## Computer-assisted Discovery and Proof

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"Elsewhere Kronecker said "In mathematics, I recognize true scientific value only in concrete mathematical truths, or to put it more pointedly, only in mathematical formulas." ... I would rather say "computations" than "formulas", but my view is essentially the same."

Harold Edwards, Essays in Constructive Mathematics, 2004


## PART I. Numerical Experimentation

Computer-assisted Discovery and Proof of Generating Functions for Riemann's Zeta

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Details in Experimental Mathematics in Action<br>Borwein, Bailey, Calkin, Girgensohn, Luke and Moll, A.K. Peters, 2007<br>- based on eponymous 2006 MAA short Course

"All truths are easy to understand once they are discovered; the point is to discover them." - Galileo Galilei

## Algorithms Used in Experimental Mathematics

- Symbolic computation for algebraic and calculus manipulations.
- Integer-relation methods, especially the "PSLQ" algorithm.
- High-precision integer and floating-point arithmetic.
- High-precision evaluation of integrals and infinite series summations.
- The Wilf-Zeilberger algorithm for proving summation identities.
- Iterative approximations to continuous functions.
- Identification of functions based on graph characteristics.
- Graphics and visualization methods targeted to mathematical objects.


## "High-Precision" or "Arbitrary Precision" Arithmetic

- High-precision integer arithmetic is required in symbolic computing packages.
- High-precision floating-point arithmetic is required to permit identification of mathematical constants using PSLQ or online constant recognition facilities.
- Most common requirement is for 200-500 digits, although more than 1,000-digit precision is sometimes required.
- One problem required 50,000-digit arithmetic.
> "Equations are more important to me, because politics is for the present, but an equation is something for eternity." - Albert Einstein


## The PSLQ Integer Relation Algorithm

Let $\left(x_{n}\right)$ be a vector of real numbers. An integer relation algorithm finds integers $\left(a_{n}\right)$ such that

$$
a_{1} x_{1}+a_{2} x_{2}+\cdots+a_{n} x_{n}=0
$$

- At present the PSLQ algorithm of mathematician-sculptor Helaman Ferguson (featured in Science in October 2006) is the best-known integer relation algorithm
- PSLQ was named one of ten "algorithms of the century" by Computing in Science and Engineering.
- High precision arithmetic software is required: at least $\mathrm{d} £ \mathrm{n}$ digits, where d is the size (in digits) of the largest of the integers $a_{k}$.

Decrease of $\min _{j}\left|A_{j} x\right|$ in PSLQ
(error versus iterations)



## The David Borwein CMS Career Award



This polished solid silicon bronze sculpture is inspired by the work of David Borwein, his sons and colleagues, on the conditional series above for salt, Madelung's constant. This series can be summed to give uncountably many constants; one is Madelung's constant for sodium chloride.
This constant is a period of an elliptic curve, a real surface in four dimensions. There are uncountably many ways to imagine that surface in three dimensions; one has negative gaussian curvature and is the tangible form of this sculpture. (As described by the artist.)

## I. Extreme Quadrature (EQ)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{24}{7 \sqrt{7}} \int_{\pi / 3}^{\pi / 2} \log \left|\frac{\tan t+\sqrt{7}}{\tan t-\sqrt{7}}\right| d t \\
& \quad \stackrel{?}{=} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left[\frac{1}{(7 n+1)^{2}}+\frac{1}{(7 n+2)^{2}}-\frac{1}{(7 n+3)^{2}}\right. \\
& \left.\quad+\frac{1}{(7 n+4)^{2}}-\frac{1}{(7 n+5)^{2}}-\frac{1}{(7 n+6)^{2}}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

This arises in mathematical physics, from analysis of the volumes of ideal tetrahedra in hyperbolic space.
This "identity" has now been verified numerically to 20,000 digits, but no proof is known.
Note that the integrand function has a nasty singularity.


# Briveratane 20,000 Digits (50 Certified) on 1024 CPUs 

- The integral was split at the nasty interior singularity
- The sum was `easy'.
- All fast arithmetic \& function evaluation ideas used



## Run-times and speedup ratios on the Virginia Tech G5 Cluster

| CPUs | Init | Integral \#1 | Integral \#2 | Total | Speedup |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1 | $* 190013$ | $* 1534652$ | ${ }^{*} 1026692$ | ${ }^{*} 2751357$ | 1.00 |
| 16 | 12266 | 101647 | 64720 | 178633 | 15.40 |
| 64 | 3022 | 24771 | 16586 | 44379 | 62.00 |
| 256 | 770 | 6333 | 4194 | 11297 | 243.55 |
| 1024 | 199 | 1536 | 1034 | 2769 | 993.63 |

Parallel run times (in seconds) and speedup ratios for the 20,000-digit problem

## Expected and unexpected scientific spinoffs

- 1986-1996. Cray used quartic-Pi to check machines in factory
- 1986. Complex FFT sped up by factor of two
- 2002. Kanada used hex-pi (20hrs not 300hrs to check computation)
- 2005. Virginia Tech (this integral pushed the limits)
- 1995- Math Resources (another lecture)


## Further Equations

## Define

$$
J_{n}=\int_{n \pi / 60}^{(n+1) \pi / 60} \log \left|\frac{\tan t+\sqrt{7}}{\tan t-\sqrt{7}}\right| d t
$$

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 \stackrel{?}{=} & -2 J_{2}-2 J_{3}-2 J_{4}+2 J_{10}+2 J_{11}+3 J_{12} \\
& +3 J_{13}+J_{14}-J_{15}-J_{16}-J_{17}-J_{18} \\
& -J_{19}+J_{20}+J_{21}-J_{22}-J_{23}+2 J_{25}
\end{aligned}
$$

This has been verified to over 1000 digits. The interval in $J_{23}$ includes the singularity.
> "We [Kaplansky and Halmos] share a philosophy about linear algebra: we think basis-free, we write basis-free, but when the chips are down we close the office door and compute with matrices like fury."
> (Irving Kaplansky, 1917-2006)

## II. New Ramanujan-Like Identities

Guillera has recently found Ramanujan-like identities, including:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{128}{\pi^{2}} & =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} r(n)^{5}\left(13+180 n+820 n^{2}\right)\left(\frac{1}{32}\right)^{2 n} \\
\frac{32}{\pi^{2}} & =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} r(n)^{5}\left(1+8 n+20 n^{2}\right)\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2 n} \\
\frac{32}{\pi^{3}} & =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r(n)^{7}\left(1+14 n+76 n^{2}+168 n^{3}\right)\left(\frac{1}{32}\right)^{2 n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
r(n)=\frac{(1 / 2)_{n}}{n!}=\frac{1 / 2 \cdot 3 / 2 \cdots \cdots(2 n-1) / 2}{n!}=\frac{\Gamma(n+1 / 2)}{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma(n+1)}
$$

Guillera proved the first two of these using the Wilf-Zeilberger algorithm. He ascribed the third to Gourevich, who found it using integer relation methods.

Are there any higher-order analogues?
Not as far as we can tell

## Searches for Additional Formulas [- Drive

We searched for additional formulas of either the following forms:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{c}{\pi^{m}}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r(n)^{2 m+1}\left(p_{0}+p_{1} n+\cdots+p_{m} n^{m}\right) \alpha^{2 n} \\
& \frac{c}{\pi^{m}}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} r(n)^{2 m+1}\left(p_{0}+p_{1} n+\cdots+p_{m} n^{m}\right) \alpha^{2 n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

where c is some linear combination of
$1,2^{1 / 2}, 2^{1 / 3}, 2^{1 / 4}, 2^{1 / 6}, 4^{1 / 3}, 8^{1 / 4}, 32^{1 / 6}, 3^{1 / 2}, 3^{1 / 3}, 3^{1 / 4}, 3^{1 / 6}, 9^{1 / 3}$, $27^{1 / 4}, 243^{1 / 6}, 5^{1 / 2}, 5^{1 / 4}, 125^{1 / 4}, 7^{1 / 2}, 13^{1 / 2}, 6^{1 / 2}, 6^{1 / 3}, 6^{1 / 4}, 6^{1 / 6}$,
$7,36^{1 / 3}, 216^{1 / 4}, 7776^{1 / 6}, 12^{1 / 4}, 108^{1 / 4}, 10^{1 / 2}, 10^{1 / 4}, 15^{1 / 2}$
where each of the coefficients $p_{i}$ is a linear combination of
$1,2^{1 / 2}, 3^{1 / 2}, 5^{1 / 2}, 6^{1 / 2}, 7^{1 / 2}, 10^{1 / 2}, 13^{1 / 2}, 14^{1 / 2}, 15^{1 / 2}, 30^{1 / 2}$
and where $\alpha$ is chosen as one of the following:
$1 / 2,1 / 4,1 / 8,1 / 16,1 / 32,1 / 64,1 / 128,1 / 256, \sqrt{5}-2,(2-\sqrt{3})^{2}$,
$5 \sqrt{13}-18,(\sqrt{5}-1)^{4} / 128,(\sqrt{5}-2)^{4},\left(2^{1 / 3}-1\right)^{4} / 2,1 /(2 \sqrt{2})$,
$(\sqrt{2}-1)^{2},(\sqrt{5}-2)^{2},(\sqrt{3}-\sqrt{2})^{4}$

## Relations Found by PSLQ (in addition to Guillera's three relations)

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{4}{\pi} & =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r(n)^{3}(1+6 n)\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2 n} \\
\frac{16}{\pi} & =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r(n)^{3}(5+42 n)\left(\frac{1}{8}\right)^{2 n} \\
\frac{12^{1 / 4}}{\pi} & =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r(n)^{3}(-15+9 \sqrt{3}-36 n+24 \sqrt{3} n)(2-\sqrt{3})^{4 n} \\
\frac{32}{\pi} & =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r(n)^{3}(-1+5 \sqrt{5}+30 n+42 \sqrt{5} n)\left(\frac{(\sqrt{5}-1)^{4}}{128}\right)^{2 n} \\
\frac{5^{1 / 4}}{\pi} & =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r(n)^{3}(-525+235 \sqrt{5}-1200 n+540 \sqrt{5} n)(\sqrt{5}-2)^{8 n} \\
\frac{2 \sqrt{2}}{\pi} & =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} r(n)^{3}(1+6 n)\left(\frac{1}{2 \sqrt{2}}\right)^{2 n} \\
\frac{2}{\pi} & =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} r(n)^{3}(-5+4 \sqrt{2}-12 n+12 \sqrt{2} n)(\sqrt{2}-1)^{4 n} \\
\frac{2}{\pi} & =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} r(n)^{3}(23-10 \sqrt{5}+60 n-24 \sqrt{5} n)(\sqrt{5}-2)^{4 n} \\
\frac{2}{\pi} & =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} r(n)^{3}(177-72 \sqrt{6}+420 n-168 \sqrt{6} n)(\sqrt{3}-\sqrt{2})^{8 n}
\end{aligned}
$$

$\checkmark$ all are in Ramanujan (Pi and the AGM)

## Proofs?


"No. I have been teaching it all my life, and I do not want to have my ideas upset."

Isaac Todhunter (1820-1884) recording Maxwell's response to being asked whether he would like to see an experimental demonstration of conical refraction.


## Part II. Experiment and Proof

JM Borwein and DH Bailey with DA Bradley

"Anyone who is not shocked by quantum theory has not understood a single word." - Niels Bohr

## The Wilf-Zeilberger Algorithm for Proving Identities

- A slick, computer-assisted proof scheme to prove certain types of identities
- Provides a nice complement to PSLQ
- PSLQ and the like permit one to discover new identities but do not constitute rigorous proof
- W-Z methods permit one to prove certain types of identities but do not suggest any means to discover the identity

> "The formulas move in advance of thought, while the intuition often lags behind; in the oft-quoted words of d'Alembert, "L'algebre est genereuse, elle donne souvent plus qu'on lui demande." (Edward Kasner, 1905)

## Example Usage of W-Z

Consider these experimentally-discovered identities (the later from Part I):

$$
\begin{array}{rlr}
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\binom{4 n}{2 n}\binom{2 n}{n}^{4}}{2^{16 n}}\left(120 n^{2}+34 n+3\right) & =\frac{32}{\pi^{2}} & \mathrm{~B}=4 \mathrm{~A} \\
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n}\binom{2 n}{n}}{2^{20 n}}\left(820 n^{2}+180 n+13\right) & =\frac{128}{\pi^{2}} &
\end{array}
$$

Guillera cunningly started by defining
$G(n, k)=\frac{(-1)^{k}}{2^{16 n} 2^{4 k}}\left(120 n^{2}+84 n k+34 n+10 k+3\right) \frac{\binom{2 n}{n}^{4}\binom{2 k}{k}^{3}\binom{4 n-2 k}{2 n-k}}{\binom{2 n}{k}\binom{n+k}{n}^{2}}$
He then used the EKHAD software package to obtain the companion
$F(n, k)=\frac{(-1)^{k} 512}{2^{16 n} 2^{4 k}} \frac{n^{3}}{4 n-2 k-1} \frac{\binom{2 n}{n}^{4}\binom{2 k}{k}^{3}\binom{4 n-2 k}{2 n-k}}{\binom{2 n}{k}\binom{n+k}{n}^{2}}$

## Example Usage of W-Z, II

When we define

$$
H(n, k)=F(n+1, n+k)+G(n, n+k)
$$

Zeilberger's theorem gives the identity

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} G(n, 0)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} H(n, 0)
$$

which when written out is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\binom{2 n}{n}^{4}\binom{4 n}{2 n}}{2^{16 n}}\left(120 n^{2}+34 n+3\right)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n}}{2^{20 n+7}} \frac{(n+1)^{3}\binom{2 n+2}{n+1}{ }^{4}\binom{2 n}{n}^{3}\binom{2 n+4}{n+2}}{2 n+3} \frac{\binom{2 n+2}{n}\binom{2 n+1}{n+1}^{2}}{} \\
& \quad+\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n}}{2^{20 n}}\left(204 n^{2}+44 n+3\right)\binom{2 n}{n}^{5}=\frac{1}{4} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n}\binom{2 n}{n}}{2^{20 n}}\left(820 n^{2}+180 n+13\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Now for integer k

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} G(n, k)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} G(n, k+1)
$$

and so for all real $k$ : taking the limit at $t=1 / 2$ completes the proof.

## IIIa. A Cautionary Example Drive

These constants agree to 42 decimal digits accuracy, but are NOT equal:
$\int_{0}^{\infty} \cos (2 x) \prod_{n=0}^{\infty} \cos (x / n) d x=$
$0.39269908169872415480783042290993786052464543418723 \ldots$

$$
\frac{\pi}{8}=
$$

$0.39269908169872415480783042290993786052464617492189 \ldots$
Computing this integral is nontrivial, due largely to difficulty in evaluating the integrand function to high precision.

Fourier analysis explains this happens when a hyperplane meets a hypercube (LP) ...


## IIIb. A Cautionary Example Drive

Relatedly, very recently, Baillie, D. Borwein and J. Borwein discovered and showed why

$$
\operatorname{Linc}^{N}(x) d x i_{n=1}^{x} \operatorname{sinc}^{N}(n)=\frac{1}{2}
$$

exactly for $N=1,2, . ., 6$. For $N>6$ they differ by a polynomial of degree N in $\pi$.
-The integral is always a rational multiple of $\pi$.


## IV. Apery-Like Summations

The following formulas for $\zeta(\mathrm{n})$ have been known for many decades or more:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\zeta(2) & =3 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^{2}\binom{2 k}{k}}, \\
\zeta(3) & =\frac{5}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{3}\binom{2 k}{k}}, \\
\zeta(4) & =\frac{36}{17} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^{4}\binom{2 k}{k}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

These results have led many to speculate that

$$
Q_{5}:=\zeta(5) / \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{5}\binom{2 k}{k}}
$$

might be some nice rational or algebraic value.
Sadly, PSLQ calculations have established that if $Q_{5}$ satisfies a polynomial with degree at most 25 , then at least one coefficient has 380 digits.

## Nothing New under the Sun

Margo Kondratieva found a formula of Markov in 1890:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n+a)^{3}}= & \frac{1}{4} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n}(n!)^{6}}{(2 n+1)!} \\
& \times \frac{\left(5(n+1)^{2}+6(a-1)(n+1)+2(a-1)^{2}\right)}{\prod_{k=0}^{n}(a+k)^{4}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Note: Maple establishes this identity as

$$
-1 / 2 \Psi(2, a)=-1 / 2 \Psi(2, a)-\zeta(3)+5 / 4{ }_{4} F_{3}([1,1,1,1],[3 / 2,2,2],-1 / 4)
$$

Hence

$$
\zeta(4)=-\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{m-1}}{\binom{2 m}{m} m^{4}}+\frac{10}{3} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{m-1} \sum_{k=1}^{m} \frac{1}{k}}{\binom{2 m}{m} m^{3}}
$$

The case $\mathrm{a}=0$ above is Apery's formula for $\zeta(3)$ !

## Apery-Like Relations Found <br> Using Integer Relation Methods

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \zeta(5)=2 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{5}\binom{2 k}{k}}-\frac{5}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{3}\binom{2 k}{k}} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{1}{j^{2}}, \\
& \zeta(7)=\frac{5}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{7}\binom{2 k}{k}}+\frac{25}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{3}\binom{2 k}{k}} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{1}{j^{4}} \\
& i \zeta(9)=\frac{9}{4} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{9}\binom{2 k}{k}}-\frac{5}{4} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{7}\binom{2 k}{k}} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{1}{j^{2}}+5 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{5}\binom{2 k}{k}} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{1}{j^{4}} \\
& +\frac{45}{4} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{3}\binom{2 k}{k}} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{1}{j^{6}}-\frac{25}{4} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{3}\binom{2 k}{k}} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{1}{j^{4}} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{1}{j^{2}}, \\
& \zeta(11)=\frac{5}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{11}\binom{2 k}{k}}+\frac{25}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{7}\binom{2 k}{k}} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{1}{j^{4}} \\
& -\frac{75}{4} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{3}\binom{2 k}{k}} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{1}{j^{8}}+\frac{125}{4} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{3}\binom{2 k}{k}} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{1}{j^{4}} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{1}{i^{4}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Formulas for 7 and 11 were found by JMB and David Bradley; 5 and 9 by Kocher 25 years ago, as part of the general formula:

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k\left(k^{2}-x^{2}\right)}=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{3}\binom{2 k}{k}} \frac{5 k^{2}-x^{2}}{k^{2}-x^{2}} \prod_{m=1}^{k-1}\left(1-\frac{x^{2}}{m^{2}}\right)
$$

## Newer (2005) Results

Using bootstrapping and the "Pade/pade" function JMB and Dave Bradley then found the following remarkable result (1996):

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^{3}\left(1-x^{4} / k^{4}\right)}=\frac{5}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{3}\binom{2 k}{k}\left(1-x^{4} / k^{4}\right)} \prod_{m=1}^{k-1}\left(\frac{1+4 x^{4} / m^{4}}{1-x^{4} / m^{4}}\right)
$$

Following an analogous - but more deliberate - experimental-based procedure, we have obtained a similar general formula for $\zeta(2 n+2)$ that is pleasingly parallel to above:

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^{2}-x^{2}}=3 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^{2}\binom{2 k}{k}\left(1-x^{2} / k^{2}\right)} \prod_{m=1}^{k-1}\left(\frac{1-4 x^{2} / m^{2}}{1-x^{2} / m^{2}}\right)
$$

Note that this gives an Apery-like formula for $\zeta(2 n)$, since the LHS equals

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \zeta(2 n+2) x^{2 n}=\frac{1-\pi x \cot (\pi x)}{2 x^{2}}
$$

- We sketch our experimental discovery of this in the new few slides BBB, Exp Mathematics, 15 (2006), 281-289.


## The Experimental Scheme

1. We first supposed that $\zeta(2 n+2)$ is a rational combination of terms of the form:

$$
\sigma\left(2 r ;\left[2 a_{1}, \cdots, 2 a_{N}\right]\right):=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^{2 r}\binom{2 k}{k}} \prod_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{n_{i}=1}^{k-1} \frac{1}{n_{i}^{2 a_{i}}}
$$

where $r+a_{1}+a_{2}+\ldots+a_{N}=n+1$ and $a_{i}$ are listed increasingly.
2. We can then write:

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \zeta(2 n+2) x^{2 n} \stackrel{?}{=} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{r=1}^{n+1} \sum_{\pi \in \Pi(n+1-r)} \alpha(\pi) \sigma(2 \mathbf{r} ; 2 \pi) x^{2 n}
$$

where $\Pi(\mathrm{m})$ denotes the additive partitions of $m$.
3. We can then deduce that

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \zeta(2 n+2) x^{2 n}=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\binom{2 k}{k}\left(k^{2}-x^{2}\right)} P_{k}(x)
$$

where $P_{k}(x)$ are functions whose general form we hope to discover:

## The Bootstrap Process

$$
\begin{aligned}
\zeta(2)= & 3 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\binom{2 k}{k} k^{2}}=3 \sigma(2,[0]) \\
\zeta(4)= & 3 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\binom{2 k}{k} k^{4}}-9 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{k-1} j^{-2}}{\binom{2 k}{k} k^{2}}=3 \sigma(4,[0])-9 \sigma(2,[2]) \\
\zeta(6)= & 3 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\binom{2 k}{k} k^{6}}-9 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{k-1} j^{-2}}{\binom{2 k}{k} k^{4}}-\frac{45}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{k-1} j^{-4}}{\binom{2 k}{k} k^{2}} \\
& +\frac{27}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} i^{-2}}{j^{2}\binom{2 k}{k} k^{2}}, \\
\zeta(8)= & 3 \sigma(8,[])-9 \sigma(6,[2])-\frac{45}{2} \sigma(4,[4])+\frac{27}{2} \sigma(4,[2,2])-63 \sigma(2,[6]) \\
& +\frac{135}{2} \sigma(2,[4,2])-\frac{27}{2} \sigma(2,[2,2,2]) \\
\zeta(10)= & 3 \sigma(10,[])-9 \sigma(8,[2])-\frac{45}{2} \sigma(6,[4])+\frac{27}{2} \sigma(6,[2,2])-63 \sigma(4,[6]) \\
& +\frac{135}{2} \sigma(4,[4,2])-\frac{27}{2} \sigma(4,[2,2,2])-\frac{765}{4} \sigma(2,[8])+189 \sigma(2,[6,2]) \\
& +\frac{675}{8} \sigma(2,[4,4])-\frac{405}{4} \sigma(2,[4,2,2])+\frac{81}{8} \sigma(2,[2,2,2,2])
\end{aligned}
$$

## Coefficients Obtained

| Partition | Alpha P | Partition | Alpha |  | Partition |  | Alpha |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [empty] | 3/1 1 | 1 | -9/ |  | 2 |  | -45/2 |  |
| 1,1 | 27/2 3 | 3 | -63 |  | 2,1 |  | 135/2 |  |
| 1,1,1 | -27/2 4 | 4 | -765 | 5/4 | 3,1 |  | 189/1 |  |
| 2,2 | 675/8 2 | 2,1,1 | -40 | /4 | 1,1,1 |  | 81/8 |  |
| 5 | -3069/5 4 | 4,1 | 229 | 5/4 | 3,2 |  | 945/2 |  |
| 3,1,1 | -567/2 2, | 2,2,1 | -202 | 25/8 | 2,1,1 |  | 405/4 |  |
| 1,1,1,1,1 | -243/40 6 | 6 | -409 | 95/2 | 5,1 |  | 9207 |  |
| 4,2 | 11475/8 4 | 4,1,1 | -6885 | 85/8 | 3,3 |  | 1323/ |  |
| 3,2,1 | -2835/2 3 | 3,1,1,1 | 567 | /2 | 2,2,2 |  | -3375 |  |
| 2,2,1,1 | 6075/16 2 | 2,1,1,1,1 | -12 | 15/16 | 1,1, | ,1,1 | 243/80 |  |
| 7 | -49149/7 6, | 6,1 | 491 | 40/8 | 5,2 |  | 36828 |  |
| Partition | Alpha | Partitio | n | Alpha |  | Parti | tion | Alpha |
| 5,1,1 | -27621/10 | 4,3 |  | 32130 |  | 4,2,1 |  | -34425/8 |
| 4,1,1,1 | 6885/8 | 3,3,1 |  | -1587 | 6/8 | 3,2,2 |  | -14175/8 |
| 3,2,1,1 | 17010/8 | 3,1,1,1 |  | -1701 |  | 2,2,2 |  | 10125/16 |
| 2,2,1,1,1 | -6075/16 | 2,1,1,1 | ,1,1 | 729/1 |  | 1,1,1 | ,1,1,1,1 | -729/560 |
| 8 | -1376235/56 | 6 7,1 |  | 11795 | 76/56 | 6,2 |  | 859950/56 |
| 6,1,1 | -515970/56 | 5,3 |  | 90228 | 6/70 | 5,2,1 |  | -773388/56 |
| 5,1,1,1 | 193347/70 | 4,4 |  | 39015 | 50/64 | 4,3,1 |  | -674730/56 |
| 4,2,2 | -344250/64 | 4,2,1,1 |  | 41310 | 0/64 | 4,1,1 | ,1,1 | -41310/64 |
| 3,3,2 | -277830/56 | 3,3,1,1 |  | 16669 | 9/56 | 3,2,2 |  | 297675/56 |
| 3,2,1,1,1 | -119070/56 | 3,1,1,1 | ,1,1 | 10206 | /80 | 2,2,2 |  | 50625/128 |
| 2,2,2,1,1 | -60750/64 | 2,2,1,1 | ,1,1 | 18225 | /64 | 2,1,1 | ,1,1,1,1 | -1458/64 |
| 1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1 | 2187/4480 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

## Resulting Polynomials

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_{3}(x) \approx & 3-\frac{45}{4} x^{2}-\frac{45}{16} x^{4}-\frac{45}{64} x^{6}-\frac{45}{256} x^{8}-\frac{45}{1024} x^{10}-\frac{45}{4096} x^{12}-\frac{45}{16384} x^{14} \\
& -\frac{45}{65536} x^{16} \\
P_{4}(x) \approx & 3-\frac{49}{4} x^{2}+\frac{119}{144} x^{4}+\frac{3311}{5184} x^{4}+\frac{38759}{186624} x^{6}+\frac{384671}{6718464} x^{8} \\
& +\frac{3605399}{241864704} x^{10}+\frac{33022031}{8707129344} x^{12}+\frac{299492039}{313456656384} x^{14} \\
P_{5}(x) \approx & 3-\frac{205}{16} x^{2}+\frac{7115}{2304} x^{4}+\frac{207395}{331776} x^{6}+\frac{4160315}{47775744} x^{8}+\frac{74142995}{6879707136} x^{10} \\
& +\frac{1254489515}{990677827584} x^{12}+\frac{20685646595}{142657607172096} x^{14}+\frac{336494674715}{20542695432781824} x^{16} \\
P_{6}(x) \approx & 3-\frac{5269}{400} x^{2}+\frac{6640139}{1440000} x^{4}+\frac{1635326891}{5184000000} x^{6}-\frac{5944880821}{18662400000000} x^{8} \\
& -\frac{212874252291349}{67184640000000000} x^{10}-\frac{141436384956907381}{241864704000000000000} x^{12} \\
& -\frac{70524260274859115989}{870712934400000000000000} x^{14}-\frac{31533457168819214655541}{3134566563840000000000000000} x^{16} \\
P_{7}(x) \approx & 3-\frac{5369}{400} x^{2}+\frac{8210839}{1440000} x^{4}-\frac{199644809}{5184000000} x^{6}-\frac{680040118121}{18662400000000} x^{8} \\
& -\frac{278500311775049}{6718464000000000} x^{10}-\frac{84136715217872681}{241864704000000000000} x^{12} \\
& -\frac{22363377813883431689}{870712934400000000000000} x^{14}-\frac{5560090840263911428841}{3134566563840000000000000000} x^{16}
\end{aligned}
$$

## After Using "Pade" Function in Mathematica or Maple

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P_{1}(x) \stackrel{?}{=} 3 \\
& P_{2}(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{3\left(4 x^{2}-1\right)}{\left(x^{2}-1\right)} \\
& P_{3}(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{12\left(4 x^{2}-1\right)}{\left(x^{2}-4\right)} \\
& P_{4}(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{12\left(4 x^{2}-1\right)\left(4 x^{2}-9\right)}{\left(x^{2}-4\right)\left(x^{2}-9\right)} \\
& P_{5}(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{48\left(4 x^{2}-1\right)\left(4 x^{2}-9\right)}{\left(x^{2}-9\right)\left(x^{2}-16\right)} \\
& P_{6}(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{48\left(4 x^{2}-1\right)\left(4 x^{2}-9\right)\left(4 x^{2}-25\right)}{\left(x^{2}-9\right)\left(x^{2}-16\right)\left(x^{2}-25\right)} \\
& P_{7}(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{192\left(4 x^{2}-1\right)\left(4 x^{2}-9\right)\left(4 x^{2}-25\right)}{\left(x^{2}-16\right)\left(x^{2}-25\right)\left(x^{2}-36\right)}
\end{aligned}
$$

... and factoring
which immediately suggests the general form:

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \zeta(2 n+2) x^{2 n} \stackrel{?}{=} 3 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\binom{2 k}{k}\left(k^{2}-x^{2}\right)} \prod_{m=1}^{k-1} \frac{4 x^{2}-m^{2}}{x^{2}-m^{2}}
$$

## Several Confirmations of $Z(2 n+2)=Z e t a(2 n+2)$ Formula

- We symbolically computed the power series coefficients of the LHS and the RHS , and verified that they agree up to the term with $\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{1 0 0}}$.
- We verified that $Z(1 / 6), Z(1 / 2), Z(1 / 3), Z(1 / 4)$ give numerically correct values (analytic values are known).
- We then affirmed that the formula gives numerically correct results for 100 pseudorandomly chosen arguments
- to high precision near radius of convergence

We subsequently proved this formula two different ways, including using the Wilf-Zeilberger method....

$$
\zeta(s)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{s}}
$$

1. via PSLQ to 50,000 digits (250 terms)

$$
\zeta(2)=\frac{\pi^{2}}{6}, \zeta(4)=\frac{\pi^{4}}{90}, \zeta(6)=\frac{\pi^{6}}{945},
$$


$\begin{array}{ll}\text { (1826-66) } & \mathcal{Z}(x)=3 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\binom{2 k}{k}\left(k^{2}-x^{2}\right)} \prod_{n=1}^{k-1} \frac{4 x^{2}-n^{2}}{x^{2}-n^{2}}\end{array}$

2005 Bailey, Bradley \& JMB discovered and proved - in 3Ms three equivalent binomial identities

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \zeta(2 k+2) x^{2 k}=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{2}-x^{2}} \\
& =\frac{1-\pi x \cot (\pi x)}{2 x^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
3 n^{2} \sum_{k=n+1}^{2 n} \frac{\prod_{m=n+1}^{k-1} \frac{4 n^{2}-m^{2}}{n^{2}-m^{2}}}{\binom{2 k}{k}\left(k^{2}-n^{2}\right)}=\frac{1}{\binom{2 n}{n}}-\frac{1}{\binom{3 n}{n}}
$$

$$
{ }_{3} F_{2}\left(\begin{array}{c}
3 n, n+1,-n \\
2 n+1, n+1 / 2
\end{array} ; \frac{1}{4}\right)=\frac{\binom{2 n}{n}}{\binom{3 n}{n}}
$$

3. was easily computer proven (Wilf-Zeilberger) ?human/MAA?

## Automating the Steps?

$$
\sigma\left(2 r ;\left[2 a_{1}, \cdots, 2 a_{N}\right]\right):=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^{2 r}\binom{2 k}{k}} \prod_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{n_{i}=1}^{k-1} \frac{1}{n_{i}^{2 a_{i}}}
$$

1. HUMAN CONJECTURE "There is a generating function for $\zeta(2 n+2)$ in terms of $\sigma$ "
2. DATA COLLECTION via PSLQ and Maple or Mathematica

## 3. PATTERN DETECTION

4. STRUCTURE DETERMINATION via Maple/Mathematica

- INFINITE IDENTITY

5. ANALYTIC CONTINUATION via Gosper

- FINITE IDENTITY I

6. HUMAN PURIFICATION

- FINITE IDENTITY II


## 7. WILF-ZEILBERGER PROOF

## Summary

New techniques now permit integrals, infinite series sums and other entities to be evaluated to high precision (hundreds or thousands of digits), thus permitting PSLQ-based schemes to discover new identities.
These methods typically do not suggest proofs, but often it is much easier to find a proof when one "knows" the answer is right.


Details are in Experimental Mathematics in Action, or in these two slightly older books by Borwein, Bailey and (for vol 2) Girgensohn (also on CD). A "Reader's Digest" version of these two books is at www.experimentalmath.info.
"The plural of 'anecdote' is not 'evidence'." - Alan L. Leshner, Science publisher


