

LECTURE NOTES 1: A PROOF OF THE VALUE OF $\zeta(2)$

1. THE RIEMANN ZETA FUNCTION

The Riemann zeta function $\zeta : (1, \infty) \rightarrow (0, \infty)$ is defined by the formula

$$\zeta(s) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^{-s}.$$

The sum on the right-hand side is by definition the limit $\lim_n \sum_{k=1}^n k^{-s}$ of the partial sums; the limit exists (though it may be ∞) because the partial sums form a non-decreasing sequence of (positive) real numbers. In fact, for any $s > 1$, the expression defining $\zeta(s)$ is finite: this is true by the integral test.

All of these things are true by the ideas and techniques of real analysis in Math 104; in fact, the Riemann zeta function has a natural definition as a complex-valued function of the complex variable s (except for certain special values of $s \in \mathbb{C}$ called the *poles* of ζ). Later on in the course, we will set up much of the machinery to define ζ in this more general way, whether or not we have time to construct it.

Partly in order to illustrate the usefulness of complex numbers, we will now prove a theorem which identifies the value of $\zeta(s)$ when $s = 2$:

Theorem 1.1. *The value of $\zeta(2)$ is $\pi^2/6$.*

There are certain preliminaries needed to prove the theorem.

2. PRELIMINARIES

2.1. The Binomial theorem.

Theorem 2.1. *Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and let $x, y \in \mathbb{C}$. Then*

$$(x + y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k},$$

where the binomial coefficient $\binom{n}{k}$ is given by

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \tag{1}$$

for $n, k \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n \geq k$; we adopt the convention that $n! = 0$.

Proof. The result is proved by an induction on $n \in \mathbb{N}$; both sides are equal to one if $n = 0$, so that's the initial step for the induction verified. The generic step of the induction, for the value $n + 1$, invokes the inductive hypothesis for value n , as well as the identity

$$\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}.$$

This can be verified from the definition (1), (but there is also a nice combinatorial interpretation, and it is also worthwhile to bear in mind how Pascal's triangle is formed). \square

Remark. Note also that $\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}$.

2.2. Polynomials and their roots. A polynomial P of degree n is an expression $ax^n + bx^{n-1} + \dots + C$. A root of the polynomial P is a value x such that $P(x) = 0$. (These roots may be real numbers: for example, the degree two or quadratic polynomial $X^2 - 1$ has two real roots, -1 and 1 ; however, the roots can also be complex numbers. The polynomial $x^2 + 1$ has roots i and $-i$).

There are two assertions we'll need about polynomials.

A polynomial of degree $n \in \mathbb{N}$ has at most n roots. This is a consequence of the *Euclidean algorithm*: you may wish to recall or study this, or it is permissible to take the assertion on faith. (Later on in the course, we will be able to prove the *fundamental theorem of algebra*, which asserts that a degree- n polynomial in fact has exactly n roots, when these are counted according to multiplicity). \square

The formula for the sum of a polynomial's roots. Suppose that a degree- n polynomial $P(x) = ax^n + bx^{n-1} + \dots + C$ is factored as $P(x) = a(x - r_1) \cdots (x - r_n)$, where r_1, \dots, r_n are the roots of P . Then

$$\sum_{k=1}^n r_k = \frac{-b}{a}.$$

Let's prove this first when $a = 1$. Here we just compare the coefficient of x^{n-1} in the two expressions for P . The case where a is any non-zero complex number reduces to this one by defining P through by a . \square

2.3. Some basic properties of trigonometry functions. The functions sin and cosine, $\sin, \cos : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [-1, 1]$ are defined on the real line and have the property that sin is strictly increasing on $[0, \pi/2]$ and cos is strictly decreasing this interval. We also define $\tan = \sin / \cos$ and $\cot = \cos / \sin$, as well as $\csc = 1 / \sin$.

From the above, we see that **cot is a strictly decreasing function on $(0, \pi/2)$.**

Of course we have $\cos^2(\theta) + \sin^2(\theta) = 1$ for all $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$. Dividing through by $\sin^2(\theta)$, we obtain the identity

$$1 + \cot^2(\theta) = \csc^2(\theta) \text{ for all } \theta \in \mathbb{R}, \quad (2)$$

(though note that sometimes both sides are ∞ .)

Finally, we will make use of the fact that

$$\sin \theta \leq \theta \leq \tan \theta$$

whenever $\theta \in (0, \pi/2)$.

3. PROOF OF THEOREM 1.1

We begin by deriving an interesting identity.

Proposition 3.1. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n \geq 1$,

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \cot^2 \frac{k\pi}{2n+1} = \frac{n(2n-1)}{3}.$$

Proof. The proof is an application of complex numbers. Consider the expression $(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^{2n+1}$. Using the polar coordinate representation to multiply a pair of complex numbers, and induction on n , we find that

$$(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^{2n+1} = \cos(2n+1)\theta + i \sin(2n+1)\theta.$$

Expand the left-hand side using the binomial theorem. The resulting terms are either real or imaginary; group them accordingly. Then equate the imaginary term with its counterpart above. We find that

$$\sin(2n+1)\theta = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \cos^{2n-2k}(\theta) \sin^{1+2k}(\theta) \binom{2n+1}{1+2k}.$$

By rewriting the right-hand side using $1+2k = 2n+1 - 2(n-k)$, we obtain the identity

$$\sin(2n+1)(\theta) = \sin^{2n+1}(\theta) \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \cot^{2(n-k)}(\theta) \binom{2n+1}{2(n-k)},$$

which may be rewritten

$$\sin(2n+1)(\theta) = \sin^{2n+1}(\theta) \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^{n-k} \cot^{2k}(\theta) \binom{2n+1}{2k}.$$

Now on the left-hand side of this last identity, the function has zeros (or roots) at each of $\{\frac{k\pi}{2n+1} : k = 0, \dots, n\}$. If we now P to be the degree- n polynomial given by

$$P(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k x^k \binom{2n+1}{2k},$$

we learn that the polynomial $P(x^2)$ has roots at each of the values in the set $\{\cot \frac{k\pi}{2n+1} : k = 1, \dots, n\}$: indeed, the factor $\sin^{2n+1}(\theta)$ is non-zero for all $\theta \in (0, \pi/2)$, (though it is zero when $\theta = 0$ and for this reason, we cannot include $k = 0$ here).

That means each element of the set $\{\cot^2 \frac{k\pi}{2n+1} : k = 1, \dots, n\}$ is in fact a root of P itself. Now we claim that this exhausts the set of roots of P . To see this, first note that each of these n real numbers is distinct: indeed, because the function \cot is strictly decreasing on $(0, \pi/2)$, so is \cot^2 , so the n numbers must all be different. Second, we noted in the preliminaries that a degree- n polynomial such as P cannot have more than n roots. So our list of n numbers must comprise all of P 's roots!

This deduction allows us to use the formula for the sum of the roots of P . Doing so gives that

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \cot^2 \frac{k\pi}{2n+1} = \frac{\binom{2n+1}{2(n-1)}}{\binom{2n+1}{2n}},$$

whose right-hand side may more simply be written as

$$\frac{\binom{2n+1}{3}}{\binom{2n+1}{1}}.$$

This ratio equals $\frac{n}{3}(2n-1)$. This completes the proof of Proposition 3.1. \square

We also need a straightforward consequence of Proposition 3.1.

Corollary 3.2. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n \geq 1$,

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \csc^2 \frac{k\pi}{2n+1} = \frac{2n(n+1)}{3}.$$

Proof. This follows directly from Proposition 3.1 and the identity 2. \square

Armed with the identities in the proposition and its corollary, we are ready to give the proof of Theorem 1.1. The inequalities (valid for $\theta \in (0, \pi/2)$),

$$\sin \theta \leq \theta \leq \tan \theta$$

that we recorded earlier translate to

$$\cot \theta \leq \theta^{-1} \leq \csc \theta.$$

Consider the n sets of inequalities given by taking $\theta = \frac{k\pi}{2n+1}$ for $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$; sum them up. Using the two identities we derived in the proposition and the corollary, we learn that

$$\frac{n(2n-1)}{3} \leq \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(2n+1)^2}{k^2\pi^2} \leq \frac{2n(n+1)}{3}.$$

Rearranging, we see that

$$\frac{n(2n-1)}{3(2n+1)^2}\pi^2 \leq \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2} \leq \frac{2n(n+1)}{3(2n+1)^2}\pi^2.$$

The lower and upper bounds each take the form $\frac{\pi^2}{6}$ plus a certain error; in the lower bound on the left, this error cannot be smaller than a large constant times n^{-1} , while in the upper bound on the right, it cannot be larger than a large constant times n^{-1} . In this way, we see that the n -th partial sum for $\zeta(2)$ is sandwiched between two sequences of real numbers, each of which converges to $\pi^2/6$. So the partial sums converge to $\pi^2/6$, and we have proved Theorem 1.1. \square