Abel Summation and Character mod q

T.Padma Ragaleena October 29, 2017

1 Partial Summation formula

Partial summation technique also called as Abel Summation was first introduced by Niels Henrik Abel.

Theorem 1. Let $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence of complex numbers and f(t) a differentiable function for $t \geq 0$. Set $A(x) = \sum a_n$ for n. Then

$$\Sigma(a_n \times f(n)) = A(x)f(x) - \int_1^x A(t)f'(t)$$

Proof: We can write a_n as $a_n = A(n) - A(n-1)$ and let $k \le x < k+1$ where k is a natural number.

$$\Sigma_{n \le x}(a_n f(n)) = \Sigma_{n \le k}(a_n f(n))$$

$$\Sigma_{n \le k}(A(n) - A(n-1))f(n) = \Sigma_{n \le k}(A(n)f(n)) - \Sigma_{n \le k}(A(n-1)f(n))$$

$$= \Sigma_{n \le k}(A(n)f(n)) - \Sigma_{n \le k}(A(n-1)f(n))$$

$$= \Sigma_{n \le k}(A(n)f(n)) - \Sigma_{n \le k-1}(A(n)f(n+1))$$

$$= A(k)f(k) + \Sigma_{n \le k-1}A(n)(f(n) - f(n+1))$$

but f(n) - f(n+1) can be written as $-\int_n^{n+1} f'(t)dt$ So, $\sum_{n \le k-1} A(n)(f(n) - f(n+1)) = -\sum_{1 \le k-1} A(n) \int_n^{n+1} f'(t)dt$ But A(t) = A(n) when $n \le t \le n+1$. Hence

$$\sum_{1 \le k-1} A(n) \int_{n}^{n+1} f'(t)dt = \int_{1}^{k} A(t)f'(t)dt$$

$$\int_{1}^{k} A(t)f'(t)dt = \int_{1}^{x} A(t)f'(t)dt - \int_{k}^{x} A(t)f'(t)dt \int_{k}^{x} A(t)f'(t)dt = A(k) \int_{k}^{x} f'(t)dt$$

$$= A(k)f(x) - A(k)f(k) = A(x)f(x) - A(k)f(k)$$
Hence we get

$$\Sigma(a_n \times f(n)) = A(x)f(x) - \int_1^x A(t)f'(t)$$

//

1.1 Big O notation

Big O notation (with a capital letter O, not a zero) is also called Landau's symbol. It describes the asymptotic behaviour of functions. It tells how fast a function is growing or declining. O is used because rate of growth of function is also called its order.

If f(x) and g(x) are defined on some subset of real numbers we write f(x)=O(g(x)) if and only if $\exists N$ and c such that

$$|f(x)| \le c|g(x)| \forall x > N$$

If "a" is some real number, then

$$f(x) = O(g(x)) for x \to a$$

if and only if $\exists d > 0$ and c such that $|f(x)| \le c|g(x)| \forall x$ with $|x - a| < d$

1.1.1 Examples on Abel Summation

Example 1 Show that $H_x = \sum_{n \leq x} (1/n) = \gamma + \log x + O(1/x)$ Proof: Here we take $a_n = 1$ and f(x) = 1/x and $A(x) = \sum_{n \leq x} 1 = \lceil x \rceil$ We now use the partial summation formula that we derived in section 1

$$\begin{split} & \sum_{n \leq x} (1.(1/n)) = \lceil x \rceil.(1/x) - \int_1^x [t] (-1/t^2) dt \\ & \sum_{n \leq x} (1.\frac{1}{n}) = \frac{\lceil x \rceil}{x} + \int_1^x \frac{\lceil t \rceil}{t^2} dt \text{ and } \lceil x \rceil = x - \{x\} \\ & \sum_{n \leq x} (1.\frac{1}{n}) = \frac{x - \{x\}}{x} + \int_1^x \frac{t - \{t\}}{t^2} dt \\ & \sum_{n \leq x} (1.\frac{1}{n}) = 1 - \frac{\{x\}}{x} + \log x - \int_1^x \frac{\{t\}}{t^2} dt \\ & \int_1^x \frac{\{t\}}{t^2} dt \text{ is convergent as } x \to \infty \\ & \text{Thus we can write, } \int_1^x \frac{\{t\}}{t^2} = \int_1^\infty \frac{\{t\}}{t^2} - \int_x^\infty \frac{\{t\}}{t^2} \\ & \text{for large x } \int_x^\infty \frac{\{t\}}{t^2} = O(\frac{1}{x}) \text{ and } \int_1^\infty \frac{\{t\}}{t^2} = O(\frac{1}{x}) \text{ is a constant(c) as the integral is convergent.} \\ & \text{So, } H_x = 1 - \frac{\lceil x \rceil}{x} + \log x - (c - O(\frac{1}{x})) \\ & H_x = (1 - c) - \frac{\lceil x \rceil}{x} + \log x + O(\frac{1}{x}) \\ & \text{but } \frac{\lceil x \rceil}{x} = O(\frac{1}{x}) \text{ and take } 1 - c = \gamma \\ & H_x = \gamma + \log x + O(\frac{1}{x}) \text{ where } \gamma \text{ is the Euler's constant.} \end{split}$$

Example 2 Show that $\Sigma_{n \leq x} \log n = x \log x - x + O(\log x)$ Proof: Here we take a_n as 1 and $f(t) = \log t$. Applying Abel's lemma, we get $\Sigma_{n \leq x} \log n = \lceil x \rceil \log x - \int_1^x \frac{\lceil t \rceil}{t} dt$ take $\lceil x \rceil = x + O(1)$ $\Sigma_{n \leq x} \log n = (x + O(1)) \log x - \int_1^x \frac{(t + O(1))dt}{t}$ $\Sigma_{n \leq x} \log n = x \log x + O(\log x) - (x - 1) + O(\log x)$ $\Sigma_{n \leq x} \log n = x \log x - x + O(\log x) + 1$

+1 can be ignored as
$$\log x > 1$$

 $\sum_{n \le x} \log n = x \log x - x + O(\log x)$

Example 3 Show that $\Sigma n \leq x \frac{1}{n} = \log x + O(1)$. In fact show that $\lim_{x \to \infty} (\Sigma_{n \leq x}(\frac{1}{n}) - \log x)$ Proof: $\Sigma n \leq x \frac{1}{n} = \lceil x \rceil \frac{1}{x} - \int_{1}^{x} \lceil t \rceil (-\frac{1}{t^{2}}) dt$ take $\lceil x \rceil = x + O(1)$ $\Sigma n \leq x \frac{1}{n} = \frac{x + O(1)}{x} + \int_{1}^{x} \frac{t + O(1)}{t^{2}} dt = 1 + O(\frac{1}{x}) + \log x + \int_{1}^{x} \frac{O(1) dt}{t^{2}}$ $\int_{1}^{x} \frac{O(1) dt}{t^{2}} \text{ is a convergent integral. It can be written as } O(1)$ So, $\Sigma n \leq x \frac{1}{n} = \log x + O(1)$ For the second part $\Sigma_{n \leq x}(\frac{1}{n} - \log x \text{ can be written as } \Sigma_{n \leq x} \frac{1}{n} - \int_{1}^{x} \frac{dt}{t}$ $\Sigma_{n \leq x}(\frac{1}{n} - \int_{n}^{n+1} \frac{dt}{t}) = \Sigma_{n \leq x}(\frac{1}{n} - (\log t)_{n}^{n+1}) = \Sigma_{n \leq x}(\frac{1}{n} - \log \frac{n+1}{n})$ We know that $\log (1 + \frac{1}{n}) = \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{n^{2}} + \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{n^{3}} - \dots$ Using the above expansion we get $\Sigma_{n \leq x}(\frac{1}{n} - \log \frac{n+1}{n}) = \Sigma_{n \leq x}(\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{n^{2}} - \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{n^{3}} + \dots)$ The latter term has a limit as $n \to \infty$

The latter term has a limit as $n \to \infty$

Hence the given summation has a limit as $n \to \infty$

Example 4 Show that $\sum_{n \leq x} d(n) = x \log x + O(x)$. d(x) here represents the number of divisors of $n \leq x$.

Proof: $d(n) = \sum_{d|n} 1$ then $\sum_{n \leq x} d(n) = \sum_{d \leq x} (\sum_{n \leq x} 1)$ when d|n

if d|n then n=dt for some t. Then $t\leq \frac{x}{d}$. Hence the double summation can be replaced by $\Sigma_{d \leq x} \lceil \frac{x}{d} \rceil = \Sigma_{d \leq x} (\frac{x}{d} + O(1))^n$ as $\lceil \frac{x}{d} \rceil = \frac{x}{d} + O(1)$ $\Sigma_{d \leq x} (\frac{x}{d} + O(1)) = x \Sigma_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d} + \Sigma_{d \leq x} O(1)$ We have seen earlier that $\Sigma_{d \leq x} \frac{1}{d} = \log x + O(1)$

Using this we can write $\sum_{d \le x} (\frac{x}{d} + O(1)) = x(\log x + O(1)) + xO(1)$

 $\Sigma_{d \le x}(\frac{x}{d} + O(1)) = x \log x + O(x) + O(x) = x \log x + O(x)$

Example 5 Suppose $A(x) = O(x^{\delta})$. Show that for $s > \delta$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{n^s} = s \int_1^{\infty} \frac{A(t)dt}{t^{s+1}}$. Hence the Dirichlet series converges for $s > \delta$

Proof: Apply Abel summation by taking $f(x) = x^{-s}$

Hence
$$\sum_{n \leq x} a_n f(n) = A(x) f(x) - \int_1^x A(x) f'(t) dt$$

 $\sum_{n \leq x} a_n f(n) = O(x^{\delta})(x^{-s}) - \int_1^x O(x^{\delta})(-s^{-(s+1)}) t dt$

 $\Sigma_{n \leq x} a_n f(n) = \frac{O(x^{\delta})}{x^s} + s \int_1^x \frac{O(x^{\delta}) dt}{t^{s+1}}$ The former term in the above line tends to 0 as $x \to \infty$ only when $s > \delta$. The latter term has a bounded numerator and the denominator tends to infinity as $x \to \infty$

Hence when $x \to \infty$, $\sum_{n \le x} a_n f(n) = s \int_1^x \frac{O(x^o)dt}{t^{s+1}}$

The right hand side is a convergent integral only when $s > \delta$

Example 6 Show that for s > 1; $\zeta(s) = \frac{s}{s-1} - s \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{\{x\}dx}{x^{s+1}}$ Show that $\lim_{s \to 1^{+}} (s-1)\zeta(s) = 1$ $\operatorname{Proof:}\zeta(s) = \frac{s}{s-1} - s \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{\{x\}dx}{x^{s+1}}$ $\lim_{s \to 1^{+}} \left(\frac{s}{s-1} - s \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{\{x\}dx}{x^{s+1}}\right)$

Proof:
$$\zeta(s) = \frac{s}{s-1} - s \int_1^\infty \frac{\{x\}dx}{x^{s+1}}$$

$$\lim_{s\to 1^+} \left(\frac{s}{s-1} - s \int_1^\infty \frac{\{x\}dx}{x^{s+1}} \right)$$

$$\lim_{s \to 1^+} (s-1) \left(\frac{s}{s-1} - s \int_1^\infty \frac{\{x\} dx}{x^{s+1}} \right)$$

 $\lim_{s\to 1^+} (s-1)\zeta(s) = s - s(s-1) \int_1^\infty \left(\frac{1}{r^s} - \frac{[x]}{r^{s+1}}\right) dx$

The integral in above line is always convergent and the term s-1 tends to 0. Hence the limit value is 1. The integral converges for s>0

1.2 Bernoulli's numbers

These numbers were discovered by Jacob Bernoulli. These numbers hold a deep relation with Riemann zeta function (this function is related to prime numbers) If $S_n(n)$

refers to n_{th} powers of natural numbers then S_n is written as $\sum_{k \leq p} \frac{B_k}{k!} \frac{p!}{(p+1-k)!} n^{p+1-k}$ where each B_n is called a Bernoulli's number and they are independent of p.

Modern Definition: Series expansion of $\frac{z}{e^z-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} B_k \frac{z^k}{k!}$ has the cofficients of its terms as Bernoulli numbers.

Bernoulli Polynomials: Consider the sequence of polynomials $b_r(x)$ defined recursively as

$$b_0(x) = 1$$

$$b'_r = rb_{r-1}(x)r \ge 1$$
$$\int_0^1 b_r(x)dx = 0$$

$$\int_0^1 b_r(x)dx = 0$$

For example B_3 is given by $x^3 - \frac{3x^2}{2} + \frac{1x}{2}$

We get the Bernoulli number when we substitute 0 in place of x

Question: Prove that $F(x,t) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} b_r(x) \frac{t^r}{r!} = \frac{te^{xt}}{e^t-1}$

$$\frac{dF(x,t)}{dx} = \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} b_r'(x) \frac{t^r}{r!}$$

$$\sum_{r=1}^{dx} b_r'(x) \frac{t^r}{r!} = \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} b_{r-1}(x) \frac{t^{r-1}}{(r-1)!t}$$

Hence
$$\frac{dF(x,t)}{dx} = t \times F(x,t)$$

Hence
$$\frac{dF(x,t)}{dx} = t \times F(x,t)$$

So $t = \frac{F'(x,t)}{F(x,t)}$ which means $tdx = d(\log(F(x,t)))$

So
$$t = \frac{t}{F(x,t)}$$
 which means $tax = a(\log(F(x,t)))$
hence $F(x,t) = e^{tx+c(t)}$ Given that $\int_0^1 F(x,t)dx = 1$
so, $\int_0^1 e^{tx+c(t)}dt = e^{c(t)}\frac{(e^t-1)}{t} = 1$
so $e^{c(t)} = \frac{t}{e^t-1}$

so,
$$\int_0^1 e^{tx+c(t)} dt = e^{c(t)} \frac{(e^t-1)}{t} = 1$$

so
$$e^{c(t)} = \frac{t}{e^t - 1}$$

Therefore
$$F(x,t) = e^{c(t)} \cdot e^{tx} = \frac{e^{tx} \cdot t}{(e^t - 1)}$$

Question: Show that
$$B_{2r+1} = 0$$
 for $r \ge 1$ Proof: $\frac{t}{2} + \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} b_r(0) \frac{t^r}{r!}$

$$= \frac{t}{2} + \frac{t}{e^t - 1} = \frac{t(e^t + 1)}{2(e^t - 1)}$$

The right hand side is an even function. So $b_r(0) = 0$ when r is odd. So $B_r(0) = 0$ when r = 1n + 1 form or odd.

1.3 Characters mod Q

 $(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z})$: This denotes the set containing all possible remainders when a number is divided by q.

 $(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z})^*$: This is a multiplicative group that is every element x in the set has an element y such that $xy \equiv 1 \mod q$

So xy - qt = 1 for some t. This can have integer solutions for y and t only if gcd(x,q) = 1 Hence this set contains all elements co-prime to q. Hence the order of this group (number of elements in group) is $\varphi(q)$ that is the Euler-phi function.

Characters: They are a homomorphism from a multiplicative group $(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z})^*$ to the multiplicative group of complex numbers \mathbb{C}^*

We know that the Euler theorem states that $a^{\varphi(q)} \equiv 1 \mod q$

Hence $\chi^{\varphi(q)(a)} = 1 \forall ain(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z})^*$. Thus $\chi(a)$ is the $\varphi(a)^{th}$ root of 1.

We extend χ to all numbers by defining it as follows:

 $\chi(n) = \chi(n \mod q)$ if $\gcd(n,q) = 1$ otherwise it is given the value 0 which does not

belong to the set \mathbb{C}^*

From the above definition of χ and using the fact that it is a homomorphism we can say that it is a completely multiplicative function that is f(a*b) = f(a)*f(b). The operation we consider here is composition of functions.

QuestionWe define L-series as $L(s,\chi) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\chi(n)}{n^s}$ Prove that for $Re(s) > 1, L(s,\chi) = \prod_{p} \left(1 - \frac{\chi(p)}{p^s}\right)^{-1}$ where product is over primes p.

Proof: $L = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\chi(n)}{n^s}$ $L - L\chi(2)/2^s = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\chi(2n)}{(2n)^s}$ So all even number denominator terms are removed. This is true as χ is multiplicative.

Similarly subtracting $L\chi(3)/3^s$ will remove all the fractions whose denominator has multiples of 3.

$$L \prod (1 - \frac{\chi(n)}{n^s}) = 1$$

So $L = \prod (1 - \frac{\chi(n)}{n^s})^{-1}$

REFERENCES

- [1] Silverman, Joseph H. (2012). A Friendly Introduction to Number Theory. Pearson Inc.
- [2] M Ram Murthy. Problems in analytic number theory