A Generalization of Riemann Sums

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Abstract

We generalize the property that Riemann sums of a continuous function corresponding to equidistant subdivisions of an interval converge to the integral of that function. We then give some applications of this generalization.

Problem U131 in [1] reads:

Prove that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{\arctan \frac{k}{n}}{n+k} \cdot \frac{\varphi(k)}{k} = \frac{3\log 2}{4\pi},\tag{1}$$

where φ denotes Euler's totient function. In this note we prove the following theorem, that will, in particular, answer this question.

Theorem 1. Let α be a positive real number and let $(a_n)_{n\geq 1}$ be a sequence of positive real numbers such that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^{\alpha}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k = L.$$

For every continuous function f on the interval [0,1],

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^{\alpha}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) a_k = L \int_0^1 \alpha x^{\alpha - 1} f(x) dx.$$

Proof. We use the following two facts:

fact 1 for $\beta > 0$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^{\beta+1}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k^{\beta} = \frac{1}{\beta+1}$$

fact 2 if $(\lambda_n)_{n\geq 1}$ is a real sequence that converges to 0, and $\beta>0$ then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^{\beta+1}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k^{\beta} \lambda_k = 0.$$

Indeed, fact 1 is just the statement that the Riemann sums of the function $x \mapsto x^{\beta}$ corresponding to an equidistant subdivision of the interval [0, 1] converges to $\int_0^1 x^{\beta} dx$.

The proof of fact 2 is a "Cesáro" argument. Since $(\lambda_n)_{n\geq 1}$ converges to 0 it must be bounded, and if we define $\Lambda_n = \sup_{k\geq n} |\lambda_k|$, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} \Lambda_n = 0$. But, for 1 < m < n, we have

$$\left| \frac{1}{n^{\beta+1}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k^{\beta} \lambda_k \right| \leq \frac{1}{n^{\beta+1}} \sum_{k=1}^{m} k^{\beta} \left| \lambda_k \right| + \frac{1}{n^{\beta+1}} \sum_{k=m+1}^{n} k^{\beta} \left| \lambda_k \right|$$
$$\leq \frac{m^{\beta+1}}{n^{\beta+1}} \Lambda_1 + \Lambda_m.$$

Let ϵ be an arbitrary positive number. There is an $m_{\epsilon} > 0$ such that $\Lambda_{m_{\epsilon}} < \epsilon/2$. Then we can find $n_{\epsilon} > m_{\epsilon}$ such that for every $n > n_{\epsilon}$ we have $m_{\epsilon}^{\beta+1} \Lambda_1/n^{\beta+1} < \epsilon/2$. Thus

$$n > n_{\epsilon} \implies \left| \frac{1}{n^{\beta+1}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k^{\beta} \lambda_k \right| < \epsilon.$$

This ends the proof of fact 2.

Now, we come to the proof of our Theorem. We start by proving the following property by induction on p:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^{\alpha + p}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k^p a_k = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + p} L. \tag{2}$$

The base property (p = 0) is just the hypothesis. Let us assume that this is true for a given p and let

$$\lambda_n = \frac{1}{n^{\alpha+p}} \sum_{k=1}^n k^p a_k - \frac{\alpha L}{\alpha + p},$$

(with the convention $\lambda_0 = 0$,) so that $\lim_{n \to \infty} \lambda_n = 0$. Clearly,

$$k^{p}a_{k} = k^{\alpha+p}\lambda_{k} - (k-1)^{\alpha+p}\lambda_{k-1} + \frac{\alpha L}{\alpha+p} \left(k^{\alpha+p} - (k-1)^{\alpha+p}\right),$$

hence

$$\begin{split} k^{p+1}a_k &= k^{\alpha+p+1}\lambda_k - k(k-1)^{\alpha+p}\lambda_{k-1} + \frac{\alpha L}{\alpha+p} \left(k^{\alpha+p+1} - k(k-1)^{\alpha+p} \right), \\ &= k^{\alpha+p+1}\lambda_k - (k-1)^{\alpha+p+1}\lambda_{k-1} + \frac{\alpha L}{\alpha+p} \left(k^{\alpha+p+1} - (k-1)^{\alpha+p+1} \right) \\ &- (k-1)^{\alpha+p}\lambda_{k-1} - \frac{\alpha L}{\alpha+p} (k-1)^{\alpha+p} \end{split}$$

It follows that

$$\frac{1}{n^{\alpha+p+1}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k^{p+1} a_k = \lambda_n - \frac{1}{n^{\alpha+p+1}} \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} k^{\alpha+p} \lambda_k + \frac{\alpha L}{\alpha+p} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n^{\alpha+p+1}} \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} k^{\alpha+p} \right).$$

Using fact 1 and fact 2 we conclude that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^{\alpha+p+1}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k^{p+1} a_k = \frac{\alpha L}{\alpha+p} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\alpha+p+1} \right) = \frac{\alpha L}{\alpha+p+1}.$$

This ends the proof of (2).

For a continuous function f on the interval [0,1] we define

$$I_n(f) = \frac{1}{n^{\alpha}} \sum_{k=1}^n f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) a_k$$
, and $J(f) = L \int_0^1 \alpha x^{\alpha - 1} f(x) dx$.

Now, if X^p denotes the function $t \mapsto t^p$, then (2) is equivalent to the fact that $\lim_{n\to\infty} I_n(X^p) = J(X^p)$, for every nonnegative integer p. Using linearity, we conclude that $\lim_{n\to\infty} I_n(P) = J(P)$ for every polynomial function P.

On the other hand, if $M = \sup_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{n^{\alpha}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k$, then $L \leq M$ and we observe that for every continuous functions f and g on [0,1] and all positive integers n,

$$|I_n(f) - I_n(g)| \le M \sup_{[0,1]} |f - g|$$
 and $|J(f) - J(g)| \le M \sup_{[0,1]} |f - g|$.

Consider a continuous function f on [0,1]. Let ϵ be an arbitrary positive number. Using Weierstrass Theorem there is a polynomial P_{ϵ} such that $||f - P_{\epsilon}||_{\infty} = \sup_{x \in [0,1]} |f(x) - P_{\epsilon}(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3M}$. Moreover, since $\lim_{n \to \infty} I_n(P_{\epsilon}) = J(P_{\epsilon})$, there exists an n_{ϵ} such that $|I_n(P_{\epsilon}) - J(P_{\epsilon})| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$ for every $n > n_{\epsilon}$. Therefore, for $n > n_{\epsilon}$, we have

$$|I_n(f) - J(f)| \le |I_n(f) - I_n(P_{\epsilon})| + |I_n(P_{\epsilon}) - J(P_{\epsilon})| + |J(P_{\epsilon}) - J(f)| < \epsilon.$$

This ends the proof of Theorem 1.

Applications.

• It is known that Euler's totient function φ has very erratic behaviour, but on the mean we have the following beautiful result, see [2, 18.5],

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \varphi(k) = \frac{3}{\pi^2}.$$
 (3)

Using Theorem 1 we conclude that, for every continuous function f on [0,1],

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{k=1}^n f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) \varphi(k) = \frac{6}{\pi^2} \int_0^1 x f(x) \, dx. \tag{4}$$

Choosing $f(x) = \frac{\arctan x}{x(1+x)}$ we conclude that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{\arctan(k/n)}{k(n+k)} \varphi(k) = \frac{6}{\pi^2} \int_0^1 \frac{\arctan x}{1+x} \, dx. \tag{5}$$

Thus we only need to evaluate the integral $I = \int_0^1 \frac{\arctan x}{1+x} dx$. The "easy" way to do this is to make the change of variables $x \leftarrow \frac{1-t}{1+t}$ to obtain

$$I = \int_0^1 \arctan\left(\frac{1-t}{1+t}\right) \frac{dt}{1+t} = \int_0^1 \left(\frac{\pi}{4} - \arctan t\right) \frac{dt}{1+t}$$
$$= \frac{\pi}{4} \int_0^1 \frac{dt}{1+t} - I$$

Hence, $I = \frac{\pi}{8} \log 2$. Replacing back in (5) we obtain (1).

• Similarly, if $\sigma(n)$ denotes the sum of divisors of n, then (see [2, 18.3]),

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \sigma(k) = \frac{\pi^2}{12}.$$

Using Theorem 1 we conclude that, for every continuous function f on [0,1],

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{k=1}^n f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) \sigma(k) = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \int_0^1 x f(x) dx.$$

Choosing for instance $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+ax^2}$ we conclude that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{\sigma(k)}{n^2 + ak^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{12a} \log(1+a).$$

• Starting from

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{\varphi(k)}{k} = \frac{6}{\pi^2},$$

which can be proved in the same way as (3), we conclude that, for every $\alpha \geq 0$,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^{\alpha + 1}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k^{\alpha - 1} \varphi(k) = \frac{6}{\pi^2 (1 + \alpha)}$$
 (6)

Also,

$$\begin{split} \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{n^{\alpha+1}} \sum_{k=1}^n k^{\alpha-1} \log(k/n) \varphi(k) &= \frac{6}{\pi^2} \int_0^1 x^\alpha \log(x) \, dx \\ &= -\frac{6}{\pi^2 (\alpha+1)^2}. \end{split}$$

Hence, using (6), for $\alpha \geq 0$ we obtain:

$$\frac{1}{n^{\alpha+1}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k^{\alpha-1} \log k \, \varphi(k) = \frac{6((1+\alpha)\log n - 1)}{\pi^2 (1+\alpha)^2} + o(1).$$

References

- [1] C. Lupu, Problem U131, Mathematical Reflections. (4) (2009).
- [2] G. H. Hardy AND E. M. Wright, An Introduction to the Theory of Numbers (5th ed.), Oxford University Press. (1980).

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