

Formulas for Odd Zeta Values and Powers of π

Marc Chamberland and Patrick Lopatto
Department of Mathematics and Statistics
Grinnell College
Grinnell, IA 50112
USA

chamberl@math.grinnell.edu

Abstract

Plouffe conjectured rapidly converging series formulas for π^{2n+1} and $\zeta(2n+1)$ for small values of n . We find the general pattern for all nonnegative integer values of n and offer a proof.

1 Introduction

It took nearly one hundred years for the Basel Problem — finding a closed form solution to $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 1/k^2$ — to see a solution. Euler solved this in 1735 and essentially solved the problem where the power of two is replaced with any even power. This formula is now usually written as

$$\zeta(2n) = (-1)^{n+1} \frac{B_{2n}(2\pi)^{2n}}{2(2n)!},$$

where $\zeta(s)$ is the Riemann zeta function and B_k is the k -th Bernoulli number, defined by the generating function

$$\frac{x}{e^x - 1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{B_n x^n}{n!}, \quad |x| < 2\pi,$$

whose first few values are $0, -1/2, 1/6, 0, -1/30, \dots$. However, finding a closed form for $\zeta(2n+1)$ has remained an open problem. Only in 1979 did Apéry show that $\zeta(3)$ is irrational. His proof involved the snappy acceleration

$$\zeta(3) = \frac{5}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n^3 \binom{2n}{n}}.$$

This tidy formula does not generalize to the other odd zeta values, but other representations, such as nested sums or integrals, have been well studied. The hunt for a clean result like Euler's has largely been abandoned, leaving researchers with the goal of finding formulas which either converge quickly or have an elegant form.

Following his success in discovering a new formula for π , Simon Plouffe [5] conjectured several identities which relate either π^m or $\zeta(m)$ to three infinite series. Letting

$$S_n(r) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^n (e^{\pi r k} - 1)},$$

the first few examples are¹

$$\begin{aligned} \pi &= 72S_1(1) - 96S_1(2) + 24S_1(4) \\ \pi^3 &= 720S_3(1) - 900S_3(2) + 180S_3(4) \\ \pi^5 &= 7056S_5(1) - 6993S_5(2) - 63S_5(4) \\ \pi^7 &= \frac{907200}{13}S_7(1) - 70875S_7(2) + \frac{14175}{13}S_7(4). \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \zeta(3) &= 28S_3(1) - 37S_3(2) + 7S_3(4) \\ \zeta(5) &= 24S_5(1) - \frac{259}{10}S_5(2) - \frac{1}{10}S_5(4) \\ \zeta(7) &= \frac{304}{13}S_7(1) - \frac{103}{4}S_7(2) + \frac{19}{52}S_7(4). \end{aligned}$$

Plouffe conjectured these formulas by first assuming, for example, that there exist constants a , b , and c such that

$$\pi = aS_1(1) + bS_1(2) + cS_1(4).$$

By obtaining accurate approximations of each the three series, he wrote some computer code to postulate rational values for a, b, c . Today, such integer relations algorithms have been used to discover many formulas. The widely used PSLQ algorithm, developed by Ferguson and Bailey [4], is implemented in Maple. The following Maple code solves the above problem:

```
> with(IntegerRelations):
> Digits := 100;
> S := r -> sum( 1/k/( exp(Pi*r*k)-1 ), k=1..infinity );
> PSLQ( [ Pi, S(1), S(2), S(4) ] );
```

The PSLQ command returns the vector $[-1, 72, -96, 24]$, producing the first formula.

While the computer can be used to conjecture the coefficients for a specific power, finding the general sequences of rationals has remained an open problem. This note finds these sequences and offers formal proofs.

¹There is a typographical error in the sign of the last coefficient in the formula for π^5 in [5], which is corrected here.

2 Exact Formulas

While it does not seem that $\zeta(2n+1)$ is a rational multiple of π^{2n+1} , a result in Ramanujan's notebooks gives a relationship with rapidly convergent infinite series. See Entry 21(i) in Chapter 14 of [2], and see [3] for additional commentary.

Theorem 1 (Ramanujan). *If $\alpha > 0$, $\beta > 0$, and $\alpha\beta = \pi^2$, then*

$$\alpha^{-n} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \zeta(2n+1) + S_{2n+1}(2\alpha/\pi) \right\} = (-\beta)^{-n} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \zeta(2n+1) + S_{2n+1}(2\beta/\pi) \right\} - 4^n \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} (-1)^k \frac{B_{2k} B_{2n+2-2k}}{(2k)!(2n+2-2k)!} \alpha^{n+1-k} \beta^k.$$

Using $\alpha = \beta = \pi$ in Proposition 1 and defining

$$F_n = \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} (-1)^k \frac{B_{2k} B_{2n+2-2k}}{(2k)!(2n+2-2k)!},$$

we have

$$(\pi^{-n} - (-\pi)^{-n}) \left(\frac{1}{2} \zeta(2n+1) + S_{2n+1}(2) \right) = -4^n \pi^{n+1} F_n.$$

To find formulas for the odd zeta values and powers of π , we will divide these into two classes: $\zeta(4m-1)$ and $\zeta(4m+1)$. Such distinctions can be seen in other studies; see [1, pp. 137–139].

First, we find the formulas for π^{4m-1} and $\zeta(4m-1)$. If n is odd, then

$$\frac{1}{2} \zeta(2n+1) + S_{2n+1}(2) = \frac{-4^n}{2} \pi^{2n+1} F_n. \quad (1)$$

Using $\alpha = \pi/2$ and $\beta = 2\pi$ in Theorem 1 and defining

$$G_n = \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} (-4)^k \frac{B_{2k} B_{2n+2-2k}}{(2k)!(2n+2-2k)!},$$

one has

$$\zeta(2n+1) = -\frac{2 \cdot 4^n S_{2n+1}(1) + 2S_{2n+1}(4) + 4^n \pi^{2n+1} G_n}{4^n + 1}.$$

Combining this with equation (1) yields

$$\frac{4^n S_{2n+1}(1) - (4^n + 1)S_{2n+1}(2) + S_{2n+1}(4)}{\frac{4^n}{2}(4^n + 1)F_n - \frac{4^n}{2}G_n} = \pi^{2n+1}.$$

Substituting $n = 2m - 1$ and defining

$$D_m = \frac{4^{2m-1} [(4^{2m-1} + 1)F_{2m-1} - G_{2m-1}]}{2}$$

produces

$$\pi^{4m-1} = \frac{4^{2m-1}}{D_m} S_{4m-1}(1) - \frac{4^{2m-1} + 1}{D_m} S_{4m-1}(2) + \frac{1}{D_m} S_{4m-1}(4).$$

This identity may be combined with equation (1) to give

$$\zeta(4m-1) = -\frac{F_{2m-1} 4^{4m-2}}{D_m} S_{4m-1}(1) + \frac{G_{2m-1} 4^{2m-1}}{D_m} S_{4m-1}(2) - \frac{F_{2m-1} 4^{2m-1}}{D_m} S_{4m-1}(4).$$

To obtain formulas for the $4m+1$ cases, set $\alpha = 2\pi$, $\beta = \pi/2$, and $n = 2m$ in Theorem 1 to obtain

$$\zeta(4m+1) = \frac{-2 \cdot 16^m S_{4m+1}(1) + 2S_{4m+1}(4) - 16^m \pi^{4m+1} G_{2m}}{16^m - 1}. \quad (2)$$

Define $T_n(r)$ by

$$T_n(r) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^n (e^{\pi r k} + 1)},$$

and another finite sum of Bernoulli numbers by

$$H_n = \sum_{k=0}^n (-4)^{n+k} \frac{B_{4k} B_{4n+2-4k}}{(4k)! (4n+2-4k)!}.$$

We begin with the case $m \geq 1$. Under this hypothesis, Vepstas established the following expression (refer to the calculation following [6, Theorem 7], and the statement in the introduction of [6]):

$$(1 + (-4)^m - 2^{4m+1}) \zeta(4m+1) = 2T_{4m+1}(2) + 2(2^{4m+1} - (-4)^m) S_{4m+1}(2) + 2^{4m+1} \pi^{4m+1} H_m + 2^{4m} \pi^{4m+1} G_{2m}.$$

Vepstas also gave a formula relating T_k and S_k :

$$T_k(x) = S_k(x) - 2S_k(2x).$$

Combining the last two equations produces

$$\frac{1 + (-4)^m - 2^{4m+1}}{\frac{1}{2}(1 - 4^{2m})} \left(\frac{4^{2m}}{2} \pi^{4m+1} G_{2m} - S_{4m+1}(4) + 4^{2m} S_{4m+1}(1) \right) = 2[2^{4m+1} - (-4)^m + 1] S_{4m+1}(2) - 4S_{4m+1}(4) + 2^{4m+1} \pi^{4m+1} H_m + 2^{4m} \pi^{4m+1} G_{2m}.$$

Letting

$$K_m = \frac{\frac{1}{2}(1 - 4^{2m})}{1 + (-4)^m - 2^{4m+1}}$$

and

$$E_m = \frac{4^{2m}}{2}G_{2m} - 2^{4m+1}K_m H_m - 2^{4m}K_m G_{2m},$$

one finds

$$\pi^{4m+1} = -\frac{4^{2m}}{E_m}S_{4m+1}(1) + \frac{2K_m[2^{4m+1} - (-4)^m + 1]}{E_m}S_{4m+1}(2) + \frac{(1 - 4K_m)}{E_m}S_{4m+1}(4).$$

Substituting this into equation (2) produces

$$\begin{aligned} \zeta(4m+1) &= -\frac{16^m(2E_m - 16^m G_{2m})}{(16^m - 1)E_m}S_{4m+1}(1) \\ &\quad - \frac{2 \cdot 16^m G_{2m} K_m (2 \cdot 16^m - (-4)^m + 1)}{(16^m - 1)E_m}S_{4m+1}(2) \\ &\quad - \frac{16^m G_{2m} (1 - 4K_m) - 2E_m}{(16^m - 1)E_m}S_{4m+1}(4). \end{aligned}$$

It remains to consider the case $m = 0$ and establish the formula for π stated in the introduction. This formula is a consequence of classical results about q -series, which permit the direct evaluation of $S_1(1)$, $S_1(2)$, and $S_1(4)$. First, note that [2, Equation (22.11)] gives

$$S_1(2) = \frac{1}{4} \log \left(\frac{4}{\pi} \right) - \frac{\pi}{12} + \log \Gamma \left(\frac{3}{4} \right),$$

where \log denotes the natural logarithm. A straightforward adaptation of the proof of this formula in [2] yields, after using the tables of Zucker cited therein with the choice $c^2 = 4$,

$$S_1(4) = -\frac{1}{6} \log(2^{-33/4}) + \frac{1}{6} \log(\pi^{9/2}) - \log \Gamma \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) - \frac{\pi}{6}.$$

Further, [3, Equation (2.4)] gives

$$S_1(1) = S_1(4) + \frac{1}{4} \log \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) + \frac{\pi}{8}.$$

Substituting these expressions into the claimed formula for π and simplifying completes the proof.

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2010 *Mathematics Subject Classification*: Primary 11Y60.

Keywords: π , Riemann zeta function.

Received January 24 2011; revised version received February 7 2011. Published in *Journal of Integer Sequences*, February 20 2011. ArXiv version (revised and corrected) posted June 1, 2024.
