

L8 (April 24, 2020) We prove: ①

Thm. (von Staudt-Clausen) \forall even $k \in \mathbb{N}$:

$$B_k + \sum_{p|(k-1)} \frac{1}{p} \in \mathbb{Z} \quad (p \text{ is a prime number, } p|(k-1) \text{ denotes the divisibility relation and } B_k \text{ are the Bernoulli numbers}).$$

Let, for $k, n \in \mathbb{N}$, $S_k(n) := 1^k + 2^k + \dots + (n-1)^k$. As is well known, $S_1(n) = 1 + 2 + \dots + (n-1) = \frac{n(n-1)}{2} = \binom{n}{2}$. The B. numbers appear in a generalization of this formula:

Proposition

$$(*) \quad S_k(n) =$$

$$\boxed{B} = \sum_{r=0}^k \binom{k}{r} \frac{B_r}{k+1-r} n^{k+1-r},$$

which is a polynomial in n with degree $k+1$. Proof.

We have the formal power series identity $1 + e^x + e^{2x} + \dots + e^{(n-1)x} = \frac{e^{nx} - 1}{x} \cdot \frac{x}{e^x - 1}$. The coeff. of $\frac{x^k}{k!}$ on the left side is, when we

(*) "the once well-known formula" in the words of J. Cassels.

call that $e^x = 1 + \frac{x^1}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots$ exactly $S_2(u)$. (2)

On the right side: $\left[\frac{x^2}{2!} \right] \frac{e^{4x} - 1}{x} = \frac{x}{e^x - 1} =$

$$= \left[\frac{x^2}{2!} \right] \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^j}{j!} \cdot$$

$[x^m] F(x)$ denotes the coeff. of x^m in the expansion of $F(x)$.

$$\sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{B_l x^l}{l!} =$$

= (we set $j+l-1 =$

$$= 2) = \left[\frac{x^2}{2!} \right] \sum_{j=1}^{2+1} \frac{1}{j!} \frac{B_{2-j+1}}{(2-j+1)!} =$$

$$= \left[\frac{x^2}{2!} \right] \sum_{j=1}^{2+1} \frac{1}{j!} \binom{2}{j} u^j B_{2-j+1} =$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{2+1} \frac{1}{2-j+1} \binom{2}{j} u^j B_{2-j+1} = \sum_{r=0}^2 \frac{1}{r} \binom{2}{r-1} B_r =$$

$$= \sum_{r=0}^2 \frac{1}{2-r+1} \binom{2}{r} u^{2+1-r} B_r$$

So, for exam-

ple, $S_5(u) = 1^5 + 2^5 + \dots + (u-1)^5 = \sum_{r=0}^5 \frac{1}{6-r} \binom{5}{r} B_r =$

$$= \frac{1}{6} B_0 u^6 + \frac{1}{5} \binom{5}{1} B_1 u^5 + \frac{1}{4} \binom{5}{2} B_2 u^4 + \frac{1}{2} \binom{5}{4} B_4 u^2 = \frac{u^6}{6} - \frac{1}{2} u^5 + \frac{5}{12} u^4 - \frac{u^2}{12}$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} u^6 - \frac{1}{2} u^5 + \frac{5}{12} u^4 - \frac{1}{12} u^2.$$

For a prime p and $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$u \in \mathbb{Z}, u \neq 0$, we set $v_p(u) :=$ the maximum $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$ s.t. $p^k \mid u$, and $v_p(0) := +\infty$. For a fraction $d = \frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}$ we set $v_p(d) = v_p(a) - v_p(b)$. Finally, for any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ we define the p -adic norm $|d|_p$ of $d \in \mathbb{Q}$ as

$|d|_p := c^{v_p(d)}$. One usually sets $c = \frac{1}{p}$ but here it is not important. **Proposition** $\forall d, \beta \in \mathbb{Q}$

We have: (1) $|d|_p \geq 0$ and $= 0 \Leftrightarrow d = 0$

(2) $|d\beta|_p = |d|_p |\beta|_p$

(3) $|d + \beta|_p \leq \max(|d|_p, |\beta|_p)$ ($\leq |d|_p + |\beta|_p$)

the strong triangle inequality

Proof - if

you want, an exercise.

With $d(d, \beta) := |d - \beta|_p$ we get the metric space (\mathbb{Q}, d) in fact an ultrametric

space because it satisfies the strong Δ -⁽⁴⁾
 $d(a, b) \leq \max(d(a, c), d(c, b))$ inequality:

Exercise Prove that if $d(a, b) \neq d(c, b)$ (resp. $|a|_p \neq |b|_p$ in 3 above) then $|a|_p$ (resp. in 3 above) ~~is~~ one has $= 0$.

But we will, in the proof, use the norm notation $|a|_p$ not $d(a, 0)$.
The above prop. says that $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot, |\cdot|_p)$ is a normed non-Archimedean field. There is the discipline of p-adic Analysis [A. D. Robert,

A Course in p-adic Analysis, Springer, 2000] which is Mathematical Analysis in $(\mathbb{Q}, |\cdot|_p)$ (actually in $(\mathbb{Q}_p, |\cdot|_p)$ or $(\mathbb{C}_p, |\cdot|_p)$ where \mathbb{Q}_p is the p-adic \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C}_p the p-adic \mathbb{C}). These are analytical methods ^{in NT} of sorts too, so this is not ~~as~~ ^{as} big digression as one might ~~think~~.

But back to the proof of the von S. - C. theorem, We will use this corollary of ③: $\forall a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Q}_p$ think

$$d_1 + d_2 + \dots + d_n \leq \max(d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n) \quad \text{For}$$

example, if $d_n \leq 1 \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$$d_1 + d_2 + \dots + d_n \leq 1 \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \text{ Of course, compared to the usual Euclidean norm}$$

$|\cdot|$ on \mathbb{R} or on \mathbb{C} , this is quite counter-intuitive. Advantage: in p-adic Analysis, ^{a series}

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \text{ converges (in } |\cdot|_p) \iff \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$$

If only we had this $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ in the normal Analysis in

$(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$ ~~or~~ $(\mathbb{C}, |\cdot|)$. Disadvantage:

there is nothing like connected interval in p-adic Analysis, in fact p-adic spaces are totally disconnected (all components are singletons).

Claim 1 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} S_n = B_2$ (in $|\cdot|_p$).

$\exists \epsilon \in \mathbb{N}$: $n \rightarrow \infty$

Proof. Here it is understood that n runs through a sequence of integers which go to 0 in the p-adic norm ($| \cdot |_p$) for example $n = p, p^2, p^3, p^4, \dots, p^m, \dots$. From Prop. B we get:

$$\left| \frac{1}{n} S_{\frac{q}{2}}(n) - B_{\frac{q}{2}} \right|_p = \left| \sum_{r=0}^{\frac{q}{2}-1} \underbrace{\binom{\frac{q}{2}}{r}}_{\frac{q+1-r}{2}} \frac{B_r}{q+1-r} n^{q-r} \right|_p \leq$$

$$\leq \max_{0 \leq r \leq \frac{q}{2}-1} (|c_r|_p \cdot |n|_p^{q-r}) \leq |n|_p \cdot \max |c_r|_p \rightarrow 0$$

Claim 2 If p is a prime number and $q \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$\rightarrow 0$
 (in $| \cdot |_p$, usual Eucl. norm) \square

$$S_{\frac{q}{2}}(p) = \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} j^{\frac{q}{2}} \equiv \begin{cases} -1 \dots & (p-1) \mid \frac{q}{2} \\ 0 \text{ - else} & \end{cases}$$

modulo p .

Proof. ~~By~~ Little Fermat's ^{says that} theorem gives the first case. I will continue with the 2nd case next week on May 1st and I mean it!

$$j^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \text{ for every } j = 1, 2, \dots, p-1,$$