

# VIII. Experimental Mathematics a Computational Conclusion



Dalhousie Distributed Research Institute and Virtual Environment



## MAA Short Course on Experimental Mathematics (San Antonio Jan 10-11, 2006)

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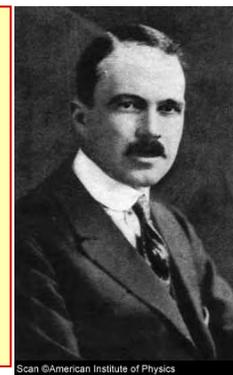
Canada Research Chair in Collaborative Technology

*"I feel so strongly about the wrongness of reading a lecture that my language may seem immoderate .... The spoken word and the written word are quite different arts .... I feel that to collect an audience and then read one's material is like inviting a friend to go for a walk and asking him not to mind if you go alongside him in your car."*

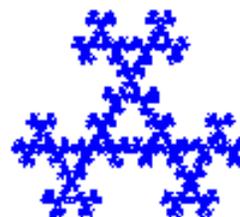
Sir Lawrence Bragg



What would he say about .ppt?



Scan ©American Institute of Physics



AARMS

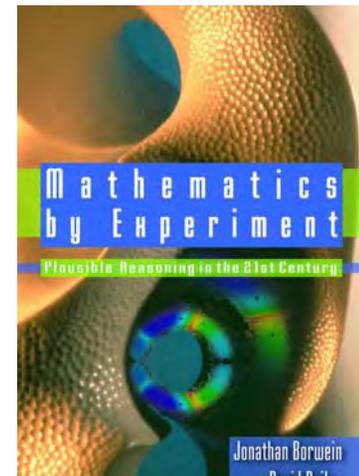
Revised 02/01/06

San Antonio 2006



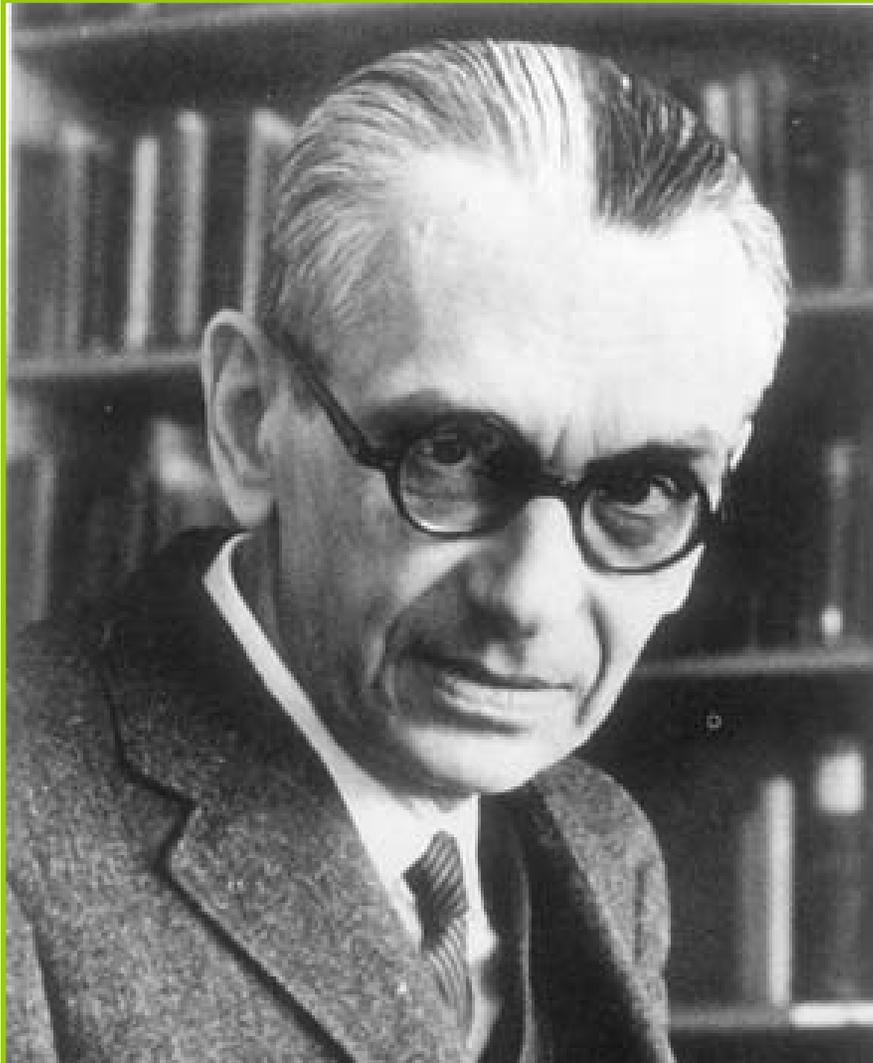
# VIII. Experimental Mathematics a Computational Conclusion

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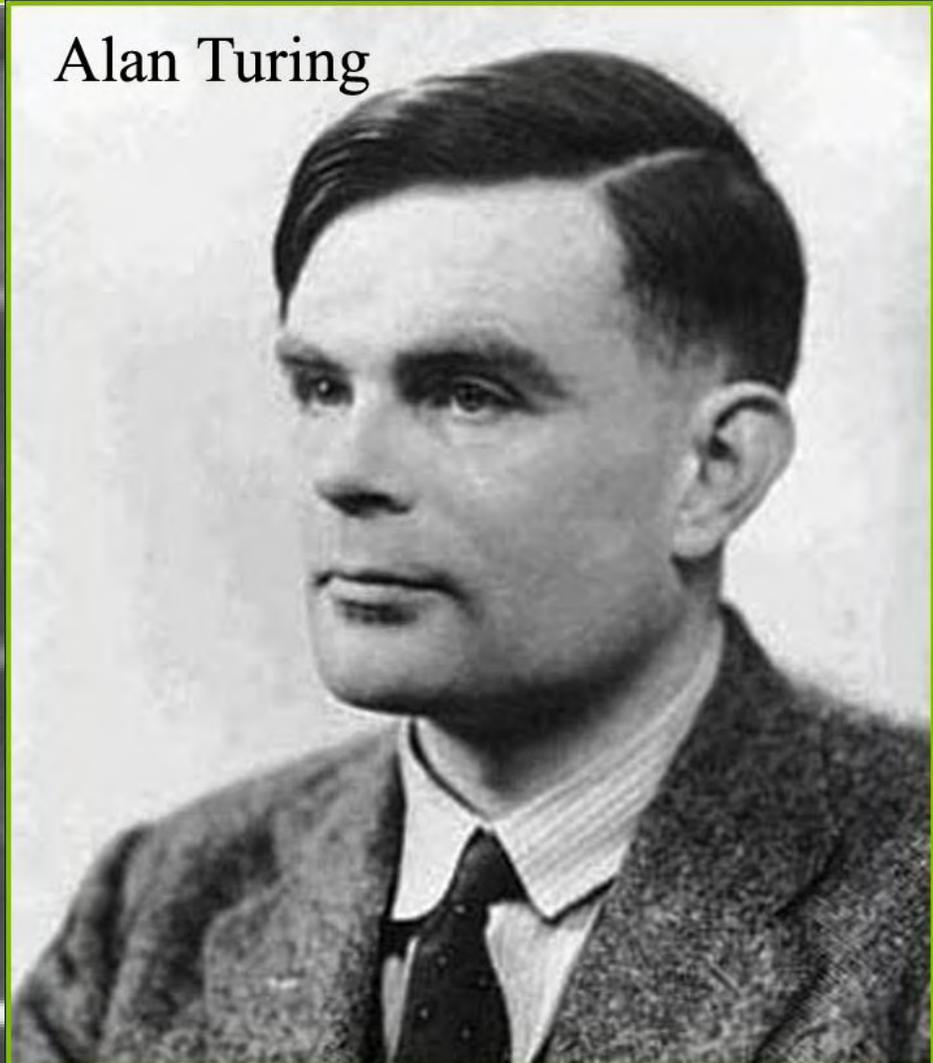


# ABSTRACT

*“If mathematics describes an objective world just like physics, there is no reason why inductive methods should not be applied in mathematics just the same as in physics.”* (**Kurt Godel, 1951**)



Alan Turing



We shall further explore various tools available for deciding what to believe in mathematics and, using accessible examples, illustrate the rich experimental tool-box mathematicians now have access to.

To explain how mathematicians may use **High Performance Computation** (HPC) and what we have in common with other computational scientists I shall include various **HPC** problems including:

$$\int_0^{\infty} \cos(2x) \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \cos\left(\frac{x}{n}\right) dx \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{\pi}{8},$$

which is both numerically and symbolically quite challenging ....



# True, but why ?

The first series below was proven by **Ramanujan**. The next two were proven by **Computer (Wilf-Zeilberger)**.

The candidates:

$$\frac{16}{\pi} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r_3(n) (42n + 5) \left(\frac{1}{4^3}\right)^n$$

$$\frac{8}{\pi^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r_5(n) (20n^2 + 8n + 1) \left(\frac{-1}{4}\right)^n$$

$$\frac{128}{\pi^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r_5(n) (820n^2 + 180n + 13) \left(\frac{-1}{4^5}\right)^n$$

$$\frac{32}{\pi^3} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r_7(n) (168n^3 + 76n^2 + 14n + 1) \left(\frac{1}{4^3}\right)^n$$

Here, in terms of factorials and rising factorials:

$$r_N(n) := \frac{\binom{2n}{n}^N}{4^{nN}} = \left(\frac{(1/2)_n}{n!}\right)^N.$$

The 4<sup>th</sup> is only true

$$r_N(n) \sim_n \frac{1}{n^{N/2}}$$



**"How extremely stupid not to have  
thought of that!"**

Thomas Henry Huxley (1825-1895) known as  
`Darwin's Bulldog' for his tireless defense of  
Darwin, was initially unconvinced of evolution.  
Converted by `Origin of Species', he is recorded  
(much like [Briggs](#) meeting Napier) as saying

*"How extremely stupid not to have thought of that!"*

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

(Galileo Galilei, 1564-1642)

# On the other hand

Galileo's view is not a view shared by all (Kuhn, Dewey, ...). The following *thoughts on quantum theory by various scientists* come from the NYT of Dec 26, 2005.

- **"Those are the crazy people who are not working on quantum theory."** (Albert Einstein referring to the inmates of an insane asylum near his office in Prague, in 1911)
- **"Anyone who is not shocked by quantum theory has not understood a single word."** (Niels Bohr)
- **"I don't like it, and I'm sorry I ever had anything to do with it."** (Erwin Schrödinger about the probability interpretation of quantum mechanics)



*"It says it's sick of doing things like inventories and payrolls, and it wants to make some breakthroughs in astrophysics."*

# Experimental Methodology (again)

1. Gaining **insight** and intuition
2. Discovering new relationships
3. **Visualizing** math principles
4. Testing and especially **falsifying conjectures**
5. Exploring a possible result to see **if it merits formal proof**
6. Suggesting approaches for **formal proof**
7. Computing **replacing** lengthy hand derivations
8. **Confirming** analytically derived results

## MATH LAB

Computer experiments are transforming mathematics

BY ERICA KLARREICH

Science News  
2004

**M**any people regard mathematics as the crown jewel of the sciences. Yet math has historically lacked one of the defining trappings of science: laboratory equipment. Physicists have their particle accelerators; biologists, their electron microscopes; and astronomers, their telescopes. Mathematics, by contrast, concerns not the physical landscape but an idealized, abstract world. For exploring that world, mathematicians have traditionally had only their intuition.

Now, computers are starting to give mathematicians the lab instrument that they have been missing. Sophisticated software is enabling researchers to travel further and deeper into the mathematical universe. They're calculating the number pi with mind-boggling precision, for instance, or discovering patterns in the contours of beautiful, infinite chains of spheres that arise out of the geometry of knots.

Experiments in the computer lab are leading mathematicians to discoveries and insights that they might never have reached by traditional means. "Pretty much every [mathematical] field has been transformed by it," says Richard Crandall, a mathematician at Reed College in Portland, Ore. "Instead of just being a number-crunching tool, the computer is becoming more like a garden shovel that turns over rocks, and you find things underneath."

At the same time, the new work is raising unsettling questions about how to regard experimental results

"I have some of the excitement that Leonardo of Pisa must have felt when he encountered Arabic arithmetic. It suddenly made certain calculations flabbergastingly easy," Borwein says. "That's what I think is happening with computer experimentation today."

**EXPERIMENTERS OF OLD** In one sense, math experiments are nothing new. Despite their field's reputation as a purely deductive science, the great mathematicians over the centuries have never limited themselves to formal reasoning and proof.

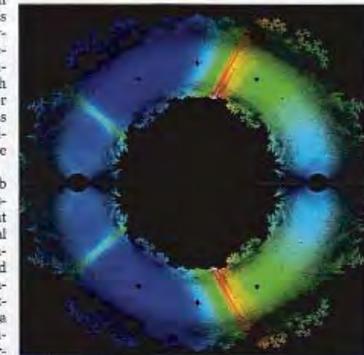
For instance, in 1666, sheer curiosity and love of numbers led Isaac Newton to calculate directly the first 16 digits of the number pi, later writing, "I am ashamed to tell you to how many figures I carried these computations, having no other business at the time."

Carl Friedrich Gauss, one of the towering figures of 19th-century mathematics, habitually discovered new mathematical results by experimenting with numbers and looking for patterns. When Gauss was a teenager, for instance, his experiments led him to one of the most important conjectures in the history of number theory: that the number of prime numbers less than a number  $x$  is roughly equal to  $x$  divided by the logarithm of  $x$ .

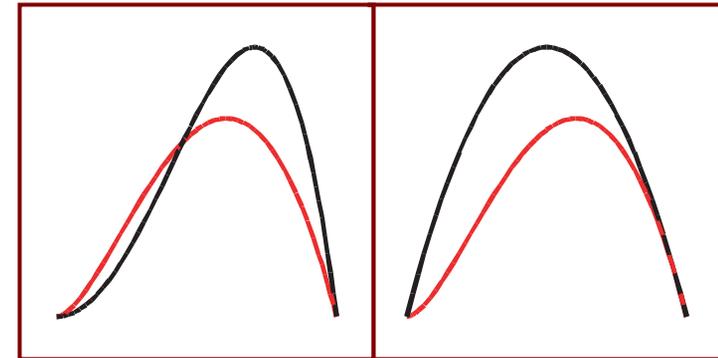
Gauss often discovered results experimentally long before he could prove them formally. Once, he complained, "I have the result, but I do not yet know how to get it."

In the case of the prime number theorem, Gauss later refined his conjecture but never did figure out how to prove it. It took more than a century for mathematicians to come up with a proof.

Like today's mathematicians, math experimenters in the late 19th century used computers—but in those days, the word referred to people with a special facility for calculation.



**UNSOLVED MYSTERIES** — A computer experiment produced this plot of all the solutions to a collection of simple equations in 2001. Mathematicians are still trying to account for its many features.



Comparing  $-y^2 \ln(y)$  (red) to  $y - y^2$  and  $y^2 - y^4$

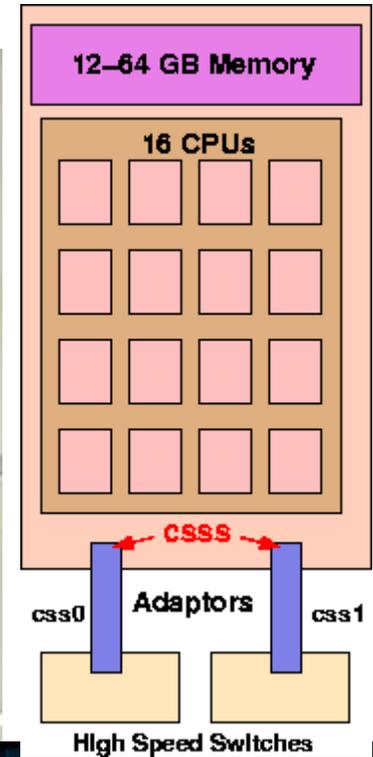
This picture is worth 100,000 ENIACs

The number of **ENIACS**  
needed to store the 20Mb  
TIF file the Smithsonian  
sold me

The past

# NERSC's 6000 cpu Seaborg in 2004 (10Tflops/sec)

- we need new software paradigms for `bigga-scale' hardware



**The present**

**Mathematical Immersive Reality**  
in Vancouver

# IBM BlueGene/L system at LLNL

System  
(64 cabinets, 64x32x32)

## Supercomputer doubles own record

The Blue Gene/L supercomputer has broken its own record to achieve more than double the number of calculations it can do a second.

It reached 280.6 teraflops - that is 280.6 trillion calculations a second.



Blue Gene/L is the fastest computer in the world

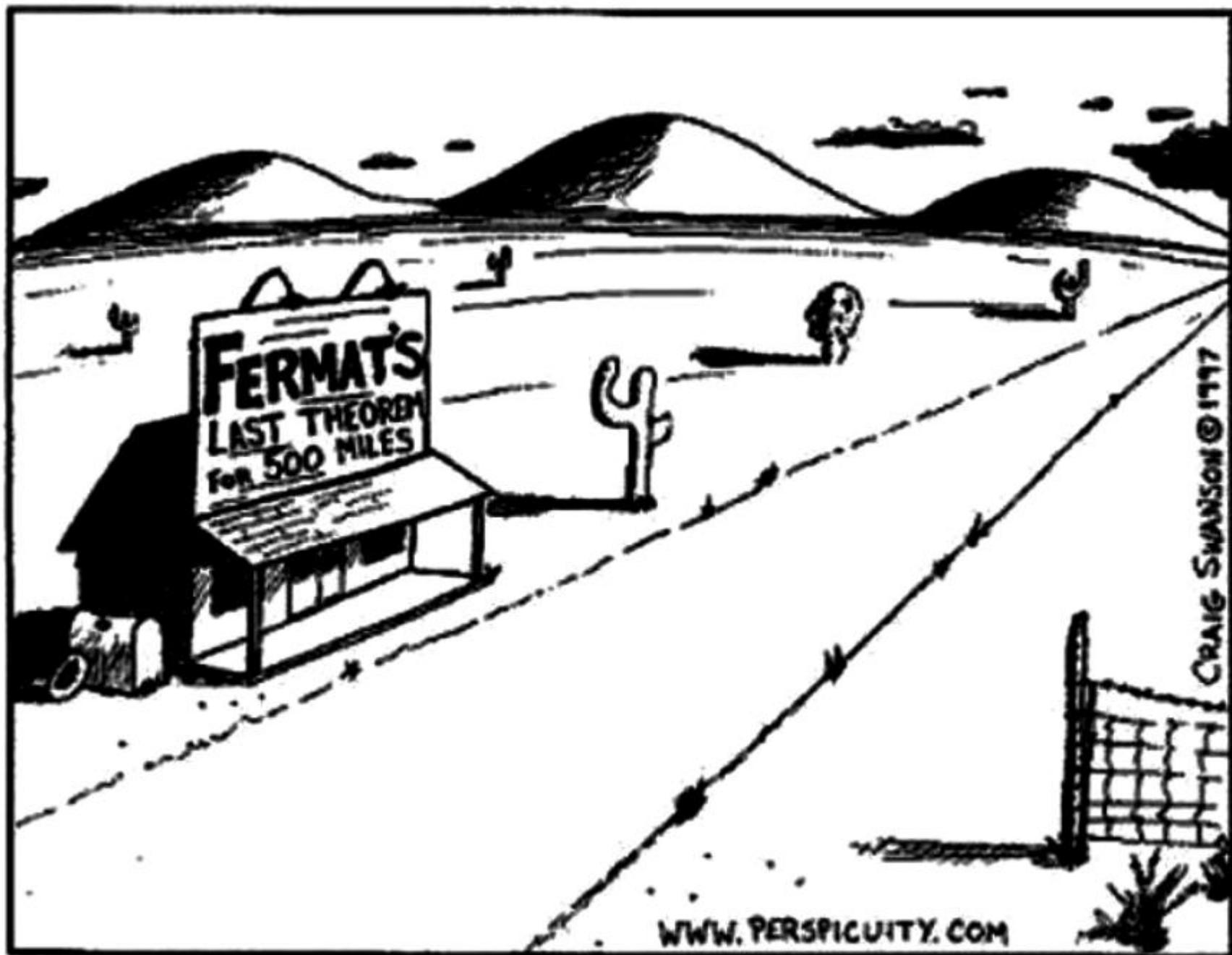
2.8/5.6 GF/s  
4 MB

5.6/11.2 GF/s  
0.5 GB DDR

**The future**

**2<sup>17</sup> cpu's**

**Oct 2005** It has now run Linpack benchmark at over **280 Tflop /sec**  
**(4 x Canadian-REN)**



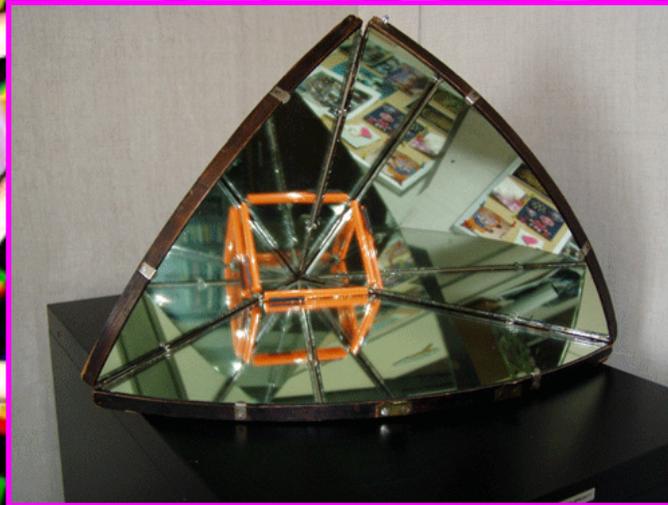
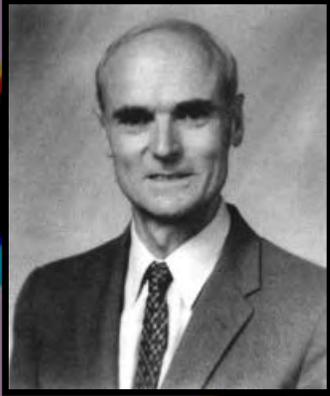
**FERMAT'S**  
**LAST THEOREM**  
**For 500 MILES**

CRAIG SWANSON © 1997

WWW.PERSPICUITY.COM

# COXETER'S (1927) Kaleidoscope

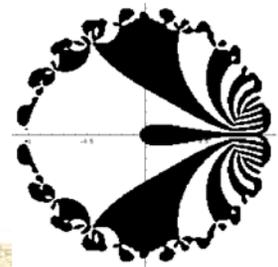
# Visualization





*"What I appreciate even more than its remarkable speed and accuracy are the words of understanding and compassion I get from it."*

# Numeric and Symbolic Computation



...is central to my work - with Dave Bailey -  
meshed with visualization, randomized checks,  
many web interfaces and



1. Massive (serial) Symbolic Computation [The On-Line Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences](#)  
- Automatic differentiation code
2. Integer Relation Methods
3. Inverse Symbolic Computation

Enter a  sequence,  word, or  sequence number:

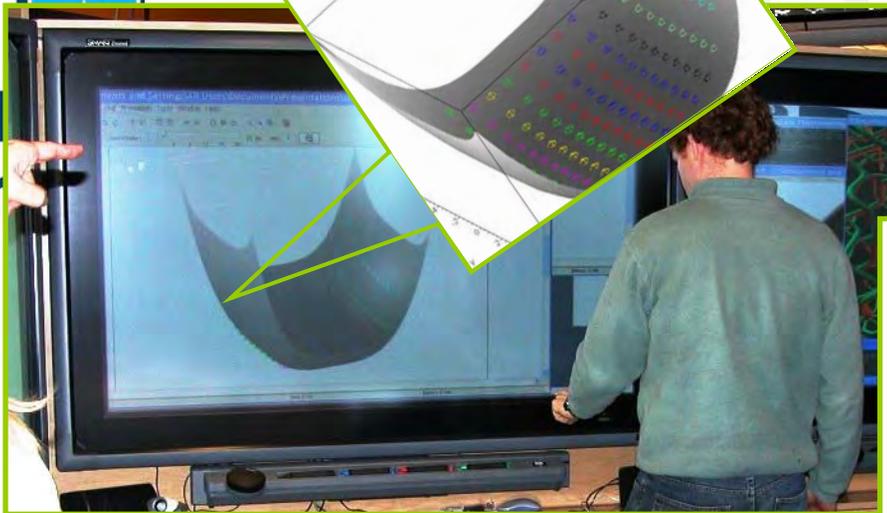
[Clear](#) | [Hints](#) | [Advanced look-up](#)

**Other languages:** [Albanian](#) [Arabic](#) [Bulgarian](#) [Catalan](#) [Chinese \(simplified, traditional\)](#) [Croatian](#) [Czech](#) [Danish](#) [Dutch](#) [Esperanto](#) [Estonian](#) [Finnish](#) [French](#) [German](#) [Greek](#) [Hebrew](#) [Hindi](#) [Hungarian](#) [Italian](#) [Japanese](#) [Korean](#) [Polish](#) [Portuguese](#) [Romanian](#) [Russian](#) [Serbian](#) [Spanish](#) [Swedish](#) [Tagalog](#) [Thai](#) [Turkish](#) [Ukrainian](#) [Vietnamese](#)

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[Last modified Fri Apr 22 21:18:02 EDT 2005. Contains 105526 sequences.]

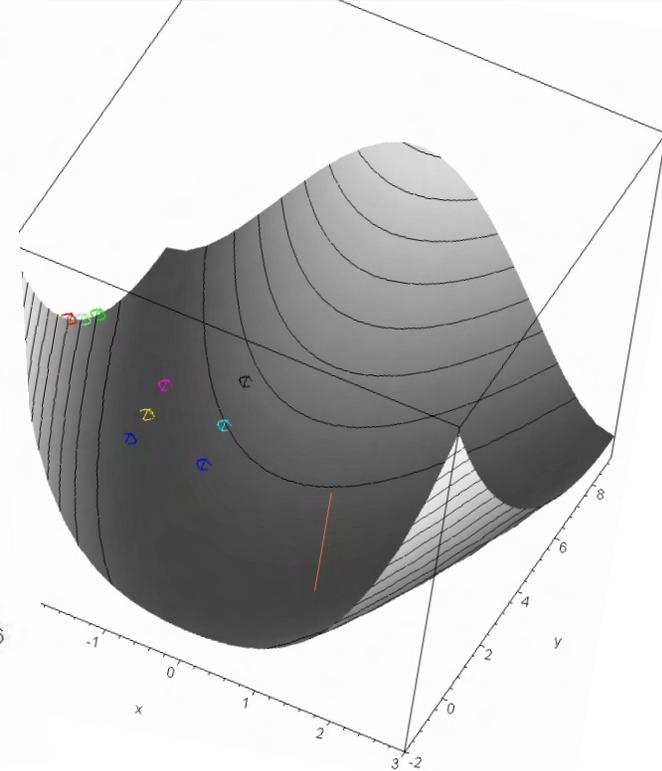
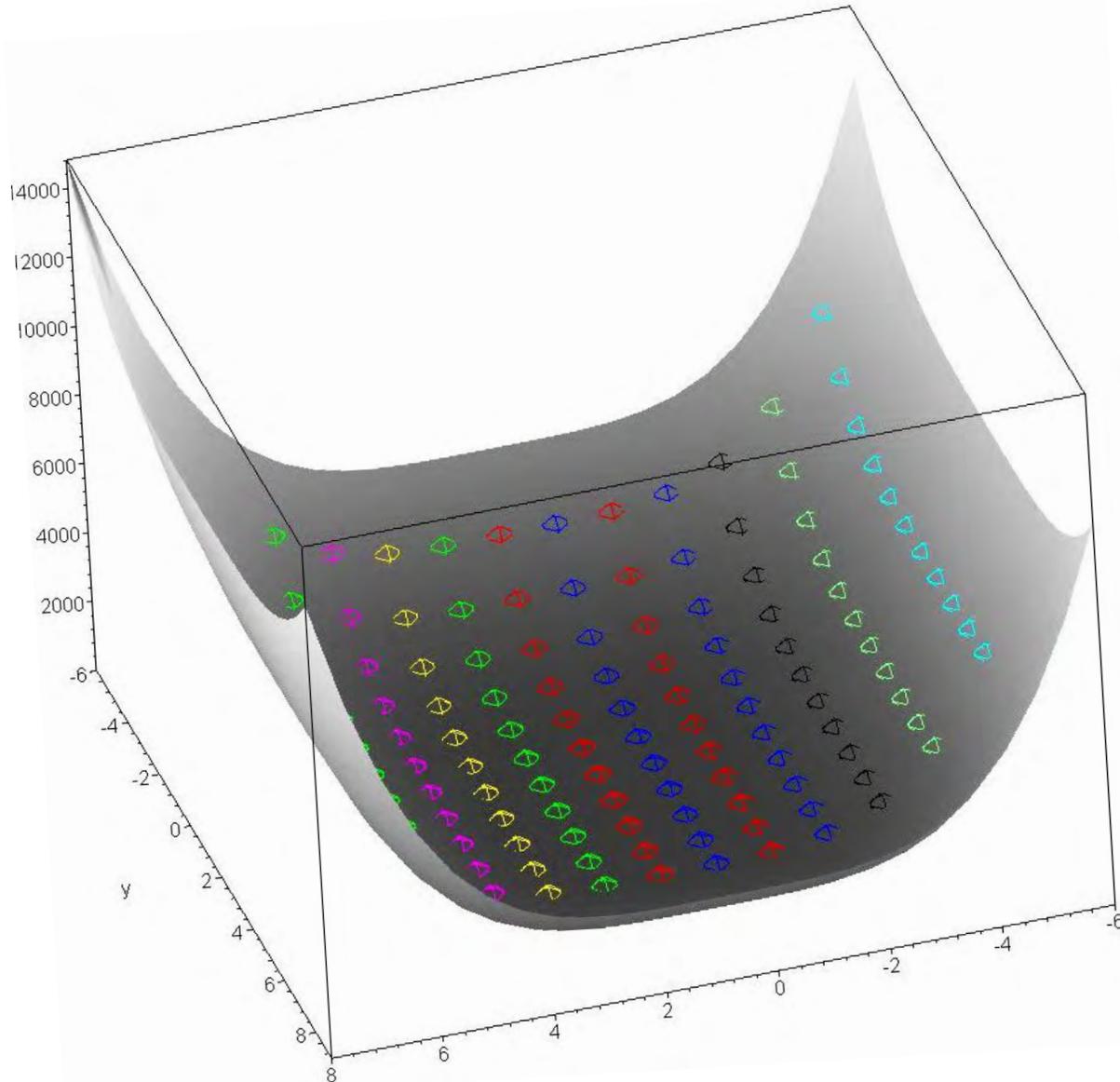


*Parallel derivative free  
optimization in **Maple***

- Other useful tools :
- Sloane's online sequence database
  - Salvy and Zimmermann's generating function package '*gfun*'
    - Automatic identity proving: Wilf-Zeilberger method for hypergeometric functions

# Maple on SFU 192 cpu 'bugaboo' cluster

- different node sets are in different colors





Matches (up to a limit of 30) found for 1 2 3 6 11 23 47 106 235 :

[It may take a few minutes to search the whole database, depending on how many matches are found (the second and later look are faster)]

## An Exemplary Database

**ID Number:** A000055 (Formerly MO791 and NO299)

**URL:** <http://www.research.att.com/projects/OEIS?Anum=A000055>

**Sequence:** 1, 1, 1, 1, 2, 3, 6, 11, 23, 47, 106, 235, 551, 1301, 3159, 7741, 19320, 48629, 123867, 317955, 823065, 2144505, 5623756, 14828074, 39299897, 104636890, 279793450, 751065460, 2023443032, 5469566585, 14830871802, 40330829030, 109972410221

**Name:** Number of trees with n unlabeled nodes.

**Comments:** Also, number of unlabeled 2-gonal 2-trees with n 2-gons.

**References** F. Bergeron, G. Labelle and P. Leroux, *Combinatorial Species and Tree-Like Structures*, Camb. 1998, p. 279.

N. L. Biggs et al., *Graph Theory 1736-1936*, Oxford, 1976, p. 49.

S. R. Finch, *Mathematical Constants*, Cambridge, 2003, pp. 295-316.

D. D. Grant, The stability index of graphs, pp. 29-52 of *Combinatorial Mathematics (Proceedings 2nd Australian Conf.)*, Lect. Notes Math. 403, 1974.

F. Harary, *Graph Theory*. Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA, 1969, p. 232.

F. Harary and E. M. Palmer, *Graphical Enumeration*, Academic Press, NY, 1973, p. 58 and 244.

D. E. Knuth, *Fundamental Algorithms*, 3d Ed. 1997, pp. 386-88.

R. C. Read and R. J. Wilson, *An Atlas of Graphs*, Oxford, 1998.

J. Riordan, *An Introduction to Combinatorial Analysis*, Wiley, 1958, p. 138.

**Links:** P. J. Cameron, [Sequences realized by oligomorphic permutation groups](#) *J. Integ. Seqs. Vol.*

Steven Finch, [Otter's Tree Enumeration Constants](#)

E. M. Rains and N. J. A. Sloane, [On Cayley's Enumeration of Alkanes \(or 4-Valent Trees\)](#),

N. J. A. Sloane, [Illustration of initial terms](#)

E. W. Weisstein, [Link to a section of The World of Mathematics](#).

[Index entries for sequences related to trees](#)

[Index entries for "core" sequences](#)

G. Labelle, C. Lamathe and P. Leroux, [Labeled and unlabeled enumeration of k-gonal 2-tr](#)

**Formula:** G.f.:  $A(x) = 1 + T(x) - T^2(x)/2 + T(x^2)/2$ , where  $T(x) = x + x^2 + 2x^3 + \dots$



## Integrated real time use

- moderated

- 100,000 entries

- grows daily

- AP book had 5,000



# A **WARMUP** Computational Proof



Suppose we know that  $1 < N < 10$  and that  $N$  is an integer  
- **computing  $N$  to 1 significant place with a certificate** will  
prove the value of  $N$ . *Euclid's method* is basic to such ideas.

Likewise, suppose we know  $\alpha$  is **algebraic of degree  $d$  and length  $\lambda$**   
(coefficient sum in absolute value)

If  $P$  is polynomial of degree  $D$  & length  $L$  **EITHER  $P(\alpha) = 0$  OR**

**Example** (MAA, April 2005). Prove that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{y^2}{1 + 4y + y^6 - 2y^4 - 4y^3 + 2y^5 + 3y^2} dy = \pi$$

$$|P(\alpha)| \geq \frac{1}{L^{d-1} \lambda^D}$$

**Proof.** Purely **qualitative analysis** with partial fractions and arctans shows the integral is  $\pi \beta$  where  $\beta$  is algebraic of degree *much* less than **100** ( **actually 6**), length *much* less than **100,000,000**. With  **$P(x) = x - 1$**  ( $D=1, L=2, d=6, \lambda=?$ ), this means *checking* the identity to **100** places is plenty of **PROOF**.

A fully symbolic Maple proof followed. **QED**  $|\beta - 1| < 1/(32\lambda) \mapsto \beta = 1$

# Hilbert and Witten

We explore a surprising relation between the **Witten Zeta function** for  $r, s > 1/2$

$$\mathcal{W}(r, s, t) := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^r m^s (n+m)^t}$$

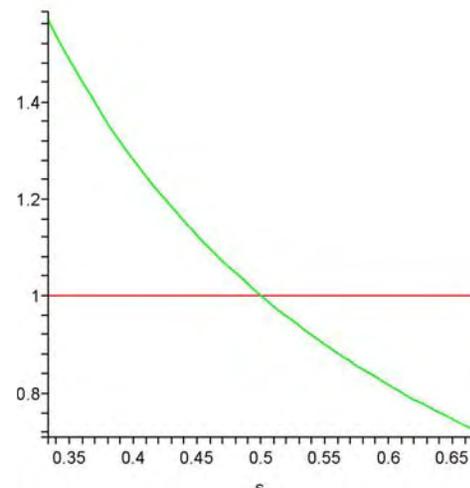
and **Hilbert's inequality** for positive sequences and  $1/p + 1/q = \infty$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n b_m}{n+m} < \pi \operatorname{csc} \left( \frac{\pi}{p} \right) \|a_n\|_p \|b_n\|_q.$$

# The Best “Hilbert Constant”

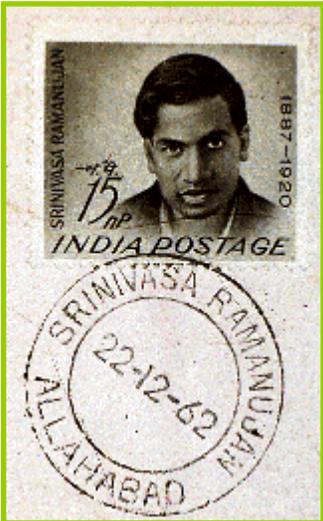
is the one given. For  $p=2$ , we  
(with effort) numerically explore

$$\mathcal{R}(s) := \frac{\mathcal{W}(s, s, 1)}{\pi \zeta(2s)}$$



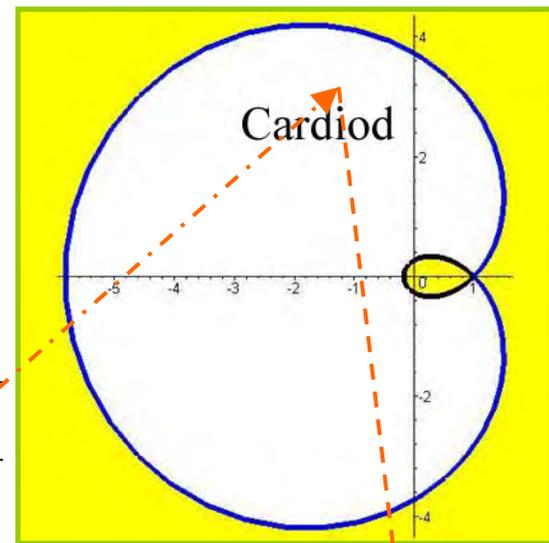
and so determine  $\lim_{s \rightarrow 1/2} \mathcal{R}(s) = 1$ .

This confirms that the constant is best possible  
and the method works more generally – with  
many open questions!



# Ramanujan's Arithmetic-Geometric Continued fraction (CF)

$$R_\eta(a, b) = \frac{a}{\eta + \frac{b^2}{\eta + \frac{4a^2}{\eta + \frac{9b^2}{\eta + \dots}}}}$$



For  $a, b > 0$  the CF satisfies a lovely symmetrization

$$\mathcal{R}_\eta\left(\frac{a+b}{2}, \sqrt{ab}\right) = \frac{\mathcal{R}_\eta(a, b) + \mathcal{R}_\eta(b, a)}{2}$$

Computing directly was too hard; even 4 places of  $\mathcal{R}_1(1, 1) = \log 2$  ?

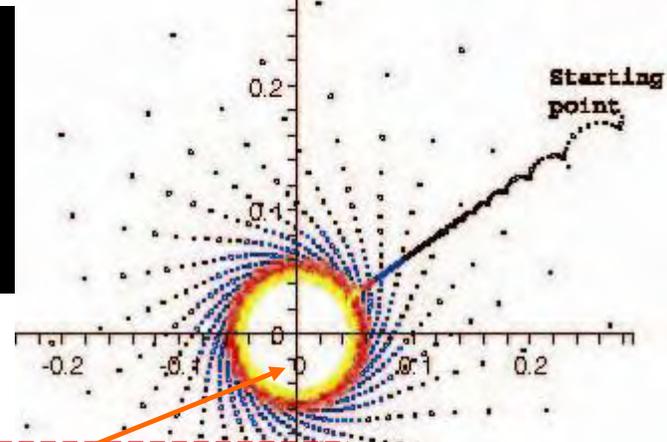
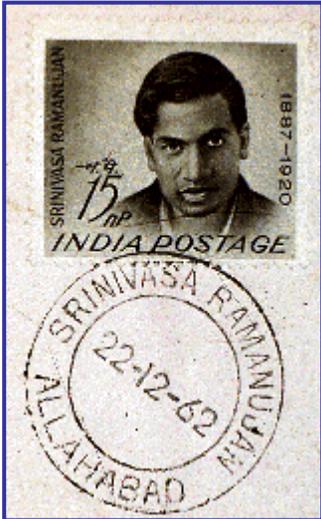
We wished to know for which  $a/b$  in  $\mathbb{C}$  this all held

The scatterplot revealed a precise **cardioid** where  $r=a/b$ .

- which discovery it remained to prove?

$$\left| \frac{a+b}{2} \right| \geq \sqrt{|ab|}$$

# Ramanujan's Arithmetic-Geometric Continued fraction



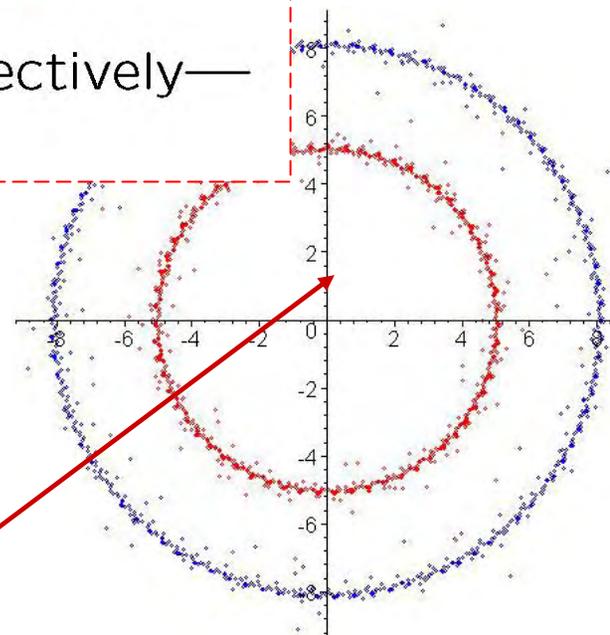
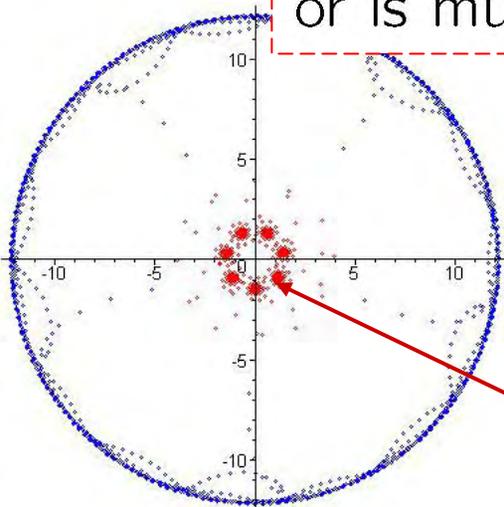
## 1. The Blackbox

Six months later we had a beautiful proof using genuinely new dynamical results. Starting from the dynamical system  $t_0 := t_1 := 1$ :

$$t_n \rightarrow \frac{1}{n} t_{n-1} + \omega_{n-1} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{n} \right) t_{n-2},$$

where  $\omega_n = a^2, b^2$  for  $n$  even, odd respectively—or is much more general.\*

## 2. Seeing convergence



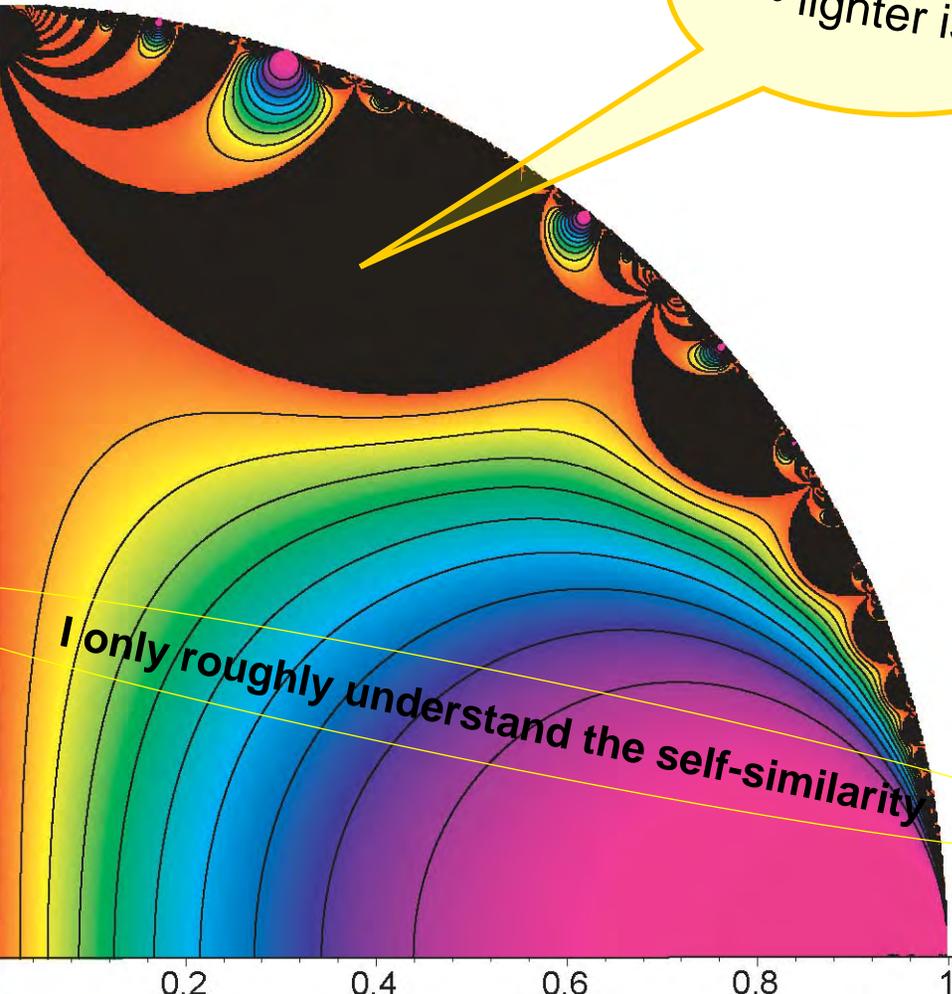
## 3. Attractors. Normalizing by $n^{1/2}$ three cases appear

# FRACTAL of a Modular Inequality

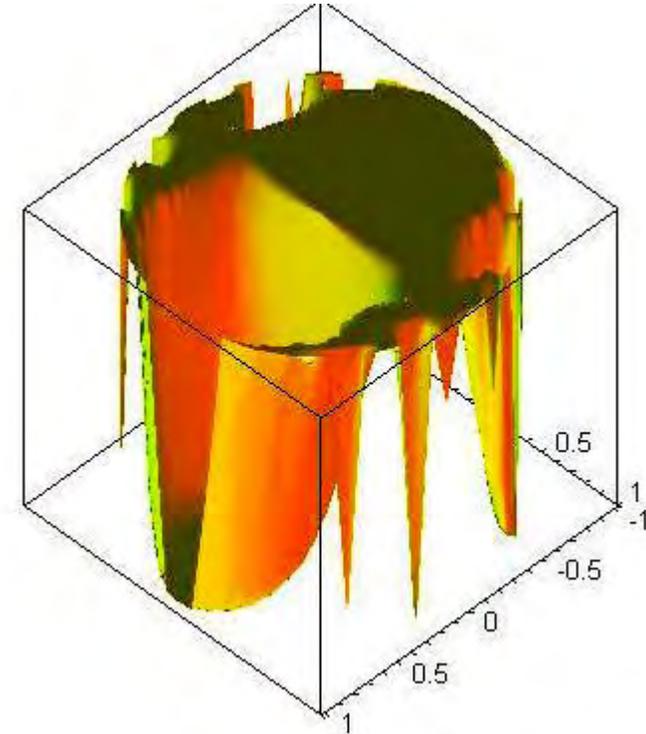
$$\mathcal{R} = \frac{|\sum_{n \in \mathbf{Z}} (-1)^n q^{n^2}|}{|\sum_{n \in \mathbf{Z}} q^{n^2}|}$$

plots  $\mathcal{R}$  in disk

- black exceeds 1
- lighter is lower

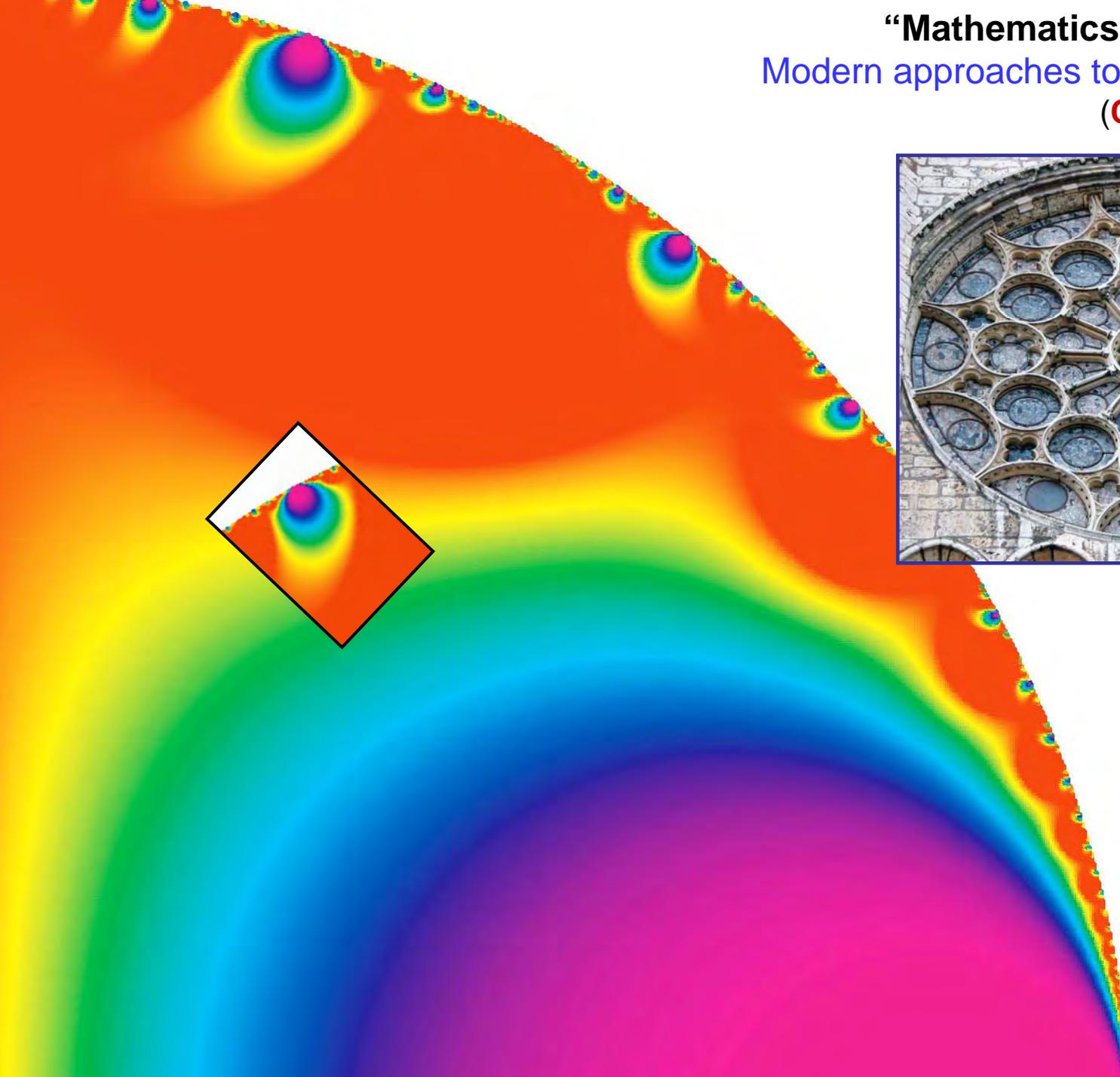


I only roughly understand the self-similarity



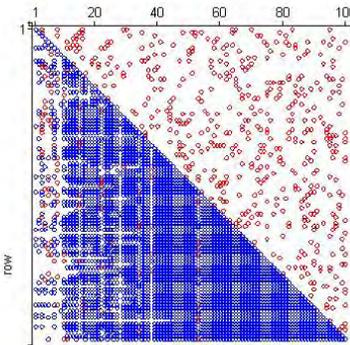
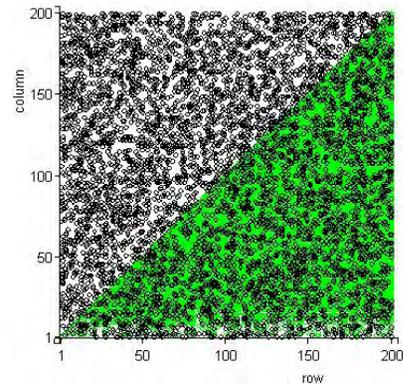
- ✓ related to Ramanujan's continued fraction
- ✓ took several hours to print
- ✓ Crandall/Apple has parallel print mode

**“Mathematics and the aesthetic  
Modern approaches to an ancient affinity”  
(CMS-Springer, 2006)**



# Pseudospectra or Stabilizing Eigenvalues

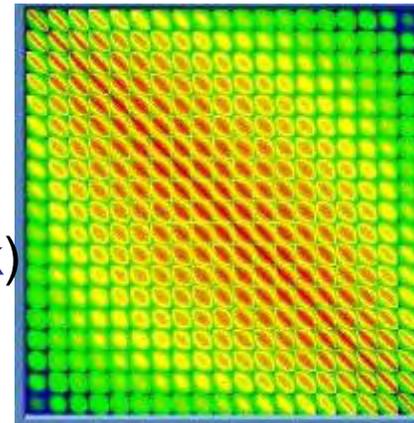
Gaussian elimination of random sparse (10%-15%) matrices



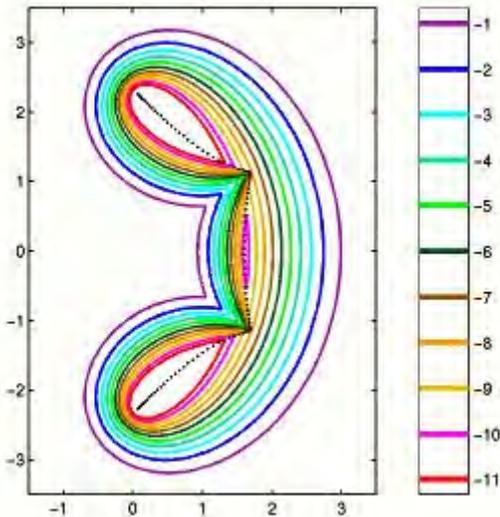
## 'Large' ( $10^5$ to $10^8$ ) Matrices must be seen

1. conditioning and ill-conditioning
2. sparsity and its preservation
3. eigenvalues
4. singular values (helping Google work)

A dense inverse



Pseudospectrum of a banded matrix

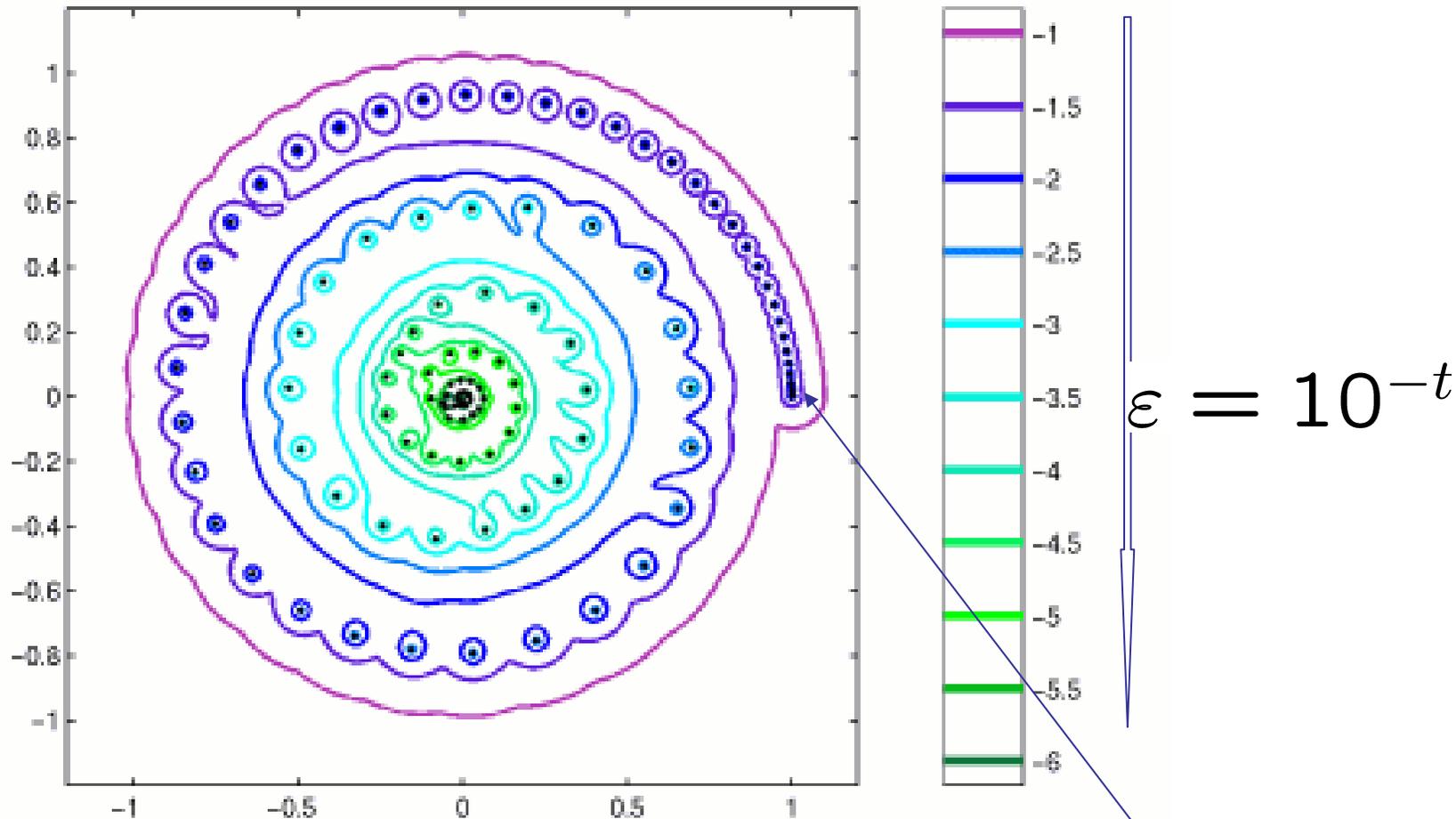


The pseudo spectrum of A: for  $\varepsilon > 0$

$$\sigma_\varepsilon(A) = \{ \lambda : \inf \|Ax - \lambda x\| \leq \varepsilon \}$$

<http://web.comlab.ox.ac.uk/projects/pseudospectra>

# An Early Use of Pseudospectra (Landau, 1977)



- An infinite dimensional integral equation in laser theory
  - discretized to a matrix of dimension 600
  - projected onto a well chosen invariant subspace of dimension 109

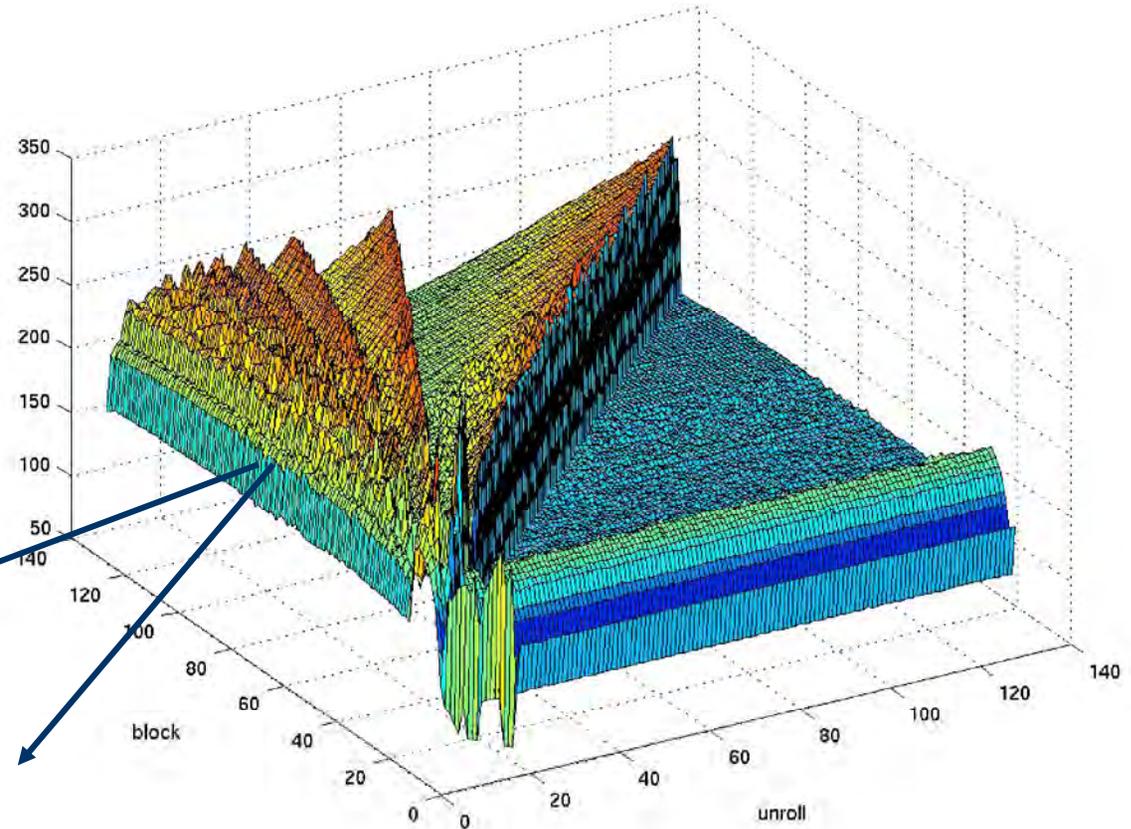
# Experimentation with DGEMV (matrix-vector multiply):

128x128=16,384 cases.

Experiment took 30+ hours to run.

Best performance =  
338 Mflop/s with  
blocking=11  
unrolling=11

Original performance =  
232 Mflop/s



**Visual Representation of Automatic Code Parallelization**

# Fast Arithmetic (Complexity Reduction in Action)



## Multiplication

■ Karatsuba multiplication (200 digits +) or Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)

... in ranges from 100 to 1,000,000,000,000 digits

- The other operations

via Newton's method  $\times, \div, \sqrt{\cdot}$

- Elementary and special functions

via Elliptic integrals and Gauss AGM

$$O\left(n^{\log_2(3)}\right)$$

For example:

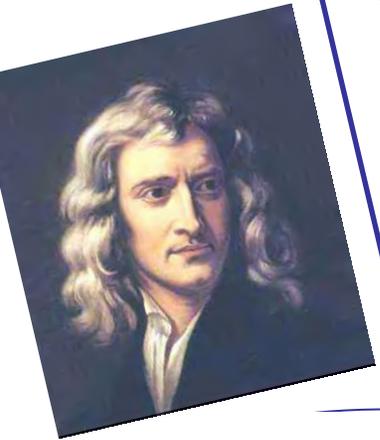
Karatsuba  
replaces one  
'times' by  
many 'plus'

$$\begin{aligned} & (a + c \cdot 10^N) \times (b + d \cdot 10^N) \\ &= ab + (ad + bc) \cdot 10^N + cd \cdot 10^{2N} \\ &= ab + \underbrace{\{(a + c)(b + d) - ab - cd\}}_{\text{three multiplications}} \cdot 10^N + cd \cdot 10^{2N} \end{aligned}$$

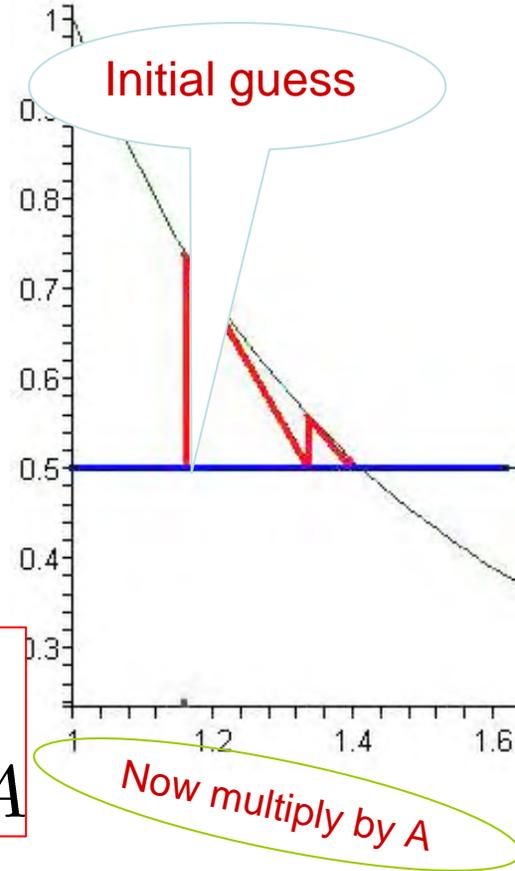
FFT multiplication of multi-billion digit numbers reduces centuries to minutes. Trillions must be done with Karatsuba!

$$x \leftarrow x - \frac{f(x)}{\frac{d}{dx}f(x)}$$

# Newton's Method for Elementary Operations and Functions



1. Doubles precision at each step  
**Newton is self correcting and quadratically convergent**
2. Consequences for **work needed**:

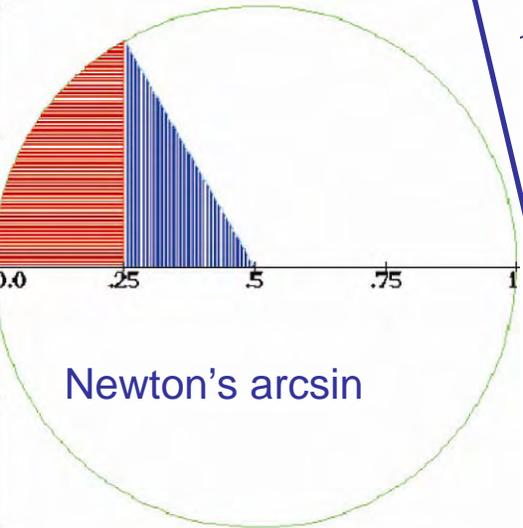


$$\begin{aligned} \div &= 4 \times' : 1/x = A \\ \sqrt{\cdot} &= 6 \times' : 1/x^2 = A \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x &\leftarrow x(2 - xA) \\ x &\leftarrow 1/2 x (3 - x^2 A) \end{aligned}$$

3. For the **logarithm** we approximate by **elliptic integrals (AGM)** which admit **quadratic transformations**: near zero

$$\frac{d}{dk} K(k) \sim \log\left(\frac{4}{k}\right)$$



Newton's arcsin

4. We use **Newton** to obtain the **complex exponential**  
So **all elementary functions** are fast computable



"What it comes down to is our software is too hard and our hardware is too soft."

Peter Borwein  
in front of  
Helaman Ferguson's  
work

CMS Meeting  
December 2003  
SFU Harbour Centre

Ferguson uses high  
tech tools and micro  
engineering at NIST  
to build monumental  
math sculptures





# PSLQ and Zeta

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

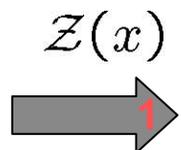
Euler  
(1707-73)



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

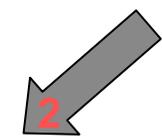
$$= \frac{\pi^2}{6}, \zeta(4) = \frac{\pi^4}{90}, \zeta(6) = \frac{\pi^6}{945}, \dots$$

**2005** Bailey, Bradley & JMB *discovered and proved* - in Maple - *three equivalent binomial identities*



$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{Z}(x) &= 3 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\binom{2k}{k} (k^2 - x^2)} \prod_{n=1}^{k-1} \frac{4x^2 - n^2}{x^2 - n^2} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \zeta(2k + 2) x^{2k} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 - x^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{1 - \pi x \cot(\pi x)}{2x^2}$$



**2. reduced as hoped**



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

$${}_3F_2 \left( \begin{matrix} 3n, n+1, -n \\ 2n+1, n+1/2 \end{matrix}; \frac{1}{4} \right) = \frac{\binom{2n}{n}}{\binom{3n}{n}}$$

**3. was easily computer proven (Wilf-Zeilberger)**

# Wilf-Zeilberger Algorithm

is a form of automated telescoping:  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1} \right\} = 1$

✓ **AMS Steele Research Prize** winner. In **Maple 9.5** set:

$$F := \frac{(3n+k-1)! (n+k)! (-n+k-1)! (2n)! (n-1/2)! (1/4)^k}{(3n-1)! n! (-n-1)! (2n+k)! (n-1/2+k)! k!}, \quad r := \frac{\binom{2n}{n}}{\binom{3n}{n}}$$

and execute:

```
> with(SumTools[Hypergeometric]):
> WZMethod(F,r,n,k,'certify'): certify;
```

which returns the certificate

$$\frac{\sqrt{11n^2 + 1} + 6n + k + 5kn}{3(n-k+1)(2n+k+1)n}$$

This proves that summing  $F(n, k)$  over  $k$  produces  $r(n)$ , as asserted.



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If this were the philosophy talk I should discuss the following two quotes and further defend our philosophy of mathematics:

**Abstract of the future** *We show in a certain precise sense that the **Goldbach Conjecture** is true with probability larger than 0.99999 and that its complete truth could be determined with a budget of 10 billion.*

*"Secure Mathematical Knowledge"*

*"It is a waste of money to get absolute certainty, unless the conjectured identity in question is known to imply the Riemann Hypothesis."*

Doron Zeilberger, 1993

**Goldbach:** every even number ( $>2$ ) is a sum of two primes?

So we will look at the now concrete **Riemann Hypothesis**

...

# Über die Anzahl der Primzahlen unter einer Gegebenen Grosse

## On the number of primes less than a given quantity

Riemann's six page 1859  
'Paper of the Millennium'?

Über die Anzahl der Primzahlen unter einer  
gegebenen Grösse.

(Bode's Monatshefte, 1859, November.)

Wenn Dank für die Auszeichnung, welche mir das Akademierte durch die Aufnahme unter ihre Correspondenten hat zu Theil werden lassen, glaube ich am besten dadurch zu erkennen zu geben, dass ich vor der Hand sich erhaltenen Erlaubnis baldigst Gebrauch machen durch Mitteilung einer Untersuchung über die Häufigkeit der Primzahlen; ein Gegenstand, welcher durch das Interesse, welches Gauss und Dirichlet demselben längere Zeit geschenkt haben, einer solchen Mitteilung vielleicht nicht ganz unwohl erscheint.

Bei dieser Untersuchung dachte mir als Ausgangspunkt die von Euler gemachte Bemerkung, dass das Product

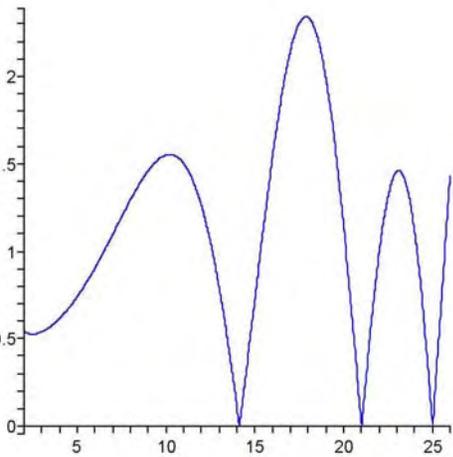
$$\prod \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{p^s}} = \sum \frac{1}{n^s},$$

wenn für  $p$  alle Primzahlen, für  $n$  alle ganze Zahlen

**RH** is so important because it yields precise results on distribution and behaviour of primes

Euler's product makes the key link between primes and  $\zeta$

# The Modulus of Zeta and the Riemann Hypothesis (A Millennium Problem)

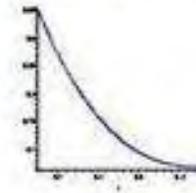
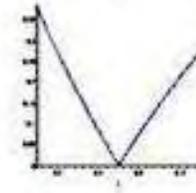
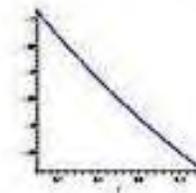
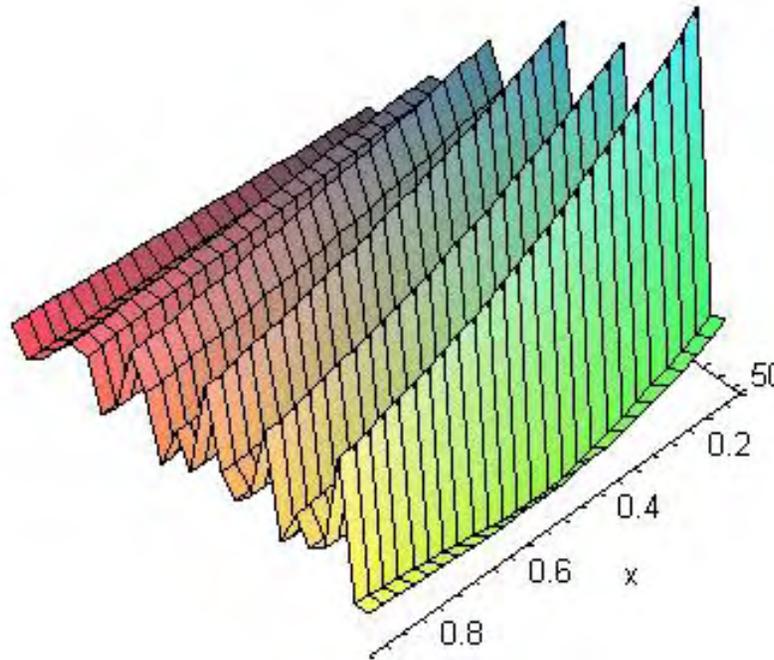


The imaginary parts of first 4 zeroes are:

14.134725142  
 21.022039639  
 25.010857580  
 30.424876126

The first 1.5 billion are on the *critical line*

Yet at  $10^{22}$  the “**Law of small numbers**” still rules (Odlyzko)

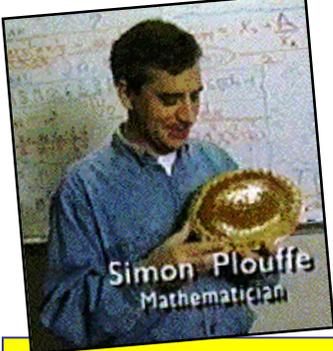


Curves at  
 and around  
 the 1st zero

.....

**‘All non-real zeros have real part one-half’**  
 (The Riemann Hypothesis)

Note the **monotonicity** of  $x \mapsto |\zeta(x+iy)|$  is **equivalent to RH** discovered in a Calgary class in 2002  
 by Zvengrowski and Saidak



## PSLQ and Hex Digits of Pi

Finalist for the \$100K **Edge**  
**of Computation Prize**

$$\log 2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k 2^k}$$



My brother made the observation that this log formula allows one to compute binary digits of  $\log 2$  *without*

# Edge The Third Culture

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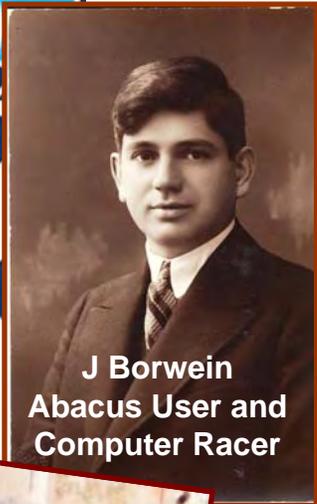
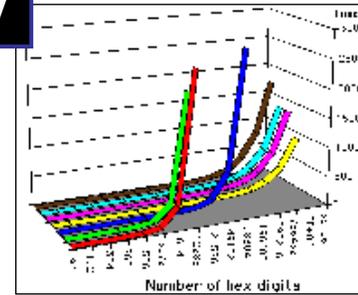
## THE \$100,000 EDGE OF COMPUTATION SCIENCE PRIZE

**For individual scientific work, extending the computational idea, performed, published, or newly applied within the past ten years.**

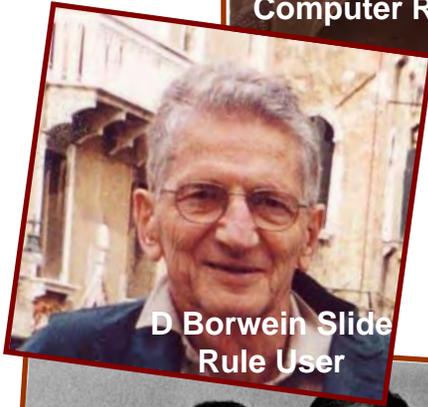
The Edge of Computation Science Prize, established by Edge Foundation, Inc., is a \$100,000 prize initiated and funded by science philanthropist Jeffrey Epstein.

# The pre-designed Algorithm ran the next day

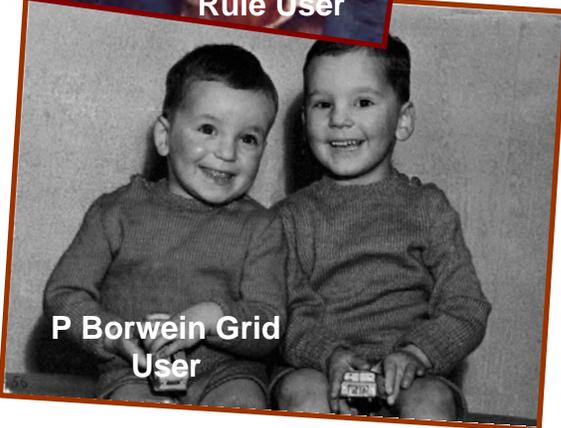
## ALGORITHMIC PROPERTIES



J Borwein  
Abacus User and  
Computer Racer



D Borwein Slide  
Rule User



P Borwein Grid  
User



T Borwein  
Game Player

- (1) produces a modest-length string hex or binary digits of  $\pi$ , beginning at an arbitrary position, using no prior bits;
- (2) is implementable on any modern computer;
- (3) requires no multiple precision software;
- (4) requires very little memory; and
- (5) has a computational cost growing only slightly faster than the digit position.

Now built into some compilers!

- [Join PiHex](#)
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# PiHex

A distributed effort to calculate Pi.

The Quadrillionth Bit of Pi is '0'!  
The Forty Trillionth Bit of Pi is '0'!  
The Five Trillionth Bit of Pi is '0'!

Percival 2004



PiHex was a distributed computing project which used idle computing power to set three records for calculating specific bits of Pi. PiHex has now finished.

174962

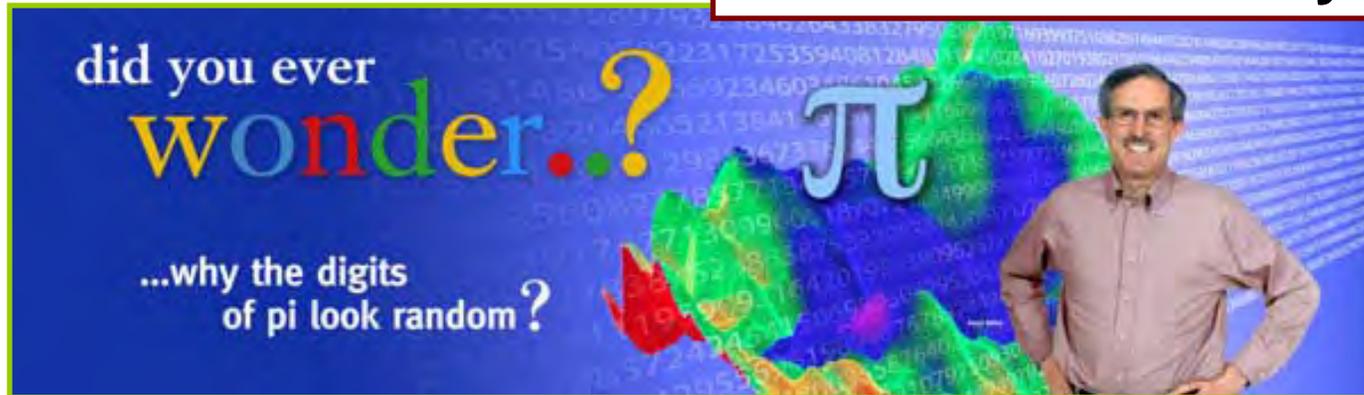
hits since the counter last reset.

Undergraduate  
**Colin Percival's**  
 grid computation  
**PiHex** rivaled  
**Finding Nemo**

Position	Hex Digits Beginning At This Position
$10^6$	26C65E52CB4593
$10^7$	17AF5863EFED8D
$10^8$	ECB840E21926EC
$10^9$	85895585A0428B
$10^{10}$	921C73C6838FB2
$10^{11}$	9C381872D27596
$1.25 \times 10^{12}$	07E45733CC790B
$2.5 \times 10^{14}$	E6216B069CB6C1

1999 on 1736 PCS  
 in 56 countries  
 using 1.2 million  
 Pentium2 cpu-hours

# PSLQ and Normality of Digits



Bailey and Crandall observed that BBP numbers most probably are normal and make it precise with a hypothesis on the behaviour of a dynamical system.

- For example Pi is normal in Hexadecimal if the iteration below, starting at zero, is uniformly distributed in  $[0,1]$

$$x_n = \left\{ 16x_{n-1} + \frac{120n^2 - 89n + 16}{512n^4 - 1024n^3 + 712n^2 - 206n + 21} \right\}$$

Consider the hex digit stream:

$$d_n = \lfloor 16x_n \rfloor$$

**We have checked this gives first million hex-digits of Pi**

Is this always the case? The weak Law of Large Numbers implies this is **very probably true!**

Pi to 1.5 trillion places in 20 steps

This fourth order algorithm was used on all big-Pi computations from 1986 to 2001

$$\begin{aligned}
 y_1 &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_0^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_0^4}}, a_1 = a_0(1 + y_1)^4 - 2^3 y_1(1 + y_1 + y_1^2) & y_{11} &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{10}^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{10}^4}}, a_{11} = a_{10}(1 + y_{11})^4 - 2^{23} y_{11}(1 + y_{11} + y_{11}^2) \\
 y_2 &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_1^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_1^4}}, a_2 = a_1(1 + y_2)^4 - 2^5 y_2(1 + y_2 + y_2^2) & y_{12} &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{11}^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{11}^4}}, a_{12} = a_{11}(1 + y_{12})^4 - 2^{25} y_{12}(1 + y_{12} + y_{12}^2) \\
 y_3 &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_2^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_2^4}}, a_3 = a_2(1 + y_3)^4 - 2^7 y_3(1 + y_3 + y_3^2) & y_{13} &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{12}^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{12}^4}}, a_{13} = a_{12}(1 + y_{13})^4 - 2^{27} y_{13}(1 + y_{13} + y_{13}^2) \\
 y_4 &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_3^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_3^4}}, a_4 = a_3(1 + y_4)^4 - 2^9 y_4(1 + y_4 + y_4^2) & y_{14} &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{13}^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{13}^4}}, a_{14} = a_{13}(1 + y_{14})^4 - 2^{29} y_{14}(1 + y_{14} + y_{14}^2) \\
 y_5 &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_4^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_4^4}}, a_5 = a_4(1 + y_5)^4 - 2^{11} y_5(1 + y_5 + y_5^2) & y_{15} &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{14}^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{14}^4}}, a_{15} = a_{14}(1 + y_{15})^4 - 2^{31} y_{15}(1 + y_{15} + y_{15}^2) \\
 y_6 &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_5^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_5^4}}, a_6 = a_5(1 + y_6)^4 - 2^{13} y_6(1 + y_6 + y_6^2) & y_{16} &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{15}^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{15}^4}}, a_{16} = a_{15}(1 + y_{16})^4 - 2^{33} y_{16}(1 + y_{16} + y_{16}^2) \\
 y_7 &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_6^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_6^4}}, a_7 = a_6(1 + y_7)^4 - 2^{15} y_7(1 + y_7 + y_7^2) & y_{17} &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{16}^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{16}^4}}, a_{17} = a_{16}(1 + y_{17})^4 - 2^{35} y_{17}(1 + y_{17} + y_{17}^2) \\
 y_8 &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_7^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_7^4}}, a_8 = a_7(1 + y_8)^4 - 2^{17} y_8(1 + y_8 + y_8^2) & y_{18} &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{17}^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{17}^4}}, a_{18} = a_{17}(1 + y_{18})^4 - 2^{37} y_{18}(1 + y_{18} + y_{18}^2) \\
 y_9 &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_8^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_8^4}}, a_9 = a_8(1 + y_9)^4 - 2^{19} y_9(1 + y_9 + y_9^2) & y_{19} &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{18}^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{18}^4}}, a_{19} = a_{18}(1 + y_{19})^4 - 2^{39} y_{19}(1 + y_{19} + y_{19}^2) \\
 y_{10} &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_9^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_9^4}}, a_{10} = a_9(1 + y_{10})^4 - 2^{21} y_{10}(1 + y_{10} + y_{10}^2) & y_{20} &= \frac{1 - \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{19}^4}}{1 + \sqrt[4]{1 - y_{19}^4}}, a_{20} = a_{19}(1 + y_{20})^4 - 2^{41} y_{20}(1 + y_{20} + y_{20}^2)
 \end{aligned}$$

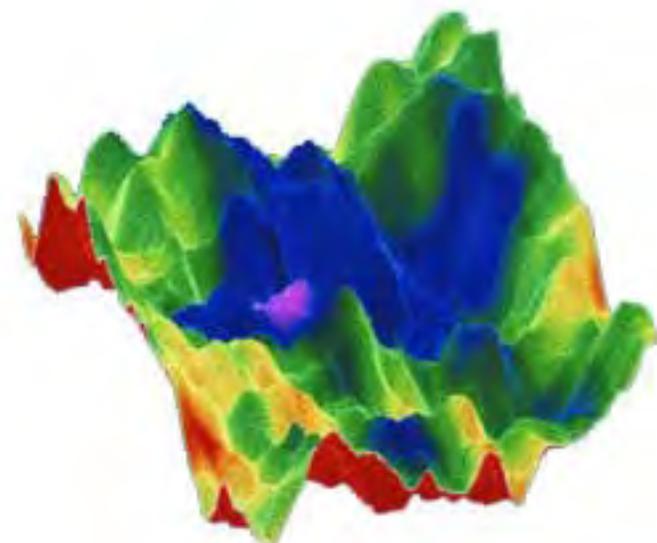
These equations specify an algebraic number:  
 $1/\pi \approx a_{20}$

Set  $a_0 = 6 - 4\sqrt{2}$  and  $y_0 = \sqrt{2} - 1$ . Iterate

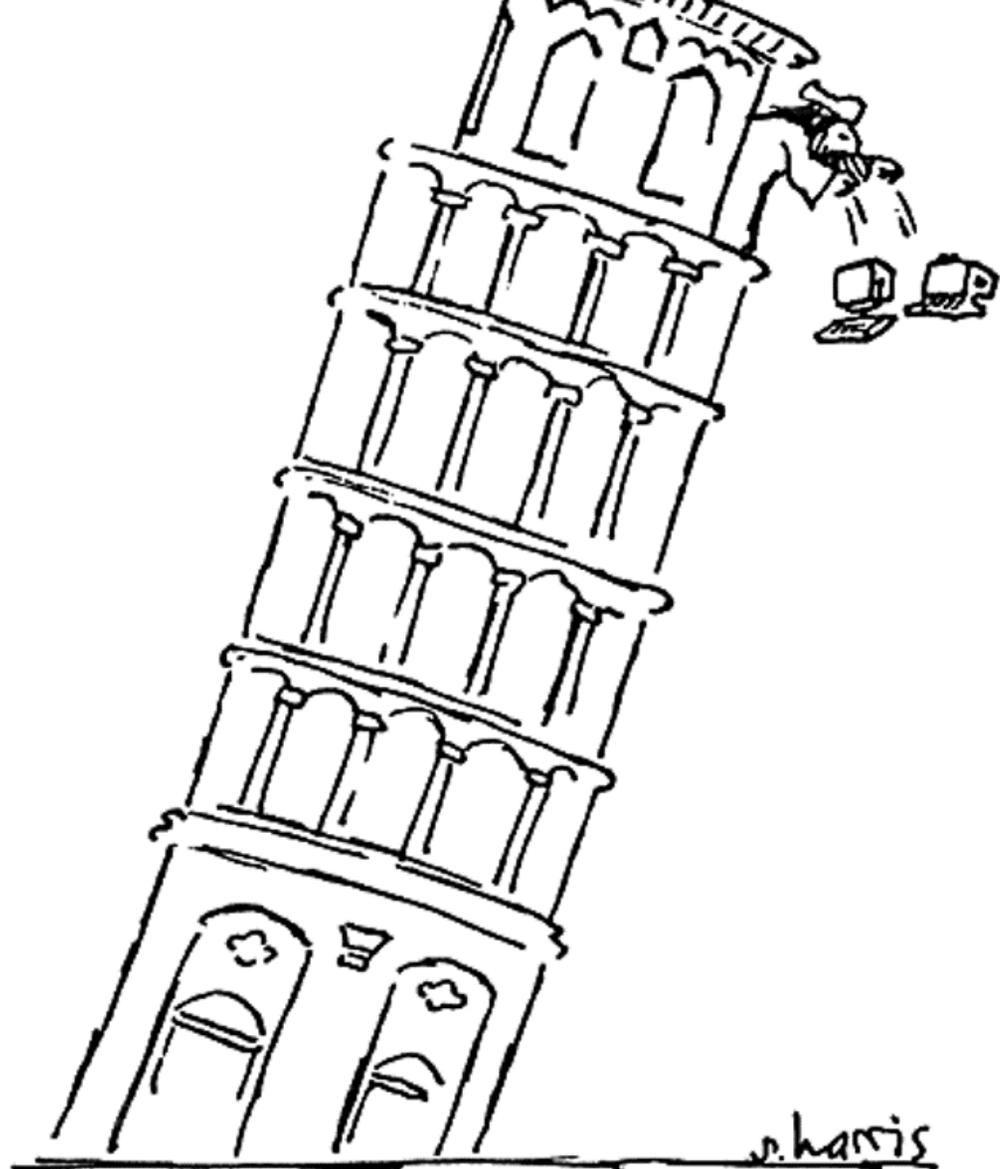
$$y_{k+1} = \frac{1 - (1 - y_k^4)^{1/4}}{1 + (1 - y_k^4)^{1/4}} \quad \text{and}$$

$$a_{k+1} = a_k(1 + y_{k+1})^4 - 2^{2k+3} y_{k+1}(1 + y_{k+1} + y_{k+1}^2).$$

Then  $1/a_k$  converges quartically to  $\pi$



A random walk on a million digits of Pi



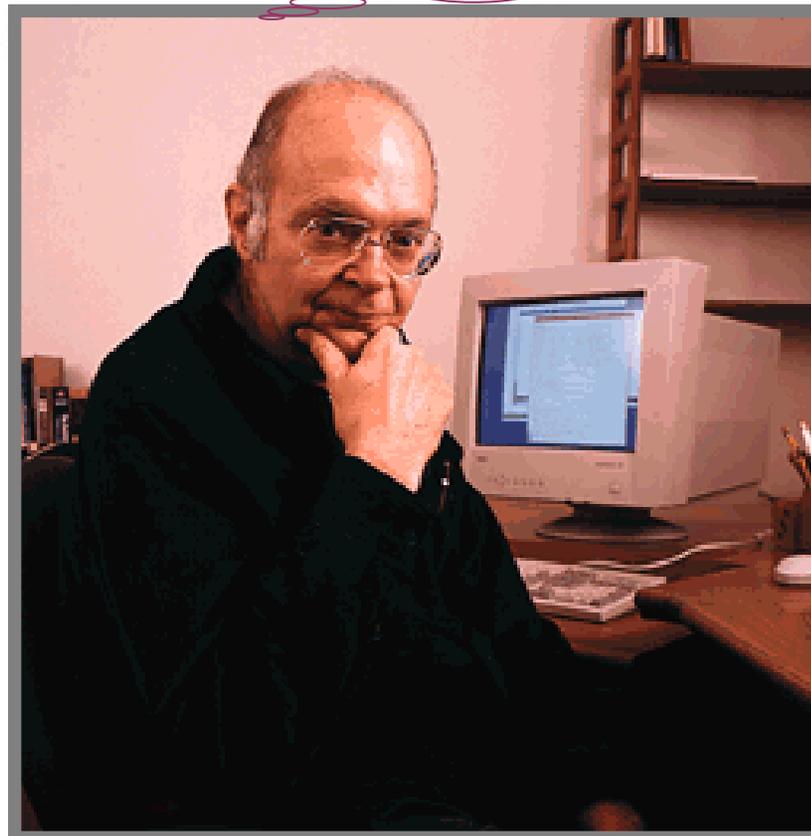
IF THERE WERE COMPUTERS  
IN GALILEO'S TIME

# Knuth's Problem

Donald Knuth\* asked for a closed form evaluation of:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{k^k}{k! e^k} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi k}} \right\} = -0.084069508727655 \dots$$

"instrumentation"



te 20 or 200 digits

shown on next slide

in the *Inverse Sym-*  
turns

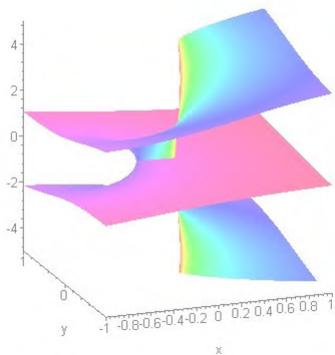
$$\approx \frac{2}{3} + \frac{\zeta(1/2)}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

ich *Maple 9.5* on a  
in under 6 seconds

A guided proof followed on asking **why** Maple could compute the answer so fast.

The answer is **Lambert's W** which solves

$$W \exp(W) = x$$



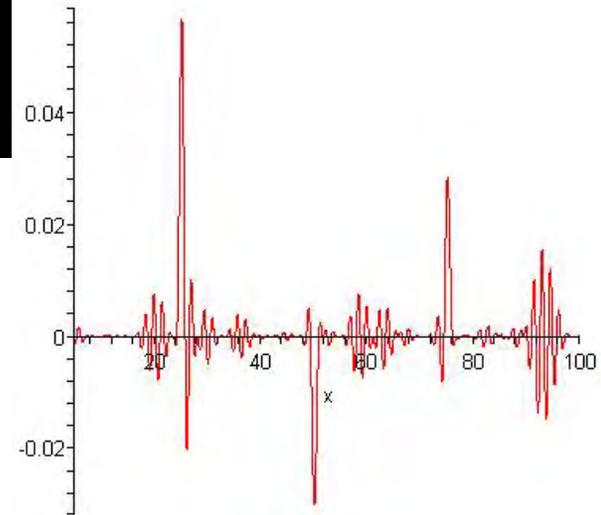
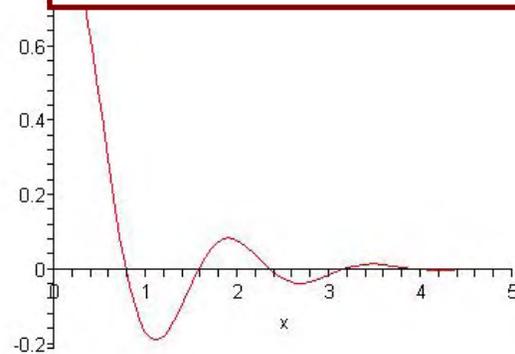
W's **Riemann** surface

**\* ARGUABLY WE ARE DONE**



# Quadrature I. Pi/8?

## A numerically challenging integral



$$\int_0^{\infty} \cos(2x) \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \cos\left(\frac{x}{n}\right) dx \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{\pi}{8}$$

But **Pi/8** equals

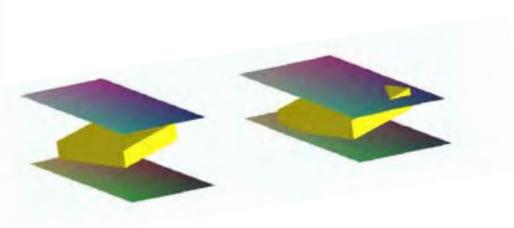
0.392699081698724154807830422909937860524645434

while the **integral** is

0.392699081698724154807830422909937860524646174

A **careful** *tanh-sinh quadrature* **proves** this difference after **43 correct digits**

Fourier analysis explains this happens when a hyperplane meets a hypercube



Before and After

# Quadrature II. Hyperbolic Knots



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$$\frac{24}{7\sqrt{7}} \int_{\pi/3}^{\pi/2} \log \left| \frac{\tan t + \sqrt{7}}{\tan t - \sqrt{7}} \right| dt \stackrel{?}{=} L_{-7}(2) \quad (@)$$

where

$$L_{-7}(s) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left[ \frac{1}{(7n+1)^s} + \frac{1}{(7n+2)^s} - \frac{1}{(7n+3)^s} + \frac{1}{(7n+4)^s} - \frac{1}{(7n+5)^s} - \frac{1}{(7n+6)^s} \right].$$

“Identity” (@) has been verified to **20,000** places. I have *no idea* of how to prove it.

The easiest of 998 empirical results linking physics/topology (LHS) to number theory (RHS). [JMB-Broadhurst]

We have certain knowledge without proof

# Extreme Quadrature ... 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)

THE BIOCHEMIST  
AT WORK

A trace of  
saturated fat...  
very bad.



THE BIOCHEMIST  
AT LUNCH

I'll have another  
order of fries.



# Chaitin Revisited

- Calude and Jurgenson (AAM 2005) prove a rigorous version of the following striking result that **there are lots more true results than provable ones.**

In this paper we prove Chaitin's "heuristic principle," *the theorems of a finitely-specified theory cannot be significantly more complex than the theory itself*, for an appropriate measure of complexity. We show that the measure is invariant under the change of the Gödel numbering. For this measure, the theorems of a finitely-specified, sound, consistent theory strong enough to formalize arithmetic which is arithmetically sound (like Zermelo–Fraenkel set theory with choice or Peano Arithmetic) have bounded complexity, hence every sentence of the theory which is significantly more complex than the theory is unprovable. Previous results showing that incompleteness is not accidental, but ubiquitous are here reinforced in probabilistic terms: the probability that a true sentence of length  $n$  is provable in the theory tends to zero when  $n$  tends to infinity, while the probability that a sentence of length  $n$  is true is strictly positive.

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# REFERENCES



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*“The object of mathematical rigor is to sanction and legitimize the conquests of intuition, and there was never any other object for it.”*

- J. Hadamard quoted at length in E. Borel, *Lecons sur la theorie des fonctions*, 1928.