(g)$ .

*Note.* Interpret this to mean: “If  $f = O(g)$ , then  $c \cdot f = O(g)$ .” Parts

(b)–(e) should be interpreted similarly.

(b)  $O(g) \cdot O(h) = O(gh)$ ,

(c)  $O(f) + O(g) = O(|f| + |g|)$ ,

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- (d) If  $f = O(g)$  then  $O(f) + O(g) = O(g)$ ,  
(e) If  $f = O(g)$  and  $g = O(h)$ , then  $f = O(h)$ .

**1.2.** Prove:  $\log(1+x) = x + O(x^2)$  for all  $x \geq 0$ . Is the same estimate true on  $(-0.99, \infty)$ ? on  $(-1, \infty)$ ?

**1.3.** We say that  $f(x) = O(g(x))$  “as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ ” or “for all large  $x$ ” if  $\exists x_0$  such that  $f(x) = O(g(x))$  on  $(x_0, \infty)$ . Prove: If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} g(x) = 0$ , then as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$\frac{1}{1 + O(g(x))} = 1 + O(g(x)), \quad e^{O(g(x))} = 1 + O(g(x)),$$

and  $\log(1 + O(g(x))) = O(g(x))$ .

*Note.* Interpret the first claimed equation to mean that if  $f(x) = O(g(x))$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , then  $1/(1+f(x)) = 1 + O(g(x))$ , as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ . Similarly for the others.

**1.4.** As  $x \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$\left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x = e - \frac{e}{2x} + O\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right).$$

**1.5.** If  $f$  and  $g$  are positive-valued, then  $(f+g)^2 \leq 2(f^2+g^2)$ . More generally, for any real  $\kappa > 0$ , we have  $(f+g)^\kappa = O_\kappa(f^\kappa + g^\kappa)$ . Here and elsewhere, a subscripted parameter indicates that you are allowed to choose your implied constant to depend on this parameter.

## Asymptotic Analysis

**1.6.** For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , define

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n} - \int_n^{n+1} \frac{dt}{t}.$$

Interpret  $a_n$  as an area and explain, from this geometric perspective, how to see that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges.

**1.7.** There is a real number  $\gamma$  (the “Euler–Mascheroni constant”) such that for all positive integers  $N$ ,

$$0 \geq \sum_{n \leq N} \frac{1}{n} - (\log(N+1) + \gamma) \geq -\frac{1}{N+1}.$$

**1.8.** For all real  $x \geq 1$ :  $\sum_{n \leq x} \frac{1}{n} = \log x + \gamma + O(1/x)$ .

**Ingenuity**

**1.9.** (NEWMAN) Let  $a_1 = 1$ , and let  $a_{n+1} = a_n + \frac{1}{a_n}$ , for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Then  $a_n = \sqrt{2n} + O(n^{-1/2} \log n)$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .



## Step #2

Mathematicians have tried in vain to this day to discover some order in the sequence of prime numbers, and we have reason to believe that it is a mystery into which the human mind will never penetrate.

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Leonhard Euler

### Asymptotic Analysis

If  $f$  is strictly decreasing on  $[n, n + 1]$ , then  $f(n) > \int_n^{n+1} f(t) dt > f(n + 1)$  (draw a picture!). If  $f$  is strictly increasing, then the inequalities reverse. Use these observations to establish the following estimates.

**2.10.** For  $s > 1$ : 
$$\frac{1}{s-1} < \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-s} < \frac{s}{s-1}.$$

**2.11.** For  $s > 1$  and  $x \geq 1$ : 
$$\sum_{n>x} n^{-s} < x^{-s} + \frac{1}{s-1} x^{1-s} \leq \frac{s}{s-1} x^{1-s}.$$

**2.12.** For  $x \geq 1$ :  $\log [x]! = x \log x - x + O(\log (ex))$ . Why do we write  $ex$  and not  $x$ ?

### Infinitely Many Primes

Prove each statement and deduce the infinitude of primes.

**2.13.** (STIELTJES) If  $p_1, \dots, p_k$  is any finite list of distinct primes, with product  $P$ , and  $ab$  is any factorization of  $P$  into positive integers, then  $a + b$  has a prime factor not among  $p_1, \dots, p_k$ .

**2.14. (GOLDBACH)** The “Fermat numbers”  $2^{2^n} + 1$ , for  $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ , are pairwise relatively prime.

**2.15. (PEROTT)** For some constant  $c > 0$ , and each  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , the count of squarefree integers in  $[1, N]$  is

$$> N - \sum_{m \geq 2} N/m^2 \geq cN.$$

Thus, there are infinitely many squarefree integers.

**2.16. (RAMANUJAN, PILLAI, ENNOLA, RUBINSTEIN)** Let  $\mathcal{P} = \{p_1, \dots, p_k\}$  be a set of  $k$  primes, where  $k < \infty$ . For each  $x \geq 1$ , the number of integers in  $[1, x]$  divisible by no primes outside of  $\mathcal{P}$  coincides with the number of nonnegative integer solutions  $e_1, \dots, e_k$  to the inequality

$$e_1 \log p_1 + \dots + e_k \log p_k \leq \log x. \quad (*)$$

The number of such solutions is

$$\frac{(\log x)^k}{k! \prod_{i=1}^k \log p_i} + O_{\mathcal{P}}((\log(x))^{k-1}).$$

*Hint.* Here is a way to start on the upper bound. To each nonnegative integer solution  $e_1, \dots, e_k$  of (\*), associate the  $1 \times 1 \times \dots \times 1$  (hyper)cube in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  having  $(e_1, \dots, e_k)$  as its “leftmost” corner. Show that all of these cubes sit inside the  $k$ -dimensional (hyper)tetrahedron defined by ‘ $x_1 \log p_1 + \dots + x_k \log p_k \leq \log(x p_1 \dots p_k)$ , all  $x_i \geq 0$ ’. What is the volume of that tetrahedron? How does this volume compare to the number of cubes? It might help to first assume that  $k = 2$  and draw some pictures.

## Combinatorial Methods

**2.17.** For all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , and all  $0 \leq r \leq n$ :

$$\binom{n}{0} - \binom{n}{1} + \dots + (-1)^r \binom{n}{r} = (-1)^r \binom{n-1}{r}.$$

**2.18.** For a finite set  $A$ , and subsets  $A_1, \dots, A_k$  of  $A$ , state and prove the “inclusion-exclusion formula” for  $|A \setminus (A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_k)|$ . Why is it called “inclusion-exclusion”?

**2.19. (LEGENDRE)**

$$\begin{aligned} & \pi(x) - \pi(\sqrt{x}) + 1 \\ &= [x] - \sum_{p_1 \leq \sqrt{x}} \left\lfloor \frac{x}{p_1} \right\rfloor + \sum_{p_1 < p_2 \leq \sqrt{x}} \left\lfloor \frac{x}{p_1 p_2} \right\rfloor - \sum_{p_1 < p_2 < p_3 \leq \sqrt{x}} \left\lfloor \frac{x}{p_1 p_2 p_3} \right\rfloor + \dots \end{aligned}$$

**Ingenuity**

**2.20.** (GOLDBACH) If  $f(T) \in \mathbb{Z}[T]$  and  $f(n)$  is prime for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , then  $f(T)$  is constant.

**2.21.** (REINER) If  $k$  is an integer larger than 1, then the sequence  $\{2^{2^n} + k\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  contains infinitely many composite terms.

*Note.* It is an open problem to prove this also when  $k = 1$ .





## Step #3

The worst thing you can do to a problem is solve it completely.

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Daniel Kleitman

### Asymptotic Analysis

The “Euler–Riemann zeta function”  $\zeta(s)$  is defined, for  $s > 1$ , by  $\zeta(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s}$ .

**3.22.** Justify the “Euler product representation” of the Euler–Riemann zeta function: For  $s > 1$ ,

$$\zeta(s) = \prod_{p \text{ prime}} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{p^s} + \frac{1}{p^{2s}} + \dots \right) = \prod_p \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{p^s}}.$$

**3.23.** For  $s > 1$ :  $\log \zeta(s) = \sum_p \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k p^{ks}} = \sum_p \frac{1}{p^s} + O(1)$ .

**3.24.** For  $1 < s < 2$ :  $\sum_p \frac{1}{p^s} = \log \frac{1}{s-1} + O(1)$ . It follows (why?) that  $\sum_p \frac{1}{p}$  diverges. (EULER)

**3.25.** Find a sequence  $\{c(n)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  with the property that

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

(for all  $s > 1$ ), and describe  $c(n)$  in terms of the prime factorization of  $n$ . (We will see later that there is a unique such sequence  $\{c(n)\}$ .)

## Combinatorial Methods

**3.26.** (JORDAN, BONFERRONI) If one halts the inclusion-exclusion formula after an inclusion, one always overshoots (in the sense of obtaining an estimate at least as large as correct). If one stops after an exclusion, one always undershoots.

**3.27.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a set of positive integers. If  $\sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \frac{1}{a}$  converges, then  $\mathcal{A}$  contains 0% of the positive integers, in the sense that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{\sum_{n \leq x, n \in \mathcal{A}} 1}{\sum_{n \leq x} 1} \right) = 0.$$

**3.28.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a set of positive integers for which  $\sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \frac{1}{a}$  diverges. List the elements of  $\mathcal{A}$ :  $a_1 < a_2 < a_3 < \dots$ . Then there are infinitely many  $m$  for which  $a_m < m(\log m)^{1.01}$ . It follows that there are arbitrarily large values of  $x$  for which

$$\sum_{n \leq x, n \in \mathcal{A}} 1 > x/(\log x)^{1.01}.$$

Can you think of other functions that can replace  $x/(\log x)^{1.01}$  here?

## Arithmetic Functions and the Anatomy of Integers

**3.29.** Suppose that  $f, g, h$  are arithmetic functions related by an identity  $f(n) = \sum_{d|n} g(d)h(n/d)$ , valid for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Explain why

$$\sum_{n \leq x} f(n) = \sum_{a \leq x} g(a) \sum_{b \leq x/a} h(b) = \sum_{b \leq x} h(b) \sum_{a \leq x/b} g(a).$$

**3.30.** For  $x \geq 1$ :  $\sum_{n \leq x} \tau(n) = x \log x + O(x)$ . (Thus, a number  $n \leq x$  has  $\approx \log x$  divisors “on average”.)

### 3.31. Large values of the divisor function

- (a) The numbers  $n = 2^k$  all satisfy  $\tau(n) > \log n$ .
- (b) For every real  $A$ , there are infinitely many  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  with  $\tau(n) > (\log n)^A$ .

**3.32.** For all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ :  $\tau(n) \leq 2n^{1/2}$ .

## Ingenuity

**3.33.** For every  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , there is a  $d \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  for which the following holds: There are at least  $N$  primes  $p$  for which  $p + d$  is also prime.

## Step #4

What did the analytic number theorist say when they were drowning? Log-log-log-log-log.

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Anonymous

### Variations on a Theme of Euler

#### 4.34.

(a) For all  $x > 0$ , and every  $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$ :

$$\sum_{p \leq x} \frac{1}{p} \leq \sum_{p \leq x} \frac{1}{p} \left(\frac{x}{p}\right)^\epsilon = x^\epsilon \sum_{p \leq x} \frac{1}{p^{1+\epsilon}} \leq x^\epsilon \log \frac{1}{\epsilon} + O(x^\epsilon).$$

(b) For all sufficiently large values of  $x$ :

$$\sum_{p \leq x} \frac{1}{p} \leq \log \log x + 2 \log \log \log x.$$

*Hint.* Use (a) with  $\epsilon = \frac{1}{\log x \cdot \log \log x}$ . (But how did we come up with this choice of  $\epsilon$ ?)

#### 4.35.

(a) For all  $x > 0$ , and every  $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$ :

$$\sum_{p \leq x} \frac{1}{p} \geq \sum_p \frac{1}{p^{1+\epsilon}} - \sum_{p > x} \frac{1}{p^{1+\epsilon}} \geq \log \frac{1}{\epsilon} - \sum_{n > x} \frac{1}{n^{1+\epsilon}} + O(1).$$

(b) For all sufficiently large values of  $x$ :

$$\sum_{p \leq x} \frac{1}{p} \geq \log \log x - 2 \log \log \log x.$$

From Problems 4.34 and 4.35, we conclude that as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ :  $\sum_{p \leq x} \frac{1}{p} = \log \log x + O(\log \log \log x)$ . Later we will prove sharper estimates for this sum.

## Arithmetic Functions and the Anatomy of Integers

**4.36.** Recall that Euler's  $\phi$ -function satisfies

$$\phi(n) = n \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) = n \sum_{d|n} \frac{\mu(d)}{d}.$$

Here  $\mu(n)$  is the Möbius function, which appeared as the solution sequence  $c(n)$  in Problem 3.25. Deduce from Problem 3.29 that for  $x \geq 1$ :

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \phi(n) = \frac{1}{2} x^2 \sum_{a \leq x} \frac{\mu(a)}{a^2} + O(x \log(ex)).$$

**4.37.** (DIRICHLET, MERTENS) For  $x \geq 1$ :

$$\sum_{n \leq x} \phi(n) = \frac{1}{2\zeta(2)} x^2 + O(x \log(ex)).$$

**4.38.** (DIRICHLET) A lattice point is chosen uniformly at random from the square  $(0, N] \times (0, N]$ , where  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . As  $N \rightarrow \infty$ , the probability its coordinates are relatively prime tends to  $\frac{1}{\zeta(2)}$ .

## Computing with Roots of Unity

**4.39.** Let  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . For  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ :

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{k \bmod m} e^{2\pi i k a / m} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \equiv 0 \pmod{m}, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Here the sum on  $k$  is taken over any set of integer representatives of  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ .

**4.40.** (Counting square roots mod  $m$ ) Let  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ :

$$\#\{a \bmod m : a^2 \equiv n \pmod{m}\} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k \bmod m} e^{2\pi i k n / m} \sum_{a \bmod m} e^{-2\pi i k a^2 / m}.$$

## Dirichlet Series

By now we have seen multiple expressions of the form  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a(n)}{n^s}$ , where the  $a(n)$  are complex numbers. These are known as “Dirichlet series”.

**4.41.** Suppose that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a(n)}{n^s}$  is a Dirichlet series that converges for some real number  $s = s_0$ . Then for some real number  $C$ , we have  $|a(n)| \leq Cn^{s_0}$  for all  $n$ . Hence,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a(n)}{n^s}$  converges absolutely for every  $s > s_0 + 1$ . Furthermore, for every  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ :

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} m^s \sum_{n=m}^{\infty} \frac{a(n)}{n^s} = a(m).$$

## Mathematical Masterpieces: The Identity as Art Form

**4.42.** (GOLDBACH) Find the sum of the infinite series

$$\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{15} + \frac{1}{24} + \frac{1}{26} + \frac{1}{31} + \frac{1}{35} + \frac{1}{48} + \frac{1}{63} + \dots$$

whose denominators, increased by 1, are the distinct numbers of the form  $n^m$  with  $n, m \geq 2$  (the perfect powers).



## Step #5

I have had my results for a long time: but I do not yet know how I am to arrive at them.

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Carl Friedrich Gauss

### Distribution of Squares mod $p$

Let  $p$  be an odd prime.

**5.43.** (GAUSS) The “Gauss sum” associated to  $p$  is

$$G = \sum_{a \bmod p} e^{2\pi i a^2/p}.$$

Show that for  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $p \nmid k$ : 
$$\sum_{a \bmod p} e^{2\pi i k a^2/p} = \left(\frac{k}{p}\right)G.$$

Here  $\left(\frac{k}{p}\right)$  is the Legendre symbol: 0 when  $p \mid k$ , and otherwise 1 or  $-1$ , according to whether or not  $k$  is a square mod  $p$ .

**5.44.** For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ :

$$\#\{a \bmod p : a^2 \equiv n \pmod{p}\} = 1 + \frac{G}{p} \sum_{k \bmod p} e^{2\pi i k n/p} \left(\frac{-k}{p}\right).$$

Deduce: 
$$\left(\frac{n}{p}\right) = \frac{G}{p} \sum_{k \bmod p} e^{2\pi i k n/p} \left(\frac{-k}{p}\right).$$

**5.45.** Prove:  $G \cdot \overline{G} = p$ . (Here the bar denotes complex conjugation.) Deduce that  $G$  is a square root of  $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)p$ .

[Thus,  $G = \pm\sqrt{p}$  when  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  and  $G = \pm i\sqrt{p}$  when  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ . Gauss worked for years to determine which sign to take, eventually proving that the  $+$  sign is always correct.]

*Hint.* Start from the expression for  $\left(\frac{n}{p}\right)$  proved in Problem 5.44. Take the modulus squared of both sides and sum on  $n \bmod p$ .

### Variations on a Theme of Euler

Below, we write  $\omega(n)$  for the number of distinct prime factors of  $n$  and we use  $\Omega(n)$  for the number of prime factors of  $n$ , counted with multiplicity. For example,  $\omega(45) = 2$ , while  $\Omega(45) = 3$ . Equivalently,

$$\omega(n) = \sum_{p|n} 1, \quad \Omega(n) = \sum_{p^k|n} 1.$$

**5.46.** For every nonnegative integer  $k$ , and real  $x \geq 1$ :

$$\sum_{\substack{n \leq x \\ n \text{ squarefree} \\ \omega(n)=k}} \frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{k!} \left( \sum_{p \leq x} \frac{1}{p} \right)^k.$$

**5.47.** For  $x > 1$ :

$$\exp \left( \sum_{p \leq x} \frac{1}{p} \right) \geq \sum_{\substack{n \leq x \\ n \text{ squarefree}}} \frac{1}{n}.$$

Also:

$$\zeta(2) \sum_{\substack{n \leq x \\ n \text{ squarefree}}} \frac{1}{n} \geq \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{1}{n} > \log x.$$

Deduce:

$$\sum_{p \leq x} \frac{1}{p} > \log \log x - 1.$$

This improves the lower bound of Problem 4.35.

### Arithmetic Functions and the Anatomy of Integers

**5.48.** (DIRICHLET) For  $x \geq 1$ :  $\sum_{n \leq x} \sigma(n) = \frac{1}{2} \zeta(2) x^2 + O(x \log(ex))$ .

**5.49.** For all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ :  $2^{\omega(n)} \leq \tau(n) \leq 2^{\Omega(n)}$ .



## Dirichlet Series

**5.50.** (KALMÁR) A “multiplicative composition” of  $n$  is a representation of  $n$  as a product of integers  $> 1$ , where order matters. We let  $g(n)$  denote the number of multiplicative compositions of  $n$ . For instance,  $g(1) = 1$  (the empty composition has all parts  $> 1$ ), while  $g(6) = 3$  (for  $2 \cdot 3, 3 \cdot 2, 6$ ).

$n$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
$g(n)$	1	1	1	2	1	3	1	4	2	3	1	8	1	3	3	8	1	8	1	8

Let  $\rho = 1.72864\dots$  be the solution in  $(1, \infty)$  to  $\zeta(\rho) = 2$ .

Prove: For all  $s > \rho$ ,

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

**5.51.** If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a(n)}{n^s}$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{b(n)}{n^s}$  converge and are equal for all large real numbers  $s$ , then each  $a(n) = b(n)$ . (This implies the uniqueness of the sequence  $\{c(n)\}$  in Problem 3.25.)

## Mathematical Masterpieces: The Identity as Art Form

**5.52.** For every nonnegative integer  $n$ ,

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{2n} x \, dx = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdots (2n-1)}{2 \cdot 4 \cdots (2n)}, \quad \text{while}$$

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{2n+1} x \, dx = \frac{2 \cdot 4 \cdots (2n)}{3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n+1)}.$$

Here, as usual, empty products are to be understood to equal 1.

**5.53.** (WALLIS) Show that as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$\frac{\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{2n} x \, dx}{\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{2n+1} x \, dx} \rightarrow 1.$$

Conclude that  $\frac{\pi}{2} = \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{2k}{2k-1} \cdot \frac{2k}{2k+1} \right)$ .