

Irrationality proof of a q -extension of $\zeta(2)$ using little q -Jacobi polynomials

by

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1. Introduction. The ζ -function at integer points, $\zeta(s) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 1/k^s$ ($s \in \mathbb{N}$), has a q -analogue, defined by

$$\zeta_q(s) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k^{s-1} q^k}{1 - q^k}.$$

It makes sense to call this a q -analogue, since

$$\lim_{q \rightarrow 1^-} (1 - q)^s \zeta_q(s) = (s - 1)! \zeta(s).$$

One property this $\zeta_q(s)$ shares with $\zeta(s)$ is that a lot of questions concerning irrationality remain to be answered. So far, for $q = 1/p$ with $p \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1\}$, only $\zeta_q(1)$ and $\zeta_q(2)$ have been shown to be irrational. The former was done by Borwein [5, 6] in 1991–1992, and, using a different approach, by Bundschuh and Väänänen [7] in 1994. Note that a 1988 result by Bézivin [3] can be used to prove this irrationality. The irrationality of $\zeta_q(2)$ was proven by Duverney [9] in 1995, the transcendence of $\zeta_q(2)$ (and in fact of $\zeta_q(2s)$, $s \in \mathbb{N}$) is a consequence of a general result by Nesterenko [12], [13]. Moreover, the three values $1, \zeta_q(1), \zeta_q(2)$ have been shown to be \mathbb{Q} -linearly independent by Bundschuh and Väänänen [8], by Zudilin [18] and by Postelmans and Van Assche [14].

In this paper we will prove the following result.

THEOREM 1.1. *Let $q = 1/p$, with $p \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0, 1\}$; let $\varrho = 10\pi^2/(5\pi^2 - 24)$. Then $\zeta_q(2)$ is irrational, and the inequality*

$$\left| \zeta_q(2) - \frac{a}{b} \right| \leq |b|^{-\varrho}$$

has at most finitely many integer solutions (a, b) .

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Another way of putting this statement is by using the *irrationality measure* μ . There are a number of equivalent definitions for this irrationality measure (Liouville–Roth constant, order of approximation, irrationality exponent). One of them is

$$\mu(x) = \inf \left\{ \varrho : \left| x - \frac{a}{b} \right| > \frac{1}{b^{\varrho+\varepsilon}}, \forall \varepsilon > 0, \forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \text{ sufficiently large} \right\}.$$

Notice that for a rational number x we have $\mu(x) = 1$, whereas for an irrational number x we have $\mu(x) \geq 2$ ([10, Theorem 187]). So the theorem implies that

$$2 \leq \mu(\zeta_q(2)) \leq \frac{10\pi^2}{5\pi^2 - 24} \approx 3.8936.$$

This is sharper than the upper bound 4.07869374 given by Zudilin [17].

The proof of the theorem is a q -adaptation of proofs of the irrationality of $\zeta(2)$, as given by Apéry [1], based on Hermite–Padé approximation [2, 15]. It uses type I Hermite–Padé approximation to two functions f_1 and f_2 , with the property that $f_1(1) = \zeta_q(1)$ and $f_2(1) = \zeta_q(2)$. The polynomials that arise in this approximation can be found explicitly because they are closely related to a specific family of orthogonal polynomials, namely the little q -Jacobi polynomials.

We can prove the irrationality and give the upper bound for the measure of irrationality of $\zeta_q(2)$ using the following two lemmas:

LEMMA 1.2. *Let x be a real number and suppose there exist integer sequences a_n, b_n ($n \in \mathbb{N}$) such that*

1. $b_n x - a_n \neq 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$;
2. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (b_n x - a_n) = 0$.

Then x is irrational.

LEMMA 1.3. *If the conditions of the previous lemma hold, with $|b_n x - a_n| = \mathcal{O}(1/b_n^s)$ and $b_n < b_{n+1} < b_n^{1+o(1)}$, then $\mu(x) \leq 1 + 1/s$.*

For the latter, see e.g. [4, Ex. 3, p. 376].

REMARK 1.4. Since an easy calculation shows that for a natural number r ,

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{kq^k}{1-q^k} - \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{kq^{rk}}{1-q^k} = \sum_{i=1}^{r-1} \frac{q^i}{(1-q^i)^2} \in \mathbb{Q},$$

we also obtain the irrationality of the series

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{kq^{rk}}{1-q^k}.$$

Moreover, these numbers obviously have the same irrationality measure as $\zeta_q(2)$.

2. Some q -calculus. The following elements of q -calculus will often be used:

- the q -Pochhammer symbols $(a; q)_n = \prod_{j=0}^{n-1} (1 - aq^j)$ and $(a; q)_\infty = \prod_{j=0}^\infty (1 - aq^j)$;
- the q -binomial factors

$$\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q = \frac{(q; q)_n}{(q; q)_k (q; q)_{n-k}} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p = \frac{(p; p)_n}{(p; p)_k (p; p)_{n-k}},$$

where a straightforward calculation shows that

$$\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q = q^{k(n-k)} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p;$$

- the q -derivative

$$D_q f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{f(x) - f(qx)}{x(1-q)} & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ f'(0) & \text{if } x = 0; \end{cases}$$

- the q -integral

$$\int_0^{q^i} f(x) d_q x = \sum_{k=i}^\infty q^k f(q^k)$$

and

$$\int_{q^j}^{q^i} f(x) d_q x = \int_0^{q^i} f(x) d_q x - \int_0^{q^j} f(x) d_q x;$$

- the q -Leibniz rule

$$D_q^n [f(x)g(x)] = \sum_{k=0}^n \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q D_q^k (f(x)) D_q^{n-k} (g(q^k x)).$$

In the literature, the q -integral is often defined with an extra factor $1 - q$, which makes the q -integration and the q -derivation inverse operations. Since we do not need this property, we drop the factor to prevent it from arising everywhere in the approximations and the analysis. We will need the little q -Jacobi polynomials. These are given by the explicit formula (see [11])

$$\begin{aligned} (2.1) \quad P_n(x; a, b|q) &= {}_2\phi_1 \left(\begin{matrix} q^{-n}, abq^{n+1} \\ aq \end{matrix} \middle| q; qx \right) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(q^{-n}; q)_k (abq^{n+1}; q)_k}{(q; q)_k (aq; q)_k} q^k x^k, \end{aligned}$$

and there also exists a Rodrigues formula

$$(2.2) \quad \frac{(qx; q)_\infty}{(q^{\beta+1}x; q)_\infty} x^\alpha P_n(x; q^\alpha, q^\beta | q) = \frac{q^{n\alpha+n(n-1)/2}(1-q)^n}{(q^{\alpha+1}; q)_n} D_p^n \left(\frac{(qx; q)_\infty}{(q^{\beta+n+1}x; q)_\infty} x^{\alpha+n} \right).$$

The orthogonality is given by

$$(2.3) \quad \sum_{k=0}^\infty \frac{(bq; q)_k}{(q; q)_k} (aq)^k P_n(q^k; a, b | q) q^{km} = 0, \quad m = 0, \dots, n-1.$$

For q -integrals there exists an analogue to integration by parts, which is called summation by parts.

LEMMA 2.1 (Summation by parts). *If $g(p) = 0$ or $f(1) = 0$ and if both series converge, then*

$$\sum_{k=0}^\infty q^k f(q^k) D_p g(x)|_{q^k} = -q \sum_{k=0}^\infty q^k g(q^k) D_q f(x)|_{q^k}.$$

3. Approximations to $\zeta_q(2)$

3.1. The Hermite–Padé approximation problem. The following Hermite–Padé approximation problem is considered: find polynomials A_n, B_n of degree $\leq n$ and C_n of degree $\leq n-1$ for which

$$(3.1) \quad F_n(z) = A_n(z) + B_n(z) \log_q(z) = 0 \quad \text{for } z = 1, p, p^2, \dots, p^n,$$

$$(3.2) \quad A_n(z) f_1(z) + B_n(z) f_2(z) - C_n(z) = \mathcal{O}(1/z^{n+1}), \quad z \rightarrow \infty,$$

with $\log_q z = \log z / \log q$ the logarithm to base q and

$$f_1(z) = \int_0^1 \frac{d_q x}{z-x}, \quad f_2(z) = \int_0^1 \log_q x \frac{d_q x}{z-x}.$$

We suggest the following expression for $F_n(x)$, where R_n is a yet unknown polynomial of degree n and x is any point on the grid $\{q^i : i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$:

$$(3.3) \quad F_n(x) = \int_x^1 R_n \left(\frac{x}{t} \right) (qt; q)_n \frac{d_q t}{t}.$$

This choice of F_n satisfies the first condition (3.1): if we use the definition of the q -integral we get

$$(3.4) \quad F_n(p^l) = - \sum_{k=-l}^{-1} R_n(p^{l+k}) (q^{k+1}; q)_n = - \sum_{k=0}^{l-1} R_n(p^k) (q^{k+1-l}; q)_n.$$

It is now obvious that for $1 \leq l \leq n$ we have $(q^{k+1-l}; q)_n = (1 - q^{k+1-l}) \dots (1 - q^{k+n-l})$, and since the summation index k runs from 0 to $l - 1$, the factor $(1 - q^0)$ is present in every term, hence $F_n(p^l) = 0$. If $l = 0$, then $F_n(p^l)$ is an empty sum, hence also zero.

The orthogonality conditions that follow from the second part of the Hermite–Padé approximation problem are given by

$$(3.5) \quad \int_0^1 F_n(x) x^m d_q x = 0, \quad m = 0, \dots, n - 1,$$

and they will allow us to find what the polynomials R_n really are:

$$(3.6) \quad \begin{aligned} 0 &= \int_0^1 F_n(x) x^m d_q x = \int_0^1 \int_x^1 R_n\left(\frac{x}{t}\right) (qt; q)_n \frac{d_q t}{t} x^m d_q x \\ &= q^{m+1} \int_0^1 (qt; q)_n t^m d_q t \int_0^1 R_n(qy) y^m d_q y. \end{aligned}$$

REMARK 3.1. The diligent reader may think that there is a mistake in this last expression: by switching the order of integration and replacing x by yt , one would expect a factor $R_n(y)$ in the last line. However, if one replaces the integrals by sums according to the definition of q -integration, and one then switches the order of summation, this factor turns out to be $R_n(qy)$. This shows that one has to be extremely careful when working with q -integrals.

The first integral of (3.6) is the integral over $[0, 1]$ of a strictly positive integrand, so this factor is positive, which means that the other integral has to be zero. Comparing this to (2.3), we conclude that the polynomials R_n should really be the little q -Jacobi polynomials $P_n(px; 1, 1 | q)$ (up to a constant factor), which are in fact little q -Legendre polynomials [11, §3.12.1].

We use the explicit expression for the little q -Jacobi polynomials (2.1) and insert it in (3.3), to get

$$\begin{aligned} F_n(x) &= \int_x^1 (qt; q)_n \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(q^{-n}; q)_k (q^{n+1}; q)_k}{(q; q)_k^2} \frac{x^k}{t^k} \frac{d_q t}{t} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k p^{k(k+1)/2-nk} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p \begin{bmatrix} n+k \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p x^k \int_x^1 \frac{(qt; q)_n}{t^{k+1}} d_q t. \end{aligned}$$

Since

$$(qt; q)_n = \sum_{k=0}^n p^{k(k-1)/2-nk} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p (-1)^k t^k,$$

we only need an expression for $\int_x^1 t^m d_q t$ with $m = -n - 1, \dots, n - 1$. It is

easily shown that

$$\int_x^1 t^m d_q t = \begin{cases} \frac{1 - x^{m+1}}{1 - q^{m+1}} & \text{if } m \neq -1, \\ \log_q x & \text{if } m = -1. \end{cases}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} F_n(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k p^{k(k+1)/2-nk} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p \begin{bmatrix} n+k \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p \\ &\quad \times \sum_{i=0, i \neq k}^n \begin{bmatrix} n \\ i \end{bmatrix}_p p^{i(i+1)/2-ni} (-1)^i \frac{x^k - x^i}{p^i - p^k} \\ &\quad + \sum_{k=0}^n p^{-2kn+k^2} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p^2 \begin{bmatrix} n+k \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p x^k \log_q x. \end{aligned}$$

So, using the definition of F_n in (3.1), we find that the polynomials A_n and B_n are given by

$$(3.7) \quad \begin{aligned} A_n(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k p^{k(k+1)/2-nk} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p \begin{bmatrix} n+k \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p \\ &\quad \times \sum_{i=0, i \neq k}^n \begin{bmatrix} n \\ i \end{bmatrix}_p p^{i(i+1)/2-ni} (-1)^i \frac{x^k - x^i}{p^i - p^k}, \end{aligned}$$

$$(3.8) \quad B_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n p^{-2kn+k^2} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p^2 \begin{bmatrix} n+k \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p x^k.$$

The Hermite–Padé approximation theory also gives us an expression for the third polynomial C_n . We have

$$(3.9) \quad C_n(x) = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} q^l \frac{A_n(x) - A_n(q^l)}{x - q^l} + \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} l q^l \frac{B_n(x) - B_n(q^l)}{x - q^l}.$$

Plugging in the formulae (3.7)–(3.8) for A_n and B_n and changing the order of summation, we arrive at

$$\begin{aligned} C_n(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{i=0, i \neq k}^n (-1)^{k+i} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p \begin{bmatrix} n \\ i \end{bmatrix}_p \begin{bmatrix} n+k \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p \frac{p^{-nk-ni+k(k+1)/2+i(i+1)/2}}{p^i - p^k} \\ &\quad \times \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} q^l \frac{q^{li} - q^{lk} + x^k - x^i}{x - q^l} \\ &\quad + \sum_{k=0}^n \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p^2 \begin{bmatrix} n+k \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p p^{-2kn+k^2} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{l q^l}{x - q^l} (x^k - q^{lk}). \end{aligned}$$

Using three times the identity

$$\frac{A^n - B^n}{A - B} = \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} A^t B^{n-t-1}$$

we can further isolate the infinite sums, which can now be calculated. To that end we use the series

$$\sum_{l=0}^{\infty} lA^l = \frac{A}{(1 - A)^2}, \quad |A| < 1,$$

in the second term. This leads us to a closed formula for C_n :

$$\begin{aligned} (3.10) \quad C_n(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{i=0, i \neq k}^n (-1)^{k+i} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p \begin{bmatrix} n \\ i \end{bmatrix}_p \begin{bmatrix} n+k \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p \\ &\times \frac{p^{-nk-ni+k(k+1)/2+i(i+1)/2}}{p^i - p^k} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{k-1} \frac{p^{k-t} x^t}{p^{k-t} - 1} - \sum_{t=0}^{i-1} \frac{p^{i-t} x^t}{p^{i-t} - 1} \right] \\ &+ \sum_{k=0}^n \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p^2 \begin{bmatrix} n+k \\ k \end{bmatrix}_p p^{-2kn+k^2} \sum_{t=0}^{k-1} \frac{p^{k-t} x^t}{(p^{k-t} - 1)^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Evaluating (3.2) at p^n and using (3.1) shows that a_n^*/b_n^* is an approximation for $\zeta_q(2)$, with

$$(3.11) \quad a_n^* = B_n(p^n) \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{k}{p^k - 1} + C_n(p^n),$$

$$(3.12) \quad b_n^* = B_n(p^n).$$

3.2. Integer sequences. To get some results regarding irrationality and the irrationality measure, the numerator and denominator of the approximant should be integers. So we will have to multiply them by an expression e_n , in such a way that the numbers

$$(3.13) \quad a_n = e_n a_n^* \quad \text{and} \quad b_n = e_n b_n^*$$

are integers. Looking at the explicit formulae (3.8)–(3.10) for $B_n(p^n)$ and $C_n(p^n)$, we can deduce the factors that are needed in e_n . Keep in mind that $p = 1/q$ is a natural number greater than 1.

It is well-known that the p -binomial factors are integers, hence only powers of p can arise in the denominator of $B_n(p^n)$. There is a factor p^{k^2-nk} in $B_n(p^n)$, with the summation index k going from 0 to n . The minimum of this exponent is obviously $-\lfloor n^2/4 \rfloor$ (with $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$ the floor function), so we conclude that

$$p^{\lfloor n^2/4 \rfloor} B_n(p^n) \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

The possible denominators that arise in the term

$$B_n(p^n) \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{k}{p^k - 1}$$

are then clearly cancelled out by $p^{\lfloor n^2/4 \rfloor} \text{lcm}\{p^j - 1 : 1 \leq j \leq n - 1\}$, where lcm denotes the least common multiple.

Finally, we need to find the denominator of $C_n(p^n)$. This denominator consists of factors p^j and $p^j - 1$. Looking at (3.10), we see that the latter are completely cancelled by the factor

$$(\text{lcm}\{p^j - 1 : 1 \leq j \leq n\})^2.$$

It is well-known that, as a polynomial in x ,

$$\text{lcm}\{x^j - 1 : 1 \leq j \leq n\} = d_n(x),$$

with

$$(3.14) \quad d_n(x) = \prod_{d=1}^n \Phi_d(x),$$

where Φ_d are the cyclotomic polynomials defined by

$$\Phi_d(x) = \prod_{\substack{k=1 \\ \text{gcd}(k,d)=1}}^d (x - \omega_d^k) \quad \text{with} \quad \omega_d = e^{2\pi i/d}.$$

Hence, putting a factor $d_n^2(p)$ in e_n will cancel all factors of type $p^j - 1$. The only other denominators that can originate from $C_n(p^n)$ are powers of p .

At first glance, the factor needed to cancel these powers of p would be p^{n^2-n} . However, calculations using **Maple** indicate that a factor $p^{\lfloor n^2/4 \rfloor}$ is enough. This will indeed be proved in the next section. This leads us to the following

LEMMA 3.2. *If we choose*

$$(3.15) \quad e_n = p^{\lfloor n^2/4 \rfloor} d_n^2(p),$$

then a_n and b_n , as defined in (3.13), are integers.

REMARK 3.3. From (3.9) or (3.10), we see that $C_n(p^n)$ consists of two terms: one originating from A_n , the other originating from B_n . It is easy to show that both these terms have the predicted denominator p^{n^2-n} , but as mentioned before, putting these two terms together results in the disappearance of these high power denominators, making $\lfloor n^2/4 \rfloor$ the largest remaining exponent of p in the denominator of $C_n(p^n)$.

3.3. Proof of Lemma 3.2. We will work with the q -Mellin transform of the expression F_n . The q -Mellin transform of a measurable function f on the q -exponential lattice on $(0, 1]$ is given by

$$\widehat{f}(s) = \int_0^1 f(x)x^s d_q x.$$

The particular structure of F_n as given in (3.1), and the orthogonality conditions as stated in (3.5), allow us to give an explicit expression for \widehat{F}_n :

$$\widehat{F}_n(s) = \frac{(p; p)_n}{p^{n^2+n+1}} \frac{q^s(q^{s-n+1}; q)_n}{(q^{s+1}; q)_{n+1}^2}.$$

The Hermite–Padé theory gives us an expression for the error term of the approximation. In this case we get

$$b_n^* \zeta_q(2) - a_n^* = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{q^k}{p^n - q^k} F_n(q^k) = q^n \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} q^{nl} \widehat{F}_n(l).$$

Let us now introduce the rational function

$$R_n(T; q) = \frac{T^n(Tq^{-n+1}; q)_n}{(qT; q)_{n+1}^2}$$

and the series

$$S_n(q) = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} q^l R_n(q^l; q).$$

Then obviously

$$(3.16) \quad S_n(q) = \frac{p^{n^2+n+1}}{(p; p)_n} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} q^{nl} \widehat{F}_n(l) = \frac{p^{n^2+2n+1}}{(p; p)_n} (b_n^* \zeta_q(2) - a_n^*).$$

A partial fraction decomposition gives

$$R_n(T; q) = \sum_{s=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} \frac{d_{s,j,n}(q)}{(1 - q^j T)^s}$$

with

$$d_{s,j,n}(q) = (-1)^s q^{js} \frac{d^{2-s}}{dT^{2-s}} (R_n(T; q)(T - q^{-j})^2) \Big|_{T=q^{-j}}$$

for $s = 1, 2$. Isolation of the infinite sums allows us to recognize the expressions for $\zeta_q(1)$ and $\zeta_q(2)$, and we obtain

$$S_n(q) = \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} d_{1,j,n}(q) q^{-j} \zeta_q(1) + \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} d_{2,j,n}(q) q^{-j} \zeta_q(2) - D_1(n, q) - D_2(n, q)$$

with

$$D_1(n, q) = \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} d_{1,j,n}(q)q^{-j} \sum_{l=1}^{j-1} \frac{q^l}{1 - q^l},$$

$$D_2(n, q) = \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} d_{2,j,n}(q)q^{-j} \sum_{l=1}^{j-1} \frac{q^l}{(1 - q^l)^2}.$$

Since we already know from (3.16) that $S_n(q)$ is a \mathbb{Q} -linear combination of 1 and $\zeta_q(2)$, and since the three numbers 1, $\zeta_q(1)$, $\zeta_q(2)$ are \mathbb{Q} -linearly independent (see [14]), we see that the coefficient of $\zeta_q(1)$ has to be zero. Moreover, calculating D_1 and D_2 in terms of the integer $p = 1/q$, we obtain

$$D_1(n, q) = -p^{(n+1)(n+2)} \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} p^{j^2-nj-2j} (p; p)_{j-1}^{-2} (p; p)_{n-j+1}^{-2} \sum_{l=1}^{j-1} \frac{1}{p^l - 1}$$

$$\times \left(n - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{p^{n-k+j}}{1 - p^{n-k+j}} - 2 \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} \frac{p^{j-k}}{p^{j-k} - 1} - 2 \sum_{k=j+1}^{n+1} \frac{1}{1 - p^{k-j}} \right),$$

$$D_2(n, q) = p^{(n+1)(n+2)} \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} p^{j^2-nj-2j} (p^j; p)_n (p; p)_{j-1}^{-2} (p; p)_{n-j+1}^{-2} \sum_{l=1}^{j-1} \frac{p^l}{(p^l - 1)^2}.$$

Now it is an easy task to see that both these quantities contain a power $p^{\lfloor 3n^2/4 \rfloor + 2n+1}$ as a factor in their numerator. Together with (3.16) this allows us to conclude that the highest possible exponent of p in the denominator of a_n^* is $\lfloor n^2/4 \rfloor$, and hence that the factor e_n as proposed in (3.15) indeed makes a_n and b_n integers.

Since we have an explicit expression for the coefficient of $\zeta_q(1)$, its vanishing yields a q -binomial identity:

COROLLARY 3.4. *The following identity holds:*

$$\sum_{j=0}^n q^{-2nj+j^2} \begin{bmatrix} n+j \\ n \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} n \\ j \end{bmatrix}_q^2$$

$$\times \left(n + \sum_{k=1}^{n+j} \frac{1}{1 - q^k} - 3 \sum_{k=1}^j \frac{1}{1 - q^k} + 2 \sum_{k=1}^{n-j} \frac{q^k}{1 - q^k} \right) = 0.$$

Multiplying by $1 - q$ and letting q tend to 1, we obtain the identity

$$\sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n+j}{n} \binom{n}{j}^2 (H(n+j) + 2H(n-j) - 3H(j)) = 0,$$

where $H(n) = \sum_{k=1}^n 1/k$ are harmonic numbers.

4. Irrationality of $\zeta_q(2)$

4.1. Estimate for the error term. So far we know that a_n and b_n are integers, and that a_n/b_n is an approximation of $\zeta_q(2)$. Now we want to estimate $|b_n\zeta_q(2) - a_n|$. To meet the conditions of Lemma 1.2, we need to prove that this quantity tends to zero as n tends to infinity, and that it is never zero. Once again we use the expression for the error term of the approximation:

$$(4.1) \quad b_n\zeta_q(2) - a_n = e_n \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{q^k}{p^n - q^k} F_n(q^k).$$

In this last expression we need $F_n(q^k)$. This can be calculated using (3.3):

$$(4.2) \quad F_n(q^k) = \int_{q^k}^1 R_n\left(\frac{q^k}{t}\right)(qt; q)_n \frac{d_q t}{t} = \sum_{l=0}^{k-1} P_n(q^{k-l-1}; 1, 1 | q)(q^{l+1}; q)_n.$$

If we now use the Rodrigues formula for the little q -Jacobi polynomials (2.2) and plug this into (4.2), then after changing the order of summation we get

$$|b_n\zeta_q(2) - a_n| = e_n \frac{q^{n(n-1)/2+1}(1-q)^n}{(q; q)_n} \times \left| \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (q^{l+1}; q)_n q^l \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{q^k}{p^n - q^{k+l+1}} D_p^n [(qx; q)_n x^n] \Big|_{x=q^k} \right|.$$

Applying n times summation by parts (Lemma 2.1) we have

$$|b_n\zeta_q(2) - a_n| = e_n \frac{q^{n(n+1)/2+1}(1-q)^n}{(q; q)_n} \times \left| \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (q^{l+1}; q)_n q^l \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (q^{k+1}; q)_n q^k q^{nk} D_q^n \left(\frac{1}{p^n - q^{l+1}x} \right) \Big|_{x=q^k} \right|.$$

Now it can be proven by induction that the q -derivative needed in this last expression is given by

$$D_q^n \frac{1}{p^n - q^{l+1}x} = \frac{q^{ln}(q; q)_n p^{n(n-1)/2}}{(1-q)^n \prod_{j=0}^n (p^{n+j} - xq^{l+1})}.$$

We recognize a double q -integral for $|b_n\zeta_q(2) - a_n|$:

$$|b_n\zeta_q(2) - a_n| = e_n q^{n+1} \left| \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{(qx; q)_n x^n (qy; q)_n y^n}{\prod_{j=0}^n (p^{n+j} - qxy)} d_q x d_q y \right|.$$

None of these factors is zero, and the integrand is strictly positive on $(0, 1]^2$, so we see that the first condition of Lemma 1.2 is satisfied.

Obviously, $\prod_{j=0}^n (p^{n+j} - qxy)$ reaches its minimum at $(x, y) = (1, 1)$. Moreover, the function $(qx; q)_n x^n$ reaches its maximum in $x = 1$, as long as $0 < q \leq 1/2$, which is the case we are working with since $p = 1/q$ is an integer. To see this, it is enough to show that $x(1 - q^m x)/(1 - q^m) \leq 1$ for all $x \in [0, 1]$ and for $m = 1, \dots, n$. So we can make the estimate

$$(4.3) \quad \begin{aligned} |b_n \zeta_q(2) - a_n| &\leq e_n \frac{(q; q)_n^2}{(1 - q)^2} \frac{q^{n+1}}{\prod_{j=0}^n (p^{n+j} - q)} \\ &= e_n \frac{(q; q)_n^2 q^{n+1}}{(1 - q)^2 (q^{n+1}; q)_{n+1}} q^{3n(n+1)/2}. \end{aligned}$$

4.2. Asymptotic behaviour. The asymptotic behaviour of the cyclotomic polynomials is known (see e.g. [16]) and is given in the following lemma.

LEMMA 4.1. *Suppose p is an integer greater than one and let d_n be given by (3.14). Then*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_n(p)^{1/n^2} = p^{3/\pi^2}.$$

Hence the expression (3.15) has the asymptotic behaviour

$$(4.4) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e_n^{1/n^2} = p^{6/\pi^2 + 1/4}$$

and (4.3) has the asymptotic behaviour

$$(4.5) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |b_n \zeta_q(2) - a_n|^{1/n^2} \leq p^{6/\pi^2 + 1/4 - 3/2} \approx p^{-0.6421}.$$

So we conclude that also the second condition of Lemma 1.2 is satisfied, and hence that $\zeta_q(2)$ is irrational.

REMARK 4.2. One could try to use the same method to prove the irrationality of

$$\zeta_{q_1, q_2}(2) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k q_1^k}{1 - q_2^k}$$

with $q_2 = 1/p_2$, $q_1 = 1/p_1$ and integers p_1, p_2 . Little q -Jacobi polynomials with different parameters are needed in this case. However, the e_n which is needed to cancel the denominators turns out to be too large and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |b_n \zeta_{q_1, q_2}(2) - a_n|^{1/n^2} > 1.$$

Hence we cannot deduce the irrationality for this family of numbers. The case where p_1 and p_2 are related in a certain way (they are both powers of the same integer p) gives asymptotically better results, but still not good enough to prove irrationality. So we only obtain the irrationality result for the family of numbers mentioned in Theorem 1.1 and Remark 1.4.

4.3. The measure of irrationality. To use Lemma 1.3, we need to get a value for s in $|b_n\zeta_q(2) - a_n| = \mathcal{O}(1/b_n^s)$. We already know that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |b_n\zeta_q(2) - a_n|^{1/n^2} \leq p^{6/\pi^2 - 5/4}.$$

If we can now find the asymptotic relation between $b_n = e_n B_n(p^n)$ and p^{n^2} , then we obtain the desired value for s . From the explicit formula (3.8) for $B_n(p^n)$ and the asymptotic behaviour of e_n in (4.4), it is clear that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n^{1/n^2} = p^{6/\pi^2 + 1/4 + 1} = p^{(24 + 5\pi^2)/4\pi^2}.$$

Together with (4.5), this means that

$$|b_n\zeta_q(2) - a_n| = \mathcal{O}(1/b_n^{(5\pi^2 - 24)/(5\pi^2 + 24)}).$$

Hence Lemma 1.3 gives us an upper bound for the measure of irrationality:

$$\mu(\zeta_q(2)) \leq 1 + \frac{5\pi^2 + 24}{5\pi^2 - 24} = \frac{10\pi^2}{5\pi^2 - 24},$$

which concludes the proof of Theorem 1.1.

5. Concluding remark. It is worth noticing that our sequence of rational approximants coincides with Zudilin's [17]. However, thanks to the treatment in Section 3.3, we were able to extract a better exponent of p : compare our

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |b_n\zeta_q(2) - a_n|^{1/n^2} \leq p^{6/\pi^2 - 5/4}$$

to formulas (70)–(72) in [17], which give Zudilin's estimate

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\tilde{H}_n|^{1/n^2} \leq p^{6/\pi^2 - 1},$$

where \tilde{H}_n is a \mathbb{Z} -linear combination of 1 and $\zeta_q(2)$.

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