

### Survey of Scientific Computing (SciComp 301)

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**Session 11**Complex Algebra

#### **Section Goals**

- Write code to perform complex algebra
- Factor primes over the Gaussian Integers
- Use a **Taylor Series** to approximate  $e^x$   $\{x \in \mathbb{C}\}$
- Calculate and display Euler's Identity
- Derive Euler's Formula in Complex Analysis
- Develop a functional equation for an infinite series
- Numerically calculate Euler's Gamma Function
- Explore the famous Riemann Hypothesis
- Debate what it means for two functions to be considered *equivalent*





# **Complex Numbers**

$$i = \sqrt{-1}$$
$$i^2 = -1$$

$$\sqrt{-100} = \sqrt{100}\sqrt{-1} = 10\sqrt{-1}$$

$$\sqrt{-5} = \sqrt{5}\sqrt{-1}$$

$$\sqrt{-290} = \sqrt{290}\sqrt{-1} \quad etc.$$

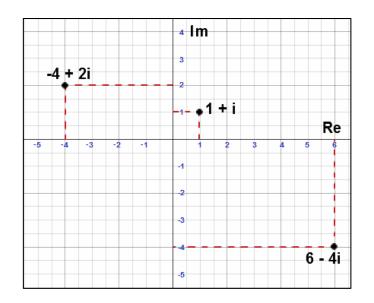
$$\sqrt{-5} = i\sqrt{5}$$

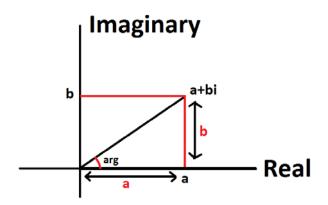
$$\sqrt{-81} = 9i$$

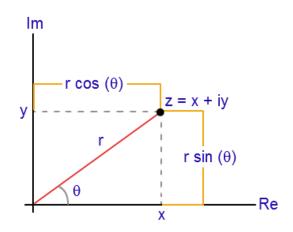
$$i^0 = 1$$
 (anything raised to  $0 = 1$ )
 $i^1 = i$  (anything raised to  $1 = itself$ )
 $i^2 = -1$  (definition of  $i^2$ )
 $i^3 = i^2 \times i = -1 \times i = -i$ 
 $i^4 = i^2 \times i^2 = -1 \times -1 = 1$ 

# **Complex Numbers**

$$i = \sqrt{-1}$$
$$i^2 = -1$$







# Complex Algebra

Sum: 
$$(4+3i) + (5-4i) = (4+5) + (3-4)i$$
  
=  $9-i$ 

**Difference:** 
$$(4+3i) - (5-4i) = (4-5) + (3-(-4))i$$
  
=  $-1+7i$ 

Product: 
$$(4+3i)(5-4i) = 20 - 16i + 15i - 12i^2$$
  
=  $20 - i + 12$   
=  $32 - i$   
(a+bi)(c+di)

# Open Lab 1 – Complex Algebra

- Write code that leverages C++ built-in support for complex numbers
- Given two complex numbers  $z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ , calculate
  - Addition  $(z_1 + z_2)$
  - Subtraction  $(z_1 z_2)$
  - Multiplication  $(z_1 \times z_2)$
  - Division  $\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right)$
- Raise a complex number to an integer power:  $(z_1)^n$ 
  - The built-in C++ pow() function can directly raise a complex number to a <u>complex</u> power, but in Lab 1 we will only raise a complex number to an <u>integer</u> power

```
// complex-algebra.cpp
#include "stdafx.h"
using namespace std;
int main()
    complex<double> z1(-5.9, -7.5):
    complex<double> z2(sqrt(2), M_PI)
    cout << "z1 = " << z1 << endl
        << "z2 = " << z2 << endl << endl:
    cout << "z1 + z2 = "
        << z1 + z2 << endl:
    cout << "z1 - z2 = "
        << z1 - z2 << endl:
    cout << "z1 * z2 = "
        << z1 * z2 << endl;
    cout << "z1 / z2 = "
        << z1 / z2 << endl;
    cout << endl << "z1^2 = "
        << pow(z1, 2) << endl << endl:
    return 0;
```

# Run Lab 1 Complex Algebra

$$z_1 = -5.9 - 7.5 \mathbf{i} = (-5.9, -7.5)$$
  
 $z_2 = \sqrt{2} + \pi \mathbf{i} = (\sqrt{2}, \pi)$ 

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$$z1 = (-5.9, -7.5)$$
 $z2 = (1.41421, 3.14159)$ 
 $z1 + z2 = (-4.48579, -4.35841)$ 
 $z1 - z2 = (-7.31421, -10.6416)$ 
 $z1 * z2 = (15.2181, -29.142)$ 
 $z1 / z2 = (-2.68803, 0.667992)$ 
 $z1^2 = (-21.44, 88.5)$ 

## Representation Theory

• Any integer N  $\{N \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$  must be one of these four forms

$$N = 4n$$

$$N = 4n + 1$$

$$N = 4n + 2$$

$$N = 4n + 3$$

If N ∈ {primes}, then N
 can only be one of these
 two forms

$$N = 4n$$

$$N = 4n + 1$$

$$N = 4n + 2$$

$$N = 4n + 3$$

$$N \ prime \Rightarrow N \% 4 = \{1,3\}$$

### **Unique Factorization Domains**

 When restricting the factorization domain to just positive integers, certain numbers are primes

$$\{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 23, 29, \dots\}$$

 Now consider positive Gaussian integers, which are complex numbers having both integer real and integer imaginary components

$$\{2-7i, 13+5i, 1-2i, 12+202i, ...\}$$

 If we <u>expand</u> the factorization domain to include Gaussian integers, then what were *previously* primes may *now* be composite numbers

$$5 = (2+i)(2-i)$$

## **Unique Factorization Domains**

• A prime p over the integers  $\mathbb{Z}$  is composite over the Gaussian integers  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  when p is the sum of two squares

$$p = a^2 + b^2 = (a + bi)(a - bi)$$

- To find all primes **p** which are composite over  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ 
  - $\forall_p$ , try all a, where  $1 \le a \le \sqrt{p}$
  - Set  $b = \sqrt{p a^2}$

 $[x] \equiv \text{floor of } x$ 

- If  $([b] == b) \stackrel{\cdot}{\cdot} p = (a + bi)(a bi)$
- Let's write code to check the first odd 25 primes (p < 100)
- What do these "weak primes" have in common?

## Open Lab 2 – Complex Factorization

```
int main()
{
    InitOddPrimes(25);

    FindSumOfSquares();

    system("pause");
    return 0;
}
```

This removes the first prime, which is a 2, as we only want odd primes

```
vector<int> primes;
void InitOddPrimes(int count)
    primes.push back(2);
    int n = 3;
    while (primes.size() < count) {</pre>
        if (n % 2 == 1) {
            bool isPrime = true;
            for (size_t p{}; p < primes.size(); p++)</pre>
                 if (n % primes.at(p) == 0) {
                     isPrime = false;
                     break;
            if (isPrime)
                primes.push_back(n);
        n += 2;
    primes.erase(primes.begin());
```

## **View** Lab 2 – Complex Factorization

```
int main()
{
    InitOddPrimes(25);
    FindSumOfSquares();
    system("pause");
    return 0;
}
```

```
void FindSumOfSquares()
    for (int p : primes) {
        for (int a = 1; a <= sqrt(p); a++) {
            double b = sqrt(p - a*a);
        - → if (floor(b) == b) {
                cout << p << " = "
                     << "(" << a << " + " << b << "i)"
                     << "(" << a << " - " << b << "i)"
                     << endl:
                 break;
       • Try all a, where 1 \le a \le \sqrt{p}
      • Set b = \sqrt{p - a^2}
     • If ([b] == b) \Rightarrow p = (a + bi)(a - bi)
```

# Run Lab 2 – Complex Factorization

```
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Press any key to continue . . . _
```

What do these 11 primes have in common?

### **Research Questions**

1. If we know (a + bi) & (a - bi) are factors of p, what **two** other factors do we know *automatically*? Why?

$$5 = (2+i)(2-i)$$
 : what others?

- 2. There are 24 odd integer primes < 100, but 11 are composite (weak primes) when factored over the domain of Gaussian integers what do these 11 primes have in common?</p>
- 3. Are all Pythagorean primes "strong" primes over  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ ?
- 4. Who was Pierre de Fermat and what was his theorem on the sums of two squares?

# Why is *e* so special?

Take an item of size n and divide it into m parts

 $\therefore$  the size of each part  $p = \frac{n}{m}$ 

Q: What value of m maximizes  $p^m$ ?

A: When m = e

$$e = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} = \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{24} + \cdots$$

$$e = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^n$$

$$\int_{1}^{e} \frac{1}{t} dt = 1$$

e is the base of the natural logarithm

= 2.718281828459045...

$$\ln e = 1$$

## Why is *e* so special?

$$e^{x} = 1 + x + \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \frac{x^{4}}{4!} + \frac{x^{5}}{5!} + \frac{x^{6}}{6!} + \frac{x^{7}}{7!} + \cdots$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(e^{x}) = \frac{d}{dx}(1) + \frac{d}{dx}(x) + \frac{d}{dx}(\frac{x^{2}}{2!}) + \frac{d}{dx}(\frac{x^{3}}{3!}) + \cdots$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(e^{x}) = 1 + x + \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \frac{x^{4}}{4!} + \frac{x^{5}}{5!} + \frac{x^{6}}{6!} + \frac{x^{7}}{7!} + \cdots$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(e^{x}) = e^{x}$$

 $e^{x}$  is the only function which is the derivative of <u>itself</u>!

## Euler's Identity

• Calculate an approximation of  $e^z$  where  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ , using its Taylor Series expansion to 20 terms

$$e^{z} = 1 + z + \frac{z^{2}}{2!} + \frac{z^{3}}{3!} + \frac{z^{4}}{4!} + \frac{z^{5}}{5!} + \frac{z^{6}}{6!} + \frac{z^{7}}{7!} + \cdots$$

• Use the above **power series** to display the value of  $e^{\pi i}$ 

$$(e^z \ where \ z = \mathbf{0} + \boldsymbol{\pi} i)$$

 As the denominators grow at a factorial rate, you must store them using the integer data type uint64\_t which has a range of 0 to 18,446,744,073,709,551,615

# Open Lab 3 - Euler's Identity

```
// euler-identity.cpp
                                                             z^2 z^3 z^4 z^5 z^6 z^7
#include "stdafx.h"
                                              e^z = 1 + z + \frac{z}{2!} + \frac{z}{3!} + \frac{z}{4!} + \frac{z}{5!} + \frac{z}{6!} + \frac{z}{7!} + \cdots
using namespace std;
int main()
    complex<double> z(0, M PI);
                                               (z = \mathbf{0} + \pi i)
    complex<double> ez(1, 0);
    uint64 t fact = 1;
    for (int p = 1; p < 21; p = p + 1)
         ez = ez + pow(z, p) / complex<double>(fact, 0);
         fact = fact * (p + 1);
    cout << fixed << setprecision(5)</pre>
         << "e^" << z << " = " << ez
         << endl << endl;
     return 0;
```

# Run Lab 3 - Euler's Identity

```
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e^(0.00000,3.14159) = (-1.00000,-0.00000)

Process returned 0 (0x0) execution time : 0.012 s

Press ENTER to continue.
```

$$e^{i\pi} + 1 = 0$$

$$i^i = ?$$

$$\left(a^{b}\right)^{c} = a^{bc}$$

$$(2^3)^4 = 2^{3 \times 4} = 2^{12}$$

$$e^{\pi i} = -1$$

$$-1 = e^{\pi i}$$

$$(-1)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left(e^{\pi i}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\sqrt{-1} = e^{\frac{\pi i}{2}}$$

$$i = e^{\frac{\pi i}{2}}$$

$$i^i = \left(e^{\frac{\pi i}{2}}\right)^i$$

$$i^i = e^{\frac{\pi i^2}{2}}$$

$$i^i = e^{\frac{-\pi}{2}}$$

 $i^i \cong 0.20787 \in \mathbb{R}$ 

#### Run Lab 4 - Euler's Formula

```
void epow(double x)
    complex<double> z(0, x);
    complex<double> ez(1, 0);
    uint64 t fact = 1;
    for (int p = 1; p < 21; p = p + 1)
        ez = ez + pow(z, p) / complex < double > (fact, 0);
        fact = fact * (p + 1);
    cout << fixed << setprecision(5)</pre>
        << "e^" << z << " = " << ez
        << endl << endl:
int main()
    epow(0):
    epow M PI
    epow(M PI);
    epow(3. * M PI / 2.);
                                 Theta = PI * 3/2
    return 0;
```

Run Lab 4 code to evaluate  $e^{\theta i}$  at these values for  $\theta$ :

$z(0, \theta)$	$e^{i\theta}:Real$	$e^{i\theta}:Img$
0		
$\frac{\pi}{2}$		
$\pi$	-1	0
$\frac{3\pi}{2}$		

What **trigonometric** functions can produce these *specific* real & imaginary components at each  $\theta$ ?

#### Check Lab 4 - Euler's Formula

Input	Output
IIIput	Output

$z(0, \theta)$	$e^{i heta}:Real$	$e^{i heta}:Img$
0	1	0
$\frac{\pi}{2}$	0	1
$\pi$	-1	0
$\frac{3\pi}{2}$	0	-1

What **trigonometric** functions can produce these specific real & imaginary components at each  $\theta$ ?

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$$

$$\sqrt{i} + \sqrt{-i} = ?$$

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$$

$$e^{\frac{\pi}{2}i} = i \qquad e^{\frac{-\pi}{2}i} = -i$$

$$\sqrt{e^{\frac{\pi}{2}i}} + \sqrt{e^{\frac{-\pi}{2}i}}$$

$$\left(e^{\frac{\pi}{2}i}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \left(e^{\frac{-\pi}{2}i}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$e^{\frac{\pi}{4}i} + e^{\frac{-\pi}{4}i}$$

$$\left(\cos\frac{\pi}{4} + i\sin\frac{\pi}{4}\right) + \left(\cos\frac{-\pi}{4} + i\sin\frac{-\pi}{4}\right)$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{-i}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} = \sqrt{2}$$

$$\sqrt{i} + \sqrt{-i} = \sqrt{2}$$

Consider the following series:

$$M_n(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots + x^n = \sum_{k=0}^n x^k$$

- For example:  $M_2(x) = 1 + x + x^2$
- As  $n \to \infty$  such that  $M(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k$ , what is the domain interval where M(x) converges?

$$M(1) = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + \dots = \infty$$
 (diverges)  
 $M(0) = 1 + 0 + 0 + 0 + \dots = 1$  (converges)

• What about M(-1)?

$$M(-1) = 1 + (-1) + (-1)^2 + (-1)^3 + (-1)^4 + \dots = ?$$

$$M_{5}(-1) = (1-1) + (1-1) + (1-1) = 0$$

$$M_6(-1) = (1-1) + (1-1) + (1-1) + 1 = 1$$

$$\mu = \frac{(M_5 + M_6)}{2} = \frac{(0+1)}{2} = \frac{1}{2} : M(-1) = 0.5$$
?

Note: This approach of adding partial terms of a series is called **Cesàro** summation

$$M_2(x)(1-x) = (1)(1-x) + (x)(1-x) + (x^2)(1-x)$$

$$M_2(x)(1-x) = 1 - x + x - x^2 + x^2 - x^3$$

$$M_2(x)(1-x) = 1 + (-x + x) + (-x^2 + x^2) - x^3$$

$$M_2(x)(1-x) = 1 - x^3$$

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}x^n=0\Leftrightarrow |x|<1$$

$$M_2(x) = \frac{1-x^3}{1-x} : M(x) = \frac{1-x^{\infty}}{1-x} = \frac{1-0}{1-x} \{ x \in \mathbb{R} (-1,1) \}$$

$$M(x) = \frac{1 - x^{\infty}}{1 - x} = \frac{1}{1 - x} \iff -1 < x < 1$$

$$M(-1) = \frac{1}{1 - (-1)} = \frac{1}{2} \text{!! (debatable as } -1^{\infty} \text{ is undefined)}$$

$$M(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k = \frac{1}{1-x} \{ x \in \mathbb{R} (-1,1) \}$$

- $M(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$  is the **functional equation** for the infinite series **only** over the exclusive domain **(-1, 1)**
- We no longer need to add an infinite number of terms to get the sum within that domain – we can use this limit as a shortcut!

## A Functional Equation for the Factorial

Consider the classic factorial function:

$$n! = n * (n - 1) * (n - 2) * (n - 3) * \cdots * 1$$
  
 $5! = 5 * 4 * 3 * 2 * 1 = 120$ 

- We wish to find a functional equation that provides a shortcut to compute the factorial without having to iterate through the product of every term
- A closed form (analytic) Riemann Integral is the functional equation of an infinite series of diminishing rectangles under a curve within a given interval
- Can we express the factorial function as an integral?

$$\Gamma(n) = (n-1)! \ \{n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$$

$$\Gamma(6) = (6-1)! = 5! = 120$$

$$\Gamma(s) = \int_0^\infty x^{s-1} e^{-x} dx \quad \{s \in \mathbb{C}, Re(s) > 0\}$$

$$\Gamma(6) = \int_0^\infty x^5 e^{-x} dx = ?$$

$$\Gamma(6) = \int_0^\infty x^5 e^{-x} \, dx$$

Recall integration by parts (from differential product rule)

$$\int u \, dv = uv - \int v \, du$$

$$u = x^5, dv = e^{-x} \, dx$$

$$du = 5x^4 dx, v = -e^{-x}$$

$$(x^5)(-e^{-x})\Big|_0^\infty - \int_0^\infty (-e^{-x})(5x^4 dx)$$

$$|x^{5}|(-e^{-x})|_{0}^{\infty} - \int_{0}^{\infty} (-e^{-x})(5x^{4}dx)$$

$$\lim_{b \to \infty} (b^{5})(-e^{-b}) - (0^{5})(-e^{-0}) = \lim_{b \to \infty} \frac{b^{5}}{-e^{b}} = 0$$

$$- \int_{0}^{\infty} (-e^{-x})(5x^{4}dx) = 5 \int_{0}^{\infty} x^{4}e^{-x} dx$$

$$\Gamma(6) = 5 \int_{0}^{\infty} x^{4}e^{-x} dx = ?$$

$$\Gamma(6) = 5 \int_0^\infty x^4 e^{-x} dx$$

$$\Gamma(6) = 20 \int_0^\infty x^3 e^{-x} dx$$

$$\Gamma(6) = 60 \int_0^\infty x^2 e^{-x} dx$$

$$\Gamma(6) = 120 \int_0^\infty x^1 e^{-x} dx$$

$$\Gamma(6) = 120 \int_0^\infty x^0 e^{-x} dx = (120)(1)$$

$$\Gamma(6) = 120 = 5!$$

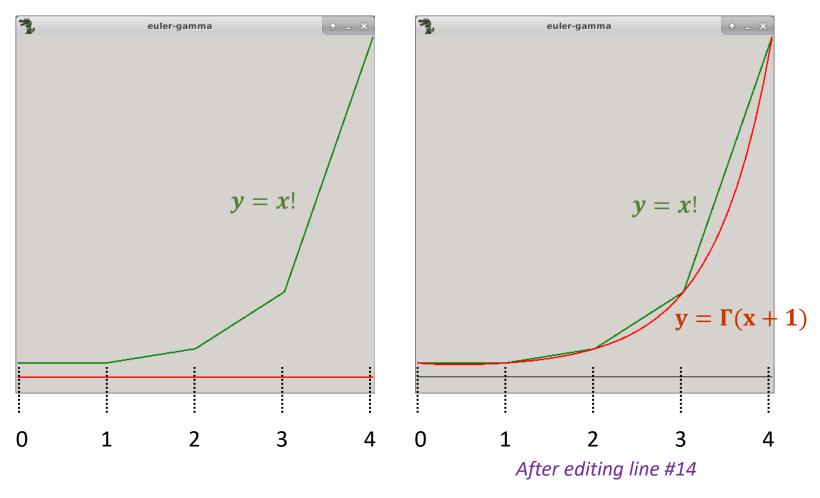
$$\Gamma(s) = \int_0^\infty x^{s-1} e^{-x} dx \quad \{s \in \mathbb{C}, Re(s) > 0\}$$

- Let's graph this integral over the domain of real numbers
- However *first* we'll only consider  $s \in \mathbb{Z}^+$
- Realize the real Gamma function is just an integral that we can numerically compute using Simpson's Rule
- First we will populate a **PointSet** with integer Cartesian coordinates  $0 \le x \le 4$  and y = x!
- Then we will use SimpleScreen to draw the "polynomial" that plots the factorial function using an integer domain

#### Run Lab 5 - Euler's Gamma Function

- Run Lab 5 and verify the growth of the integer factorial
- Then change line # 14 to return 1 \* instead of 0 \*

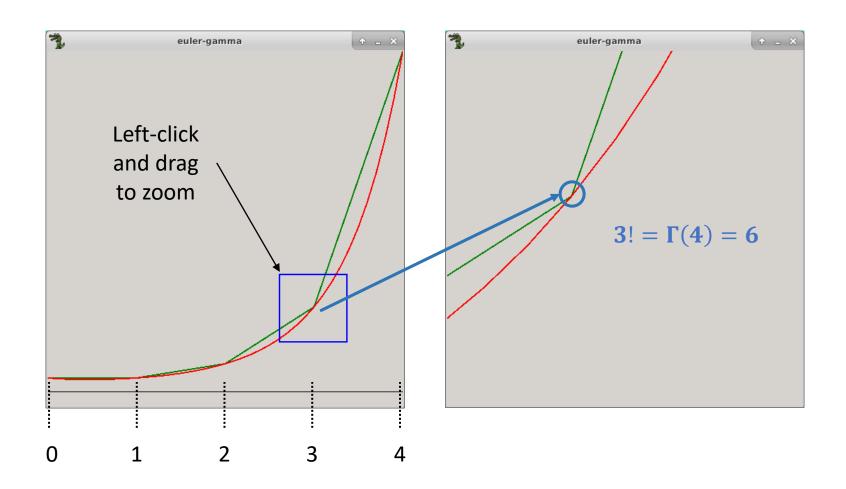
### **Check Lab 5 - Euler's Gamma Function**



#### Run Lab 5 - Euler's Gamma Function

- Run Lab 5 and verify the growth of the integer factorial
- Then change line # 14 to return 1 \* instead of 0 \*
- Run it again, and zoom in on the point at x=3 to confirm the Gamma integral is equal to the integer factorial 3!

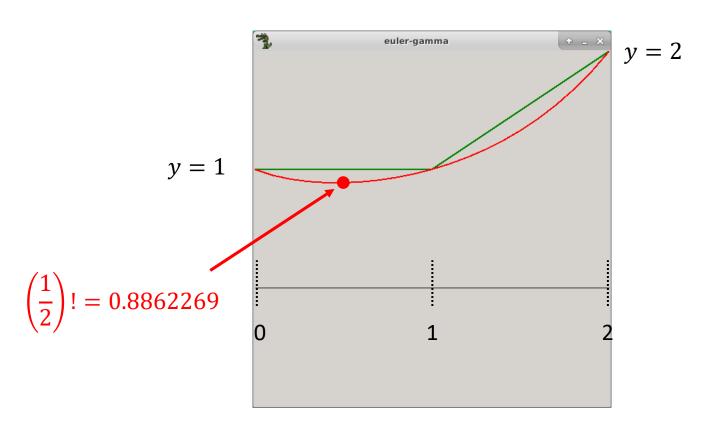
### **Check Lab 5 - Euler's Gamma Function**



#### Run Lab 5 - Euler's Gamma Function

- Run Lab 5 and verify the growth of the integer factorial
- Then change line # 14 to return 1 \* instead of 0 \*
- Run it again, and zoom in on the point at x=3 to confirm the Gamma integral is equal to the integer factorial 3!
- At the lattice points (where  $x \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ) the Gamma integral "equals" the integer factorial function **but are they truly** the same equation?
- Change line #44 so n = 2 and run lab 5 again
- Look at the curve between x = 0 and x = 1
- Consider the range at x = 1/2 as it dips below y = 1
- But n! is not defined for non-integers so what is (1/2)!?

### **Check Lab 5 - Euler's Gamma Function**



Via the Gamma Function we can now calculate the factorial of *fractions*!



#### Euler's Gamma Function

- Euler was a mathematical pathfinder he liked to bend the rules and push the boundaries of existing functions
- He asked "what is the factorial of a fraction?"
- He also asked "what is the factorial of a negative number?"
- You can see graphically in lab 5 that  $\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)! < 1$
- Euler proved these two gems:

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)! = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} = 0.8862269 \dots$$

$$\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)! = \sqrt{\pi} = 1.7724538 \dots$$

#### The Riemann Zeta Function

Recall the Harmonic Series:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \cdots$$

- Nicole Oresme (*O-rays-mah*) proved this diverges to ∞ in
   1360
- Recall the Basel Problem:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = 1 + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{25} + \frac{1}{36} + \frac{1}{49} + \cdots$$

• Euler proved this converged to  $\pi/6$  in 1735

#### The Riemann Zeta Function

 Bernhard Riemann considered in 1859 what happens to the series if we extend the domain beyond natural numbers to the complex domain – he used the Greek letter zeta:

$$\xi(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^s} + \frac{1}{3^s} + \frac{1}{4^s} + \cdots \quad s \in \mathbb{C}$$

- He was actually trying to come up with a functional equation (a shortcut) that would analytically determine the exact number of primes less than a given number – without having to count them all individually
- This "prime counting function" is often expressed as  $\pi(x)$
- For example  $\pi(1,000,000) = 78,498$

#### The Dirichlet Eta Function

- Riemann immediately faced a problem because the standard Zeta function converges only for complex numbers having a real part > 1
- Fortunately the series can be slightly modified to help it converge more easily. This is called the **eta** function:

$$\eta(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n^s} = 1 - \frac{1}{2^s} + \frac{1}{3^s} - \frac{1}{4^s} + \frac{1}{5^s} - \frac{1}{6^s} \dots$$

- The sign alternates between successive terms all terms with an even n are now subtracted
- This simple change extends its domain so  $\eta(s)$  converges for all complex numbers having a real part > 0

#### The Dirichlet Eta Function

- The Eta function has some interesting values which you can write code to numerically compute:
  - $\eta(2) = \frac{\pi^2}{12}$  which is one-half of Euler's Basel sum
  - $\eta(1) = \ln 2$  which is called the **alternating** harmonic series
  - $\eta(0) = \frac{1}{2}$  which is the Abel sum of Grandi's series
  - $\eta(0) = 1 1 + 1 1 + \dots = \frac{1}{2}$  (see slide #27)
- Fortunately  $\eta(s)$  helps us extend the domain of  $\xi(s)$  as it converges for complex numbers having a real part > 0
- But how?

$$\xi(s) = 1 + \frac{1}{2^s} + \frac{1}{3^s} + \frac{1}{4^s} + \frac{1}{5^s} + \frac{1}{6^s} \dots$$

$$\eta(s) = 1 - \frac{1}{2^s} + \frac{1}{3^s} - \frac{1}{4^s} + \frac{1}{5^s} - \frac{1}{6^s} \dots$$

$$\xi(s) - \eta(s) = \frac{2}{2^s} + \frac{2}{4^s} + \frac{2}{6^s} + \frac{2}{8^s} + \frac{2}{10^s} \dots$$

$$\xi(s) - \eta(s) = \left(\frac{2}{2^s}\right) \left(1 + \frac{1}{2^s} + \frac{1}{3^s} + \frac{1}{4^s} + \frac{1}{5^s} \dots\right)$$

$$\xi(s) - \eta(s) = (2^{1-s})\xi(s)$$

$$\xi(s) - (2^{1-s})\xi(s) = \eta(s)$$

$$\xi(s) \left(1 - (2^{1-s})\right) = \eta(s)$$
We can using numbe

# Zeta in terms of Eta

We can now calculate Zeta using Eta for all complex numbers in the <u>right</u> plane (except at s = 1 which is the divergent harmonic series)

#### The Riemann Zeta Function

- The extended Zeta function has some interesting values that appear in many branches of math & physics:
  - $\xi(0+0i) = \frac{1}{2}$  (Grandi's series)
  - $\xi\left(\frac{3}{2}+0i\right)\approx 2.612375$  (appears when calculating the critical temperature for a **Bose-Einstein condensate**)
  - $\xi(2+0i) = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$  (Euler's Basel sum)
  - $\xi(4+0i)\approx 1.082323$  (appears when integrating Planck's law to derive the **Stefan-Boltzmann law** for black body radiation)
  - $\xi(-1+0i)=-\frac{1}{12}$  which "suggests" something Ramanujan independently discovered:  $1+2+3+4+\cdots=-\frac{1}{12}$  (this series appears in string theory)

### The Riemann Hypothesis

 To find his prime counting function, Riemann needed to determine what complex numbers make the Zeta function converge to zero:

$$\xi(s) = 1 + \frac{1}{2^s} + \frac{1}{3^s} + \frac{1}{4^s} + \frac{1}{5^s} + \frac{1}{6^s} \dots = \mathbf{0}$$

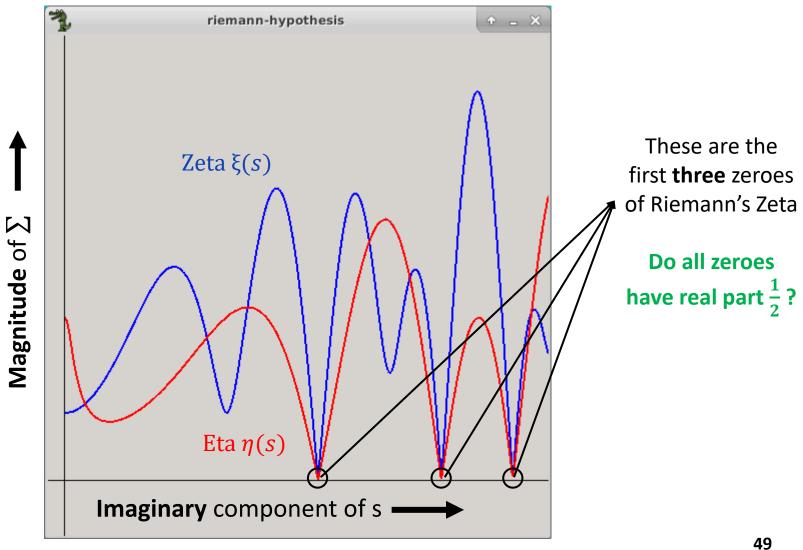
- He then discovered something unexpected all the zeta zeroes seemed to have a real part = ½
  - He could not offer a proof and this idea has become the famous Riemann Hypothesis
  - No one has been able to prove or disprove that Zeta zeroes can only exist on that single vertical line in the complex plane (Re=1/2)
  - It is the **most important unsolved problem in Mathematics** because it is intricately linked to the <u>distribution</u> of prime numbers

## Run Lab 6 – Riemann Hypothesis

- Run Lab 6 to compare the Zeta and Eta functions
- The Zeta(s) function is in red
- The Eta(s) function is in blue
- The x-axis (domain) is the *imaginary* component of the complex number s where 0 < s < 27
- The y-axis (range) is the **magnitude** (absolute value) of the respective series
- Riemann found the first three zeta zeroes are located near

$$\xi_1\left(\frac{1}{2} + \mathbf{14}.134725i\right) \ \xi_2\left(\frac{1}{2} + \mathbf{21}.022040i\right) \ \xi_3\left(\frac{1}{2} + \mathbf{25}.010858i\right)$$

# **Check** Lab 6 – Riemann Hypothesis



## **Check** Lab 6 – Riemann Hypothesis

- Recall Riemann was only interested in the zeta zeroes
- Why is it the case that wherever  $\eta(s) = 0 \to \xi(s) = 0$ ?
- In Riemann's narrow pursuit are Eta and Zeta therefore equivalent (the "same") functions?
  - If you only look (care about) at the points where two functions happen to be equal to each other, will you consider them as equal functions?
- Think back to the Gamma function vs. Integer Factorial...
  - Does it matter how the two functions behave where you are "not" looking?
  - Who defines what makes two functions equivalent?

### Now you know...

 Only the set of complex numbers C is closed under both division and radicals

$$\frac{1}{2} \notin \mathbb{Z}, \sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}, \sqrt{-1} \notin \mathbb{R}$$

- The numerators in the Taylor series for  $e^x$  can be complex numbers, but fortunately each term has only a positive integer exponent
- It is difficult to evaluate the power series expansion for  $e^x$  for many terms in software because the factorial in the denominator grows at a hyper-exponential rate!
- Euler's Identity shows a deep relationship between the five most important constants in all of Mathematics!

## Now you know...

 Napier's logarithm down converts multiplication into easier addition:

$$\log AN = \log A + \log B$$

• De Moivre's Formula down converts **exponentiation** into easier multiplication:

$$(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)^n = \cos n\theta + i\sin n\theta$$

 Euler's Formula is considered the most useful equation in all of mathematics!

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$$

## Now you know...

- Functional equations essentially summarize the behavior of an infinite series
  - They provide a shortcut to determine the converged limit without having to loop through every element
  - They often allow you to extend the domain of the series to evaluate points that at first seem impossible
  - What is means for two algebraically different functions to be the same is a tricky question – especially when you are only interested in certain points along the domain!
- It is interesting to break the rules and insert unexpected values into existing formulas to see what happens – be a mathematical pathfinder!