

Summing of like powers

Abstract: The problem of summing of like (positive integer) powers is completely solved by H. Faulhaber's and J. Bernoulli's polynomials.

Here I present a way, using elementary matrix-algebra, how to find such sums in terms of values of the eta- and zeta-function at non-positive arguments. The occurring matrices solve the summing problem and it is immediately obvious, that the numbers, named after J. Bernoulli, are simply the negative zeta-values, scaled by binomials, as they occur in these matrices. One may call the related polynomials "zeta"- or "eta"-polynomials.

Also a seemingly less known property of the zeta/bernoulli-numbers is immediately derivable by this method: to also sum like-powers of negative exponents. I'll add this extension in next version.

Gottfried Helms (for readability updated 8.10.2009 from Vers. 25. Nov. 12)

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1. The summing problem

1.1. Intro

The problem of summing like powers, for instance for exponent m

$$s_m(n) = 1^m + 2^m + 3^m + \dots + n^m$$

is completely solved with the introduction of Bernoulli-numbers¹ β_k , arranged in the appropriate Bernoulli-polynomials of degree $m+1$, with the $m+1$ 'th degree symbolically written as

$$B_{m+1}(n) = \beta_{m+1} + a_1 \beta_m n + a_2 \beta_{m-1} n^2 + \dots + \beta_0 n^{m+1}$$

where the a_k are binomial-coefficients.

In this article I'll show a way how to arrive at such a formula on another very simple path.

There is also one special interesting aspect involved. I am currently not aware, how Jacob Bernoulli (and Hans Faulhaber) exactly arrived at their results (but see Ed [Sandifers](#) note in chap 8.1), but their way to find the coefficients, which perform summing of finitely many like powers seems to have been -at least initially- the heuristic in the empirical results for sums with small exponents and was disconnected from any idea of infinite sum-values like the zeta-eta-functions, and sometimes one can read characterizations like "*exotic and mystic creatures in the scene of numbers*" - as if they were independent of that zeta-/eta.

The zeta-connection has then be proven several times later, for instance by L. [Euler](#) (see chap 9 "references"), by H. Hasse (see [\[Hasse\]](#)) to mention only two.

My proposal seems to be opposite to this (although somehow familiar to the Euler-approach): very naturally the eta/zeta-values at non-positive exponents are introduced as the engine of the summation-process (and one may formulate: only since they cofactor binomials, the resulting coefficients occurred to Bernoulli and Faulhaber as a set of individual and characteristic numbers). Bernoulli-numbers, by my approach, are then **essentially** "the appropriate scalings" of integer zeta-values by binomials ($r:1$), occurring in the second column of the ZETA-matrix. Different generalizations for continuous versions of the Bernoulli-numbers and \sim -polynomials were proposed (see for instances [\[Luschny\]](#) [\[Woon\]](#)), but the most natural in terms of their property to allow summing like powers is the one, which generalizes them as expressions of the continuous zeta-values.

[\[Luschny\]](#) (2004) made a statement very similar to mine, and it is made very explicite, that the Bernoulli-numbers should be seen as scaled zeta-values - but the arguing is starting **from** the Bernoulli-numbers (and polynomials) **proceeding to** zeta-values - somehow as the most logical and convenient (re-)definition, which allows then generalization. Here my approach adds some inherent argument: using the zeta-values as the base of all such considerations. (see footnote (3) next page)

As a result, this article proposes also "zeta-/eta-polynomials", where the zeta-polynomials can be seen as integrals of the Bernoulli-polynomials.

¹ from: Karl Dilcher, *Bernoulli-bibliography*: <http://www.mscs.dal.ca/~dilcher/bernoulli.html>

Bernoulli Numbers

The Bernoulli numbers are among the most interesting and important number sequences in mathematics. They first appeared in the posthumous work "*Ars Conjectandi*" (1713) by Jakob Bernoulli (1654-1705) in connection with sums of powers of consecutive integers (see Bernoulli (1713) or D.E. Smith (1959)). Bernoulli numbers are particularly important in number theory, especially in connection with Fermat's last theorem (see, e.g., Ribenboim (1979)). They also appear in the calculus of finite differences (Nörlund (1924)), in combinatorics (Comtet (1970, 1974)), and in other fields.

Definitions and main properties of Bernoulli numbers can be found in a great number of articles and books listed in this bibliography. Good introductions are given, e.g., in Ireland and Rosen (1982, 1990), Rademacher (1973), and Nörlund (1924). A handy collection of formulas is in Abramowitz and Stegun (1964). Some older books are entirely devoted to Bernoulli numbers; among them are Chistyakov (1895), Nielsen (1923), and Saalschütz (1893). One should, however, be aware of possible differences in notation and indexing, especially in older publications.

The article follows this way of exploring/arguing:

First I recall the binomial-theorem, apply it to a Vandermonde-vector in x using the pascal-matrix. This converts then the problem of sums-of-like-powers into one of a geometric series of a matrix. For that matrix-series the shortcut-formula for geometric series can then be used (which is possible only for the *ETA*-matrix) and serves here as first example.

This approach also proves implicitly, that the values of the Dirichlet's $\eta = \text{"eta"}$ -function at non-positive exponents are rational, since they occur as result from a matrix-inversion of finite triangular integer-matrices, and hence also the $\zeta = \text{"zeta"}$ -function-values of same argument - which is another nice feature of this derivation.

For the *ZETA*-matrix, however, the shortcut-formula for geometric-series cannot be used. But again from the construction of the general arguing it occurs that the entries of the *ZETA*-matrix are ζ -values cofactored with binomials. Here the limit-problem, where $\zeta(1)$ is involved, is essentially and is specifically considered.

Because everything is based on the $\zeta(s)/\eta(s)$ -functions, things should be generalizable to positive or fractional exponents, since $\zeta(s)/\eta(s)$ -values are defined for each complex argument (except $\zeta(1)$) while the notion of Bernoulli-numbers limits itself to the case of non-positive integer exponents in the related $\zeta(s)$ -argument.

Another extensions will be made in the next version of this article: completely analogously the *ZETA/ETA*-matrices can be used to sum negative like powers of consecutive natural numbers – this is simply the re-invention of the *psi*-function. The idea of this is -however sketchy- already described in [[binomialmatrix](#)].

A remark concerning references: after putting some of the ideas which are covered by this article into the more professional and thus more appropriate keywords, I find a vast amount of articles related to or even discussing them already. Some of them with similar concepts as in my proposal¹ focus the same topics from a different view; for instance my eigenvector-approach, which led to the Faulhaber/Bernoulli-matrix G_p , was paralleled in terms of "invariant sequences under binomial transform" (see references [[SunZhiHong](#)], more examples see footnote²). The special value of my current text may then lay in that it provides a concise and coherent scenery for that ideas and generalizations. I'll add related items to the bibliography as I'll come across them. (footnote 3³)

¹ Some are from the recent time-period 2004-2007, when also I developed this concept from heuristics in checking systematic matrix-relations not being aware of such articles. I began in 2004 with the first article about the Pascal- and (Bernoulli-like) G_p - matrix for powersums [[Bernoulli_en](#)]

² see for instance in chap 7 "references": Faulhaber's Theorem for Arithmetic Progressions, Chen, William
Explicit inverse of the Pascal matrix plus one: Yang, Sheng-liang & Liu, Zhong-kui
(Zeta-relation) "Ein Summierungsverfahren für die Riemannsche Zeta-Reihe", Hasse, Helmut

³ in [[Luschny](#)] we find: "Die Definitionen sowohl der Bernoulli Funktion $B(s)$ wie der Euler Funktion $E(s)$ basieren auf einer einzigen Funktion, der Hurwitz Zetafunktion. (...)

(...) Die Definition der Bernoulli Funktion ist $\mathfrak{B}(s) = -2(2\pi)^{-s} \cos(s\pi/2) s! \zeta(s)$

Bei unserer Einführung der Bernoulli und Euler Zahlen haben wir uns vollständig auf die Zetafunktion gestützt und keinerlei motivierende Bemerkungen dazu gemacht. Dieser top-down-approach hat uns zwar schnell die allgemeinen Zusammenhänge aufgezeigt, aber die Frage nach der Adäquatheit ist dabei offen geblieben: Ist der Zusammenhang zwischen den Bernoulli Zahlen (so wie wir sie definiert haben) und der Zetafunktion natürlich?

Deshalb drehen wir jetzt die Blickrichtung um und betrachten, wie wir von den Bernoulli Zahlen (in unserem Sinn) ausgehend zur Zetafunktion bzw. Bernoulli-Funktion gelangen können. Tatsächlich gibt es dafür einen Königsweg, den Satz von Hasse, der unser Vorgehen elementar und anschaulich rechtfertigt. Ausgangspunkt für den Satz von Hasse ist die explizite Darstellung der Bernoulli-Zahlen von Worpitzky ([11, Formel 36]) (...)"

The motivation of this (re-) definition seems here the convenience, so he asks "but is the relation between Bernoulli-numbers(as we defined them here) and the Zeta-function also natural?" Then he discusses, how "we (can) proceed from the Bernoulli-numbers (in our sense) to Zeta- and Bernoulli-functions".

1.2. The binomial theorem

The binomial theorem is the statement that

$$(1.2.1) \quad (1+x)^m = 1 + (m:1)x + (m:2)x^2 + \dots + (m:m-1)x^{m-1} + (m:m)x^m$$

where I introduce the notation $(m:k)$ for the binomial-coefficients $\text{binomial}(m,k)$ which are different for each m^{th} power. Let's write this more explicitly and for some exponents, say 0 to 4:

$$(1.2.2) \quad \begin{aligned} (1+x)^0 &= (0:0) 1 \\ (1+x)^1 &= (1:0) 1 + (1:1) x \\ (1+x)^2 &= (2:0) 1 + (2:1) x + (2:2) x^2 \\ (1+x)^3 &= (3:0) 1 + (3:1) x + (3:2) x^2 + (3:3) x^3 \\ (1+x)^4 &= (4:0) 1 + (4:1) x + (4:2) x^2 + (4:3) x^3 + (4:4) x^4 \end{aligned}$$

In numbers this is

$$(1.2.3) \quad \begin{aligned} (1+x)^0 &= 1 x^0 \\ (1+x)^1 &= 1 x^0 + 1 x \\ (1+x)^2 &= 1 x^0 + 2 x + 1 x^2 \\ (1+x)^3 &= 1 x^0 + 3 x + 3 x^2 + 1 x^3 \\ (1+x)^4 &= 1 x^0 + 4 x + 6 x^2 + 4 x^3 + 1 x^4 \end{aligned}$$

where the coefficients at the powers of x form the well known Pascal-triangle.

1.3. The power of the Pascal-matrix

Let this be written as a matrix product of the Pascal-triangle \mathbf{P} and $\mathbf{V}(x)$, the Vandermonde-(column-) vector of a variable placeholder x (valid for any finite matrix-dimension) $\mathbf{V}(x)=[1,x,x^2,x^3,\dots]$, (I omit the dots for indication of infinite extension here and in the following due to limits of the bitmap-generating-program)

$$(1.3.1) \quad \mathbf{P} * \mathbf{V}(x) = \mathbf{V}(1+x)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & . & . & . & . \\ 1 & 1 & . & . & . \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & . & . \\ 1 & 3 & 3 & 1 & . \\ 1 & 4 & 6 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (1+x)^0 \\ (1+x)^1 \\ (1+x)^2 \\ (1+x)^3 \\ (1+x)^4 \end{bmatrix}$$

This little modification, carefully considered, has its own impact.

Dealing with and thinking of a binomial-transformation like

$$(1+x)^m = 1 + (m:1)x + (m:2)x^2 + \dots + (m:m-1)x^{m-1} + (m:m)x^m$$

is an important tool from school to determine $(1+x)^m$ in terms of powers of x only. But when put together as a complete, and even infinite, set of transformation-coefficients in the Pascal-triangle, then this is no more simply a collection of an (even infinite) set of transformation rules, but suddenly occurs as a more general entity, let's say "operator", which transforms a whole Vandermonde-vector in x to one of $x+1$. This view of things introduces new qualities.

First, it introduces the vector of powers of x (or "Vandermonde-vector in x ") as an individually referable mathematical object. This includes then, that if we find a certain transformation for x^m , then we have also found one for x^{m+1} - and for all consecutive powers of x . So, for instance, if we find a summing-procedure for $1^m + 2^m + 3^m + \dots + x^m$ in a consistent way in this vector-/matrix-context, we also have found one for $1^{m+1} + 2^{m+1} + 3^{m+1} + \dots + x^{m+1}$ and also for all consecutive exponents of m .

Second, it introduces \mathbf{P} like an *operator*. On a first glance that may not be such an overwhelming news, but note, how natural one would start to think in terms of repetitive application of this operator:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P} * V(x) &= V(1+x) \\ \mathbf{P} * \mathbf{P} * V(x) &= V(2+x) \\ \mathbf{P} * \mathbf{P} * \mathbf{P} * V(x) &= V(3+x) \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{P}^n * V(x) &= V(n+x) \end{aligned}$$

and naturally this leads to a notion of powers of \mathbf{P} which expresses the binomial-theorem at arbitrary natural powers¹.

Also the inverse operation comes immediately into mind, so

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}^{-1} * V(x) &= V(-1+x) \\ \mathbf{P}^{-2} * V(x) &= V(-2+x) \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{P}^{-n} * V(x) &= V(-n+x) \end{aligned}$$

and opens the field for more general operations of repeated binomial-transforms, which would hardly be expressible by computing and documenting the appropriate modifications of the individually involved binomial-coefficients.

The Toeplitz-form of a power of \mathbf{P}

A useful property, which will be used with the **ETA/ZETA**-matrix, is the Toeplitz-form of the powers of \mathbf{P} .

Define the Toeplitzmatrix $\mathbf{T}(z)$ of powers of z

$$(1.3.2) \quad \mathbf{T}(z) = V(z) * V(1/z) \sim$$

where for arbitrary z the matrix $\mathbf{T}(z)$ looks like:

$$(1.3.3) \quad \mathbf{T}(z) := \text{Toeplitz}(z) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1/z & 1/z^2 & 1/z^3 & 1/z^4 & 1/z^5 \\ z & 1 & 1/z & 1/z^2 & 1/z^3 & 1/z^4 \\ z^2 & z & 1 & 1/z & 1/z^2 & 1/z^3 \\ z^3 & z^2 & z & 1 & 1/z & 1/z^2 \\ z^4 & z^3 & z^2 & z & 1 & 1/z \\ z^5 & z^4 & z^3 & z^2 & z & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Lemma 1.3:

(1.3.4) Powers \mathbf{P}^z of \mathbf{P} are the Hadamardproduct of \mathbf{P} with the Toeplitzmatrix $\text{Toeplitz}(z)$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}^z &= {}^d V(z) * \mathbf{P} * {}^d V(1/z) \\ &= (V(z) * V(1/z)) \boxtimes \mathbf{P} && // \text{ using "}\boxtimes\text{" for Hadamard-multiplication} \\ &= \text{Toeplitz}(z) \boxtimes \mathbf{P} \end{aligned}$$

Two proofs can be seen in chap ([4. details/proofs](#))

¹ in [[binomial-matrix](#)] I even show the consistency of introducing complex powers of \mathbf{P} by means of its matrix-logarithm

1.4. Geometric series of \mathbf{P}

Now, first let's see, what happens if we add the Vandermonde vectors of consecutive arguments into a sum-vector \mathbf{S} :

$$(1.4.1) \quad S(1,n) = V(1) + V(2) + V(3) + V(4) + \dots + V(n)$$

This means, that in each row of the sum-vector \mathbf{S} we have the sum of like powers from 1 to n . And if we had a triangle \mathbf{X} of coefficients, perhaps similar to that of the Pascal-triangle, such that

$$S(1,n) = X * V(n)$$

then we had solved the initial problem. (but see footnote¹)

An approach, using the newly introduced operator \mathbf{P} and its powers we could rewrite this as

$$(1.4.2) \quad S(1,n) = P^0 V(1) + P^1 V(1) + P^2 V(1) + P^3 V(1) + \dots + P^{n-1} V(1)$$

or, factoring the $\mathbf{V}(1)$ -vector out:

$$(1.4.3) \quad S(1,n) = (P^0 + P^1 + P^2 + P^3 + \dots + P^{n-1}) V(1)$$

This shows a conversion of the original problem, which means: *summing of consecutive numbers with the same exponent*, into one which means: *summing of consecutive powers* or said differently: *of a matrix-polynomial in \mathbf{P}* or *of the geometric series of the matrix \mathbf{P}* .

This notation directly allows to set the initial value other than 1 according to the binomial theorem described above:

$$\begin{aligned} S(2,n) &= (P^0 + P^1 + P^2 + P^3 + \dots + P^{n-2}) V(2) \\ &= (P^0 + P^1 + P^2 + P^3 + \dots + P^{n-2}) P V(1) \quad // \text{one factor } P \text{ extracted from } V(2) \\ &= (P^1 + P^2 + P^3 + P^4 + \dots + P^{n-1}) V(1) \quad // \text{the factor } P \text{ multiplied to each term} \\ &\quad \text{in parentheses} \\ &= P (P^0 + P^1 + P^2 + P^3 + \dots + P^{n-2}) V(1) \quad // \text{factor } P \text{ extracted as pre-multiplicator} \\ &= P^2 (P^0 + P^1 + P^2 + P^3 + \dots + P^{n-2}) V(0) \quad // \text{another factor } P \text{ extracted to "normalize"} \\ &\quad \text{the Vandermonde vector to } V(0) \end{aligned}$$

and generally:

$$(1.4.4) \quad \begin{aligned} S(m,n) &= P^{m-1} (P^0 + P^1 + P^2 + P^3 + \dots + P^{n-m}) V(1) \quad \text{or} \\ &= P^m (P^0 + P^1 + P^2 + P^3 + \dots + P^{n-m}) V(0) \end{aligned}$$

This is already very good looking, but for each n we had another version of the parentheses, and so this is not the final solution. So we look again for more generalization:

the expression of sum of powers of \mathbf{P} reminds immediately to the infinite geometric series, and we may ask, what a triangle would occur if this geometric series would be continued to infinity and all powers of \mathbf{P} would be added.

¹ The final idea is here, to use the difference and the \mathbf{Y} -matrix (which I call then **ETA** or **ZETA** for alternating or non-alternating summing):

$$S(1,n) = S(1,inf) - S(n+1,inf) = Y * (V(0) - V(n))$$

but first some more introductory remarks are needed.

For a scalar argument the geometric series is a simple formula:

$$(1.4.5) \quad 1+x+x^2+x^3+\dots = (1-x)^{-1}$$

which is convergent for $|x|<1$, and can be summed for $x\leq-1$ by divergent summation techniques. Generally it has analytic continuation to all x except for $x=1$, where the expression in the parentheses equals zero.

However, we'll see, that this cannot directly be translated into the matrix-formulation, since in the matrix-version, $(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{P})$ cannot be inverted. We introduce another step first, which shows the principle of the matrix-formulation, implementing the alternating sum

$$(1.4.6) \quad 1-x+x^2-x^3+\dots = (1+x)^{-1}$$

in the next chapter and then come back to the nonalternating version with a workaround using the Toeplitz-matrix-lemma for powers of \mathbf{P} .

2. Alternating geometric series, "powers of (-P)" : ETA-matrix

The analogous matrix-formula to (1.4.5) for the infinite geometric series of \mathbf{P} would read as:¹

$$P^0 + P^1 + P^2 + P^3 + \dots = (I - P)^{-1}$$

and would be applicable, if the parentheses would be invertible.

Unfortunately this term, involving \mathbf{P} , suffers the problem, that all eigenvalues of \mathbf{P} are just equal to the mentioned exception-case for the scalar version $x=1$, so we cannot proceed this way.

But we could consider the geometric series of $(-\mathbf{P})$, which in turn means to sum like powers with alternating sign, in other words: to compute the $\eta()$ -series for each exponent instead of $\zeta()$ -series. Then the values for the non-alternating ζ -series could, for instance, be computed by the Eulerian η/ζ -transformation formula.

2.1. The alternating geometric series of P

Applying the idea of an alternating sum of like powers, we had for the finite sum

$$(2.1.1) \quad AS(1,n) = V(1) - V(2) + V(3) - V(4) + \dots + (-1)^{n+1} V(n) \\ = (P^0 - P^1 + P^2 - P^3 + \dots + (-1)^{n-1} P^{n-1}) V(1)$$

and for the infinite sum

$$(2.1.2) \quad AS(1,inf) = V(1) - V(2) + V(3) - V(4) + \dots + (-1)^{n+1} V(n) \\ = (P^0 - P^1 + P^2 - P^3 + \dots + (-1)^{n-1} P^{n-1}) V(1)$$

where the alternating sums of each like powers occur in the rows of $AS(1,n)$ or $AS(1,inf)$.

These are also the "alternating-zeta" or "eta"-values of non-positive exponents, each exponent of $eta(-r)$ according to its row-index r .

For the infinite case this means to apply the summation formula for the geometric series in the following form:

$$(2.1.3) \quad AS(1,inf) = (I - (-P))^{-1} V(1) \\ = (I + P)^{-1} V(1)$$

where the parentheses-term is now invertible.

We call the (provisorial) matrix, which occurs as inverse of the parentheses-term as ETA_1

$$(2.1.4) \quad ETA_1 = (I - (-P))^{-1}$$

This matrix is already much interesting. Its top left segment is

$$ETA_1 = (I - (-P))^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ -1/4 & 1/2 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ 0 & -1/2 & 1/2 & \cdot & \cdot \\ 1/8 & 0 & -3/4 & 1/2 & \cdot \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 & -1 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

¹ General proof for applicability of geometric-series formula will be inserted later

By its construction it gives, when right-multiplied with the Vandermonde-vector $V(I)$ (which contains I only and performs simply a summing over each row) the vector of η -values at nonpositive integer exponents in the result-vector, call it H :

$$H = AS(I, \text{inf}) = \eta A_1 * V(I)$$

$$(2.1.5) \quad \eta A_1 * V(I) = H \quad * \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ -1/4 & 1/2 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ 0 & -1/2 & 1/2 & \cdot & \cdot \\ 1/8 & 0 & -3/4 & 1/2 & \cdot \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 & -1 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1/4 \\ 0 \\ -1/8 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1/4 \\ 0 \\ -1/8 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

We may smooth up things a bit, and replace $V(I)$ by $P*V(0)$ and get the final matrix ηA according to

$$(2.1.6) \quad AS(I, \text{inf}) = (P^0 - P^1 + P^2 - P^3 + \dots + (-1)^I) P V(0) \\ = P * (P^0 - P^1 + P^2 - P^3 + \dots + (-1)^I) V(0)$$

$$(2.1.7) \quad \eta A = P * (I + P)^{-1}$$

$$\eta A = P (I - (-P))^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ 1/4 & 1/2 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 & \cdot & \cdot \\ -1/8 & 0 & 3/4 & 1/2 & \cdot \\ 0 & -1/2 & 0 & 1 & 1/2 \\ 1/4 & 0 & -5/4 & 0 & 5/4 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

and again the alternating sums of like powers in each row of ηA :

$$(2.1.8) \quad AS(I, \text{inf}) = \eta A * V(0)$$

Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} * \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1/4 \\ 0 \\ -1/8 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{Explicitly} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1^0 & -2^0 & +3^0 & -4^0 & \dots \\ 1^1 & -2^1 & +3^1 & -4^1 & \dots \\ 1^2 & -2^2 & +3^2 & -4^2 & \dots \\ 1^3 & -2^3 & +3^3 & -4^3 & \dots \\ 1^4 & -2^4 & +3^4 & -4^4 & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

2.2. Solution for the alternating summing-problem

Now we have two small steps more to go.

Consider, that we start that sum at a higher n instead of $n=1$, such that

$$AS(1,inf) = ETA * V(0)$$

becomes

$$\begin{aligned} (2.2.1.) \quad AS(3,inf) &= ETA * V(2) \\ &= P * (P^0 - P^1 + P^2 - P^3 + \dots + -) V(2) \\ &= V(3) - V(4) + V(5) - V(6) + \dots - + \dots \end{aligned}$$

and we have

$$AS(3,inf) = ETA * V(2) \quad * \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 4 \\ 8 \\ 16 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{Explicitly:})$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & . & . & . \\ 1/4 & 1/2 & . & . \\ 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 & . \\ -1/8 & 0 & 3/4 & 1/2 \\ 0 & -1/2 & 0 & 1 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ 5/4 \\ 3 \\ 55/8 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3^0 & -4^0 & +5^0 & -6^0 & \dots \\ 3^1 & -4^1 & +5^1 & -6^1 & \dots \\ 3^2 & -4^2 & +5^2 & -6^2 & \dots \\ 3^3 & -4^3 & +5^3 & -6^3 & \dots \\ 3^4 & -4^4 & +5^4 & -6^4 & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

The last step is, to subtract the two results

$$(2.2.2.) \quad AS(1,inf) = ETA * V(0) = V(1) - V(2) + V(3) - V(4) + V(5) - V(6) + \dots - + \dots$$

$$(2.2.3.) \quad AS(3,inf) = ETA * V(2) = V(3) - V(4) + V(5) - V(6) + \dots - + \dots$$

$$AS(1,2) = ETA * (V(0) - V(2))$$

By this we get the formula for the alternating sums of like powers (for each exponent):

$$\begin{aligned} (2.2.4.) \quad AS(1,2) &= AS(1,inf) - AS(3,inf) \\ &= ETA * (V(0) - V(2)) \\ &= V(1) - V(2) \end{aligned}$$

Example:

$$ETA * (V(0) - V(2)) = V(1) - V(2) \quad * \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 4 \\ 8 \\ 16 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & . & . & . \\ 1/4 & 1/2 & . & . \\ 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 & . \\ -1/8 & 0 & 3/4 & 1/2 \\ 0 & -1/2 & 0 & 1 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ -3 \\ -7 \\ -15 \end{bmatrix}$$

Generalized this is for the alternating sum for each nonnegative integer power

Result 2.2:

$$(2.2.5) \quad AS(1, \text{inf}) = ETA * V(0) = [\eta(0), \eta(-1), \eta(-2), \dots] \sim$$

$$(2.2.6) \quad AS(1, n) = ETA * (V(0) - (-1)^{n-1} V(n)) = V(1) - V(2) + \dots + (-1)^{n-1} V(n)$$

and even more generalized for any contiguous segment of alternating sums of like powers:

$$(2.2.7) \quad AS(a, b) = ETA * ((-1)^{a-1} V(a-1) - (-1)^{b-1} V(b-1))$$

which is the final result of this derivation.

It is a general solution for determining the alternating sums of like powers by means of a simple fixed polynomial for each exponent.

2.3. "Eta"-polynomials

We may define "eta-polynomials" this way, which perform the alternating summing of like powers.

Definition of the m'th eta-polynomial in x

$$(2.3.1) \quad \eta_m(x) = (-1)^x \sum_{c=0}^m \left(\eta(-(m-c)) \binom{m}{c} x^c \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \eta_0(x) &= (-1)^x * (\eta(0)) \\ \eta_1(x) &= (-1)^x * (\eta(-1) + 1 \eta(0) x) \\ \eta_2(x) &= (-1)^x * (\eta(-2) + 2 \eta(-1) x + 1 \eta(0) x^2) \\ \eta_3(x) &= (-1)^x * (\eta(-3) + 3 \eta(-2) x + 3 \eta(-1) x^2 + 1 \eta(0) x^3) \\ \eta_4(x) &= (-1)^x * (\eta(-4) + 4 \eta(-3) x + 6 \eta(-2) x^2 + 4 \eta(-1) x^3 + 1 \eta(0) x^4) \\ &\dots \end{aligned}$$

then

$$(2.3.2) \quad \eta_m(0) = \eta(-m) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{k-1} k^m = 1^m - 2^m + 3^m - \dots$$

$$(2.3.3) \quad \eta_m(n) = \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} (-1)^{k-1} k^m = (-1)^n * ((n+1)^m - (n+2)^m + (n+3)^m - \dots)$$

and the alternating sum of m'th like powers $as_m(n)$ from 1^m to n^m is:

$$(2.3.4) \quad as(n) = \eta_m(0) - \eta_m(n) = \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{k-1} k^m = 1^m - 2^m + \dots + (-1)^{n-1} n^m$$

Examples:

$$(2.3.5) \quad as_1(2) = 1 - 2 = -1$$

$$= \eta_1(0) - \eta_1(2) = \eta(-1) - (\eta(-1) + \eta(0)*2) = -\eta(0)*2 = -1$$

$$(2.3.6) \quad as_1(4) = 1 - 2 + 3 - 4 = -2$$

$$= \eta_1(0) - \eta_1(4) = \eta(-1) - (\eta(-1) + \eta(0)*4) = -\eta(0)*4 = -2$$

$$(2.3.7) \quad as_3(3) = 1 - 8 + 27 = 20$$

$$= \eta_3(0) - \eta_3(3)$$

$$= \eta(-3) - (-1)^3 (\eta(-3) + 3 \eta(-2)*3 + 3 \eta(-1)*9 + \eta(0)*27)$$

$$= 2 * -1/8 + 9 * 0 + 27/4 + 27/2$$

$$= 13/2 + 27/2 = 40/2 = 20$$

2.4. Resume: the power of the abstraction

We see in the previous paragraphs a simple derivation for the solution for the problem of the alternating sums of like powers.

The approach was induced by the higher abstraction of the elementary binomial-rules for generating powers of $(x+1)$ from powers of x . Collecting all these rules (and the resulting coefficients) into a matrix introduced the possibility to see the original problem of summing of zeta-/eta-series in terms of a sum of a geometric series by a notion of iterated application of the binomial theorem via the binomial- or Pascal-matrix and their powers.

The approach seems very natural to me, and may be generalized to other problems, involving Bernoulli- or Stirling-numbers to mention only two. In my collection of articles about "*Identities involving binomial-coefficients, Bernoulli- and Stirlingnumbers*" I compiled a lot of similar identities to have the tools to experiment with some of these questions.

The underlying idea of these all is to see the matrices as operators acting on formal powers-series:

- preferably not changing their character,
- or if changing, then in a useful way, for instance to convert them to a formal series of logarithms or exponentials or the like.

3. non-alternating geometric series, "powers of P ": ZETA-matrix

3.1. Notes

The same process cannot be applied one-to-one to the zeta-version. The reason, as I stated above, is the impossibility of the application of the formula for the infinite geometric series using P , due to the impossibility of inversion of

$$(I - P)^{-1}$$

That there is in fact a matrix, which performs that nonalternating summation may then be surprising. The most significant difference to an expected analogy to the eta-matrix occurs, in that

- * the matrix is not exactly triangular
(but has an additional subdiagonal above the principal diagonal)
- * the infinite value $\zeta(1)$ must be handled.

But completely analogously to the **ETA**-version, the sum of like powers is then determined by the difference

$$(3.1.1.) \quad S(1,n) = ZETA * (V(0) - V(n))$$

The submatrix, ignoring the first column of **ZETA**, is already a known entity; it is exactly the matrix of coefficients, which Hans Faulhaber and Jacob Bernoulli described (also using the Bernoulli-number β_1 as $\beta_1 = +1/2$), and I'd described this submatrix already in the chapter **Gp** in the initial article on properties of the pascalmatrix [[bernoulli](#)]

3.2. zeta-values as sums of entries of the geometric series of P

Completely analogously to the ansatz for the **ETA**-matrix we formulate the using the geometric series of P :

$$(3.2.1.) \quad \begin{aligned} S(1,inf) &= V(1) + V(2) + V(3) + \dots \\ &= (P^1 + P^2 + P^3 + \dots + \dots) V(0) \end{aligned}$$

Since we cannot use the shortcut-formula for the geometric series, we employ here the Lemma concerning the structure of entries in powers of P . Remember [Lemma 1.3](#) (see [chap.1.3](#)):

Lemma 1.3:

Powers z of P are the Hadamardproduct of P with the Toeplitzmatrix $T(z)$

$$P^z = T(z) \boxtimes P = \text{Toeplitz}(z) \boxtimes P$$

The Hadamard-product of P with the following sum of Toeplitz-matrices shall then be the solution for **ZETA**:

$$(3.2.2.) \quad ZETA = \lim (T(1) + T(2) + T(3) + \dots) \boxtimes P$$

The entries of **ZETA** shall then analogously to the **ETA**-matrix¹ be:

$$(3.2.3.) \quad ZETA_{r,c} = (r:c) * \zeta(-r-c) \quad (a:b) \text{ denotes the binomial-coefficient}$$

Caveat: at a first glance, this seems to be then simply

$$ZETA = \begin{bmatrix} \zeta(0) * \binom{0}{0} & & & & & \\ \zeta(-1) * \binom{1}{0} & \zeta(0) * \binom{1}{1} & & & & \\ \zeta(-2) * \binom{2}{0} & \zeta(-1) * \binom{2}{1} & \zeta(0) * \binom{2}{2} & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \end{bmatrix}$$

but by the sum of the Toeplitz-matrices we get in the first upper subdiagonal entries which involve the sums up the infinite $\zeta(1)$ - and this must explicitly be considered.

3.3. Considering the entries which sum up to $\zeta(1)$

If we reconsider the binomial-matrix as containing $(r:c)$ at **every** entry, then in this first **upper subdiagonal** we have entries of $(r:r+1)$. These are numerically zero in all cases, but only because of the limit of the binomial-formula:

$$(3.3.1.) \quad (r:r+1) = \frac{r!}{(r+1)!(r-(r+1))!} = \frac{r!}{(r+1)!(-1)!} = \frac{1}{r+1} \frac{1}{(-1)!}$$

which is zero for all entries. The reason is the infinity at $(-1)! = \text{gamma}(0)$

The corresponding entries in **ZETA** have $\zeta(1)$ as cofactors for those $(r:r+1)$, here marked yellow:

$$ZETA = \begin{bmatrix} \zeta(0) * \binom{0}{0} & \zeta(1) * \binom{0}{1} & & & & \\ \zeta(-1) * \binom{1}{0} & \zeta(0) * \binom{1}{1} & \zeta(1) * \binom{1}{2} & & & \\ \zeta(-2) * \binom{2}{0} & \zeta(-1) * \binom{2}{1} & \zeta(0) * \binom{2}{2} & \zeta(1) * \binom{2}{3} & & \\ \zeta(-3) * \binom{3}{0} & \zeta(-3) * \binom{3}{1} & \zeta(-1) * \binom{3}{2} & \zeta(0) * \binom{3}{3} & & \\ \dots & & & & & \end{bmatrix}$$

which are conventionally undefined expressions. The composition looks also more explicit like:

$1\zeta(-0)$	-1				
$1\zeta(-1)$	$1\zeta(-0)$	-1/2			
$1\zeta(-2)$	$2\zeta(-1)$	$1\zeta(-0)$	-1/3		
$1\zeta(-3)$	$3\zeta(-2)$	$3\zeta(-1)$	$1\zeta(-0)$	1-/4	
$1\zeta(-4)$	$4\zeta(-3)$	$6\zeta(-2)$	$4\zeta(-1)$	$1\zeta(-0)$...

If we set the ratio of the two infinities

Proposal 3.3:(see [definition for zeta/gamma ratio](#))

$$(3.3.2.) \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \zeta(1-x) / \Gamma(x) = -1 = -\beta_0 \quad //\beta_0 \text{ the first bernoulli number}$$

then we have the working model of the **ZETA**-matrix.

¹ Pari/GP: ZETA= matrix(n,n,r,c, \ if(r==c-1, -1/r, \ if(r>=c, -zetafrac(-r+c)*binomial(r-1,c-1))))

3.4. numerical display of ZETA

The remaining upper-right entries are still zero, since all other zeta-values are finite and cannot cancel the infinities in the denominators of the binomials:

$$(3.4.1.) \quad ZETA = \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1/12 & -1/2 & -1/2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1/6 & -1/2 & -1/3 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/120 & 0 & -1/4 & -1/2 & -1/4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/30 & 0 & -1/3 & -1/2 & -1/5 \\ -1/252 & 0 & 1/12 & 0 & -5/12 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

3.5. Solution for the non-alternating summing problem

The matrix **ZETA** performs the non-alternating summation in the same form like the **ETA**-matrix above:

Example

$$(3.5.1.) \quad ZETA * (V(0) - V(2)) = (V(1) + V(2) + V(3) + V(4) + \dots) - (V(3) + V(4) + \dots) = V(1) + V(2) \quad * \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 4 \\ 8 \\ 16 \\ 32 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1/12 & -1/2 & -1/2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1/6 & -1/2 & -1/3 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/120 & 0 & -1/4 & -1/2 & -1/4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/30 & 0 & -1/3 & -1/2 & -1/5 \\ -1/252 & 0 & 1/12 & 0 & -5/12 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 5 \\ 9 \\ 17 \\ 33 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note, that because of subtraction with $V(0)$ involved, the first column of **ZETA** is irrelevant and thus the first row of the $V()$ -vectors, so we may write this in a shorter form:

$$(3.5.2.) \quad {}^{(-)}ZETA * (0 * V(0) - 2 * V(2)) = V(1) + V(2) = S(1,2) \quad * \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \\ 8 \\ 16 \\ 32 \\ 64 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & . & . & . & . & . \\ -1/2 & -1/2 & . & . & . & . \\ -1/6 & -1/2 & -1/3 & . & . & . \\ 0 & -1/4 & -1/2 & -1/4 & . & . \\ 1/30 & 0 & -1/3 & -1/2 & -1/5 & . \\ 0 & 1/12 & 0 & -5/12 & -1/2 & -1/6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 5 \\ 9 \\ 17 \\ 33 \end{bmatrix}$$

The deletion of the first row of a Vandermonde-vector $V(n)$ means just the multiplication by n , so $n * V(n)$ performs this deletion (or simply shifting by one exponent).

The zero-vector can be omitted, and signs can be adapted and the remaining **ZETA**-submatrix, (which I called in my first studies of this "**Gp**"), is then the working example for the summing-problem:

Result 3.5:

(3.5.3.)	$ZETA * V(0)$	$= [\zeta(0), \zeta(-1), \zeta(-2), \dots] \sim$
(3.5.4.)	$ZETA * (V(0) - V(n))$	$= V(1) + V(2) + \dots + V(n)$
(3.5.5.)	$ZETA * (V(m-1) - V(n))$	$= V(m) + V(m+1) + \dots + V(n)$
	and	
(3.5.6.)	$ZETA * (V(n-1) - V(n))$	$= V(n)$

Short forms:

(3.5.7.)	$G_p * n V(n)$	$= V(1) + V(2) + \dots + V(n)$
	and	
(3.5.8.)	$G_p * (n V(n) - (n-1) V(n-1))$	$= V(n)$

Example

$$\begin{aligned}
 G_p * 2 * V(2) &= V(1) + V(2) \\
 G_p * n * V(n) &= V(1) + V(2) + \dots + V(n)
 \end{aligned}
 \quad * \quad
 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \\ 8 \\ 16 \\ 32 \\ 64 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & & & \\ 1/2 & 1/2 & & & & & \\ 1/6 & 1/2 & 1/3 & & & & \\ 0 & 1/4 & 1/2 & 1/4 & & & \\ -1/30 & 0 & 1/3 & 1/2 & 1/5 & & \\ 0 & -1/12 & 0 & 5/12 & 1/2 & 1/6 & \end{bmatrix}
 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 5 \\ 9 \\ 17 \\ 33 \end{bmatrix}
 =
 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 5 \\ 9 \\ 17 \\ 33 \end{bmatrix}$$

Here we have the matrix **Gp** as the exact version of the Faulhaber/Bernoulli-matrix of coefficients for summing of like powers¹.

¹ I called this matrix **Gp** in my first article about Bernoulli-numbers, where this matrix occurred (but with apriori knowledge of the Bernoulli-numbers, precisely: from context of the existence of two versions of sequences of Bernoulli-numbers differing in β_1 , having either $-1/2$ or $+1/2$ as values).

3.6. "Zeta"-polynomials

We may define "zeta-polynomials" completely analogous to the *eta*-polynomials, which then perform the (non-alternating) summing of like powers.

Only -additionally- we have to consider the first upper subdiagonal, which is related to the $\zeta(1)$ -expressions.

(3.6.1.)

Definition of the *m*'th zeta-polynomial in *x*

$$zeta_m(x) = \sum_{c=0}^{m+1} \left(\zeta(-(m-c)) \binom{m}{c} x^c \right) \quad // \text{ where } \zeta(1) * (m:m+1) = -1/(m+1)$$

(3.6.2.) or

$$zeta_m(x) = \sum_{c=0}^m \left(\zeta(-(m-c)) \binom{m}{c} x^c \right) - \frac{1}{m+1} x^{m+1}$$

note the perfect match with the original [J.Bernoulli](#)-consideration (inverse signs), setting $\beta_k/k = -\zeta(1-k)$

Examples:

$$\begin{aligned} zeta_0(x) &= \zeta(0) - 1 x \\ zeta_1(x) &= \zeta(-1) + 1 \zeta(0) x - 1/2 x^2 \\ zeta_2(x) &= \zeta(-2) + 2 \zeta(-1) x + 1 \zeta(0) x^2 - 1/3 x^3 \\ zeta_3(x) &= \zeta(-3) + 3 \zeta(-2) x + 3 \zeta(-1) x^2 + 1 \zeta(0) x^3 - 1/4 x^4 \\ zeta_4(x) &= \zeta(-4) + 4 \zeta(-3) x + 6 \zeta(-2) x^2 + 4 \zeta(-1) x^3 + 1 \zeta(0) x^4 - 1/5 x^5 \\ &\dots \end{aligned}$$

then (using the notation of the Hurwitz-zeta-function):

$$(3.6.3.) \quad zeta_m(0) = \zeta(-m, 1) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^m = 1^m + 2^m + 3^m + \dots$$

$$(3.6.4.) \quad zeta_m(n) = \zeta(-m, n+1) = \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} k^m = (n+1)^m + (n+2)^m + (n+3)^m + \dots$$

where the latter is the Hurwitz-zeta-function $\zeta(-m, n)$ for each row *m* (only my row-indices *m* have inverse sign to the Hurwitz-zeta-exponent, this may be a bit confusing...).

The (non-alternating) sum of *m*'th like powers $s_m(n)$ from 1^m to n^m is:

(3.6.5.)

$$\begin{aligned} s(n) &= zeta_m(0) - zeta_m(n) = \sum_{k=1}^n k^m = 1^m + 2^m + \dots + n^m \\ &= \zeta(-m, 1) - \zeta(-m, n+1) \quad // \text{ the Hurwitz-zeta-function} \end{aligned}$$

Examples:

$$\begin{aligned} s_1(2) &= 1 + 2 = 3 \\ &= zeta_1(0) - zeta_1(2) = \zeta(-1) - (\zeta(-1) + \zeta(0)*2 - 1/2*4) = -\zeta(0)*2 + 2 = 3 \\ s_1(4) &= 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 = 10 \\ &= zeta_1(0) - zeta_1(4) = \zeta(-1) - (\zeta(-1) + \zeta(0)*4 - 1/2*16) = -\zeta(0)*4 + 8 = 10 \\ s_3(3) &= 1 + 8 + 27 = 36 \\ &= zeta_3(0) - zeta_3(3) \\ &= \zeta(-3) - (\zeta(-3) + 3 \zeta(-2)*3 + 3 \zeta(-1)*9 + \zeta(0)*27 - 1/4*81) \\ &= -9*0 + 27/12 + 27/2 + 81/4 \\ &= 9/4 + 27/2 + 81/4 = 45/2 + 27/2 = 36 \end{aligned}$$

4. Summing of like powers with negative exponent

4.1. Intro

Completely analogously to the summing with positive exponents the summing can be performed with negative exponents.

Note for this, that the inverse of the binomial-matrix P^{-1} performs "shifting" when left-multiplied with a Vandermonde-vector. (For a **proof** see for instance [\[binomialmatrix\]](#))

Example:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} V(1/2)^{\sim} * P^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} * V(1/3)^{\sim}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ -1 & 1 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ 1 & -2 & 1 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ -1 & 3 & -3 & 1 & \cdot & \cdot \\ 1 & -4 & 6 & -4 & 1 & \cdot \\ -1 & 5 & -10 & 10 & -5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

....

$$\left[\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{4} \quad \frac{1}{8} \quad \frac{1}{16} \quad \frac{1}{32} \quad \frac{1}{64} \right] \dots \left[\frac{1}{3} \quad \frac{1}{9} \quad \frac{1}{27} \quad \frac{1}{81} \quad \frac{1}{243} \quad \frac{1}{729} \right] \dots$$

The reason, why I call this "shifting", may be better understood, if on the lhs we document a whole set of powerseries (in terms of the Vandermonde-vectors, which I usually call ZV ,) and on the rhs the whole set of results:

Example¹:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} V(1/x)^{\sim} * P^{-1} = \frac{1}{(x+1)} * V(1/(x+1))^{\sim}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ -1 & 1 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ 1 & -2 & 1 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ -1 & 3 & -3 & 1 & \cdot & \cdot \\ 1 & -4 & 6 & -4 & 1 & \cdot \\ -1 & 5 & -10 & 10 & -5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

....

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1/2 & 1/4 & 1/8 & 1/16 & 1/32 & 1/64 \\ 1/3 & 1/9 & 1/27 & 1/81 & 1/243 & 1/729 \\ 1/4 & 1/16 & 1/64 & 1/256 & 1/1024 & 1/4096 \\ 1/5 & 1/25 & 1/125 & 1/625 & 1/3125 & 1/15625 \\ 1/6 & 1/36 & 1/216 & 1/1296 & 1/7776 & 1/46656 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 1/4 & 1/8 & 1/16 & 1/32 & 1/64 \\ 1/3 & 1/9 & 1/27 & 1/81 & 1/243 & 1/729 \\ 1/4 & 1/16 & 1/64 & 1/256 & 1/1024 & 1/4096 \\ 1/5 & 1/25 & 1/125 & 1/625 & 1/3125 & 1/15625 \\ 1/6 & 1/36 & 1/216 & 1/1296 & 1/7776 & 1/46656 \\ 1/7 & 1/49 & 1/343 & 1/2401 & 1/16807 & 1/117649 \end{bmatrix}$
--	---

Analogously to chapt. 1, to repeat this operation means:

$$\frac{1}{2} * V(1/2)^{\sim} * P^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} V(1/3)^{\sim}$$

$$\frac{1}{3} * V(1/3)^{\sim} * P^{-1} = \frac{1}{4} V(1/4)^{\sim}$$

...

and generally

(4.1.1.) $V(1/n)^{\sim} * P^{-n} = \frac{1}{(n+1)} * V(1/(n+1))^{\sim}$

¹ Note: In the following examples I'll omit the ellipses, which conventionally denote infinite extension, for brevity

4.2. Sums of like powers of reciprocals: basic notations

The summing of a contiguous interval of reciprocals is denoted as $S_R(a,b)$

$$(4.2.1) \quad S_R(a,b) = \frac{1}{a}V\left(\frac{1}{a}\right) + \frac{1}{a+1}V\left(\frac{1}{a+1}\right) + \frac{1}{a+2}V\left(\frac{1}{a+2}\right) + \dots + \frac{1}{b}V\left(\frac{1}{b}\right)$$

where in the r 'th row of $S_R(a,b)$ are the scalar sums

$$(4.2.2) \quad S_R(a,b)_r = \frac{1}{a^{r+1}} + \frac{1}{(a+1)^{r+1}} + \frac{1}{(a+2)^{r+1}} + \dots + \frac{1}{b^{r+1}}$$

Examples:

The r 'th harmonic number $h_r(b)$ is

$$(4.2.3) \quad h_r(b) = S_R(1,b)_r$$

For $S_R(1,inf)$ we have in the row r the zeta-value:

$$(4.2.4) \quad \zeta(r+1) = S_R(1,inf)_r = 1 + \frac{1}{2^{r+1}} + \frac{1}{3^{r+1}} + \frac{1}{4^{r+1}} + \dots$$

Thus we get again a geometric series, where in each row r of the result is $\zeta(r+1)$,

$$(4.2.5) \quad S_R(1,inf)\sim = V(1)\sim + 1/2 V(1/2)\sim + 1/3 V(1/3)\sim + \dots$$

can be written as

$$(4.2.6) \quad S_R(1,inf)\sim = V(1)\sim * (P^0 + P^{-1} + P^{-2} + \dots)$$

and we could express this with the shortcut formula for geometric series in P^{-1}

$$(4.2.7) \quad S_R(1,inf)\sim = V(1)\sim * (I - P^{-1})^{-1}$$

if the parentheses were invertible.

We simply face the same problem as we did when trying to sum the alternating and non-alternating zeta-series with negative exponents, only that the inverse of P is involved instead of P . But since the diagonal of P and P^{-1} are the same, we have the same problem (and solution) here.

4.3. Solution for the alternating sum of like powers of reciprocals

Define the sum vector for the alternating vector-series

$$(4.3.1.) \quad AS_R(1,inf) = V(1) - 1/2 V(1/2) + 1/3 V(1/3) - \dots$$

Then, by construction, we'll have in any element of $AS_R(1,inf)$ the according value of the $eta()$ -function $\eta()$:

$$(4.3.2.) \quad AS_R(1,inf)_{[r]} = \eta(1+r)$$

Replacing $1/n V(1/n)~$ by $V(1)~ * P^{1-n}$ and factoring out of $V(1)~$ we have also:

$$AS_R(1,inf)~ = V(1)~ * (P^0 - P^1 + P^2 - \dots)$$

The parentheses on the rhs can be computed, using the geometric-series-formula, by

$$AS_R(1,inf)~ = V(1)~ * (I + P^{-1})^{-1}$$

We may provisorially call the parentheses-term ETA_2 :

$$(4.3.3.) \quad ETA_2 = (I + P^{-1})^{-1}$$

and see, that this identical to our ETA -matrix.

Proof: recall the definition of ETA from (2.???)

$$ETA = P * (I + P)^{-1}$$

put the first P into the parentheses and multiply out:

$$\begin{aligned} ETA &= ((I + P) * P^{-1})^{-1} \\ &= (P^{-1} + I)^{-1} \\ &= ETA_2 \end{aligned}$$

End of proof

So, analogously to the summing property of ETA in chap 2 we have

$$(4.3.4.) \quad \begin{aligned} AS_R(1,inf)~ &= V(1)~ * ETA \\ &= [\eta(1), \eta(2), \eta(3), \dots] \end{aligned}$$

Beginning at a different starting-value we have the (alternating) Hurwitz-zeta-values in AS_R :

$$(4.3.5.) \quad \begin{aligned} AS_R(a,inf)~ &= (-1)^{a-1} V(a)~ * ETA \\ &= [\eta(1,a), \eta(2,a), \eta(3,a), \dots] \end{aligned}$$

The difference of two such partial infinite sums provide the alternating sums of a contiguous segment of like powers of reciprocals:

$$(4.3.6.) \quad \begin{aligned} AS_R(a,b)~ &= AS_R(a,inf)~ - AS_R(b+1,inf)~ \\ &= \left(\frac{(-1)^{a-1}}{a} V\left(\frac{1}{a}\right) - \frac{(-1)^{b-1}}{b+1} V\left(\frac{1}{b+1}\right) \right)~ * ETA \end{aligned}$$

In conventional notation this is - for the first column $c=0$ - of the result:

$$(4.3.7.) \quad \sum_{k=a}^b (-1)^k \frac{1}{k} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left[\left(\frac{(-1)^{a-1}}{a^{k+1}} - \frac{(-1)^{b-1}}{b^{k+1}} \right) \eta(-k) \right] \quad // \text{ with } c=0$$

Extended to the other columns, using the appropriate binomial-factors:

$$(4.3.8.) \quad \sum_{k=a}^b (-1)^k \frac{1}{k^{c+1}} = \sum_{k=c}^{\infty} \left[\left(\frac{(-1)^{a-1}}{a^{k+1}} - \frac{(-1)^{b-1}}{b^{k+1}} \right) \binom{k}{c} \eta(c-k) \right] \quad // \text{ with } c \geq 0$$

Notes:

- 1) To confirm the result numerically, we need techniques of divergent summation, since the sums for each column diverge; but using for instance Euler-summation the result can be verified easily.
- 2) If a finite und b infinite, we have the alternating Hurwitz-Zetas in the columns of the result (*see (...)*).
- 3) If $a=1$, and b finite we have the r 'th alternating harmonic numbers $ah_r(b)$, the sums from $1/1$ up to $1/b^r$

$$(4.3.9.) \quad [V(1) - (-1)^{b-1} V(1/b)] \sim * ETA = [ah_1(b), ah_2(b), ah_3(b), \dots]$$

4.4. Solution for the non-alternating sum of like powers of reciprocals

Define the sum vector for the vector-series

$$(4.4.1.) \quad S_R(1, \text{inf}) = V(1) + 1/2 V(1/2) + 1/3 V(1/3) + \dots$$

Then, by construction, we'll have in any element of $S_R(1, \text{inf})$ the according value of the zeta()-function $\zeta()$:

$$(4.4.2.) \quad S_R(1, \text{inf})_{[r]} = \zeta(1+r)$$

Replacing $1/n V(1/n) \sim$ by $V(1) \sim * P^{1-n}$ and factoring out of $V(1) \sim$ we have also:

$$S_R(1, \text{inf}) \sim = V(1) \sim * (P^0 + P^1 + P^2 + \dots).$$

The parentheses on the rhs can be computed, using the Toeplitz-formula, by

$$(4.4.3.) \quad S_R(1, \text{inf}) \sim = \lim V(1) \sim * [P^{-1} \odot \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} T(k)]$$

The result for $S_R(1, \text{inf})$ is (*see [proof for identity zeta2](#)*)

$$(4.4.4.) \quad S_R(1, \text{inf}) \sim = \lim V(1) \sim * (-ZETA)$$

The results for $S_R(a, \text{inf})$ and $S_R(1, b)$ and $S_R(a, b)$ are then accordingly

$$(4.4.5.) \quad S_R(a, \text{inf}) \sim = \lim 1/a V(1/a) \sim * (-ZETA) = [\gamma, \zeta(2), \zeta(3), \dots]$$

$$(4.4.6.) \quad S_R(1, b-1) \sim = \lim [V(1) - 1/b V(1/b)] \sim * (-ZETA)$$

$$(4.4.7.) \quad S_R(a, b-1) \sim = \lim [1/a V(1/a) - 1/b V(1/b)] \sim * (-ZETA)$$

I verified the result numerically using Euler-summation of order 4.7 with dimension $n=64$ of the matrices to three decimal places using Pari/GP:

Example:

$$\lim V(1)\sim * (-ZETA) = [\text{gamma}, \zeta(2), \zeta(3), \dots]$$

1/2	1	0	0	0	0
1/12	1/2	1/2	0	0	0
0	1/6	1/2	1/3	0	0
-1/120	0	1/4	1/2	1/4	0
0	-1/30	0	1/3	1/2	1/5
1/252	0	-1/12	0	5/12	1/2

...

[1 1 1 1 1 1]...	[0.57722 1.6449 1.2020 1.0821 1.0359 1.0139]...
--------------------	---

direct computation using Pari/GP: [0.57722 1.6449 1.2021 1.0823 1.0369 1.0173]

So, analogously to the summing property of **ZETA** in chap 3 we have

$$(4.4.8.) \quad S_R(1, \text{inf})\sim = V(1)\sim * ZETA = [\text{gamma}, \zeta(2), \zeta(3), \dots]$$

Beginning at a different starting-value we have the Hurwitz-zeta-values in S_R :

$$(4.4.9.) \quad S_R(a, \text{inf})\sim = V(a)\sim * ZETA = [\zeta(1, a), \zeta(2, a), \zeta(3, a), \dots]$$

The difference of two such partial infinite sums provide the sums of a contiguous segment of like powers of reciprocals:

$$(4.4.10.) \quad S_R(a, b)\sim = S_R(a, \text{inf})\sim - S_R(b+1, \text{inf})\sim = \left(\frac{1}{a} V\left(\frac{1}{a}\right) - \frac{1}{b+1} V\left(\frac{1}{b+1}\right) \right) \sim * ZETA$$

In conventional notation this is - for the first column $c=0$ - of the result:

$$(4.4.11.) \quad \sum_{k=a}^b \frac{1}{k} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left[\left(\frac{1}{a^{k+1}} - \frac{1}{b^{k+1}} \right) \zeta(-k) \right] \quad // \text{ with } c=0$$

Extended to the other columns, using the appropriate binomial-factors (where the normed term at $\zeta(1)$ -positions are added)

$$(4.4.12.) \quad \sum_{k=a}^b \frac{1}{k^{c+1}} = \sum_{k=c-1}^{\infty} \left[\left(\frac{1}{a^{k+1}} - \frac{1}{b^{k+1}} \right) \binom{k}{c} \zeta(c-k) \right] \quad // \text{ with } c>0$$

Notes:

- 1) To confirm the result numerically, we need techniques of divergent summation, since the sums for each column diverge; however Euler-summation does not suffice here.
- 2) If a finite und b infinite, we have the Hurwitz-Zetas in the columns of the result.
- 3) If $a=1$, and b finite we have the r 'th harmonic numbers $h_r(b)$, the sums from $1/1$ up to $1/b^r$

$$(4.4.13.) \quad (V(1) - V(1/b)) \sim * ZETA = [h_1(b), h_2(b), h_3(b), \dots]$$

5. Generalizations

5.1. Different arithmetic progressions

(not yet ready. It mean simply using powers of P in the formula for geometric series)

5.2. Fractional exponents

(not yet ready. It mean simply using fractional powers of P in the formula for geometric series, also P is no more triangular)

5.3. Resume

(not yet ready)

6. Proofs and details

6.1. Proof: the z'th power of P is the Hadamard-product of P and T(z)

(6.1.1) Definition:

$$V(a) * V(1/a) \sim \text{Toeplitz}(a) := T(a)$$

Lemma 6.1.1: The entries of P^a are the entries of the Hadamard-product $P \odot \text{Toeplitz}(a)$.

Proof 6.1.1:

From the binomial-theorem it follows, that

$$(6.1.2) \quad P * V(a) = P * [1, a, a^2, a^3, \dots] \sim [1, a+1, (a+1)^2, (a+1)^3, \dots] \sim$$

where the n'th row of the rhs is (writing $bi()$ for *binomial()*)

$$(1+a)^n = a^0 bi(n, 0) + a^1 bi(n, 1) + \dots + a^{n-1} bi(n, n-1) + a^n bi(n, n)$$

But we may also write

$$(1+a)^n = a^n (1+1/a)^n$$

and this is, using the n'th row of **P**:

$$(6.1.3) \quad a^n (1+1/a)^n = a^n (a^0 bi(n,0) + a^{-1} bi(n,1) + \dots + a^{1-n} bi(n,n-1) + a^{-n} bi(n,n)) \\ = a^n P_{n,*} * V(1/a)$$

This is formally identical for each row in **P**, so we may write the leading a^n as left-multiplication with the diagonal matrix ${}^dV(a)$:

$$(6.1.4) \quad P * V(a) = {}^dV(a) * P * V(1/a)$$

Rewriting the rightmost column-vector $V(1/a)$ as product of ${}^dV(1/a) * V(1)$:

$$(6.1.5) \quad P * V(a) = ({}^dV(a) * P * {}^dV(1/a)) * V(1)$$

Now the cofactors of **P** on the rhs rescale the entries of **P** by a^{-c} , which can then be seen as the Hadamard-product of **P** with the Toeplitzmatrix **T(a)**.

On the other hand,

$$(6.1.6) \quad P * V(a) = P^a * V(1)$$

so also, combining (4.1.5) and (4.1.6), it is :

$$(6.1.7) \quad P^a = ({}^dV(a) * P * {}^dV(1/a))$$

The entries $P^a_{[r,c]}$ of $P^a = {}^dV(a) * P * {}^dV(1/a)$ are

$$(6.1.8) \quad P^a_{[r,c]} = a^r * P_{[r,c]} * a^{-c} = P[r,c] * a^{r-c}$$

and thus can be written as a hadamard-product of **P** with the Toeplitzmatrix of a :

$$(6.1.9) \quad P^a = P \odot \text{Toeplitz}(a)$$

End of Proof.

Second Proof for [Lemma 6.1.1](#)**[Corollary 6.1.2:](#)**

(6.1.10.)

The pascal-matrix can be seen as matrix-exponential of a purely subdiagonal-matrix containing the natural numbers.

Example:

$$L = \text{SubDiag}^1 Z(-1) \quad \begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ 1 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & 2 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & 3 & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 4 & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P = \exp(L) \quad \begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ 1 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & 2 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & 3 & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 4 & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ 1 & 1 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & \cdot & \cdot \\ 1 & 3 & 3 & 1 & \cdot \\ 1 & 4 & 6 & 4 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 & 10 & 10 & 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Proof: this follows immediately from the exponential-series for L.
see for instance in [[binomialmatrix](#)]

[Corollary 6.1.3:](#)

(6.1.11.)

A power of the exponential is the exponential of a multiple of the logarithm.

Proof: this is a known property valid also for invertible matrices.

Restatement of [Lemma 6.1.1:](#)

(6.1.12.)

The n'th power of P contains the original binomial-entries cofactored with powers of n, in terms of a Hadamard-product of P with a Toeplitzmatrix formed from powers of n.

In matrix-description: (where \odot denotes the elementwise ("Hadamard")-product)

$$(6.1.13.) \quad P^n = {}^dV(n) * P * {}^dV(1/n) = P \odot (V(n) * V(1/n) \sim) = P \odot \text{Toeplitz}(n)$$

[Proof 6.1.2:](#)

If we use the logarithm **L** and multiply it by an arbitrary complex scalar factor *s* we have initially:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ s & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & 2*s & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & 3*s & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 4*s & \cdot \end{bmatrix}$$

The cofactor *s* arrives at consecutive powers for consecutive subdiagonals, when expanding the exponential-series, and does not affect the constructed binomial-coefficients.

The matrix exponential is then finally

$$(6.1.14.) \quad P^s = P \odot \text{Toeplitz}(s) = {}^dV(s) * P * {}^dV(1/s)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ s * 1 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ s^{2*1} & s * 2 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ s^{3*1} & s^{2*3} & s * 3 & \cdot & \cdot \\ s^{4*1} & s^{3*4} & s^{2*6} & s * 4 & \cdot \end{bmatrix}$$

which is also the Hadamardproduct of the Pascal-matrix **P** with the product ($V(s) * V(1/s) \sim$) so that [lemma 4.1.1](#) is proven and we have:

$$(6.1.15.) \quad P^s := P^s_{r,c} = (r:c) * s^{r-c} \quad // = 0 \text{ if } c > r$$

[End of proof 6.1.2](#)

6.2. Formal description of the entries of ETA /ZETA

Corrolary 6.2.1: the sum of $P * V(a) + P * V(b)$ is

$$\begin{aligned} P V(a) + P V(b) &= \\ P^a * V(1) + P^b * V(1) &= \\ (P^a + P^b) * V(1) &= \\ = [P \odot (Toeplitz(a) + Toeplitz(b))] * V(1) \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 6.2.1: The infinite sum of $P V(0) + P V(1) + P V(2) + \dots$ is:

(6.2.1.)

$$P * \sum_{k=0,inf} V(k) = (P \odot \sum_{k=0,inf} Toeplitz(k)) * V(1)$$

conditional on summability of (possibly divergent) sums for any entry

Result 6.2.1 :

the entries $ETA_{r,c}$ of the matrix **ETA** are the alternating sums of powers, thus $\eta()$ -values at nonpositive exponents, cofactored by binomial coefficients:

$$\begin{aligned} (6.2.2.) \quad ETA_{r,c} &= P_{r,c} * \eta(-(r-c)) \\ &= (r:c) * \eta(-(r-c)) \end{aligned}$$

Result 6.2.2 :

the entries $ZETA_{r,c}$ of the matrix **ZETA** are the sums of like powers, thus $\zeta()$ -values at nonpositive exponents, cofactored by binomial coefficients:

$$\begin{aligned} (6.2.3.) \quad ZETA_{r,c} &= P_{r,c} * \zeta(-(r-c)) \\ &= (r:c) * \zeta(-(r-c)) \end{aligned}$$

The entries of the first upper subdiagonal are therefore $-1/c$, where c is the column-number, due to the setting:(see chap (4.3))

$$\begin{aligned} \zeta(1)/(-1)! &= -1 \\ \text{and} \quad \zeta(1)/(-1)! * 1/c &= -1/c. \end{aligned}$$

Proof 6.2.1:

According to Lemma 6.2.1, the entries of **ZETA/ETA** can be described as binomials cofactored with the non-/alternating sums of the according entries of all involved Toeplitzmatrices, which form then the $\zeta() / \eta()$ -function-values with row/col-specific exponents.

Since in each entry of the n 'th power of **P** is

$$P^n_{[r,c]} = P_{[r,c]} * n^{r-c}$$

the non-/alternating sum of all powers for $n=1..inf$ in each entry of **ZETA/ETA** is

$$\begin{aligned} ZETA \quad \lim P * (P^0 + P^1 + P^2 + \dots)_{r,c} &= P_{r,c} * \sum_{k=1..inf} k^{r-c} \\ &= P_{r,c} * \zeta(-(r-c)) && // \text{ where } r,c \geq 0 \\ &= -1/c = \zeta(1)/(-1)! / c && // \text{ where } c=r+1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} ETA \quad \lim P * (P^0 - P^1 + P^2 - \dots)_{r,c} &= P_{r,c} * \sum_{k=1..inf} (-1)^{k-1} k^{r-c} \\ &= P_{r,c} * \eta(-(r-c)) \end{aligned}$$

whose divergent sums are known, or can be evaluated by Ramanujan- or Euler-summation to the appropriate $\zeta()$ or $\eta()$ -values.

End of proof

6.3. Ratio of $\zeta(1)$ and $\gamma(0)$

I don't have an authoritative reference for the definition yet, but some hints, which I'm trying to extend. Here is a source from a discussion in usenet:

6.3.1. Usenet-discussion (1): sci.math

In article <f2c0fs\$5ee\$0...@news.t-online.com>, Gottfried Helms wrote:

> Hi -
 > in the context of binomials I came across this substitution as meaningful, or say more precisely
 > that it would be meaningful to set
 > $\zeta(1) / (-1)! = 1$

> Is this appropriate also in other contexts? (and if, then to argue why, would be helpful too)
 > Gottfried Helms

Laurent series, $\zeta(1+x) = 1/x + \dots$
 $\Gamma(x) = 1/x + \dots$

so the ratio converges to 1 as $x \rightarrow 0$

That is probably what is meant.

--

G. A. Edgar

<http://www.math.ohio-state.edu/~edgar/>

6.3.2. Wikipedia: Riemann-Zeta-function, "Laurent series"

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Riemann_zeta_function

"The Riemann zeta function is meromorphic with a single pole of order one at $s = 1$. It can therefore be expanded as a Laurent series about $s = 1$; the series development then is

$$\zeta(s) = \frac{1}{s-1} + \gamma_0 + \gamma_1(s-1) + \gamma_2(s-1)^2 + \dots$$

The constants here are called the Stieltjes constants and can be defined as (...)"

6.3.3. usenet-discussion (2) : de.sci.mathematik

Von: Peter Luschny (venice@luschny.de)

Datum: 23.02.2007 09:55

Message-ID: <erma65\$9j7\$1@online.de>

Schau auf dieses harmlose Funktiönchen

$$g(x) = -x \cdot \sin(\pi \cdot x) \cdot \text{GAMMA}(-x) / \pi$$

und betrachte es für Werte $x < 0$. Im wesentlichen die Funktion $\sin(\pi \cdot x)$, nur dass sie immer stärker oszilliert wenn $x \rightarrow -\infty$ geht.

An den Stellen $n = -1, -2, -3, \dots$ hat sie natürlich den Wert 0.

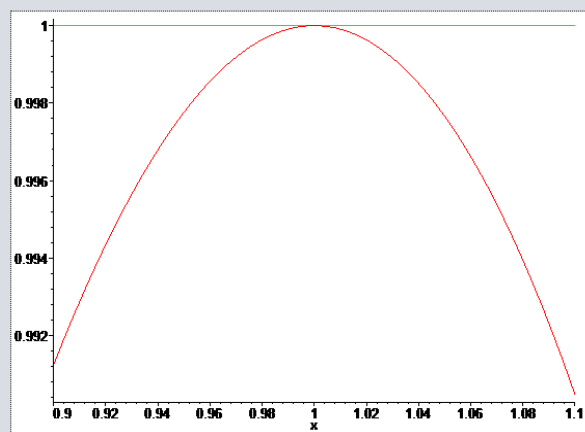
Danach betrachte $\zeta(x)$ für $x < 0$. Ein kleines Regenwürmchen, das sich um die x -Achse schlängelt. Total harmlos.

Also ist auch $\zeta(x) \cdot g(x)$ total harmlos überall auf der negativen Achse. Ok so weit?

Na gut, aber $\zeta(x) \cdot g(x) = \zeta(x) / \Gamma(x)$. Fertig.

Weil $1/\Gamma(x) = -x \cdot \sin(\pi \cdot x) \cdot \text{GAMMA}(-x) / \pi$.

Ersetze jetzt das Wort 'harmlos' durch, etwa, 'stetig' und du fragst nicht mehr nach eps/delta.



$-\zeta(x) / (-x)! \text{ for } x=0.9..1.1$

<http://peter.luschny.googlepages.com/zetafactorial>

6.4. Proof for identity $ZETA_2 = -ZETA$

Starting at eq. (4.7.4.3):

$$(3.7.4.3) \quad S_R(1,inf)\sim = \lim V(1)\sim * [P^{-1} \odot \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} T(k)]$$

where

$$P^{-1} = J * P * J = {}^dV(-1) * P * {}^dV(-1) = P \odot T(-1)$$

We may provisorially call the bracketed term $ZETA_2$:

$$(6.4.1.) \quad ZETA_2 := ZETA_{2,r,c} = (-1)^{r-c} \text{binomial}(r,c) * \zeta(c-r)$$

and see, that this identical to our $ZETA$ -matrix.

Proof: Put the first P into the parenthese and multiply out:

$$(6.4.2.) \quad \begin{aligned} ZETA_2 &= P^{-1} \odot (T(0) + T(1) + T(2) + T(3) + \dots) \\ &= P^{-1} \odot T(0) + P^{-1} \odot (T(1) + T(2) + T(3) + \dots) \\ &= I + J P J \odot (T(1) + T(2) + T(3) + \dots) \\ &= I + J [P \odot (T(1) + T(2) + T(3) + \dots)] J \end{aligned}$$

Now recall the definition of $ZETA$ from (3.3.3)

$$ZETA = \lim (T(1) + T(2) + T(3) + \dots) \boxtimes P$$

Then put this into the bracketed term of the previous formula and get

$$(6.4.3.) \quad \begin{aligned} ZETA_2 &= I + J ZETA J \\ &= I + ZETA \odot T(-1) \end{aligned}$$

Now at each place, where the Hadamard-multiplication changes the sign of $ZETA$, there is a value $ZETA_{r,c} <> 0$, and at each place, where it doesn't $ZETA_{r,c} = 0$, except in the diagonal, where $ZETA_{r,c} = -1/2$. Thus we have to compensate for these diagonal entries by addition of $2 * -1/2 * I$:

$$(6.4.4.) \quad ZETA \odot T(-1) = -ZETA - I$$

Thus

$$(6.4.5.) \quad \begin{aligned} ZETA_2 &= I + ZETA \odot T(-1) \\ &= I - ZETA - I \end{aligned}$$

$$(6.4.6.) \quad ZETA_2 = -ZETA$$

End of proof

7. Loose ends

7.1. extension of ZETA to ZETA+, and its reciprocal

The matrix **ZETA** could not be found by the shortcut-formula for infinite geometric series due to the impossibility of the inversion of $(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{P})$. Also the inversion of **ZETA** gives uninteresting results, the entries of a \mathbf{ZETA}^{-1} - matrix are altered by the dimension of **ZETA**.

But it is an interesting experiment, if we prefix **ZETA** with a row and the most reasonable guess for the missing top-left element, call this extended matrix **Z+**.

$$Z_+ = \begin{bmatrix} \zeta(-1)*(-1\ 0) & & & & & \\ \zeta(0)*(0\ 0) & \zeta(1)*(0\ 1) & & & & \dots \\ \zeta(-1)*(1\ 0) & \zeta(0)*(1\ 1) & \zeta(1)*(1\ 2) & & & \dots \\ \zeta(-2)*(2\ 0) & \zeta(-1)*(2\ 1) & \zeta(0)*(2\ 2) & \zeta(1)*(2\ 3) & & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

which is numerically (except (ascii-) writing $z1$ for $\zeta(1)$ itself):

$$(7.1.1) \quad Z_+ = \begin{bmatrix} -z1 & . & . & . & . & . \\ -1/2 & -1 & . & . & . & . \\ -1/12 & -1/2 & -1/2 & . & . & . \\ 0 & -1/6 & -1/2 & -1/3 & . & . \\ 1/120 & 0 & -1/4 & -1/2 & -1/4 & . \\ 0 & 1/30 & 0 & -1/3 & -1/2 & -1/5 \end{bmatrix} \quad Z_+$$

where $z1$ is $\zeta(1)$.

The reciprocal of **Z+** occurs numerically as the following Pascal-similar matrix with one additional column and the diagonal subtracted:

$$(7.1.2) \quad Z_+^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1/z1 & . & . & . & . & . \\ 1/2/z1 & -1 & . & . & . & . \\ -1/3/z1 & 1 & -2 & . & . & . \\ 1/4/z1 & -1 & 3 & -3 & . & . \\ -1/5/z1 & 1 & -4 & 6 & -4 & . \\ 1/6/z1 & -1 & 5 & -10 & 10 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \quad Z_+^{-1}$$

where $z1$ is $\zeta(1)$.

The entries here are independent of the dimension of **Z+**, and interestingly the submatrix with column l removed is just $(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{P}^{-l})$, the *reciprocal* of **P** (instead of **P** itself!). Note that the whole column l is numerically zero.

If **Z+** and \mathbf{Z}_+^{-1} are taken as eigensystem with the set of eigenvalues, using $\mathbf{J} = \text{diag}(1, -1, 1, -1, \dots)$ as described for instance in [binomial] then we get the eigen-composition of \mathbf{P}_j+ , an extended version of **Pj**:

$$(7.1.3) \quad Z_+ * \mathbf{J} * Z_+^{-1} = P_{j+}$$

$$* \begin{bmatrix} -1/z1 & . & . & . & . & . \\ 1/2/z1 & -1 & . & . & . & . \\ -1/3/z1 & 1 & -2 & . & . & . \\ 1/4/z1 & -1 & 3 & -3 & . & . \\ -1/5/z1 & 1 & -4 & 6 & -4 & . \\ 1/6/z1 & -1 & 5 & -10 & 10 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \quad Z_+^{-1}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -z1 & . & . & . & . & . \\ -1/2 & -1 & . & . & . & . \\ -1/12 & -1/2 & -1/2 & . & . & . \\ 0 & -1/6 & -1/2 & -1/3 & . & . \\ 1/120 & 0 & -1/4 & -1/2 & -1/4 & . \\ 0 & 1/30 & 0 & -1/3 & -1/2 & -1/5 \end{bmatrix} * \mathbf{J} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & . & . & . & . & . \\ 1/z1 & -1 & . & . & . & . \\ 1/(2*z1) & -1 & 1 & . & . & . \\ 1/(3*z1) & -1 & 2 & -1 & . & . \\ 1/(4*z1) & -1 & 3 & -3 & 1 & . \\ 1/(5*z1) & -1 & 4 & -6 & 4 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad P_{j+}$$

7.2. The matrixlogarithm of ETA

Heuristically, the matrix-logarithm has the following structure, which has the interesting property, that a shifting of the exponents of eta occurs: just by taking the matrix-logarithm we introduce $-\eta(1)$ and the first column has one exponent shifted entries compared with **ETA** itself. Also the signs are changed.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \log(\text{Eta}, n) = \begin{bmatrix} -\log 2 & . & . & . & . & . \\ -1/2 & -\log 2 & . & . & . & . \\ -1/4 & -1 & -\log 2 & . & . & . \\ 0 & -3/4 & -3/2 & -\log 2 & . & . \\ 1/8 & 0 & -3/2 & -2 & -\log 2 & . \\ 0 & 5/8 & 0 & -5/2 & -5/2 & -\log 2 \\ -1/4 & 0 & 15/8 & 0 & -15/4 & -3 \\ 0 & -7/4 & 0 & 35/8 & 0 & -21/4 \\ 17/16 & 0 & -7 & 0 & 35/4 & 0 \\ 0 & 153/16 & 0 & -21 & 0 & 63/4 \\ -31/4 & 0 & 765/16 & 0 & -105/2 & 0 \\ 0 & -341/4 & 0 & 2805/16 & 0 & -231/2 \\ 691/8 & 0 & -1023/2 & 0 & 8415/16 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where n is the number of terms in the logarithmic series used

```
Pari/Gp: m=96; bestappr(MLog(1.0*ETA,m),1e4)
\\ replace diagonal by token -log2
```

(7.2.1.)
proposal:

$$\log \text{ETA}_{r,0} = -\eta(1-(r-c)) * \text{binomial}(r,c)$$

(7.2.2.)

a recursive definition:

$$\begin{aligned} \log \text{ETA}_{r,0} &= -\eta(1-r) \\ \log \text{ETA}_{r+1,c+1} &= \log \text{ETA}_{r,c} * (r+1)/(c+1) \quad // \text{for } r \geq c \end{aligned}$$

7.3. The matrix-logarithm of $G_p *^d Z(-1)$ (instead of ZETA)

The matrix-logarithm of **ZETA** seems to be uninteresting, since its entries change with the dimension. Since **ZETA**⁺ is triangular, formally a consistent matrix-logarithm is possible here; but again it is uninteresting because of the $\zeta(1)$ -infinity in the top-left-element.

What is actually possible and interesting, is to use the matrix-logarithm of the **ZETA**-torso **Gp**, and actually of the column-scaled-version $G_p *^d Z(-1)$, which then is the matrix **B** of Bernoulli-polynomials¹, or differently said, the matrix of derivatives of *Zeta*-polynomials.

We get - in rational arithmetic, since the numerators in the logarithmic matrix-series are nilpotent -:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LOG} &= \text{mlog}(G_p *^d Z(-1)) \\ \text{LOG} &= \text{mlog}(B) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & . & . & . & . \\ 1/2 & 0 & . & . & . \\ -1/12 & 1 & 0 & . & . \\ 0 & -1/4 & 3/2 & 0 & . \\ 1/120 & 0 & -1/2 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/24 & 0 & -5/6 & 5/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

¹ (see article [[PMATRIX](#)] for a bit more detailed description)

The entries of **LOG** are

(7.3.1.)

Proposal:

$$LOG_{r,c} = -\zeta(1-(r-c)) * \text{binomial}(r,c) \quad // \text{for } r > c$$

7.4. ETA as eigensystem: building a Genocchi-Matrix

If we use the *ETA*-matrix as eigensystem with eigenvalues ${}^dZ(-1) = \text{diag}(1,2,3,4,\dots)$ we get

$$GEN = -2 * ETA * {}^dZ(-1) * ETA^{-1}$$

where the Genocchi-numbers are in the first column starting at 2'nd row and are in the next columns Toeplitz-like arranged again with binomial cofactors:

$$GEN = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & . & . & . & . & . & . & . \\ 1 & -4 & . & . & . & . & . & . \\ -1 & 2 & -6 & . & . & . & . & . \\ 0 & -3 & 3 & -8 & . & . & . & . \\ 1 & 0 & -6 & 4 & -10 & . & . & . \\ 0 & 5 & 0 & -10 & 5 & -12 & . & . \\ -3 & 0 & 15 & 0 & -15 & 6 & -14 & . \\ 0 & -21 & 0 & 35 & 0 & -21 & 7 & -16 \end{bmatrix}$$

whose entries are

(7.4.1.) *Proposal:*

the diagonal:

$$GEN[r,c] = -2 * (r+1) \quad // \text{for } r = c$$

the lower triangle:

$$GEN[r,c] = A036968(r) \quad // \text{for } r > c = 0$$

$$GEN[r,c] = \text{binomial}(r,c) * GEN[r-c,0] \quad // \text{for } r > c > 0$$

OEIS :

[A036968](#)

Genocchi numbers (of first kind): expansion of $2x/(exp(x)+1)$.

$$1, -1, 0, 1, 0, -3, 0, 17, 0, -155, 0, 2073, 0, -38227,$$

7.5. Graphs for ZETA-polynomials /Gp-polynomials

The m 'th *zeta*(-)-polynomial, in matrix-notation is

$$(7.5.1.) \quad \text{zeta}_m(x) = ZETA[m] * V(x)$$

or in conventional notation

$$(7.5.2.) \quad \text{zeta}_m(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{m+1} \zeta(-k) * \binom{m}{k} x^k = \sum_{k=0}^m \left(\zeta(-k) * \binom{m}{k} x^k \right) - \frac{x^{m+1}}{m+1}$$

Omitting the constant term at $k=0$ in the above formula (which means only to ignore a vertical shifting in the graph) and reversing signs, calling that the $gp()$ -polynomials, we have in matrix-notation

$$(7.5.3) \quad gp_m(x) = Gp_{[m]} * x V(x)$$

or

$$(7.5.4) \quad gp_m(x) = \sum_{k=1}^m \left(-\zeta(-k) * \binom{m}{k} x^k \right) + \frac{x^{m+1}}{m+1}$$

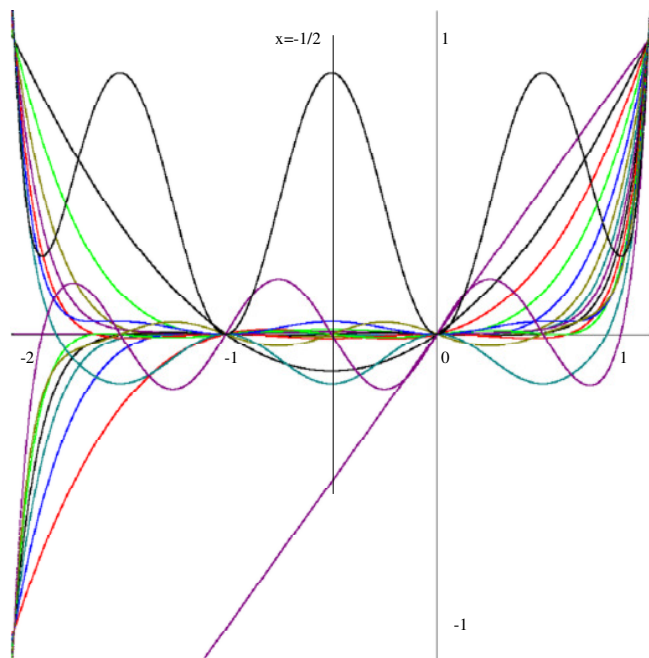
and this is also, to see the relation to bernoulli-polynomials:

$$(7.5.5) \quad gp_m(x) = \sum_{k=0}^m \left(\binom{m}{k} \beta_{m-k} \frac{x^{k+1}}{k+1} \right)$$

where $gp_m(x)$ can be recognized as the integral of the m 'th bernoulli-polynomial $b_m(x)$

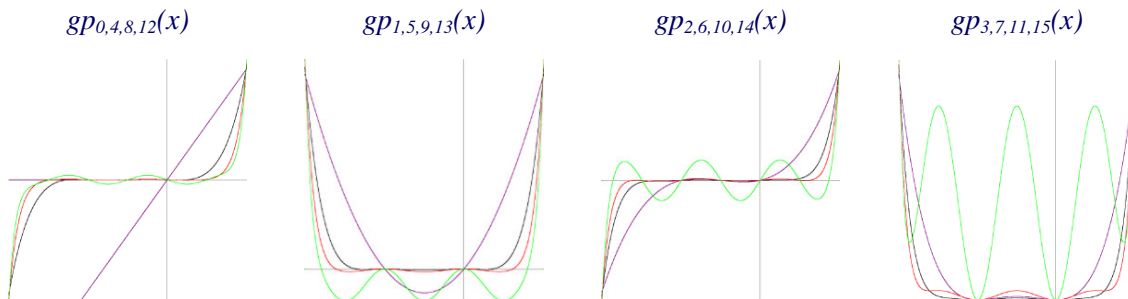
Example-graphs:

The graph shows the curves for the first 16 $gp()$ -polynomials for $x=-2..+1$ $y=-1..1$.



Note the seemingly perfect symmetries about $x=-1/2$, as well as the approximation to a clear $\sin()$ -type curve in the area

The graphs in 4 groups of gp_m , according to the 4 residuegroups of $m \pmod 4$:



I don't have analyzed the zeros of the gp -polynomials besides heuristics so far, but the way of analysis should be similar to that of the zeros of bernoulli-polynomials, for instance in [[Vaselov](#)]

8. Citations

8.1. concerning the original finding of Bernoulli-numbers

Jakob Bernoulli in *Ars Conjectandi*, P.99

Wer aber diese Reihen in Bezug auf ihre Gesetzmässigkeit genauer betrachtet, kann auch ohne umständliche Rechnung die Tafel fortsetzen. Bezeichnet c den ganzzahligen Exponenten irgend einer Potenz, so ist

$$S(n^c) = \frac{1}{c+1} n^{c+1} + \frac{1}{2} n^c + \frac{1}{2} \binom{c}{1} A n^{c-1} \\ + \frac{1}{4} \binom{c}{3} B n^{c-3} + \frac{1}{6} \binom{c}{5} C n^{c-5} + \frac{1}{8} \binom{c}{7} D n^{c-7} + \dots,$$

wobei die Exponenten der Potenzen von n regelmässig fort um 2 abnehmen bis herab zu n oder n^2 . Die Buchstaben A, B, C, D, \dots bezeichnen der Reihe nach die Coefficienten von n in den Ausdrücken für $S(n^2), S(n^4), S(n^6), S(n^8), \dots$, nämlich [98]

$$A = \frac{1}{6}, B = -\frac{1}{30}, C = \frac{1}{42}, D = -\frac{1}{30}, \dots$$

Eric Weissstein in <http://mathworld.wolfram.com/BernoulliPolynomial.html>

(Abramowitz and Stegun 1972, p. 804), first obtained by Euler (1738). The first few Bernoulli polynomials are

$$\begin{aligned} B_0(x) &= 1 \\ B_1(x) &= x - \frac{1}{2} \\ B_2(x) &= x^2 - x + \frac{1}{6} \\ B_3(x) &= x^3 - \frac{3}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{2}x \\ B_4(x) &= x^4 - 2x^3 + x^2 - \frac{1}{30} \\ B_5(x) &= x^5 - \frac{5}{2}x^4 + \frac{5}{3}x^3 - \frac{1}{6}x \\ B_6(x) &= x^6 - 3x^5 + \frac{5}{2}x^4 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{42} \end{aligned}$$

Bernoulli (1713) defined the polynomials in terms of sums of the *powers* of consecutive integers,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{m-1} k^{n-1} = \frac{1}{n} [B_n(m) - B_n(0)].$$

Ed Sandifer in *MAA-Online*, "Bernoulli numbers" (September 2005)

<http://www.maa.org/editorial/euler/HowEulerDidIt/Bernoullinnumbers.pdf>

In modern notation (Bernoulli did not use subscripts, nor did he use Σ for summations or ! for factorials) Bernoulli found that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} k^p = \sum_{k=0}^p \frac{B_k}{k!} \frac{p!}{(p+1-k)!} n^{p+1-k}$$

If n is large and p is small, that means that the left hand side is a sum of a relative large number of relatively small powers, and if we know the necessary Bernoulli numbers then the sum on the right is simpler to evaluate than the sum on the left. Bernoulli himself is said [G+S] to have used this formula to find the sum of the tenth powers of numbers 1 to 1000 in less than eight minutes. The answer is a 32-

8.2. Examples for generalizations of bernoulli-numbers/polynomials

Carlitz, L. "Arithmetic Properties of Generalized Bernoulli Numbers"
Journal für die reine und angewandte Mathematik Bd 202, S 174

1. In a recent paper [4], Leopoldt has defined generalized Bernoulli numbers and polynomials in the following manner. Let f be a fixed integer ≥ 1 and $\chi(r)$ a primitive character (mod f). Put

$$(1.1) \quad \sum_{r=1}^f \chi(r) \frac{te^{rt}}{e^{ft}-1} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_{\chi}^n \frac{t^n}{n!},$$

$$(1.2) \quad \sum_{r=1}^f \chi(r) \frac{te^{(r+z)t}}{e^{ft}-1} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_{\chi}^n(x) \frac{t^n}{n!},$$

so that

$$(1.3) \quad B_{\chi}^n(x) = \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} B_{\chi}^r x^{n-r} = (B_{\chi} + x)^n.$$

L. M. Milne-Thomson. "Two Classes Of Generalized Polynomials" (1932)

Summary.

A certain general class of polynomials is defined and its properties are considered. By specializing the definition in one direction we are led to Bernoulli's polynomials of order n regarded as generalizations of x^{ν} , by specializing in another direction x^{ν} leads to Euler's polynomials of order n . The same methods are applied to Hermite's polynomials and thus two new types of polynomial are found.

1. The ϕ polynomials.

We define ϕ polynomials $\phi_{\nu}^{(n)}(x)$ of degree ν and order n by the relation

$$(1) \quad f(t, n) e^{xt+g(t)} = \sum_{\nu=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^{\nu}}{\nu!} \phi_{\nu}^{(n)}(x),$$

S.C.Woon http://arxiv.org/PS_cache/math/pdf/9812/9812143v1.pdf

Generalization of a relation between the Riemann zeta function and Bernoulli numbers
 S.C. Woon, Trinity College, University of Cambridge, Cambridge CB2 1TQ, UK

December 23, 1998

Abstract

A generalization of a well-known relation between the Riemann zeta function and Bernoulli numbers is obtained. The formula is a new representation of the Riemann zeta function in terms of a nested series of Bernoulli numbers.

Analytically extending the tree-generating operator $(O_L + O_R)$ with (17) in Lemma 1 effectively turns the sequence of B_n into a function $B(s)$ as the analytic continuation of B_n .

□

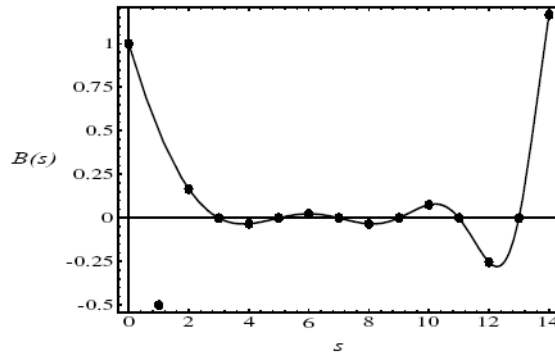


Figure 2: The curve $B(s)$ runs through the points of all (n, B_n) except $(1, B_1)$.

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- [GenBernRec] (Generalized Bernoulli-recursion)
http://go.helms-net.de/math/binomial_new/02_2_GeneralizedBernoulliRecursion.pdf
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http://go.helms-net.de/math/binomial_new/04_3_SummingOfLikePowers.pdf
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- Projekt **Bernoulli-numbers**, first versions of the above, contain a **first rough exploratory** course but already cover most central topics and contain also the basic material about **Gp** and **Gm** which is still missing in the above list:
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-

Further readings:**Zeta-Relation, Basic identities**

A succinct method for investigating the sums of infinite series through differential formulae

Leonard Euler (translation J. Bell, 05'2007)

<http://arxiv.org/abs/0705.0768v1> (arXiv:0705.0768v1)

(original:) Opera mathematica, Volume 16.

see: Euler Archive at <http://www.eulerarchive.org>.

This paper is [E746](#) in the Eneström index (*bibliography taken from arXiv-source*)

Ein Summierungsverfahren für die Riemannsche Zeta-Reihe

Helmut Hasse

Mathematische Zeitschrift PERIODICAL VOLUME 32 PAGE 456

http://www-gdz.sub.uni-goettingen.de/cgi-bin/digbib.cgi?PPN266833020_0032

Generalizations

Faulhaber's Theorem for Arithmetic Progressions

William Y.C. Chen, Amy M. Fu, and Iris F. Zhang

http://arxiv.org/PS_cache/math/pdf/0606/0606090v1.pdf

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Inversion of (I+P) / Eta-Matrix

Explicit inverse of the Pascal matrix plus one,

Sheng-liang Yang and Zhong-kui Liu

<http://www.hindawi.com/GetPDF.aspx?doi=10.1155/IJMMS/2006/90901>

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Matrix approach

Matrix approach to polynomials 2

Teijo Arponen 14th July 2004

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