

# ARITHMETICAL FUNCTIONS AND IRRATIONALITY OF LAMBERT SERIES

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**Abstract :** We use a method of Erdős in order to prove the linear independence over  $\mathbb{Q}$  of the numbers

$$1, \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{q^{n^2}-1}, \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{n}{q^{n^2}-1}$$

for every  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ , with  $|q| \geq 2$ . The main idea consists in considering the two above series as Lambert series. This allows to expand them as power series of  $1/q$ . The Taylor coefficients of these expansions are arithmetical functions, whose properties allow to apply an elementary irrationality criterion, which yields the result.

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## 1. Introduction

Let  $q$  be a rational integer satisfying  $|q| \geq 2$ . Define

$$\alpha = \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{q^{n^2}-1}, \beta = \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{n}{q^{n^2}-1} \quad (1)$$

The aim of this paper is to prove the following theorem.

**Theorem 1 :** *Let  $q$  be a rational integer satisfying  $|q| \geq 2$ . Then the numbers  $1, \alpha$  and  $\beta$  are linearly independent over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .*

This theorem generalizes a result of Paul Erdős, who proved in 1948 [7] the irrationality of the following Lambert series:

$$\gamma = \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{q^n-1} = \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{d(n)}{q^n}. \quad (2)$$

Here  $d(n)$  is the divisor function, defined by

$$d(n) = \sum_{x|n} 1 \tag{3}$$

By a very precise study of the properties of the divisor function, Erdős succeeded in showing that the  $q$ -adic expansion of  $\gamma$  is not ultimately periodic for  $q \geq 2$ , which implies the irrationality of  $\gamma$ .

The pattern of the proof of theorem 1 will be basically the same. In fact,  $\alpha$  is also a Lambert series (see [8], page 257, or [6], page 102, for the general properties of Lambert series). To show it, first observe that

$$\alpha = \sum_{x=1}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{q^{x^2} - 1} = \sum_{x=1}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{q^{x^2}} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{q^{x^2}}} = \sum_{x=1}^{+\infty} \sum_{r=1}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{q^{rx^2}}.$$

Now, if we reorder the double series by putting  $n = rx^2$ , we see that

$$\alpha = \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{a(n)}{q^n}, \tag{4}$$

where the arithmetical function  $a(n)$  is defined by

$$a(n) = \sum_{x^2|n} 1. \tag{5}$$

Similarly, we have

$$\beta = \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{b(n)}{q^n}, \tag{6}$$

where

$$b(n) = \sum_{x^2|n} x. \tag{7}$$

Following the ideas of Erdős, the proof of theorem 1 will use an elementary criterion of irrationality, very similar to those used in [2], [4] and [5], which will be proved in section 2. Then we will study in detail, in section 3, the arithmetical functions  $a(n)$  and  $b(n)$ . Theorem 1 will be proved in section 4.

It should be noted that Erdős' result in [7] has been generalized by Peter Borwein [1] in a very different way. By an explicit computation of the Padé approximants of the fonction

$$L_q(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{x}{q^n - x} = \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{x^n}{q^n - 1}, \tag{8}$$

Borwein proved that  $L_q(x)$  is irrational for every rational integer  $q$  such that  $|q| \geq 2$  and every  $x \in \mathbb{Q}^*$ ,  $|x| < |q|$ .

Padé approximants allow in fact to prove that  $L_q(x)$  is irrational for every non zero rational  $x$ ,  $|x| < |q|$ , and every rational  $q = r/s$  satisfying

$$\frac{\text{Log } |s|}{\text{Log } |r|} < \frac{1}{4} \left( 3 - \sqrt{5 + \frac{24}{\pi^2}} \right).$$

See [3] for details. Moreover, the use of Padé approximants can be extended to irrationality proofs for series whose general term involves second order recurring sequences. For example, Matala-Aho and Prevost have proved in [9] that

$$\delta = \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{x^n}{F_n} \quad (9)$$

is irrational for every  $x \in \mathbb{Q}^*$ ,  $|x| < \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$ . Here  $F_n$  denotes the Fibonacci sequence.

However, this powerful approach seems difficult to use in the case where  $q^n$  is replaced by  $q^{n^2}$ , because it rests heavily on the fact that the function  $L_q$  satisfies a functional equation, namely

$$L_q(qx) = L_q(x) + \frac{x}{1-x}. \quad (10)$$

There is no such functional equation if we replace  $q^n$  by  $q^{n^2}$  in  $L_q$ .

Arithmetic sequences of integers will play an important part in the proof of theorem 1. We recall here an elementary lemma on their divisibility properties. For non zero natural integers  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $d$  and  $n$ , denote

$$E_{A,B,d}(n) = \{i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\} / d \text{ divides } Ai + B\}.$$

**Lemma 1 :** *If  $A$  and  $B$  are coprime, then  $E_{A,B,d}(n)$  has at most  $\left\lfloor \frac{n}{d} \right\rfloor + 1$  elements.*

**Proof :** If  $d$  divides  $Ai + B$ , then  $A$  and  $d$  are coprime since  $A$  and  $B$  are coprime. Hence the equation  $Ai + B \equiv 0 \pmod{d}$  has exactly one solution  $i_0$  satisfying  $0 \leq i_0 \leq d - 1$ .

Then for every solution  $i$  of this equation, we have  $A(i - i_0) \equiv 0 \pmod{d}$  and  $d$  divides  $i - i_0$ . Hence the solutions  $i$  are exactly all the numbers of the form  $jd + i_0$ , with  $j \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

The condition  $1 \leq jd + i_0 \leq n$  leads to  $0 \leq j \leq \left\lfloor \frac{n}{d} \right\rfloor$ .

This proves that  $E_{A,B,d}(n)$  has at most  $\left[\frac{n}{d}\right] + 1$  elements.

## 2. An irrationality criterion

**Theorem 2 :** Let  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $|q| \geq 2$ . Let  $[\theta(n)]_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence of rational integers. Assume that there exist a sequence of natural integers  $(n_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  with  $n_k \geq 2k$  such that, for every  $k$  sufficiently large,

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} q \mid \theta(n_k - k + 1), q^2 \mid \theta(n_k - k + 2), \dots, q^{k-1} \mid \theta(n_k - 1), \\ q^{k+1} \mid \theta(n_k + 1), q^{k+2} \mid \theta(n_k + 2), \dots, q^{2k} \mid \theta(n_k + k), \end{array} \right. \quad (11)$$

and satisfying

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{|q|^k} \sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} \frac{|\theta(n + n_k + k + 1)|}{|q|^n} = 0. \quad (12)$$

Assume that  $\sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} \frac{\theta(n)}{q^n}$  is convergent and is a rational number.

Then  $q^k \mid \theta(n_k)$  for every large  $k$ .

**Proof :** If  $\sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} \frac{\theta(n)}{q^n} = \frac{\lambda}{\mu}$ , where  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  are rational integers, then for every  $k$  we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{n_k-k} \frac{\theta(n)}{q^n} + \sum_{n=n_k-k+1}^{n_k-1} \frac{\theta(n)}{q^n} + \frac{\theta(n_k)}{q^{n_k}} + \sum_{n=n_k+1}^{n_k+k} \frac{\theta(n)}{q^n} + \sum_{n=n_k+k+1}^{+\infty} \frac{\theta(n)}{q^n} = \frac{\lambda}{\mu}.$$

By (11), there exists an integer  $A_k$  such that

$$\mu \left[ \sum_{n=0}^{n_k-k} \frac{\theta(n)}{q^n} + \frac{A_k}{q^{n_k-k}} + \frac{\theta(n_k)}{q^{n_k}} \right] - \lambda = -\mu \sum_{n=n_k+k+1}^{+\infty} \frac{\theta(n)}{q^n}.$$

If we multiply this equality by  $q^{n_k}$ , we see that there exists an integer  $B_k$  such that

$$\mu [B_k q^k + \theta(n_k)] - \lambda q^{n_k} = -\mu \frac{1}{q^{k+1}} \sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} \frac{\theta(n + n_k + k + 1)}{q^n}.$$

From (11) we deduce that the integer  $\mu [B_k q^k + \theta(n_k)] - \lambda q^{n_k}$  is equal to zero for every large  $k$ . As  $n_k \geq 2k$ , this implies that  $q^k$  divides  $B_k q^k + \theta(n_k)$  for every large  $k$ , which proves theorem 2.

## 3. The arithmetical functions $a(n)$ and $b(n)$

**Lemma 2 :** *The arithmetical function  $a(n)$  is multiplicative. Moreover, if  $n = \prod_i p_i^{\alpha_i}$ , where the  $p_i$  are distinct primes, then*

$$a(n) = \prod_i \left( \left\lfloor \frac{\alpha_i}{2} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) \quad (13)$$

**Proof :** First we observe that  $a(n)$  is multiplicative. Indeed, if  $r$  and  $s$  are coprime, then every integer  $x$  such that  $x^2$  divides  $rs$  is of the form  $x = x_1x_2$ , where  $x_1^2$  divides  $r$  and  $x_2^2$  divides  $s$ . Thus, if  $r$  and  $s$  are coprime,

$$a(rs) = \sum_{x_1^2 | r} \sum_{x_2^2 | s} 1 = \sum_{x_1^2 | r} 1 \sum_{x_2^2 | s} 1 = a(r)a(s). \quad (14)$$

Therefore we have to compute  $a(n)$  only when  $n = p^\alpha$ , where  $p$  is prime. But in this case the integers  $x$  such that  $x^2$  divides  $p^\alpha$  are exactly  $1, p, p^2, \dots, p^{\lfloor \frac{\alpha}{2} \rfloor}$ , which proves lemma 2.

**Lemma 3 :** *The arithmetical function  $b(n)$  is multiplicative. Moreover, if  $n = \prod_i p_i^{\alpha_i}$ , where the  $p_i$  are distinct primes, then*

$$b(n) = \prod_i \left( 1 + p + p^2 + \dots + p^{\lfloor \frac{\alpha_i}{2} \rfloor} \right). \quad (15)$$

**Proof :** Similar to the proof of lemma 2.

**Lemma 4 :** *Let  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $|q| \geq 2$ . Let  $p$  be any prime satisfying  $p > |q|$ . Then there exists a natural integer  $\omega = \omega(p)$  satisfying  $\omega \leq 2q^2$ , such that  $q$  divides  $a(p^\omega)$  and  $b(p^\omega)$ .*

**Proof :** As  $\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$  has  $|q|$  elements, at least two of the  $|q| + 1$  numbers  $1, 1 + p, 1 + p^2, \dots, 1 + p + \dots + p^{|q|}$  are equal modulo  $q$ . Therefore there exist two integers  $i$  and  $j$ , with  $1 \leq i < j \leq |q|$ , such that

$$q \mid p^i (1 + p + \dots + p^{j-i}).$$

As  $|q| < p$ , this yields  $q \mid 1 + p + \dots + p^{j-i}$ . Now

$$\sum_{k=0}^{|q|(j-i+1)-1} p^k = \frac{p^{|q|(j-i+1)} - 1}{p - 1} = \frac{p^{j-i+1} - 1}{p - 1} \sum_{k=0}^{|q|-1} p^{k(j-i+1)}.$$

Hence  $q \mid \sum_{k=0}^{|q|(j-i+1)-1} p^k$ . Therefore, if we put  $\omega = 2 \lfloor |q|(j-i+1) - 1 \rfloor$ , we see by lemmas 2 and 3 that  $q \mid a(p^\omega)$  and  $q \mid b(p^\omega)$ .

Moreover,  $\omega \leq 2 \lfloor |q|(|q| - 1) \rfloor \leq 2q^2$ , which proves lemma 4.

**Lemma 5 :** *Assume that  $A$  and  $B$  are two coprime natural integers. Assume that  $n \geq 8\sqrt{An + B}$ . Then the set  $S$  of the numbers  $Ai + B$ , for  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ ,*

$n$  contains at least  $\left\lceil \frac{n}{8} \right\rceil$  squarefree numbers. If  $\zeta$  is one of these numbers, then clearly  $a(\zeta) = b(\zeta) = 1$ .

**Proof :** Let  $p$  be any prime number.

If  $p > \sqrt{An + B}$ , then  $p^2$  cannot divide any  $Ai + B$ , since  $i \leq n$ .

If  $p \leq \sqrt{An + B}$ , then by lemma 1 there exist at most  $\left\lceil \frac{n}{p^2} \right\rceil + 1$  numbers

$Ai + B$  such that  $p^2$  divides  $Ai + B$ .

Hence the number of squarefree numbers in  $S$  is at least

$$\eta \geq n - \sum_{\substack{p \text{ prime} \\ p \leq \sqrt{An+B}}} \left( \left\lceil \frac{n}{p^2} \right\rceil + 1 \right) \geq n - n \sum_{p \text{ prime}} \frac{1}{p^2} - \sqrt{An + B}.$$

But we have  $\sum_{p \text{ prime}} \frac{1}{p^2} \leq \sum_{r=2}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{r^2} \leq \frac{1}{4} + \int_2^{+\infty} \frac{du}{u^2} = \frac{3}{4}$ , whence

$$\eta \geq n - \frac{3}{4}n - \frac{1}{8}n \geq \frac{n}{8}.$$

**Lemma 6 :** Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  be sufficiently large, and let  $A$  and  $B$  be two coprime natural integers such that  $A$  is odd and  $A \leq \sqrt{n}$ . Then the set  $S$  of the numbers  $Ai + B$ , for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  contains at least  $\left\lceil \frac{n}{80} \right\rceil$  numbers  $\zeta$  such that  $a(\zeta) = 2$  and  $b(\zeta) = 3$ .

**Proof :** As  $A$  is odd and  $A$  and  $B$  are coprime, there exists  $B'$  such that  $8B' + 4 \equiv B \pmod{A}$ ,  $2B' + 1$  and  $A$  are coprime, and  $1 \leq B' \leq A$ . Clearly we have, for every  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $2Ak + 2B' + 1 \leq A(2k + 3)$ .

Hence the numbers

$$h_k = 4(2Ak + 2B' + 1) = 8Ak + 8B' + 4$$

belong to  $S$  for  $k = 1, 2, \dots, \left\lceil \frac{n}{9} \right\rceil$  and  $n$  sufficiently large, since

$$h_k \leq 4A \left( \frac{2n}{9} + 3 \right) \leq An + B$$

for  $n$  sufficiently large.

By lemma 5, the set  $T$  of the numbers  $2Ak + 2B' + 1$  contains at least

$\left\lceil \frac{1}{8} \left\lceil \frac{n}{9} \right\rceil \right\rceil$  squarefree numbers, and these numbers are odd. Hence the sequence

$h_k$  contains at least  $\left\lceil \frac{1}{8} \left\lceil \frac{n}{9} \right\rceil \right\rceil \geq \left\lceil \frac{n}{80} \right\rceil$  numbers  $\zeta$  with no other square divisors than 1 and 4, that is satisfying  $a(\zeta) = 2$  and  $b(\zeta) = 1 + 2 = 3$ .

**Lemma 7 :** Let  $n, A$  and  $B$  be non zero natural integers such that  $A$  and  $B$  are coprime and  $\max(A, B) \leq \sqrt{n}$ . Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{A} \rfloor} a(Ai + B) \leq 4 \frac{n}{A}. \quad (16)$$

**Proof :** Denote  $\mathbb{N}^0 = \mathbb{N} - \{0\}$ . We have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{A} \rfloor} a(Ai + B) = \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{A} \rfloor} \sum_{x^2 | Ai+B} 1 \leq \sum_{(x,y) \in D} 1,$$

where  $D = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{N}^0 \times \mathbb{N}^0 / x^2 y \leq n + B ; x^2 y \equiv B \pmod{A}\}$ .  
Hence by lemma 1 we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{A} \rfloor} a(Ai + B) &\leq \sum_{x=1}^{\lfloor \sqrt{n+B} \rfloor} \left( \left\lfloor \frac{n}{Ax^2} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) \leq \frac{n}{A} \sum_{x=1}^{\lfloor \sqrt{n+B} \rfloor} \frac{1}{x^2} + \sqrt{n+B} \\ &\leq 2 \frac{n}{A} + \frac{n + \sqrt{n}}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{2n}{A} + \frac{2n}{A} = \frac{4n}{A}. \end{aligned}$$

**Lemma 8 :** Let  $n, A$  and  $B$  be non zero natural integers such that  $A$  and  $B$  are coprime,  $n \geq 3$  and  $\max(A, B) \leq \sqrt{n}$ . Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{A} \rfloor} b(Ai + B) \leq 20 \frac{n \text{Log } n}{A} \quad (17)$$

**Proof :** As in lemma 7, we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{A} \rfloor} b(Ai + B) = \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{A} \rfloor} \sum_{x^2 | Ai+B} x \leq \sum_{(x,y) \in D} x,$$

where  $D = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{N}^0 \times \mathbb{N}^0 / x^2 y \leq n + B ; x^2 y \equiv B \pmod{A}\}$ . We define

$$\begin{aligned} D_1 &= \left\{ (x, y) \in D / x \leq (n + B)^{\frac{1}{4}} \right\}, \\ D_2 &= \left\{ (x, y) \in D / y \leq (n + B)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

It is easy to see that  $D \subset (D_1 \cup D_2)$ , whence

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{A} \rfloor} b(Ai + B) \leq \sum_{(x,y) \in D_1} x + \sum_{(x,y) \in D_2} x. \quad (18)$$

We put now  $s = \left\lfloor (n + B)^{\frac{1}{4}} \right\rfloor$ .

a) First we look for an upper bound for  $\sum_{(x,y) \in D_1} x$ .

Recall that  $n \geq 3$  and  $\max(A, B) \leq \sqrt{n}$ . We have, as in the proof of lemma 7,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{(x,y) \in D_1} x &\leq \sum_{x=1}^s \left( \left\lfloor \frac{n}{Ax^2} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) x \leq \frac{n}{A} \sum_{x=1}^s \frac{1}{x} + \sum_{x=1}^s x \\ &\leq \frac{n}{A} (\text{Log } s + 1) + s^2 \leq \frac{n}{A} \left( \frac{1}{4} \text{Log } (n+B) + 1 \right) + \sqrt{n+B} \\ &\leq \frac{n}{4A} (\text{Log } n + \text{Log } 2 + 4) + \frac{n+B}{\sqrt{n+B}} \leq \frac{n}{4A} \times 6 \text{Log } n + \frac{2n}{A} \leq 4 \frac{n \text{Log } n}{A}. \end{aligned}$$

b) Now we look for an upper bound for  $\sum_{(x,y) \in D_2} x$ . We have

$$\sum_{(x,y) \in D_2} x = \sum_{y=1}^{\lfloor \sqrt{n+B} \rfloor} \sum_{\substack{x^2 y \leq n+B \\ x^2 y \equiv B \pmod{A}}} x.$$

For a given  $y$ , the congruence  $x^2 y \equiv B \pmod{A}$  has at most two solutions  $x_{1,y}$  and  $x_{2,y}$  satisfying  $0 < x_{1,y} < A$ ,  $0 < x_{2,y} < A$  and  $x_1 \neq x_2$ . As  $A$  and  $B$  are coprime, the solutions of this congruence are exactly the  $x = Ar + x_{q,y}(y)$  for some  $q \in \{1, 2\}$ . Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{(x,y) \in D_2} x &\leq \sum_{y=1}^{\lfloor \sqrt{n+B} \rfloor} \sum_{q=1}^2 \sum_{(Ar+x_{q,y})^2 y \leq n+B} (Ar + x_{q,y}) \\ &\leq 2A \sum_{y=1}^{\lfloor \sqrt{n+B} \rfloor} \sum_{r=0}^{\left\lfloor \frac{1}{A} \sqrt{\frac{n+B}{y}} \right\rfloor} (r+1). \end{aligned}$$

As  $n(n+1) \leq 4(n-1)^2$  for  $n \geq 3$ , we obtain

$$\sum_{(x,y) \in D_2} x \leq \frac{4}{A} \sum_{y=1}^{\lfloor \sqrt{n+B} \rfloor} \frac{n+B}{y} \leq \frac{4n}{A} (\text{Log } n + \text{Log } 2 + 2) \leq 16 \frac{n \text{Log } n}{A}.$$

This completes the proof of lemma 8.

#### 4. Proof of theorem 1

Assume that  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are linearly dependent over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Then there exist two rational integers  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  such that  $(\lambda, \mu) \neq (0, 0)$  and  $\lambda\alpha + \mu\beta \in \mathbb{Q}$ . This means that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{\lambda a(n) + \mu b(n)}{q^n} \in \mathbb{Q}. \quad (19)$$



We will show that this is impossible by using theorem 2 with

$$\theta(n) = \lambda a(n) + \mu b(n). \quad (20)$$

In all the proof,  $k$  is a natural integer sufficiently large.  
For every  $i \geq 1$ , we denote

$$t_i = \frac{i(i+1)}{2}, \quad r_i = t_i + 1, \quad (21)$$

where  $t_i$  is the  $i^{\text{th}}$  triangular number. We recall for further use that, for every  $i \geq 1$ ,

$$t_{i+1} - t_i = i + 1. \quad (22)$$

We denote by  $C_1, C_2, \dots$ , positive real numbers which may depend on  $q, \lambda$  or  $\mu$ , but not on  $k$ , and we put  $\varepsilon = 0$  or  $1$ .

**Step 1 :** Let  $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots$  be the series of the successive prime numbers greater than  $k^{20}$ . For every prime  $p$ , let  $\omega = \omega(p)$  be defined in lemma 4. We will use the Chinese Remainder Theorem. First, there exists a natural number  $\eta_k$  such that

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \eta_k - k + 1 \equiv p_1^{\omega(p_1)} \pmod{p_1^{\omega(p_1)+1}} \\ \eta_k - k + 2 \equiv p_2^{\omega(p_2)} p_3^{\omega(p_3)} \pmod{p_2^{\omega(p_2)+1} p_3^{\omega(p_3)+1}} \\ \vdots \\ \eta_k - 1 \equiv p_{r_{k-2}}^{\omega(p_{r_{k-2}})} \cdots p_{t_{k-1}}^{\omega(p_{t_{k-1}})} \pmod{p_{r_{k-2}}^{\omega(p_{r_{k-2}})+1} \cdots p_{t_{k-1}}^{\omega(p_{t_{k-1}})+1}} \\ \eta_k + 1 \equiv p_{r_k}^{\omega(p_{r_k})} \cdots p_{t_{k+1}}^{\omega(p_{t_{k+1}})} \pmod{p_{r_k}^{\omega(p_{r_k})+1} \cdots p_{t_{k+1}}^{\omega(p_{t_{k+1}})+1}} \\ \eta_k + 2 \equiv p_{r_{k+1}}^{\omega(p_{r_{k+1}})} \cdots p_{t_{k+2}}^{\omega(p_{t_{k+2}})} \pmod{p_{r_{k+1}}^{\omega(p_{r_{k+1}})+1} \cdots p_{t_{k+2}}^{\omega(p_{t_{k+2}})+1}} \\ \vdots \\ \eta_k + k \equiv p_{r_{2k-1}}^{\omega(p_{r_{2k-1}})} \cdots p_{t_{2k}}^{\omega(p_{t_{2k}})} \pmod{p_{r_{2k-1}}^{\omega(p_{r_{2k-1}})+1} \cdots p_{t_{2k}}^{\omega(p_{t_{2k}})+1}} \end{array} \right. \quad (23)$$

As the arithmetical functions  $a$  and  $b$  are multiplicative, we know by lemma 4 and (20) that (11) is satisfied, with  $n_k$  replaced by  $\eta_k$ . Moreover, if we define

$$A_k = \prod_{i=1}^{t_{k-1}} p_i^{\omega(p_i)+1} \prod_{i=r_k}^{t_{2k}} p_i^{\omega(p_i)+1} \quad (24)$$

we know by the Chinese Remainder Theorem that we can choose  $\eta_k$  satisfying

$$0 \leq \eta_k \leq A_k. \quad (25)$$

Now we look for an upper bound for  $A_k$ . Let  $p'_1 = 2, p'_2 = 3, p'_3 = 5, \dots$  be the series of all prime numbers. The elementary Chebyshev inequality

$$\pi(n) \geq n \log 2 / \log n$$

immediatly yields

$$p'_n \leq C_1 n \log n. \quad (26)$$

Therefore, as  $p_i \geq k^{20}$ , we have by lemma 4

$$\begin{aligned} A_k &\leq \prod_{i=1}^{t_{2k}} (p'_{i+k^{20}})^{2q^2+1} \leq \prod_{i=1}^{t_{2k}} [C_1 (i + k^{20}) \log (i + k^{20})]^{2q^2+1} \\ &\leq \prod_{i=1}^{t_{2k}} [2C_1 k^{20} \log (2k^{20})]^{2q^2+1} \leq [2C_1 k^{20} \log (2k^{20})]^{(q^2+1)k(2k+1)}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, for  $k$  sufficiently large, we have

$$\eta_k \leq A_k \leq \exp(k^{2.5}). \quad (27)$$

**Step 2 :** Put  $N_k = \left\lceil \frac{2^{k^{10}}}{A_k} \right\rceil$ . We consider now all the numbers of the form

$$u_{k,i} = iA_k + \eta_k, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N_k. \quad (28)$$

It is clear that every  $u_{k,i}$  satisfies the system of congruences (23), as  $\eta_k$  does. Consequently, we have

$$\begin{cases} q \mid \theta(u_{k,i} - k + 1), & q^2 \mid \theta(u_{k,i} - k + 2), & \dots, & q^{k-1} \mid \theta(u_{k,i} - 1), \\ q^{k+1} \mid \theta(u_{k,i} + 1), & q^{k+2} \mid \theta(u_{k,i} + 2), & \dots, & q^{2k} \mid \theta(u_{k,i} + k). \end{cases} \quad (29)$$

Recall that  $\varepsilon = 0$  or  $1$ . We define

$$\mathbb{E}_k = \{i \in \mathbb{N} / 1 \leq i \leq N_k / a(u_{k,i}) = 1 + \varepsilon, b(u_{k,i}) = 1 + 2\varepsilon\}. \quad (30)$$

As (27) holds, we can apply lemmas 5 and 6, and we see that the cardinal of  $\mathbb{E}_k$  satisfies

$$|\mathbb{E}_k| \geq \left\lceil \frac{N_k}{80} \right\rceil \geq \frac{2^{k^{10}}}{81A_k} \quad (31)$$

Now we look for an upper bound of the sum

$$S_k = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{E}_k} \sum_{n=0}^{10k^{10}} |\theta(n + u_{k,i} + k + 1)|. \quad (32)$$

We clearly have (33):

$$\begin{aligned} S_k &\leq \sum_{i=1}^{N_k} \sum_{n=0}^{10k^{10}} (|\lambda| a(n + iA_k + \eta_k + k + 1) + |\mu| b(n + iA_k + \eta_k + k + 1)). \\ &\leq \sum_{n=0}^{10k^{10}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_k} (|\lambda| a(iA_k + n + \eta_k + k + 1) + |\mu| b(iA_k + n + \eta_k + k + 1)). \end{aligned}$$

Now we show that  $A_k$  and  $n + \eta_k + k + 1$  are coprime. Indeed, if not, by (24) it would exist some  $p_j$  such that  $p_j \mid n + \eta_k + k + 1$ , with  $1 \leq j \leq t_{k-1}$  or  $r_k \leq j \leq t_{2k}$ . But  $p_j$  divides  $\eta_k + k - g$  for some  $g$  between 0 and  $2k - 1$  and  $g \neq k$  by (23). Therefore  $p_j$  would divide  $n + g + 1$ , which is impossible because  $p_j \geq k^{20}$  and  $n + g + 1 \leq 10k^{10} + 2k$ .

Hence  $A_k$  and  $n + \eta_k + k + 1$  are coprime. By lemmas 7 and 8 we get

$$S_k \leq \sum_{n=0}^{10k^{10}} \left( 4|\lambda| \frac{2^{k^{10}}}{A_k} + 20 \operatorname{Log} 2 \frac{k^{10} 2^{k^{10}}}{A_k} |\mu| \right) \leq C_2 \frac{k^{20} 2^{k^{10}}}{A_k}. \quad (34)$$

$$\text{Denote } m_k = \min_{i \in \mathbb{E}_k} \left( \sum_{n=0}^{10k^{10}} |\theta(n + u_{k,i} + k + 1)| \right).$$

$$\text{By (31), (32) and (34) we have } m_k \frac{2^{k^{10}}}{81A_k} \leq C_2 \frac{k^{20} 2^{k^{10}}}{A_k}.$$

Therefore  $m_k \leq k^{21}$  for every  $k$  sufficiently large.

Hence there exists  $i_k \in \{1, 2, \dots, N_k\}$  such that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{10k^{10}} |\theta(n + u_{k,i_k} + k + 1)| \leq k^{21}. \quad (35)$$

Define  $n_k = u_{k,i_k}$ . By (29), (30) and (35), we have

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} q \mid \theta(n_k - k + 1), q^2 \mid \theta(n_k - k + 2), \dots, q^{k-1} \mid \theta(n_k - 1), \\ q^{k+1} \mid \theta(n_k + 1), q^{k+2} \mid \theta(n_k + 2), \dots, q^{2k} \mid \theta(n_k + k), \\ \sum_{n=0}^{10k^{10}} |\theta(n + n_k + k + 1)| \leq k^{21}. \\ a(n_k) = 1 + \varepsilon, b(n_k) = 1 + 2\varepsilon \end{array} \right. \quad (36)$$

**Step 3 :** We show now that theorem 2 applies with  $n_k$  defined above. We have only to check that (12) holds, since

$$n_k \geq A_k \geq p_1 \geq k^{20} \geq 2k.$$

We have by (36)

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} \frac{|\theta(n + n_k + k + 1)|}{|q|^n} &\leq k^{21} + \sum_{n=10k^{10}}^{+\infty} \frac{|\theta(n + n_k + k + 1)|}{|q|^n} \\ &\leq k^{21} + C_3 \sum_{n=10k^{10}}^{+\infty} \frac{(n + n_k + k + 1)^2}{|q|^n}. \end{aligned}$$

Now  $10k^{10} + n_k + k + 1 \leq \exp(k^{10})$  by (27) and (28). Hence

$$\sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} \frac{|\theta(n + n_k + k + 1)|}{|q|^n} \leq k^{21} + \frac{C_3}{|q|^{10k^{10}}} \sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} \frac{(n + \exp(k^{10}))^2}{|q|^n} \leq 2k^{21}.$$

This proves that (12) holds. Theorem 2 applies and

$$q^k \mid \lambda a(n_k) + \mu b(n_k) \quad (37)$$

for every large  $k$ . Taking successively  $\varepsilon = 0$  and  $\varepsilon = 1$  in (36), we obtain

$$\begin{cases} q^k \mid \lambda + \mu \\ q^k \mid 2\lambda + 3\mu \end{cases}$$

Hence  $q^k$  divides  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  for every large  $k$ , which yields  $\lambda = \mu = 0$  and proves theorem 1.

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