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## DIVISOR FUNCTIONS OF INTEGER MATRICES: EVALUATIONS, AVERAGE ORDERS AND APPLICATIONS

#### Gautami BHOWMIK\*

Divisor functions have been extensively studied in classical number theory. We examine the corresponding functions for matrices over the ring of integers. These functions not only are a natural generalisation of historically important concepts, but their study also yields applications and some new interpretations.

We deal only with  $r \times r$  nonsingular matrices with entries from the ring of integers. Since there are an infinite number of unimodular matrices, it is necessary to identify *canonical factorisations* of matrices. In his study of arithmetic of matrices, Nanda [8] defines them as follows:

DEFINITION 1. The decomposition of the matrix A as

$$A = A_1 A_2 \dots A_k, \tag{1}$$

where  $A_k, A_{k-1}, \ldots, A_2$  are matrices in nonsingular Hermite Normal Form (HNF), is said to be a k-order (canonical) factorisation of A.

Since an HNF matrix uniquely represents a class under one-sided equivalence, two factorisations defined as in (1) are *inequivalent*.

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DEFINITION 2. The function  $\tau_k^{(r)}$  counts the number of k-order factorisations of an  $r \times r$  matrix A, i.e.,

$$\tau_k^{(r)}(A) = \sum_{A=A_1A_2\dots A_k} 1.$$
 (2)

When we restrict ourselves to the case k = 2,  $A_2$  above is called a *divisor* of A. As in classical theory, we define the functions  $\sigma_a^{(r)}$ .

DEFINITION 3. For a non-negative integer a, let  $\sigma_a^{(r)}(A)$  be the sum of the  $a^{\text{th}}$  powers of the determinants of divisors of a matrix A, i.e.,

$$\sigma_a^{(r)}(A) = \sum_{A=A_1A_2} (\det A_2)^a.$$
 (3)

We notice that  $\tau_2^{(r)} = \sigma_0^{(r)}$ .

#### **Evaluations**

For evaluating divisor functions, it is enough to consider A to be in nonsingular Smith Normal Form (SNF) with prime-power determinant. We use the notation  $F_r$  for the matrix

$$(\text{diag}[p^{f_1}, p^{f_1+f_2}, \dots, p^{f_1+f_2+\dots+f_r}])$$

and may also denote it by  $\langle f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_r \rangle$ , where  $f_1 \ge 1$ ,  $f_i \ge 0$  for i > 1, and p is a prime number. We write  $G_r$  for the matrix  $\langle f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_{r-1}, f_r - 1 \rangle$ .

It is clear that the evaluation of  $\sigma_a^{(r)}$  involves the solving of a system of diophantine equations with rather stringent side conditions and is therefore not easy.

In [4] we proved the result:

$$\tau_2(F_r) - \tau_2(G_r) = \sigma_1(F_{r-1}), \tag{4}$$

which helped us evaluate  $\tau_2^{(2)}$  and  $\tau_2^{(3)}$ . Here we generalise (4) and prove a recurrence between  $\sigma_a^{(r)}$  and  $\sigma_{a+1}^{(r-1)}$ . Thus it becomes possible to reduce the problem to evaluations on  $F_1$  or on prime matrices  $P_r = \langle 1, 0, \ldots, 0 \rangle$ . We prove:

THEOREM 1.  $\sigma_a(F_r) - p^a \sigma_a(G_r) = \sigma_{a+1}(F_{r-1}).$ 

Proof. Let  $\nu = f_1 + f_2 + \ldots + f_r$ . Now

$$F_{r} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{r-1} & 0\\ Y & p^{t} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} B_{r-1} & 0\\ X & p^{\nu-t} \end{pmatrix}, \qquad 0 \le t \le \nu$$
(5)

$$G_r = \begin{pmatrix} A_{r-1} & 0\\ Y & p^t \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} B_{r-1} & 0\\ X & p^{\nu-t-1} \end{pmatrix}, \qquad 0 \le t < \nu \tag{6}$$

are factorisations of  $F_r$  and  $G_r$  whenever  $B_{r-1}$  is a divisor of  $F_{r-1}$  and  $YB_{r-1} + Xp^t = 0$ . Then

$$\sigma_a(F_r) = \sum_{\substack{YB_{r-1} + Xp^t = 0\\ 0 \le t < \nu}} (\det B_{r-1})^a \ p^{(\nu-t)a} \ + \ \sum_{\substack{YB_{r-1} + Xp^\nu = 0}} (\det B_{r-1})^a \ (7)$$

and

$$\sigma_a(G_r) = \sum_{\substack{YB_{r-1} + Xp^t = 0\\ 0 \le t < \nu}} (\det B_{r-1})^a \ p^{(\nu - t - 1)a}$$
(8)

Thus

$$\sigma_a(F_r) = p^a \sigma_a(G_r) + \sum_{YB_{r-1} + Xp^\nu = 0} (\det B_{r-1})^a.$$
(9)

But, as in the proof of (4), we can show that the equation  $YB_{r-1} + Xp^{\nu} = 0$  has solutions for all possible choices of X by considering the cases where the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} B_{r-1}^{-1} F_{r-1} & 0\\ -p^{\nu} X B_{r-1}^{-1} & p^{\nu} \end{pmatrix}$$

is integral. Since X can be chosen in  $det(B_{r-1})$  ways, we have:

$$\sigma_a(F_r) = p^a \sigma_a(G_r) + \sum_{B_{r-1} \mid F_{r-1}} (\det B_{r-1})^{a+1}.$$

It is easy to evaluate  $\sigma_a(P_r)$  by generalising Nanda's result [7] for a = 0:

THEOREM 2.  $\sigma_a(P_r) = \sum_{j=0}^r p^{aj} \begin{bmatrix} r \\ j \end{bmatrix}$ , where  $\begin{bmatrix} r \\ j \end{bmatrix}$  are the Gaussian polynomials in p.

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**Proof.** Nanda [7] gives a combinatorial argument to show that the number of divisors of  $P_r$  with p occurring exactly j times on the diagonal is given by  $\begin{bmatrix} r \\ j \end{bmatrix}$ . The factor  $p^{aj}$  is obviously the  $a^{\text{th}}$  power of the determinant of the divisor.

The above theorems give us a method for evaluation, but the calculations involved are cumbersome, as the following example shows.

EXAMPLE.

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_1(F_3) &= \left( p^{f_3} + p^{f_3 - 1} + \ldots + 1 \right) \sigma_2(F_2) \\ &+ p^{f_3 + 1}(p+1) \left( \sigma_2 \langle f_1, f_2 - 1 \rangle + p^2 \sigma_2 \langle f_1, f_2 - 2 \rangle + \ldots + p^{2f_2 - 2} \sigma_2 \langle f_1, 0 \rangle \right) \\ &+ p^{f_3 + 2f_2 + 1} \sigma_2 \langle f_1 - 1, 1 \rangle + p^{f_3 + 2f_2 + 2}(p+1) \sigma_2 \langle f_1 - 1, 0 \rangle \\ &+ p^{f_3 + 2f_2 + 4} \sigma_2 \langle f_1 - 2, 1 \rangle + p^{f_3 + 2f_2 + 5}(p+1) \sigma_2 \langle f_1 - 2, 0 \rangle + \ldots \\ &+ p^{f_3 + 2f_2 + 3f_1 + 2}(p+1) \sigma_2 \langle 1, 0 \rangle + p^{f_3 + 2f_2 + 3f_1 + 4} \sigma_1 \langle 1, 0 \rangle, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\sigma_{2}(F_{2}) = (p^{2f_{2}} + p^{2f_{2}-2} + \ldots + 1)\sigma_{3}\langle f_{1} \rangle + p^{2f_{2}+2}(p^{2}+1)\sigma_{3}\langle f_{1}-1 \rangle + p^{2f_{2}+6}(p^{2}+1)\sigma_{3}\langle f_{1}-2 \rangle + \ldots + p^{2f_{2}+4f_{1}-6}(p^{2}+1)\sigma_{3}\langle 1 \rangle + p^{2f_{2}+4f_{1}-2}\sigma_{2}\langle 1 \rangle.$$

#### Average orders

In [3] we evaluated  $T(x) = \sum_{\det A \leq x} \tau_2^{(2)}(A)$ , where A is in SNF. The absence of a zeta function does not allow satisfactory extension of this result.

Here we instead allow A to be in HNF and consider the following zeta

$$Z_r(s) = \sum_{A \text{ in HNF, } r \times r} (\det A)^{-s} = \sum \alpha_r(n) n^{-s}, \qquad s = \sigma + it, \quad \sigma > 1,$$
(10)

where  $\alpha_r(n)$  is the HNF class-number, i.e., the number of  $r \times r$  HNF matrices with determinant n.

Thus

$$Z_r(s) = \zeta(s)\zeta(s-1)\ldots\zeta(s-r+1), \tag{11}$$

where  $\zeta(s)$  is the Riemann zeta-function.  $Z_r(s)$  is a holomorphic function with simple poles at s = r, r - 1, r - 2. It is, in fact, a special case of the Koecher zeta-function [10].

Authors (e.g. [9]) have evaluated  $\alpha_r(n)$ , and in [3] we obtained an average order for  $\alpha_r(n)$  by using elementary methods.

Here we give a few asymptotic results for divisor functions obtained by using  $Z_r(s)$  for

$$A_r(x) = \sum_{n \leq x} lpha_r(n), \quad T_k(x) = \sum_{A ext{ in HNF, det } A \leq x} au_k(A)$$

and  $S_a^{(r)}(x) = \sum_{A \text{ in HNF, det } A \leq x} \sigma_a^{(r)}(A)$ . These are only first results. We should be able to prove sharper results in [5].

THEOREM 3.

$$A_{r}(x) = \frac{1}{r}L_{r}x^{r} - \frac{1}{2(r-1)}L_{r-1}x^{r-1} + o(x^{r-1}),$$

where  $L_k = \prod_{j=2}^k \zeta(j).$ 

Proof. From Perron's formula we have:

$$A_r(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{c-i\infty}^{c+i\infty} \frac{Z_r(s) x^s}{s} ds.$$

The main terms can be obtained as residues at s = r, r - 1.

THEOREM 4.  $T_k(x) \sim P_r(x)$ , where  $P_r(x)$  is a polynomial in x of degree r. Proof. Obvious.

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THEOREM 5.

$$S_{a}^{(r)}(x) = \frac{1}{a+r} L_{r} M_{a,0} x^{a+r} - \frac{1}{2(a+r-1)} L_{r-1} M_{a,1} x^{a+r-1} + o(x^{a+r-1}),$$

where

$$M_{b,t} = \prod_{j=1}^r \zeta(b+j-t).$$

Proof. Similar to that of Theorem 3.

#### **Restricted divisor functions**

Here we consider factorisations on the subsets

(a)  $S_r$ , of all  $r \times r$  matrices in SNF, and

(b)  $\mathcal{D}_r$  of all  $r \times r$  diagonal matrices,

and show their connection with average orders of functions of integers.

**DEFINITION 4.** The decompositions

$$\begin{split} S &= S_1 S_2 \dots S_k, \qquad S, S_i \in \mathcal{S}_r \\ \text{and} \quad D &= D_1 D_2 \dots D_k, \qquad D, D_i \in \mathcal{D}_r \end{split}$$

are said to be k-order SNF (resp., diagonal) factorisations of S (resp., D).

In [3] we have defined the SNF zeta function

$$\widehat{Z}_{r}(s) = \sum \beta_{r}(n)/n^{s} = \zeta(s)\zeta(2s)\ldots\zeta(rs)$$
(12)

and proved:

THEOREM 6.

$$\sum_{\substack{S \in S_r \\ \det S \le x}} \widehat{\sigma}_a(r)(S) = \frac{1}{a+1} L_r^{(1)} K_1 x^{a+1} + \frac{1}{a+\frac{1}{2}} L_r^{(1/2)} K_2 x^{a+\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{1}{a+\frac{1}{3}} L_r^{(1/3)} K_3 x^{a+\frac{1}{3}} + O(x^{a+\epsilon}).$$

where  $\varepsilon$  is the best known exponent in the error of the three-dimensional divisor problem, and the constants are defined as

$$L_r^{(i)} = \prod_{\substack{j=1\\ ji\neq 1}}^r \zeta(ji), \qquad K_i = \prod_{j=1}^r \zeta(j(a+i)).$$

We can similarly define the diagonal zeta function as

$$Z_{\mathcal{D}}(s) = \sum_{D \in \mathcal{D}_r} (\det D)^{-s} = \zeta^r(s)$$
(13)

and obtain the average order  $B_a^{(r)}(x)$  for diagonal divisor functions. For example, when a = r = 2, we get

THEOREM 7.

$$B_2^{(2)} = \frac{1}{6}x\log^3 x + (2\gamma - \frac{1}{2})x\log^2 x + (6\gamma^2 - 4\gamma + 4\gamma_1 + 1)x\log x + (-1 + 4(\gamma - \gamma_1 + \gamma_2) - 6\gamma^2 + 4\gamma^3 + 12\gamma\gamma_1)x + O(x^{1/2})$$

where the  $\gamma$ 's are constants.

Proof. We use the classical estimate for  $\zeta^4(s)$ .

#### Applications

We can interpret some of the above results in different contexts. We give a few illustrations:

a) We consider the set  $\Gamma = \operatorname{GL}(r,\mathbb{Z})$  of all  $r \times r$  integer unimodular matrices as the unimodular group of degree r over the ring of integers [6]. The divisor functions of matrices then appear in the formal power series over the Hecke algebra, which is a polynomial ring over  $\mathbb{Z}$  in infinitely many independent indeterminates. Thus, formally,

$$\sum \Gamma A \Gamma (\det A)^{-s} \sum \Gamma A \Gamma (\det A)^{a-s} = \sum \Gamma A \Gamma \sigma_a(A) (\det A)^{-s}, \quad (14)$$

where  $A \in \mathcal{S}_r$ .

b) We consider Ramanujan's classical formula

$$\frac{\zeta(s)\zeta(s-a)\zeta(s-b)\zeta(s-a-b)}{(2s-a-b)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sigma_a(n)\sigma_b(n)}{n^s}$$

for the case a = 1, b = 2, to get

$$Z_4(s) = \zeta(2s-3) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma_1(n) \sigma_2(n) / n^s.$$
(15)

c) We can evaluate  $\sigma_a(P_r)$  in terms of two different partition functions. We can show that to get the number of divisors of  $P_r$ , we may look at the number of <u>0</u>'s to the right of each <u>1</u> in every string of length r with entries from  $\{0,1\}$ . This can be expressed in terms of the function  $\hat{q}(n,k,r)$ , which counts the number of partitions of n into at most k parts (not necessarily distinct) each at most r, i.e.,

$$\sigma_a(P_r) = \sum \sum q(n-ka,k,r-k)p^n.$$
(16)

This, we note, agrees with Theorem 2 via Sylvester's generating function for  $\hat{\sigma}$  (see, e.g. Andrews [1]). We can also evaluate  $\sigma_a(P_r)$  using the function q(n,k,r) which counts the number of partitions of n into exactly k distinct parts. In [2] we have shown that the number of divisors of  $P_r$  that are equivalent to  $P_k$ ,  $k \leq r$ , is given by

$$\pi_{k,r} = \sum_{n=\frac{k(k+1)}{2}}^{kr-\frac{k(k-1)}{2}} q(n,k,r) p^{kr-\frac{k(k-1)}{2}-n}.$$
(17)

Thus we get

$$\sigma_a(P_r) = \sum \sum q\left(kr - \frac{k(k-1)}{2} - n - ak, k, r\right) p^n.$$
(18)

We see that there is no contradiction between these two results, for we can independently show that

$$\hat{q}(n,k,r-k) = q\left(kr - \frac{k(k-1)}{2} - n,k,r\right)$$
 (19)

by writing n as a sum of parts  $n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_k$ ;  $r - k \ge n_i \ge n_{i+j} \ge 0$  and replacing  $n_i$  by  $m_i = r - n_i - i + 1$ .

As in [2], it is possible to obtain *polynomial* and *partition identities* from these results.

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