

## Irrationality of the $\zeta$ Function on Odd Integers

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### Abstract

The  $\zeta$  function is defined by  $\zeta(s) = \sum_n 1/n^s$ . This talk is a study of the irrationality of the zeta function on odd integer values  $> 2$ .

### 1. Introduction

The sum  $\sum_n 1/n^2$  was first studied by Bernoulli, who proved around 1680 that it converged to a finite limit less than 2. Euler proved in 1735 that it is equal to  $\pi^2/6$ , and studied the more general function  $\zeta(s) = \sum_n 1/n^s$ . He also showed that on even integers the  $\zeta$  function has a closed form, namely  $\zeta(2n) = C_n \pi^{2n}$  where the coefficients  $C_n$  are rational numbers that he wrote in terms of Bernoulli numbers. A century later Riemann studied this function on the whole complex plane, and he stated a conjecture on the location of the zeroes of the zeta function, that is known as the Riemann hypothesis, and is still unproved.

The first result on the irrationality of the  $\zeta$  function on odd integers is due to Apéry, who proved in 1978 that  $\zeta(3)$  is irrational [1]. Recently Tanguy Rivoal showed that the  $\zeta$  function takes infinitely many irrational values on the odd integers [4, 5], and that there exists an odd integer  $j$  with  $5 \leq j \leq 21$  such that  $\zeta(j)$  is irrational [5]. Zudilin [6] refined this result and proved it for  $5 \leq j \leq 11$ .

### 2. Irrationality of $\zeta(3)$

**Theorem 1** (Apéry(1978)). *The number  $\zeta(3)$  is irrational.*

The following proof is due to Nesterenko [3], after ideas by Beukers. The theorem is proved using the following generating function

$$S_n(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\partial}{\partial k} \left( \frac{(k-1)^2(k-2)^2 \dots (k-n)^2}{k^2(k+1)^2 \dots (k+n)^2} \right) z^{-k}$$

The decomposition of the coefficient of  $z^{-k}$  in partial fractions gives the equality

$$(1) \quad S_n(z) = P_{0,n}(z) + P_{1,n}(z) \operatorname{Li}_2(1/z) + P_{2,n}(z) \operatorname{Li}_3(1/z)$$

where  $\operatorname{Li}_s(z) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{z^n}{n^s}$  is a polylogarithm function, and  $P_{k,n}$  are polynomials of degree  $n$  such that  $P_{1,n}(1) = 0$ . When Equation (1) is specialized at  $z = 1$ , it becomes

$$S_n(1) = P_{0,n}(1) + P_{2,n}(1)\zeta(3),$$

with the additional properties that  $P_{2,n}(1) \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $d_n^3 P_{0,n}(1) \in \mathbb{Z}$  where  $d_n = \operatorname{ppcm}(1, 2, \dots, n)$ .

The value  $S_n(1)$  is bounded by using an integral representation.

$$(2) \quad S_n(1) = \frac{1}{2i\pi} \int_L \left( \frac{\Gamma(n+1-s)\Gamma(s)^2}{\Gamma(n+1+s)} \right)^2 ds,$$

where  $L$  is the vertical line  $\Re(z) = c$ ,  $0 < c < n+1$ , oriented from top to bottom. From this integral, the bounds  $0 < S_n(1) \leq c(\sqrt{2}-1)^{4n}$  are obtained.

The inequalities  $0 < d_n^3 P_{0,n}(1) + d_n^3 P_{2,n}(1)\zeta(3) < cr^n$ , where  $c$  is a constant, and  $r < 1$  prove that  $\zeta(3)$  is irrational; because if  $\zeta(3)$  is rational and equal to  $p/q$ , then  $qd_n^3 P_{0,n}(1) + qd_n^3 P_{2,n}(1)\zeta(3)$  is an integer greater than 0 and bounded by  $qcr^n$  that converges to 0.

### 3. The $\zeta$ Function Has Infinitely Many Irrational Values on Odd Integers

Tanguy Rivoal in fact proved a stronger result, that is:

**Theorem 2.** *Let  $a$  be an odd integer greater than 3 and  $\delta(a)$  be the dimension of the  $\mathbb{Q}$ -vector space spanned by  $1, \zeta(3), \dots, \zeta(a)$ , then*

$$\delta(a) \geq \frac{1}{3} \log a.$$

This implies directly that infinitely many  $\zeta(2n+1)$  are irrational.

To prove Theorem 2, we introduce the series

$$S_{n,a,r}(z) = n!^{a-2r} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(k-rn)_{rn}(k+n+1)_{rn}}{(k)_{n+1}^a} z^{-k},$$

where  $(k)_n = k(k+1)\dots(k+n-1)$  is the Pochhammer symbol, and  $n, r$ , and  $a$  are integers satisfying  $n \geq 0$ ,  $1 \leq r < a/2$ , so that  $S_{n,a,r}(z)$  exists when  $|z| \geq 1$ . As for the proof of the irrationality of  $\zeta(3)$ , an equality between the series studied and values of  $\zeta$  is found, namely

$$S_{n,a,r}(1) = P_{0,n}(1) + \sum_{l=2}^a P_{l,n}(1)\zeta(l),$$

moreover, if  $(n+1)a+l$  is odd then  $P_{l,n}(1) = 0$ . For  $n$  odd and  $a$  odd greater than 3,  $P_{l,n}(1) = 0$  if  $l$  is even, so that  $S_{n,a,r}(1)$  is a linear combination of values of  $\zeta$  on odd integers.

The dimension of the vector space spanned by  $1, \zeta(3), \dots, \zeta(a)$  is based on the following theorem:

**Theorem 3** (Nesterenko's criterion). *Let  $\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_N$  be  $N$  real numbers, and suppose that there exist  $N$  sequences  $(p_{l,n})_{n \geq 0}$  such that*

1.  $\forall i = 1, \dots, N, p_{l,n} \in \mathbb{Z}$ ;
2.  $\alpha_1^{n+o(n)} \leq \left| \sum_{l=1}^N p_{l,n} \theta_l \right| \leq \alpha_2^{n+o(n)}$ , with  $0 < \alpha_1 \leq \alpha_2 < 1$ ;
3.  $\forall l = 1, \dots, N, |p_{l,n}| \leq \beta^{n+o(n)}$  with  $\beta > 1$ .

Then

$$\dim_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}\theta_1 + \mathbb{Q}\theta_2 + \dots + \mathbb{Q}\theta_N) \geq \frac{\log(\beta) - \log(\alpha_1)}{\log(\beta) - \log(\alpha_1) + \log(\alpha_2)}.$$

This criterion, applied to the real numbers  $\theta_i = \zeta(2i+1)$ ,  $i \leq (a-1)/2$ , with the sequences  $p_{l,n}$  defined by  $p_{0,n} = d_{2n}^a P_{0,2n}(1)$  and  $p_{l,n} = d_{2n}^a P_{2l+1,2n}(1)$  if  $1 \leq l \leq (a-1)/2$  yields the inequality

$$(3) \quad \delta(a) \geq \frac{\log(r) + \frac{a-r}{a+1} \log(2)}{1 + \log(2) + \frac{2r+1}{a+1} \log(r+1)},$$

for all  $1 \leq r < a/2$ .

For each odd integer  $a > 1$ , there exists an  $r$  (that can be made explicit) such that the inequality (3) reduces to  $\delta(a) \geq \log(a)/3$ .

The proof of this property can be adapted to show that  $\delta(169) > 2$ , which means that there exists an integer  $j$ ,  $5 \leq j \leq 169$ , such that  $1$ ,  $\zeta(3)$ , and  $\zeta(j)$  are linearly independent over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

#### 4. At Least One Number Amongst $\zeta(5)$ , $\zeta(7)$ , $\dots$ , $\zeta(21)$ Is Irrational

The linear independence of  $1, \zeta(3), \zeta(j)$  for some  $j \leq 169$  implies the irrationality of  $\zeta(j)$ , but is stronger. The bound 169 is improved in this section by only seeking the irrationality.

**Theorem 4.** *There exists an integer  $j$ ,  $5 \leq j \leq 21$ , such that  $\zeta(j)$  is irrational.*

The proof of this theorem follows the same directions as the two previous ones. First an adequate generating function  $S_n(z)$  is considered, that gives a linear equation implying the zeta function on odd integers when specialized. The coefficients of this equation are studied, and their denominator bounded; a saddle-point method gives asymptotic results on  $S_n(1)$ . These lemmas, combined with the Nesterenko criterion finally give the result.

The generating function  $S_n(z)$  is

$$S_n(z) = n!^{a-6} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dk^2} \left( \left(k + \frac{n}{2}\right) \frac{(k-n)_n^3 (k+n+1)_n^3}{(k)_{n+1}^a} \right) z^{-k},$$

where  $a$  is an integer  $\geq 6$ . This sum is convergent when  $|z| \geq 1$ . This sum is expanded in simple elements, and then specialized at  $z = 1$  to give a relation between values of  $\zeta$  on odd integers,  $\zeta(3)$  excluded, namely

$$(4) \quad S_n(1) = P_{0,n}(1) + \sum_{j=2}^{a/2} j(2j-1)P_{2j-1,n}(1)\zeta(2j+1).$$

The coefficients  $P_{l,n}$  satisfy  $2d_n^{a+2}P_{0,n}(1) \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $2d_n^{a-l}P_{l,n}(1) \in \mathbb{Z}$  for  $1 \leq l \leq a$ .

The next step of the proof is to get an asymptotic result on  $S_n(1)$ , using a saddle-point method. We do not know of any integral representation similar to (2) for  $S_n(1)$ , but we can express  $S_n(1)$  as the real part of a complex integral. First we introduce  $R_n(k)$ ,

$$R_n(k) = n!^{a-6} \left(k + \frac{n}{2}\right) \frac{(k-n)_n^3 (k+n+1)_n^3}{(k)_{n+1}^a}.$$

So that  $S_n(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dk^2} R_n(k)z^{-k}$ . We also define

$$J_n(u) = \frac{n}{2i\pi} \int_L R_n(nz) \left(\frac{\pi}{\sin(n\pi z)}\right)^3 e^{nuz} dz,$$

where  $L$  is a vertical line from  $i\infty$  to  $-i\infty$  with a real part between 0 and 1. With those notations, the property  $S_n(1) = \Re(J_n(i\pi))$  holds.

The quantity  $J_n(i\pi)$  is rewritten in terms of the  $\Gamma$  function, using the complement formula  $\Gamma(t)\Gamma(1-t) = \pi/\sin(\pi t)$ , and is then approximated using the Stirling formula. This gives

$$J_n(i\pi) = \left( i(-1)^{n+1} (2\pi)^{a/2-1} n^{2-a/2} \int_L g(z) e^{nw(z)} dz \right) (1 + O(1/n)),$$

where  $g(z) = (z+1/2) \frac{\sqrt{1-z}^3 \sqrt{2+z}^3}{\sqrt{z^{a+3}} \sqrt{z+1}^{a+3}}$  and  $w(z) = (a+3)z \log(z) - (a+3)(z+1) \log(z+1) + 3(1-z) \log(1-z) + 3(z+2) \log(z+2) + i\pi z$ . The variable  $a$  is now specialized to 20 in order to have a relation between  $\zeta(5), \dots, \zeta(21)$ . The saddle-point method, see [2, pp. 279–285], now

applies to the point  $z_0$ , the only root of  $w'(z) = 0$  such that  $0 < \Re(z) < 1$ . The numerical value of  $z_0$  is  $0.992 - 0.012i$ . The estimation of  $J_n(i\pi)$  obtained is

$$J_n(i\pi) = u_n r (-1)^{n+1} n^{-8} e^{nw(z_0) + i\beta},$$

with  $r$  and  $\beta$  real constants and  $u_n$  a sequence of complex numbers converging to 1. We define  $v_0 = \Im(w(z_0))$ . The real part of this expression is

$$r(-1)^{n+1} n^{-8} e^{\Re(nw(z_0))} (\Re(u_n) \cos(nv_0 + \beta) - \Im(u_n) \sin(nv_0 + \beta)).$$

Since  $v_0 \sim 3.104$  is not a multiple of  $\pi$ , there exists an increasing sequence  $\phi(n)$  such that  $\cos(\phi(n)v_0 + \beta)$  tends to a limit  $l \neq 0$ . As a direct consequence

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Re J_{\phi(n)}(i\pi) = K (-1)^{\phi(n)+1} \phi(n)^{-8} e^{\Re(\phi(n)w(z_0))},$$

where  $K$  is a constant. So  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |S_{\phi(n)}(1)|^{1/\phi(n)} = e^{\Re(w(z_0))}$ .

This result, combined with Equation (4) proves Theorem 4 as follows. Equation (4) tells that  $l_n = 2d_n^{22} S_n(1)$  is a linear combination of  $\zeta(5), \dots, \zeta(21)$  with integer coefficients. The paragraph above shows that  $l_n$  satisfies  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |l_{\phi(n)}|^{1/\phi(n)} \in (0, 1)$ . So one of the values  $\zeta(5), \dots, \zeta(21)$  is irrational.

This result has been refined by Zudilin [6], who proved that at least one of the four numbers  $\zeta(5), \zeta(7), \zeta(9)$ , and  $\zeta(11)$  is irrational, by using a general hypergeometric construction of linear forms in odd zeta values.

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