

## Quadratic Dirichlet L-Series

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Let  $D = 1$  or  $D$  be a fundamental discriminant [1]. The **Kronecker-Jacobi-Legendre symbol**  $(D/n)$  is a completely multiplicative function on the positive integers:

$$\left(\frac{D}{n}\right) = \begin{cases} \prod_{j=1}^k \left(\frac{D}{p_j}\right)^{e_j} & \text{if } n \geq 2, \\ 1 & \text{if } n = 1 \end{cases}$$

where  $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$  is the prime factorization of  $n$ ,

$$\left(\frac{D}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \nmid D \text{ and } x^2 \equiv D \pmod{p} \text{ is solvable,} \\ -1 & \text{if } p \nmid D \text{ and } x^2 \equiv D \pmod{p} \text{ is not solvable,} \\ 0 & \text{if } p \mid D \end{cases}$$

assuming  $p$  is an odd prime, and

$$\left(\frac{D}{2}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } D \equiv 1, 7 \pmod{8}, \\ -1 & \text{if } D \equiv 3, 5 \pmod{8}, \\ 0 & \text{if } 2 \mid D. \end{cases}$$

The function  $n \mapsto (D/n)$  is a real primitive Dirichlet character with modulus  $|D|$ . In particular,  $(1/n) = 1$  always,

$$(-3/n)|_{n=1,2,3} = \{1, -1, 0\},$$

$$(-4/n)|_{n=1,2,3,4} = \{1, 0, -1, 0\},$$

$$(-7/n)|_{n=1,\dots,7} = \{1, 1, -1, 1, -1, -1, 0\},$$

$$(-8/n)|_{n=1,\dots,8} = \{1, 0, 1, 0, -1, 0, -1, 0\},$$

$$(5/n)|_{n=1,\dots,5} = \{1, -1, -1, 1, 0\},$$

$$(8/n)|_{n=1,\dots,8} = \{1, 0, -1, 0, -1, 0, 1, 0\},$$

$$(12/n)|_{n=1,\dots,12} = \{1, 0, 0, 0, -1, 0, -1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0\}.$$

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Now define the **Dirichlet L-series associated to  $(D/n)$** :

$$L_D(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{D}{n} \right) n^{-z}, \quad \operatorname{Re}(z) > 1$$

which can also be written as an infinite product over primes:

$$L_D(z) = \prod_p \left( 1 - \left( \frac{D}{p} \right) p^{-z} \right)^{-1}, \quad \operatorname{Re}(z) > 1.$$

If  $D = 1$ , then  $L_1(z) = \zeta(z)$ , which can be analytically continued over the whole complex plane except for a simple pole at  $z = 1$ . For all other  $D$ ,  $L_D(z)$  can be made into an entire function with special values

$$L_D(1) = \begin{cases} \frac{\pi}{3\sqrt{3}} & \text{if } D = -3 \\ \frac{\pi}{4} & \text{if } D = -4 \\ \frac{\pi h(D)}{\sqrt{-D}} & \text{if } D < -4, \\ \frac{2h(D) \ln(\varepsilon)}{\sqrt{D}} & \text{if } D > 1 \end{cases} \quad (\text{Dirichlet class number formula})$$

where  $h(D)$  is the ideal class number in the wide sense of the quadratic field  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$ , and  $\varepsilon$  is the fundamental unit of the integer subring  $\mathbb{Z} + ((D + \sqrt{D})/2)\mathbb{Z}$ . It follows that

$$L_{-7}(1) = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{7}}, \quad L_{-8}(1) = \frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{2}},$$

$$L_5(1) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \ln \left( \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \right), \quad L_8(1) = \frac{\ln(1 + \sqrt{2})}{\sqrt{2}}, \quad L_{12}(1) = \frac{\ln(2 + \sqrt{3})}{\sqrt{3}}.$$

The fact that  $L_D(1) \neq 0$  leads to a proof of Dirichlet's theorem on arithmetic progressions  $r, q+r, 2q+r, \dots$ : There are infinitely many primes congruent to  $r$  modulo  $q$  if  $q, r$  are coprime [2].

A modification of an L-series  $L_D(z)$ , defined by [3]

$$L_D^*(z) = \begin{cases} (-D)^{z/2} \pi^{-z/2} \Gamma \left( \frac{z+1}{2} \right) L_D(z) & \text{if } D < 0, \\ D^{z/2} \pi^{-z/2} \Gamma \left( \frac{z}{2} \right) L_D(z) & \text{if } D > 0, \end{cases}$$

leads to the elegant functional equation  $L_D^*(z) = L_D^*(1-z)$ .

We turn attention to the points  $z = 2$ ,  $z = 3$  and  $z = 1/2$ . If  $D > 0$ , closed-form expressions for  $L_D(2)$  are known:

$$L_1(2) = \frac{\pi^2}{6}, \quad L_5(2) = \frac{4\pi^2}{25\sqrt{5}},$$

$$L_8(2) = \frac{\pi^2}{8\sqrt{2}}, \quad L_{12}(2) = \frac{\pi^2}{6\sqrt{3}}$$

but if  $D < 0$ , only numerical approximations apply:

$$L_{-3}(2) = 0.7813024128\dots \quad ([4]),$$

$$L_{-4}(2) = G = 0.9159655941\dots \quad (\text{Catalan's constant [5]}),$$

$$L_{-7}(2) = 1.1519254705\dots, \quad L_{-8}(2) = 1.0647341710\dots.$$

There is an unproven conjecture that [6, 7]

$$L_{-7}(2) = \frac{24}{7\sqrt{7}} \int_{\pi/3}^{\pi/2} \ln \left| \frac{\tan(t) + \sqrt{7}}{\tan(t) - \sqrt{7}} \right| dt$$

which has its origins in hyperbolic geometry and the Claussen function [8]. If  $D < 0$ , closed-form expressions for  $L_D(3)$  are known:

$$L_{-3}(3) = \frac{4\pi^3}{81\sqrt{3}}, \quad L_{-4}(3) = \frac{\pi^3}{32},$$

$$L_{-7}(3) = \frac{32\pi^3}{343\sqrt{7}}, \quad L_{-8}(3) = \frac{3\pi^3}{64\sqrt{2}}$$

but if  $D > 0$ , only numerical approximations apply:

$$L_1(3) = \zeta(3) = 1.2020569031\dots \quad (\text{Ap\'ery's constant [9]}),$$

$$L_5(3) = 0.8548247666\dots, \quad L_8(3) = 0.9583804545\dots,$$

$$L_{12}(3) = 0.9900400194\dots.$$

By way of contrast, virtually nothing is known about  $L_D(1/2)$  (regardless of the sign of  $D$ ):

$$L_1(1/2) = -1.4603545088\dots \quad ([9, 10]),$$

$$L_{-3}(1/2) = 0.4808675576\dots, \quad L_{-4}(1/2) = 0.6676914571\dots \quad ([10])$$

$$L_{-7}(1/2) = 1.1465856669\dots, \quad L_{-8}(1/2) = 1.1004214095\dots,$$

$$L_5(1/2) = 0.2317509475\dots, \quad L_8(1/2) = 0.3736917129\dots, \\ L_{12}(1/2) = 0.4985570024\dots.$$

It is expected that  $L_D(1/2) \neq 0$  always [11]; the Generalized Riemann Hypothesis (GRH) states that all zeroes of  $L_D(z)$  in the strip  $0 \leq \operatorname{Re}(z) \leq 1$  must lie on the central line  $\operatorname{Re}(z) = 1/2$ . A deeper conjecture, known as the Grand Simplicity Hypothesis [12], asserts that the nonnegative imaginary parts of all such zeroes, taken as  $D$  varies across  $1 \cup \{\text{fundamental discriminants}\}$ , form a linearly independent set over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

**0.1. Various Moments.** A discussion of the first and second moments of  $L_D(1)$ , over all fundamental discriminants  $-x < D < 0$  and  $0 < D < x$ , appears in [1]. We will focus on  $L_D(1/2)$  here. Many of the numerical results are due to Conrey, Farmer, Keating, Rubinstein & Snaith [13, 14].

Jutila [15, 16] proved that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{0 < -D < x} L_D(1/2) &\sim \frac{3}{\pi^2} (a_{1,1} \ln(x) + a_{1,0}^-) x \\ &\sim (0.1070623764\dots)x \ln(x) + (0.0806503246\dots)x, \\ \sum_{0 < D < x} L_D(1/2) &\sim \frac{3}{\pi^2} (a_{1,1} \ln(x) + a_{1,0}^+) x \\ &\sim (0.1070623764\dots)x \ln(x) - (0.2556960505\dots)x \end{aligned}$$

as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , where

$$P_1(s) = \prod_p \left(1 - \frac{1}{(p+1)p^s}\right),$$

$$a_{1,1} = P_1(1)/2 = (0.7044422009\dots)/2 = 0.3522211004\dots,$$

$$\begin{aligned} a_{1,0}^- &= \frac{P_1(1)}{2} \left( -1 - \ln(\pi) + 4\gamma + \frac{\Gamma'(3/4)}{\Gamma(3/4)} + 4 \frac{P'_1(1)}{P_1(1)} \right) = 0.2653289331\dots \\ &= 0.6175500336\dots - a_{1,1} = 1.2648891165\dots - (1 + \ln(2\pi))a_{1,1}, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} a_{1,0}^+ &= \frac{P_1(1)}{2} \left( -1 - \ln(\pi) + 4\gamma + \frac{\Gamma'(1/4)}{\Gamma(1/4)} + 4 \frac{P'_1(1)}{P_1(1)} \right) = -0.8412062886\dots \\ &= -0.4889851881\dots - a_{1,1} = 0.1583538947\dots - (1 + \ln(2\pi))a_{1,1}. \end{aligned}$$

The fact that  $a_{1,1} > 0$  confirms that  $L_D(1/2) > 0$  for infinitely many  $D < 0$  and for infinitely many  $D > 0$ . Interestingly, the expression

$$\frac{P'_1(1)}{P_1(1)} = \sum_p \frac{\ln(p)}{p^2 + p - 1} = 0.4187575787\dots$$

resembles an expression in [17] for which the denominator is  $p^2 - p + 1$  instead of  $p^2 + p - 1$ .

Jutila [15] also proved that [13, 14]

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{0 < -D < x} L_D(1/2)^2 &\sim \frac{3}{\pi^2} (a_{2,3} \ln(x)^3 + a_{2,2}^- \ln(x)^2 + a_{2,1}^- \ln(x) + a_{2,0}^-) x \\ &\sim (0.0037642089...)x \ln(x)^3 + (0.0436478230...)x \ln(x)^2 \\ &\quad + (0.0239243562...)x \ln(x) - (0.0664474558...)x, \\ \sum_{0 < D < x} L_D(1/2)^2 &\sim \frac{3}{\pi^2} (a_{2,3} \ln(x)^3 + a_{2,2}^+ \ln(x)^2 + a_{2,1}^+ \ln(x) + a_{2,0}^+) x \\ &\sim (0.0037642089...)x \ln(x)^3 + (0.0081709895...)x \ln(x)^2 \\ &\quad - (0.1388692446...)x \ln(x) + (0.4058928120...)x \end{aligned}$$

as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , where

$$P_2 = \prod_p \left(1 - \frac{4p^2 - 3p + 1}{(p+1)p^3}\right) = 0.2972100247,$$

$$a_{2,3} = P_2/24 = 0.0123837510\dots$$

( $a_{2,2}^-$ ,  $a_{2,2}^+$ ,  $a_{2,1}^-$ ,  $a_{2,1}^+$  formulas appear in the Addendum). The work of Soundararajan [11], Diaconu, Goldfeld & Hoffstein [18] and Zhang [19] gives rise to the conjecture [13, 14]:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{0 < -D < x} L_D(1/2)^3 &\sim \frac{3}{\pi^2} \left( a_{3,6} \ln(x)^6 + \sum_{k=0}^5 a_{3,k}^- \ln(x)^k \right) x + b^- x^{3/4} \\ &\sim (0.0000046457...)x \ln(x)^6 + (0.0002447286...)x \ln(x)^5 \\ &\quad + (0.0039480538...)x \ln(x)^4 + (0.0174395675...)x \ln(x)^3 \\ &\quad - (0.0110235234...)x \ln(x)^2 - (0.0487615392...)x \ln(x) \\ &\quad + (0.1926975162...)x - (0.07...)x^{3/4}, \\ \sum_{0 < D < x} L_D(1/2)^3 &\sim \frac{3}{\pi^2} \left( a_{3,6} \ln(x)^6 + \sum_{k=0}^5 a_{3,k}^+ \ln(x)^k \right) x + b^+ x^{3/4} \\ &\sim (0.0000046457...)x \ln(x)^6 + (0.0001571591...)x \ln(x)^5 \\ &\quad + (0.0007916339...)x \ln(x)^4 - (0.0094598480...)x \ln(x)^3 \\ &\quad + (0.0136781642...)x \ln(x)^2 + (0.1643132466...)x \ln(x) \\ &\quad - (0.5385378337...)x - (0.14...)x^{3/4} \end{aligned}$$

as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , where

$$P_3 = \prod_p \left( 1 - \frac{12p^5 - 23p^4 + 23p^3 - 15p^2 + 6p - 1}{(p+1)p^6} \right) = 0.0440172316...,$$

$$a_{3,6} = P_3/2880 = 0.00000152837...$$

( $a_{3,5}^-$ ,  $a_{3,5}^+$ ,  $a_{3,4}^-$ ,  $a_{3,4}^+$  formulas appear in the Addendum). The exceptional term  $x^{3/4}$  has no analog in the first and second moment cases. It is believed that [19]

$$\begin{aligned} b^- + b^+ &= \frac{223\sqrt{2} - 253}{192} \left( \frac{\Gamma(1/8)^4}{\Gamma(3/8)^4} + \frac{\Gamma(1/8)\Gamma(5/8)^3}{\Gamma(3/8)\Gamma(7/8)^3} \right) \pi Q \\ &= \frac{4}{3}(-0.1615725999...) = -0.2154301332... \end{aligned}$$

where [20]

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= \left( \frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{\sqrt{2}} \right)^3 \zeta \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^7 \\ &\quad \times \prod_{p>2} \left( 1 - \frac{14}{p^{3/2}} - \frac{1}{p^2} + \frac{78}{p^{5/2}} - \frac{84}{p^3} - \frac{58}{p^{7/2}} + \frac{154}{p^4} - \frac{70}{p^{9/2}} - \frac{49}{p^5} + \frac{64}{p^{11/2}} - \frac{22}{p^6} + \frac{1}{p^7} \right) \\ &= -0.0019314869... \end{aligned}$$

(might separate expressions for  $b^+$  and  $b^-$  be possible?) For arbitrary  $n \geq 1$ , Conrey & Farmer [21] conjectured that

$$\sum_{|D|<x} L_D(1/2)^n \sim \frac{6}{\pi^2} a_{n,N} x \ln(x)^N$$

as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , where  $N = n(n+1)/2$  and

$$a_{n,N} = \prod_{j=1}^n \frac{j!}{(2j)!} \cdot \prod_p \frac{\left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)^N}{1 + \frac{1}{p}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left( \left(1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}\right)^{-n} + \left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}\right)^{-n} \right) + \frac{1}{p} \right\}.$$

This is based in part on research in random matrix theory by Keating & Snaith [22, 23].

**0.2. Dedekind Zeta Function.** Given a fundamental discriminant  $D$ , define the **Dedekind zeta function** of  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$  to be

$$\begin{aligned} \zeta_D(z) &= \zeta(z) \cdot L_D(z) \\ &= \prod_{\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)=1} (1 - p^{-z})^{-2} \cdot \prod_{\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)=-1} (1 - p^{-2z})^{-1} \cdot \prod_{\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)=0} (1 - p^{-z})^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

(the latter formula is valid for  $\operatorname{Re}(z) > 1$ ). For example, if  $D = -4$  (which corresponds to the ring  $\mathcal{O}_{-1}$  of Gaussian integers), we have

$$\zeta_{-4}(z) = \prod_{\substack{p \equiv 1 \\ \text{mod } 4}} (1 - p^{-z})^{-2} \cdot \prod_{\substack{p \equiv 3 \\ \text{mod } 4}} (1 - p^{-2z})^{-1} \cdot (1 - 2^{-z})^{-1}$$

and if  $D = -3$  (which corresponds to the ring  $\mathcal{O}_{-3}$  of Eisenstein-Jacobi integers), we have

$$\zeta_{-3}(z) = \prod_{\substack{p \equiv 1 \\ \text{mod } 3}} (1 - p^{-z})^{-2} \cdot \prod_{\substack{p \equiv 2 \\ \text{mod } 3}} (1 - p^{-2z})^{-1} \cdot (1 - 3^{-z})^{-1}.$$

Since  $\zeta_D(z)$  has a simple pole at  $z = 1$ , its Laurent expansion at  $z = 1$  is

$$\zeta_D(z) = c_{-1}(z - 1)^{-1} + c_0 + c_1(z - 1) + c_2(z - 1)^2 + \dots, \quad c_{-1} \neq 0.$$

Define the **Euler-Kronecker constant** of  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$  to be

$$\gamma_D = \frac{c_0}{c_{-1}} = \gamma + \frac{L'_D(1)}{L_D(1)},$$

which generalizes Euler's constant  $\gamma = 0.5772156649\dots$  [24]. (In the case  $D = 1$ , we merely have  $\zeta_1(z) = \zeta(z)$  and thus  $c_{-1} = 1$ ,  $c_0 = \gamma$ ). It follows that [25, 26, 27, 28]

$$\gamma_{-4} = \ln \left( 2\pi e^{2\gamma} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{3}{4})^2}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{4})^2} \right) = 0.8228252496\dots \quad (\text{Sierpinski's constant [29]}),$$

$$\gamma_{-3} = \ln \left( 2\pi e^{2\gamma} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{2}{3})^3}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{3})^3} \right) = 0.9454972808\dots \quad ([30]);$$

alternatively, by the Kronecker limit formula [31],

$$\gamma_{-4} = \frac{\pi}{3} - \ln(4) + 2\gamma - 4 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \ln(1 - e^{-2\pi k}) = \frac{1}{2}(1.1870859072\dots) \ln(4),$$

$$\gamma_{-3} = \frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{3}} - \ln(3) + 2\gamma - 4 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \ln|1 - e^{-2\pi i \omega k}| = \frac{1}{2}(1.7212574274\dots) \ln(3)$$

where  $\omega = -(1 + i\sqrt{3})/2$  and  $i$  is the imaginary unit. Further, we have

$$\gamma_{-7} = \ln \left( 2\pi e^{2\gamma} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{3}{7})\Gamma(\frac{5}{7})\Gamma(\frac{6}{7})}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{7})\Gamma(\frac{2}{7})\Gamma(\frac{4}{7})} \right) = 0.5928513548\dots = \frac{1}{2}(0.6093306571\dots) \ln(7),$$

$$\gamma_{-8} = \ln \left( 2\pi e^{2\gamma} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{5}{8})\Gamma(\frac{7}{8})}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{8})\Gamma(\frac{3}{8})} \right) = 0.5565042591... = \frac{1}{2}(0.5352439565...) \ln(8).$$

In the event that  $D > 0$ , the only known formulas are [28, 32, 33]

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_5 &= \ln(2\pi e^{2\gamma}) + \frac{R(\frac{1}{5}) - R(\frac{2}{5}) - R(\frac{3}{5}) + R(\frac{4}{5})}{2 \ln\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)} = 1.4048951416... \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(1.7458208617...) \ln(5), \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_8 &= \ln(2\pi e^{2\gamma}) + \frac{R(\frac{1}{8}) - R(\frac{3}{8}) - R(\frac{5}{8}) + R(\frac{7}{8})}{2 \ln(1 + \sqrt{2})} = 1.2093306309... \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(1.1631302027...) \ln(8), \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{12} &= \ln(2\pi e^{2\gamma}) + \frac{R(\frac{1}{12}) - R(\frac{5}{12}) - R(\frac{7}{12}) + R(\frac{11}{12})}{2 \ln(2 + \sqrt{3})} = 1.0539656082... \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(0.8482939255...) \ln(12) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$R(x) = -\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \zeta(z, x) \Big|_{z=0}$$

and  $\zeta(z, x)$  is the second derivative of the Hurwitz zeta function, defined when  $0 < x \leq 1$  by  $\zeta(z, x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+x)^{-z}$  for  $\text{Re}(z) > 1$  and by analytic continuation elsewhere. Of course,  $\zeta(z, 1) = \zeta(z)$ ,  $\zeta(z, 1/2) = (2^z - 1)\zeta(z)$ ,  $\zeta'(0) = -\ln(2\pi)/2$  and

$$R(1) = -\zeta''(0) = -\tilde{\gamma} - \frac{1}{2}\gamma^2 + \frac{1}{24}\pi^2 + \frac{1}{2}\ln(2\pi)^2 = 2.0063564559...,$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} R(x) = -\infty, \quad R\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \ln(2)\ln(2\pi) + \frac{1}{2}\ln(2)^2 = 1.5141458137...$$

where  $\tilde{\gamma} = -0.0728158454...$  is the first Stieltjes constant [34], but little else is known about special values of  $R(x)$ .

For small  $|D|$ ,  $\gamma_D$  is positive. The first  $D < 0$  for which  $\gamma_D$  is negative is  $D = -47$ , and the first  $D > 0$  for which  $\gamma_D$  is negative is  $D = 337$ . It can be shown that  $\lim_{|D| \rightarrow \infty} \gamma_D / \ln \sqrt{|D|} = 0$ . For arbitrary number fields (finite algebraic extensions of  $\mathbb{Q}$ ), a corresponding limit superior is also 0, assuming the truth of GRH. The corresponding limit inferior, however, appears to lie between  $-0.26049$  and  $-0.17849$ , and its exact value is open [31, 35]. We wonder if similar optimization problems can be studied involving higher-order coefficients  $c_j$  in the Laurent expansion of  $\zeta_D(z)$ .

**0.3. Prime Products.** Formulas such as [36, 37]

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_p \frac{p^2 + 1}{p^2 - 1} &= \frac{5}{2}, & \prod_p \frac{p^3 + 1}{p^3 - 1} &= \frac{945\zeta(3)^2}{\pi^6}, \\ \prod_{p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}} \frac{p^2 + 1}{p^2 - 1} &= \frac{12G}{\pi^2}, & \prod_{p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}} \frac{p^3 + 1}{p^3 - 1} &= \frac{105\zeta(3)}{4\pi^3}, \\ \prod_{p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}} \frac{p^2 + 1}{p^2 - 1} &= \frac{\pi^2}{8G}, & \prod_{p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}} \frac{p^3 + 1}{p^3 - 1} &= \frac{28\zeta(3)}{\pi^3} \end{aligned}$$

offer hope that prime products  $\prod_{p \equiv k \pmod{l}} (p^m + 1)/(p^m - 1)$  might always be expressed via L-series values, where  $m \geq 2$ . Indeed, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}} \frac{p^2 + 1}{p^2 - 1} &= \frac{27L_{-3}(2)}{2\pi^2}, & \prod_{p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}} \frac{p^3 + 1}{p^3 - 1} &= \frac{15\sqrt{3}\zeta(3)}{\pi^3}, \\ \prod_{p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}} \frac{p^2 + 1}{p^2 - 1} &= \frac{4\pi^2}{27L_{-3}(2)}, & \prod_{p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}} \frac{p^3 + 1}{p^3 - 1} &= \frac{39\sqrt{3}\zeta(3)}{2\pi^3}. \end{aligned}$$

More complicated examples include

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{p \equiv 2 \text{ or } 3 \pmod{5}} \frac{p^2 + 1}{p^2 - 1} &= \sqrt{5}, & \prod_{p \equiv 2 \text{ or } 3 \pmod{5}} \frac{p^3 + 1}{p^3 - 1} &= \frac{124\zeta(3)}{125L_5(3)}, \\ \prod_{p \equiv 7 \pmod{8}} \frac{p^2 + 1}{p^2 - 1} &= \frac{\pi^2}{\sqrt{64\sqrt{2}G L_{-8}(2)}}, & \prod_{p \equiv 7 \pmod{8}} \frac{p^3 + 1}{p^3 - 1} &= \frac{\sqrt{1792\sqrt{2}\zeta(3)L_8(3)}}{\sqrt{3}\pi^3} \end{aligned}$$

and we wonder whether products over  $p \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ , or products over  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$ , dash the hope. Finally, series such as

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(3n+1)^2} &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{4\pi^2}{27} + L_{-3}(2) \right), & \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(3n+1)^3} &= \frac{2}{81\sqrt{3}}\pi^3 + \frac{13}{27}\zeta(3), \\ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(3n+2)^2} &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{4\pi^2}{27} - L_{-3}(2) \right), & \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(3n+2)^3} &= -\frac{2}{81\sqrt{3}}\pi^3 + \frac{13}{27}\zeta(3), \\ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(5n+2)^2} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(5n+3)^2} &= \frac{10-2\sqrt{5}}{125}\pi^2, \\ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(5n+2)^3} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(5n+3)^3} &= \frac{62}{125}\zeta(3) - \frac{1}{2}L_5(3), \end{aligned}$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(8n+7)^2} = \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{1+\sqrt{2}}{8\sqrt{2}} \pi^2 - G - L_{-8}(2) \right),$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(8n+7)^3} = -\frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{3+2\sqrt{2}}{64\sqrt{2}} \pi^3 - \frac{7}{8} \zeta(3) - L_8(3) \right)$$

raise similar issues.

**0.4. Primitive Characters.** Let  $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$  denote the group (under multiplication modulo  $n$ ) of integers relatively prime to  $n$ , and let  $\mathbb{C}^*$  denote the group (under ordinary multiplication) of nonzero complex numbers. A **Dirichlet character modulo  $n$**  is a homomorphism  $\chi : \mathbb{Z}_n^* \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^*$ . It can be shown that  $\chi(k)$  is a  $\varphi(n)^{\text{th}}$  root of unity for any  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ , where  $\varphi$  is the Euler totient function. In particular, if  $\chi$  is real-valued, then  $\chi(k) = \pm 1$  for any  $k$ . We have [38, 39, 40, 41]

$$\begin{aligned} \# \text{ complex Dirichlet characters} \\ \text{of modulus } \leq N &= \sum_{n \leq N} \varphi(n) \sim \frac{3}{\pi^2} N^2, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \# \text{ real Dirichlet characters} \\ \text{of modulus } \leq N &= \sum_{\substack{n \leq N, \\ n \equiv 2, 6 \pmod{8}}} 2^{\omega(n)-1} + \sum_{\substack{n \leq N, \\ n \equiv 1, 3, 4, 5, 7 \pmod{8}}} 2^{\omega(n)} + \sum_{\substack{n \leq N, \\ n \equiv 0 \pmod{8}}} 2^{\omega(n)+1} \\ &\sim \frac{6}{\pi^2} N \cdot \ln(N) \end{aligned}$$

as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ , where  $\omega(n)$  denotes the number of distinct prime factors of  $n$ . The constant  $6/\pi^2$  appears in [42] as the probability that two randomly chosen integers are coprime; the above three-fold summation also counts the average number of solutions of  $x^2 = 1$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$ . Why should a coprimality probability and square roots of unity mod  $n$  be at all related to real characters mod  $n$ ?

Let  $m$  be a multiple of  $n$ . Extend the domain of  $\chi$  to  $\mathbb{Z}$  via the formula

$$\chi(k) = \begin{cases} \chi(j) & \text{if } \gcd(n, k) = 1 \text{ and } j \equiv k \pmod{n}, 1 \leq j \leq n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and then define a new **induced character** mod  $m$ :

$$\hat{\chi}(k) = \begin{cases} \chi(k) & \text{if } \gcd(m, k) = 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

For example, if  $\chi$  is the character mod 3 with  $\chi(1) = 1$ ,  $\chi(2) = -1$  and  $\chi(3) = 0$ , note that

$$\chi(k)|_{k=1,\dots,6} = \{1, -1, 0, 1, -1, 0\} \longmapsto \{1, 0, 0, 0, -1, 0\} = \hat{\chi}(k)|_{k=1,\dots,6}.$$

As another example, if  $\chi$  is the character mod 3 with  $\chi(1) = 1$ ,  $\chi(2) = 1$  and  $\chi(3) = 0$ , note that

$$\chi(k)|_{k=1,\dots,6} = \{1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0\} \longmapsto \{1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0\} = \hat{\chi}(k)|_{k=1,\dots,6}.$$

As a third and fourth example, if  $\chi$  is the character mod 1 with  $\chi(1) = 1$ , note that

$$\chi(k)|_{k=1,2} = \{1, 1\} \longmapsto \{1, 0\} = \hat{\chi}(k)|_{k=1,2},$$

$$\chi(k)|_{k=1,2,3,4} = \{1, 1, 1, 1\} \longmapsto \{1, 0, 1, 0\} = \hat{\chi}(k)|_{k=1,2,3,4}.$$

These are meant to prepare us for the following definition. A **primitive character mod  $m$**  is a character that is not induced by a character mod  $n$  for any divisor  $n$  of  $m$  other than  $m$  itself. The first two examples demonstrate that no primitive character mod 6 exists. Likewise, no primitive character mod 2 exists, but the mod 4 character  $\chi$  with  $\chi(1) = 1$ ,  $\chi(2) = 0$ ,  $\chi(3) = -1$  and  $\chi(4) = 0$  is primitive.

Define a new multiplicative function

$$\psi(n) = \sum_{d|n} \varphi(d)\mu(n/d)$$

where  $\mu$  is the Möbius mu function. Also,  $\psi(p) = p - 2$  and  $\psi(p^l) = p^{l-2}(p-1)^2$  for  $l \geq 2$ , for any prime  $p$ . We have [43, 44]

$$\# \text{ complex primitive Dirichlet characters of modulus } \leq N = \sum_{n \leq N} \psi(n) \sim \frac{18}{\pi^4} N^2,$$

$$\# \text{ real primitive Dirichlet characters of modulus } \leq N = \sum_{|D| \leq N} 1 \sim \frac{6}{\pi^2} N$$

as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ , where  $D$  varies across the set  $1 \cup \{\text{fundamental discriminants}\}$ . For future convenience, the latter sum can be written more explicitly as  $\sum_{n \leq N} \delta(n)$ , where

$$\delta(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 1 & \text{if either } n \text{ or } -n \text{ is a fundamental discriminant (not both),} \\ 2 & \text{if } n \text{ and } -n \text{ are fundamental discriminants,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

In fact,  $\delta(n)$  is multiplicative with  $\delta(2) = 0$ ,  $\delta(4) = 1$ ,  $\delta(8) = 2$ ,  $\delta(2^l) = 0$  for  $l > 3$ ,  $\delta(p) = 1$  for prime  $p > 2$  and  $\delta(p^l) = 0$  for  $l > 1$ ; thus asymptotic techniques in [41] are applicable.

A less stringent version of primitiveness is also available. A **weakly primitive character mod  $m$**  is a character that does not coincide (as a function  $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^*$ ) with

a character mod  $n$  for any divisor  $n$  of  $m$  other than  $m$  itself. For example,  $\{1, 0\}$  is weakly primitive as a character mod 2, but not as a character mod 4, since  $\{1, 0, 1, 0\}$  is the same as  $\{1, 0\}$  concatenated with itself. Both earlier-mentioned characters mod 6 are weakly primitive as well, but not mod 12.

Define another multiplicative function  $\xi(n)$  with  $\xi(p^l) = \psi(p^l)$  for  $l \geq 2$ , but  $\xi(p) = p - 1$  instead. A Dirichlet convolution-type formula for  $\xi(n)$  is also available:

$$\xi(n) = \sum_{d|\kappa'(n)} \psi(n/d)$$

where  $\kappa'(n)$  is the product of primes that occur with multiplicity 1 when factoring  $n$  (using notation from [45]). We have [46, 47]

$$\begin{aligned} \# \text{ complex, weakly primitive Dirichlet} \\ \text{characters of modulus } \leq N &= \sum_{n \leq N} \xi(n) \sim \frac{1}{2} \rho N^2 \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= \prod_p \left(1 - \frac{p^2 + p - 1}{p^4}\right) = \frac{6}{\pi^2} \prod_p \left(1 + \frac{1}{p^3 + p^2 - 1}\right)^{-1} \\ &= \frac{6}{\pi^2} (1.1344121384...)^{-1} = 0.5358961538... \end{aligned}$$

as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ .

Define one last multiplicative function  $\eta(n)$  with  $\eta(2) = 1$ ,  $\eta(4) = 1$ ,  $\eta(8) = 2$ ,  $\eta(2^l) = 0$  for  $l > 3$ ,  $\eta(p) = 2$  for prime  $p > 2$  and  $\eta(p^l) = 0$  for  $l > 1$ . A Dirichlet convolution-type formula for  $\eta(n)$  is also available:

$$\eta(n) = \sum_{d|\kappa'(n)} \delta(n/d).$$

We have [41]

$$\begin{aligned} \# \text{ real, weakly primitive Dirichlet} \\ \text{characters of modulus } \leq N &= \sum_{n \leq N} \eta(n) \sim \sigma N \ln(N) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\sigma = \frac{6}{\pi^2} \prod_p \left(1 - \frac{2}{p(p+1)}\right) = \frac{36}{\pi^4} \prod_p \left(1 - \frac{1}{(p+1)^2}\right) = 0.2867474284...$$

as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ . The constant  $\sigma$  appears in [42] as the probability that three randomly chosen integers are pairwise coprime; it is also unexpectedly connected to the asymptotics of the average number of solutions of  $x^3 = 0$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ . Why should a coprimality probability and cubic roots of nullity mod  $n$  be at all related to weakly primitive characters mod  $n$ ?

**0.5. Addendum.** Writing exact expressions for  $L_D(1/2)$  moments is difficult. We have, for example [48],

$$a_{2,2}^\pm = c^\pm - 3a_{2,3}, \quad a_{2,1}^\pm = d^\pm - 2c^\pm + 6a_{2,3}$$

where

$$c^- = \frac{P_2}{4} \left( \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Gamma'(3/4)}{\Gamma(3/4)} + U \right) = 0.1807468351..., \quad c^+ = \frac{P_2}{4} \left( \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Gamma'(1/4)}{\Gamma(1/4)} + U \right) = 0.0640327313...,$$

$$d^- = \frac{P_2}{2} \left[ \left( \frac{4}{P_2} c^- \right)^2 - V \right] = 0.3658991414..., \quad d^+ = \frac{P_2}{2} \left[ \left( \frac{4}{P_2} c^+ \right)^2 - V \right] = -0.4030985462...$$

and

$$U = -\frac{1}{2} \ln(\pi) + 3\gamma + \sum_p \frac{5p^2 - 6p + 3}{(p-1)(p^3 + 2p^2 - 2p + 1)} \ln(p),$$

$$V = \gamma^2 + 2\tilde{\gamma} + \sum_p \frac{p(5p^5 - 5p^4 + 4p^3 + 4p^2 - 5p + 1)}{(p-1)^2(p^3 + 2p^2 - 2p + 1)^2} \ln(p)^2.$$

To obtain  $a_{2,0}^-$  or  $a_{2,0}^+$  involves even more complicated formulas. As another example [48],

$$a_{3,5}^\pm = c^\pm - 6a_{3,6}, \quad a_{3,4}^\pm = d^\pm - 5c^\pm + 30a_{3,6}$$

where

$$c^- = \frac{P_3}{240} \left( \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Gamma'(3/4)}{\Gamma(3/4)} + U \right) = 0.0008968276..., \quad c^+ = \frac{P_3}{240} \left( \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Gamma'(1/4)}{\Gamma(1/4)} + U \right) = 0.0006087355...,$$

$$d^- = \frac{P_3}{48} \left[ \left( \frac{240}{P_3} c^- \right)^2 - V \right] = 0.0170142017..., \quad d^+ = \frac{P_3}{48} \left[ \left( \frac{240}{P_3} c^+ \right)^2 - V \right] = 0.0051895362...$$

and

$$U = -\frac{1}{2} \ln(\pi) + 4\gamma + \sum_p \frac{4(3p^3 - 3p^2 + 3p - 1)}{(p-1)(p^4 + 4p^3 - 3p^2 + 3p - 1)} \ln(p),$$

$$V = \gamma^2 + 2\tilde{\gamma} + \sum_p \frac{p(10p^7 + 5p^5 + 17p^4 - 31p^3 + 20p^2 - 6p + 1)}{(p-1)^2(p^4 + 4p^3 - 3p^2 + 3p - 1)^2} \ln(p)^2.$$

Again,  $a_{3,k}^-$  or  $a_{3,k}^+$  are increasingly complicated for decreasing  $k \leq 3$ .

For arbitrary  $n \geq 1$ , the rational function in  $p$  for the infinite series within  $U$ , needed to compute  $c^\pm$  and  $a_{n,N-1}^\pm$ , is [48]

$$g_n(p) = \frac{n+1}{p-1} + \frac{-(\sqrt{p}-1)^{-n-1} + (\sqrt{p}+1)^{-n-1}}{(\sqrt{p}-1)^{-n} + (\sqrt{p}+1)^{-n} + 2p^{-n/2-1}}.$$

For arbitrary  $n \geq 2$ , the rational function in  $p$  for the infinite series within  $V$ , needed to compute  $d^\pm$  and  $a_{n,N-2}^\pm$ , is

$$\frac{p}{(p-1)^2} + g_n(p)^2 - \frac{(\sqrt{p}-1)^{-n-2} + (\sqrt{p}+1)^{-n-2}}{(\sqrt{p}-1)^{-n} + (\sqrt{p}+1)^{-n} + 2p^{-n/2-1}}.$$

See also [49, 50].

The constant  $\sum \ln(p)/(p^2 + p + 1)$  appears explicitly in [51] with regard to the reciprocal sum of the Dedekind totient. The conjectured expression for  $L_{-7}(2)$  is, in fact, a theorem due to Zagier [52]; other representations appear in [53, 54]. More on Euler-Kronecker constants is found in [55, 56]. We hope to report on Mathar's calculations later [57, 58].

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