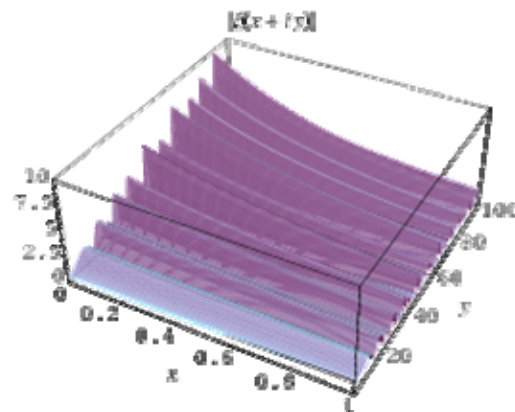


The Riemann zeta function is an extremely important [special function](#) of mathematics and physics that arises in definite integration and is intimately related with very deep results surrounding the [prime number theorem](#). While many of the properties of this function have been investigated, there remain important fundamental conjectures (most notably the [Riemann hypothesis](#)) that remain unproved to this day. The Riemann zeta function $\zeta(s)$ is defined over the complex plane for one complex variable, which is conventionally denoted s (instead of the usual z) in deference to the notation used by Riemann in his 1859 paper that founded the study of this function (Riemann 1859). It is implemented in *Mathematica* as `Zeta[s]`.



The plot above shows the "ridges" of $|\zeta(x+iy)|$ for $0 \leq x \leq 1$ and $1 \leq y \leq 100$. The fact that the ridges appear to decrease monotonically for $0 \leq x \leq 1/2$ is not a coincidence since it turns out that monotonic decrease implies the [Riemann hypothesis](#) (Zvengrowski and Saidak 2003; Borwein and Borwein 2003, pp. 95-96).

On the [real line](#) with $x > 1$, the Riemann zeta function can be defined by the integral

$$\zeta(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(x)} \int_0^\infty \frac{u^{x-1}}{e^u - 1} du, \quad (1)$$

where $\Gamma(x)$ is the [gamma function](#). If x is an integer n , then we have the identity

$$\frac{u^{n-1}}{e^u - 1} = \frac{e^{-u} u^{n-1}}{1 - e^{-u}} = e^{-u} u^{n-1} \sum_{k=0}^\infty e^{-ku} = \sum_{k=1}^\infty e^{-ku} u^{n-1}, \quad (2)$$

so

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{u^{n-1}}{e^u - 1} du = \sum_{k=1}^\infty \int_0^\infty e^{-ku} u^{n-1} du. \quad (3)$$

To evaluate $\zeta(n)$, let $y = ku$ so that $dy = k du$ and plug in the above identity to obtain

$$\zeta(n) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(n)} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-ky} y^{n-1} dy \quad (4)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\Gamma(n)} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-y} \left(\frac{y}{k}\right)^{n-1} \frac{dy}{k} \quad (5)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\Gamma(n)} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^n} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-y} y^{n-1} dy, \quad (6)$$

Integrating the final expression in (6) gives $\Gamma(n)$, which cancels the factor $1/\Gamma(n)$ and gives the most common form of the Riemann zeta function,

$$\zeta(n) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^n}, \quad (7)$$

which is sometimes known as a *p-series*.

The Riemann zeta function can also be defined in terms of *multiple integrals* by

$$\zeta(n) = \int_0^1 \cdots \int_0^1 \frac{\prod_{i=1}^n dx_i}{1 - \prod_{i=1}^n x_i}, \quad (8)$$

and as a *Mellin transform* by

$$\int_0^{\infty} \text{frac}\left(\frac{1}{t}\right) t^{s-1} dt = -\frac{\zeta(s)}{s} \quad (9)$$

for $0 < \Re[s] < 1$, where $\text{frac}(x)$ is the *fractional part* (Balazard and Saias 2000).

It appears in the *unit square integral*

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{[-\ln(xy)]^s}{1-xy} dx dy = \Gamma(s+2) \zeta(s+2), \quad (10)$$

valid for $\Re[s] > -1$ (Guillera and Sondow 2005). For s a nonnegative integer, this formula is due to Hadjicostas (2002), and the special cases $s = 0$ and $s = 1$ are due to Beukers (1979).

Note that the zeta function $\zeta(s)$ has a singularity at $s = 1$, where it reduces to the divergent *harmonic series*.

The Riemann zeta function satisfies the [reflection functional equation](#)

$$\zeta(1-s) = 2(2\pi)^{-s} \cos\left(\frac{1}{2}s\pi\right) \Gamma(s) \zeta(s) \quad (11)$$

(Hardy 1999, p. 14; Krantz 1999, p. 160), a similar form of which was conjectured by Euler for real s (Euler, read in 1749, published in 1768; Ayoub 1974; Havil 2003, p. 193). A symmetrical form of this functional equation is given by

$$\Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) \pi^{-s/2} \zeta(s) = \Gamma\left(\frac{1-s}{2}\right) \pi^{-(1-s)/2} \zeta(1-s) \quad (12)$$

(Ayoub 1974), which was proved by Riemann for all complex s (Riemann 1859).

As defined above, the zeta function $\zeta(s)$ with $s = \sigma + it$ a [complex number](#) is defined for $\Re[s] > 1$. However, $\zeta(s)$ has a unique [analytic continuation](#) to the entire [complex plane](#), excluding the point $s = 1$, which corresponds to a [simple pole](#) with [complex residue](#) 1 (Krantz 1999, p. 160). In particular, as $s \rightarrow 1$, $\zeta(s)$ obeys

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow 1} \left[\zeta(s) - \frac{1}{s-1} \right] = \gamma, \quad (13)$$

where γ is the [Euler-Mascheroni constant](#) (Whittaker and Watson 1990, p. 271).

To perform the [analytic continuation](#) for $\Re[s] > 0$, write

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n^s} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s} = 2 \sum_{n=2,4,\dots}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s} \quad (14)$$

$$= 2 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2k)^s} \quad (15)$$

$$= 2^{1-s} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^s}, \quad (16)$$

so rewriting in terms of $\zeta(s)$ immediately gives

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n^s} + \zeta(s) = 2^{1-s} \zeta(s). \quad (17)$$

Therefore,

$$\zeta(s) = \frac{1}{1-2^{1-s}} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n^s}. \quad (18)$$

Here, the sum on the right-hand side is exactly the [Dirichlet eta function](#) $\eta(s)$ (sometimes also called the alternating zeta function). While this formula defines $\zeta(s)$ for only the [right half-plane](#) $\Re[s] > 0$, equation (◇) can be used to analytically continue it to the rest of the [complex plane](#). [Analytic continuation](#) can also be performed using [Hankel functions](#). A globally convergent series for the Riemann zeta function (which provides the [analytic continuation](#) of $\zeta(s)$ to the entire [complex plane](#) except $s = 1$) is given by

$$\zeta(s) = \frac{1}{1-2^{1-s}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (k+1)^{-s} \quad (19)$$

(Havil 2003, p. 206), where $\binom{n}{k}$ is a [binomial coefficient](#), which was conjectured by Knopp around 1930, proved by Hasse (1930), and rediscovered by Sondow (1994). This equation is related to renormalization and random variates (Biane *et al.* 2001) and can be derived by applying [Euler's series transformation](#) with $n = 0$ to equation (18).

Hasse (1930) also proved the related globally (but more slowly) convergent series

$$\zeta(s) = \frac{1}{s-1} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (k+1)^{1-s} \quad (20)$$

that, unlike (19), can also be extended to a generalization of the Riemann zeta function known as the [Hurwitz zeta function](#) $\zeta(s, a)$. $\zeta(s, a)$ is defined such that

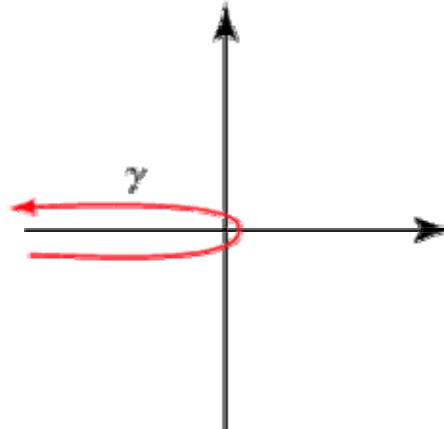
$$\zeta(s) = \zeta(s, 1). \quad (21)$$

(If the singular term is excluded from the sum definition of $\zeta(s, a)$, then $\zeta(s) = \zeta(s, 0)$ as well.)

Expanding $\zeta(s)$ about $s = 1$ gives

$$\zeta(s) = \frac{1}{s-1} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \gamma_n (s-1)^n, \quad (22)$$

where γ_n are the so-called [Stieltjes constants](#).



The Riemann zeta function can also be defined in the complex plane by the [contour integral](#)

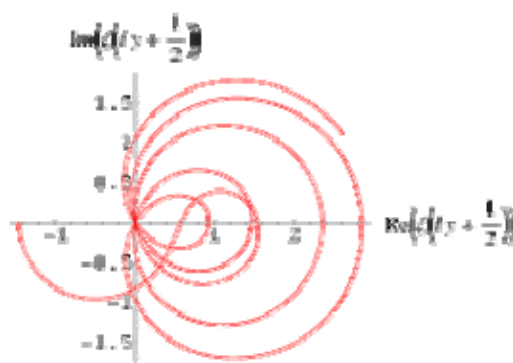
$$\zeta(z) = \frac{\Gamma(1-z)}{2\pi i} \oint_{\gamma} \frac{u^{z-1}}{e^u - 1} du \quad (23)$$

for all $z \neq 1$, where the [contour](#) is illustrated above (Havil 2003, pp. 193 and 249-252).

Zeros of $\zeta(s)$ come in (at least) two different types. So-called "trivial zeros" occur at *all* negative even integers $s = -2, -4, -6, \dots$, and "nontrivial zeros" at certain

$$s = \sigma + it \quad (24)$$

for s in the "critical strip" $0 < \sigma < 1$. The [Riemann hypothesis](#) asserts that the nontrivial [Riemann zeta function zeros](#) of $\zeta(s)$ all have [real part](#) $\sigma = \Re[s] = 1/2$, a line called the "[critical line](#)." This is now known to be true for the first 250×10^9 roots.



The plot above shows the real and imaginary parts of $\zeta(1/2 + y\theta)$ (i.e., values of $\zeta(z)$ along the critical strip) as y is varied from 0 to 35 (Derbyshire 2004, p. 221).

The Riemann zeta function can be split up into

$$\zeta\left(\frac{1}{2} + it\right) = Z(t) e^{-i\theta(t)}, \quad (25)$$

where $Z(t)$ and $\theta(t)$ are the Riemann-Siegel functions.

The Riemann zeta function is related to the Dirichlet lambda function $\lambda(s)$ and Dirichlet eta function $\eta(s)$ by

$$\frac{\zeta(s)}{2^s} = \frac{\lambda(s)}{2^s - 1} = \frac{\eta(s)}{2^s - 2} \quad (26)$$

and

$$\zeta(s) + \eta(s) = 2\lambda(s) \quad (27)$$

(Spanier and Oldham 1987).

It is related to the Liouville function $\lambda(n)$ by

$$\frac{\zeta(2s)}{\zeta(s)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda(n)}{n^s} \quad (28)$$

(Lehman 1960, Hardy and Wright 1979). Furthermore,

$$\frac{\zeta^2(s)}{\zeta(2s)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^{\omega(n)}}{n^s}, \quad (29)$$

where $\omega(n)$ is the number of distinct prime factors of n (Hardy and Wright 1979, p. 254).

For $-2n$ a positive even integer $-2, -4, \dots$,

$$\zeta'(-2n) = \frac{(-1)^n \zeta(2n+1) (2n)!}{2^{2n+1} \pi^{2n}}, \quad (30)$$

giving the first few as

$$\zeta'(-2) = -\frac{\zeta(3)}{4\pi^2} \quad (31)$$

$$\zeta'(-4) = \frac{3\zeta(5)}{4\pi^4} \quad (32)$$

$$\zeta'(-6) = -\frac{45 \zeta(7)}{8 \pi^6} \quad (33)$$

$$\zeta'(-8) = \frac{315 \zeta(9)}{4 \pi^8} \quad (34)$$

(Sloane's [A117972](#) and [A117973](#)). For $n = -1$,

$$\zeta'(-1) = \frac{1}{12} - \ln A, \quad (35)$$

where A is the [Glaisher-Kinkelin constant](#). Using equation (\diamond) gives the derivative

$$\zeta'(0) = -\frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi), \quad (36)$$

which can be derived directly from the [Wallis formula](#) (Sondow 1994). $\zeta'(0)/\zeta(0) = \ln(2\pi)$ can also be derived directly from the Euler-Maclaurin summation formula (Edwards 2001, pp. 134-135). In general, $\zeta^{(n)}(0)$ can be expressed analytically in terms of π , $\zeta(n)$, the [Euler-Mascheroni constant](#) γ , and the [Stieltjes constants](#) γ_i , with the first few examples being

$$\zeta''(0) = \gamma_1 + \frac{1}{2} \gamma^2 - \frac{1}{24} \pi^2 - \frac{1}{2} [\ln(2\pi)]^2 \quad (37)$$

$$\zeta'''(0) = 3 \ln(2\pi) \gamma_1 + 3 \gamma \gamma_1 + \frac{3}{2} \gamma_2 - \zeta(3) - \frac{1}{2} [\ln(2\pi)]^3 - \frac{1}{8} \pi^2 \ln(2\pi) + \frac{3}{2} \gamma^2 \ln(2\pi) + \gamma^3. \quad (38)$$

Derivatives $\zeta^{(n)}(1/2)$ can also be given in closed form, for example,

$$\zeta'\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{4} \left[(\pi + 2\gamma + 6 \ln 2 + 2 \ln \pi) \zeta\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \right] \quad (39)$$

$$= -3.92264613 \dots \quad (40)$$

(Sloane's [A114875](#)).

The [derivative](#) of the Riemann zeta function for $\Re[s] > 1$ is defined by

$$\zeta'(s) = -\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln k}{k^s} = -\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{\ln k}{k^s}, \quad (41)$$

$\zeta'(2)$ can be given in closed form as

$$\zeta'(2) = \frac{1}{6} \pi^2 [\gamma + \ln(2\pi) - 12 \ln A] \quad (42)$$

$$= -0.93754825431 \dots \quad (43)$$

(Sloane's [A073002](#)), where A is the [Glaisher-Kinkelin constant](#) (given in series form by Glaisher 1894).

The series for $\zeta'(s)$ about $s = 1$ is

$$\zeta'(s) = -\frac{1}{(s-1)^2} - \gamma_1 + \gamma_2(s-1) - \frac{1}{2}\gamma_3(s-1)^2 + \dots, \quad (44)$$

where γ_i are [Stieltjes constants](#).

In 1739, Euler found the rational coefficients C_n in $\zeta(2n) = C_n \pi^{2n}$ in terms of the [Bernoulli numbers](#).

Which, when combined with the 1882 proof by Lindemann that π is transcendental, effectively proves that $\zeta(2n)$ is transcendental. The study of $\zeta(2n+1)$ is significantly more difficult. Apéry (1979) finally proved $\zeta(3)$ to be [irrational](#), but no similar results are known for other [odd \$n\$](#) . As a result of Apéry's important discovery, $\zeta(3)$ is sometimes called [Apéry's constant](#). Rivoal (2000) and Ball and Rivoal (2001) proved that there are infinitely many integers n such that $\zeta(2n+1)$ is irrational, and subsequently that at least one of $\zeta(5)$, $\zeta(7)$, ..., $\zeta(21)$ is [irrational](#) (Rivoal 2001). This result was subsequently tightened by Zudilin (2001), who showed that at least one of $\zeta(5)$, $\zeta(7)$, $\zeta(9)$, or $\zeta(11)$ is [irrational](#).

A number of interesting sums for $\zeta(n)$, with n a [positive integer](#), can be written in terms of binomial coefficients as the [binomial sums](#)

$$\zeta(2) = \frac{3}{4} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 \binom{2k}{k}} \quad (45)$$

$$\zeta(3) = \frac{5}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{k^3 \binom{2k}{k}} \quad (46)$$

$$\zeta(4) = \frac{36}{17} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^4 \binom{2k}{k}} \quad (47)$$

(Guy 1994, p. 257; Bailey *et al.* 2006, p. 70). Apéry arrived at his result with the aid of the k^{-3} sum formula above. A relation [of the form](#)

$$\zeta(5) = Z_5 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{k^5 \binom{2k}{k}} \quad (48)$$

has been searched for with Z_5 a [rational](#) or [algebraic number](#), but if Z_5 is a [root](#) of a [polynomial](#) of degree 25 or less, then the Euclidean norm of the coefficients must be larger than 1.24×10^{383} , and if $\zeta(5)$ is algebraic of degree 25 or less, then the norm of coefficients must exceed 1.98×10^{380} (Bailey *et al.* 2006, pp. 70-71, updating Bailey and Plouffe). Therefore, no such sums for $\zeta(n)$ are known for $n \geq 5$.

The identity

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 - x^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \zeta(2n+2) x^{2n} \quad (49)$$

$$= \frac{1 - \pi x \cot(\pi x)}{2x^2} \quad (50)$$

$$= 3 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 \binom{2k}{k} \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{k^2}\right)} \prod_{n=1}^{k-1} \frac{1 - \frac{4x^2}{n^2}}{1 - \frac{x^2}{n^2}} \quad (51)$$

$$= \frac{{}_3F_2\left(1, 2, 1 - 2x, 1 + 2x; \frac{3}{2}, 2 - x, 2 + x; \frac{1}{4}\right)}{2(1 - x^2)} \quad (52)$$

for x is complex number not equal to a nonzero integer gives an Apéry-like formula for even positive n (Bailey *et al.* 2006, pp. 72-77).

The Riemann zeta function $\zeta(2n)$ may be computed analytically for even n using either contour integration or Parseval's theorem with the appropriate Fourier series. An unexpected and important formula involving a product over the primes was first discovered by Euler in 1737,

$$\zeta(s)(1 - 2^{-s}) = \left(1 + \frac{1}{2^s} + \frac{1}{3^s} + \dots\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^s}\right) \quad (53)$$

$$= \left(1 + \frac{1}{2^s} + \frac{1}{3^s} + \dots\right) - \left(\frac{1}{2^s} + \frac{1}{4^s} + \frac{1}{6^s} + \dots\right) \quad (54)$$

$$\zeta(s)(1 - 2^{-s})(1 - 3^{-s}) = \left(1 + \frac{1}{3^s} + \frac{1}{5^s} + \frac{1}{7^s} + \dots\right) - \left(\frac{1}{3^s} + \frac{1}{9^s} + \frac{1}{15^s} + \dots\right) \quad (55)$$

$$\zeta(s)(1 - 2^{-s})(1 - 3^{-s}) \dots (1 - p_n^{-s}) \dots = \zeta(s) \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} (1 - p_n^{-s}) \quad (56)$$

$$= 1. \quad (57)$$

Here, each subsequent multiplication by the n th prime p_n leaves only terms that are powers of p^{-s} . Therefore,

$$\zeta(s) = \left[\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} (1 - p_n^{-s}) \right]^{-1}, \quad (58)$$

which is known as the Euler product formula (Hardy 1999, p. 18; Krantz 1999, p. 159), and called "the golden key" by Derbyshire (2004, pp. 104-106). The formula can also be written

$$\zeta(s) = (1 - 2^{-s})^{-1} \prod_{q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}} (1 - q^{-s})^{-1} \prod_{r \equiv 3 \pmod{4}} (1 - r^{-s})^{-1}, \quad (59)$$

where q and r are the primes congruent to 1 and 3 modulo 4, respectively.

For even $n \geq 2$,

$$\zeta(n) = \frac{2^{n-1} |B_n| \pi^n}{n!}, \quad (60)$$

where B_n is a Bernoulli number (Mathews and Walker 1964, pp. 50-53; Havil 2003, p. 194). Another intimate connection with the Bernoulli numbers is provided by

$$B_n = (-1)^{n+1} n \zeta(1-n) \quad (61)$$

for $n \geq 1$, which can be written

$$B_n = -n \zeta(1-n) \quad (62)$$

for $n \geq 2$. (In both cases, only the even cases are of interest since $B_n = 0$ trivially for odd n .) Rewriting (62),

$$\zeta(-n) = -\frac{B_{n+1}}{n+1} \quad (63)$$

for $n = 1, 3, \dots$ (Havil 2003, p. 194), where B_n is a Bernoulli number, the first few values of which are $-1/12$, $1/120$, $-1/252$, $1/240$, ... (Sloane's A001067 and A006953).

Although no analytic form for $\zeta(n)$ is known for odd n ,

$$\zeta(3) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{H_k}{k^2}, \quad (64)$$

where H_k is a harmonic number (Stark 1974). In addition, $\zeta(n)$ can be expressed as the sum limit

$$\zeta(n) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{(2x+1)^n} \sum_{k=1}^x \left[\cot\left(\frac{k}{2x+1}\right) \right]^n \quad (65)$$

for $n = 3, 5, \dots$ (Apostol 1973, given incorrectly in Stark 1974).

For $\mu(n)$ the Möbius function,

$$\frac{1}{\zeta(s)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu(n)}{n^s} \quad (66)$$

(Havil 2003, p. 209).

The values of $\zeta(n)$ for small positive integer values of n are

$$\zeta(1) = \infty \quad (67)$$

$$\zeta(2) = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \quad (68)$$

$$\zeta(3) = 1.2020569032 \dots \quad (69)$$

$$\zeta(4) = \frac{\pi^4}{90} \quad (70)$$

$$\zeta(5) = 1.0369277551 \dots \quad (71)$$

$$\zeta(6) = \frac{\pi^6}{945} \quad (72)$$

$$\zeta(7) = 1.0083492774 \dots \quad (73)$$

$$\zeta(8) = \frac{\pi^8}{9450} \quad (74)$$

$$\zeta(9) = 1.0020083928 \dots \quad (75)$$

$$\zeta(10) = \frac{\pi^{10}}{93555} \quad (76)$$

Euler gave $\zeta(2)$ to $\zeta(26)$ for even n (Wells 1986, p. 54), and Stieltjes (1993) determined the values of $\zeta(2)$, ..., $\zeta(10)$ to 30 digits of accuracy in 1887. The denominators of $\zeta(2n)$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots$ are 6, 90, 945, 9450, 93555, 638512875, ... (Sloane's [A002432](#)). The numbers of decimal digits in the denominators of $\zeta(10^n)$ for $n = 0, 1, \dots$ are 1, 5, 133, 2277, 32660, 426486, 5264705, ... (Sloane's [A114474](#)).

An integral for positive even integers is given by

$$\zeta(2n) = \frac{(-1)^{n+1} 2^{2n-3} \pi^{2n}}{(2^{2n}-1)(2n-2)!} \int_0^1 E_{2(n-1)}(x) dx, \quad (77)$$

and integrals for positive odd integers are given by

$$\zeta(2n+1) = \frac{(-1)^n 2^{2n+1} \pi^{2n+1}}{(2^{2n+1}-1)(2n)!} \int_0^1 E_{2n}(x) \tan\left(\frac{1}{2} \pi x\right) dx \quad (78)$$

$$= \frac{(-1)^n 2^{2n+1} \pi^{2n+1}}{(2^{2n+1} - 1)(2n)!} \int_0^1 E_{2n}(x) \cot\left(\frac{1}{2} \pi x\right) dx \quad (79)$$

$$= \frac{(-1)^n 2^{2n} \pi^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} \int_0^1 B_{2n+1}(x) \tan\left(\frac{1}{2} \pi x\right) dx \quad (80)$$

$$= \frac{(-1)^{n+1} 2^{2n} \pi^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} \int_0^1 B_{2n+1}(x) \cot\left(\frac{1}{2} \pi x\right) dx, \quad (81)$$

where $E_n(x)$ is an Euler polynomial and $B_n(x)$ is a Bernoulli polynomial (Cvijović and Klinowski 2002; J. Crepps, pers. comm., Apr. 2002).

The value of $\zeta(0)$ can be computed by performing the inner sum in equation (\diamond) with $s = 0$,

$$\zeta(0) = - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k}, \quad (82)$$

to obtain

$$\zeta(0) = - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\delta_{0,n}}{2^{n+1}} = - \frac{1}{2^{0+1}} = - \frac{1}{2}, \quad (83)$$

where $\delta_{0,n}$ is the Kronecker delta.

Similarly, the value of $\zeta(-1)$ can be computed by performing the inner sum in equation (\diamond) with $s = -1$,

$$\zeta(-1) = - \frac{1}{3} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (k+1), \quad (84)$$

which gives

$$\zeta(-1) = - \frac{1}{3} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\delta_{0,n} - n \delta_{1,n}}{2^{n+1}} \quad (85)$$

$$= - \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1}{2^{0+1}} - \frac{1}{2^{1+1}} \right) = - \frac{1}{12}. \quad (86)$$

This value is related to a deep result in renormalization theory (Elizalde *et al.* 1994, Elizalde 1995, Bloch 1996, Lepowski 1999).

It is apparently not known if the value

$$\zeta\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = -1.46035450880 \dots \quad (87)$$

(Sloane's [A059750](#)) can be expressed in terms of known mathematical constants. This constant appears, for example, in [Knuth's series](#).

Rapidly converging series for $\zeta(n)$ for n odd were first discovered by Ramanujan (Zucker 1979, Zucker 1984, Berndt 1988, Bailey *et al.* 1997, Cohen 2000). For $n > 1$ and $n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$,

$$\zeta(n) = \frac{2^{n-1} \pi^n}{(n+1)!} \sum_{k=0}^{(n+1)/2} (-1)^{k-1} \binom{n+1}{2k} B_{n+1-2k} B_{2k} - 2 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^n (e^{2\pi k} - 1)}, \quad (88)$$

where B_k is again a [Bernoulli number](#) and $\binom{n}{k}$ is a [binomial coefficient](#). The values of the left-hand sums (divided by π^n) in (88) for $n = 3, 7, 11, \dots$ are 7/180, 19/56700, 1453/425675250, 13687/390769879500, 7708537/21438612514068750, ... (Sloane's [A057866](#) and [A057867](#)). For $n \geq 5$ and $n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, the corresponding formula is slightly messier,

$$\zeta(n) = \frac{(2\pi)^n}{(n+1)! (n-1)} \sum_{k=0}^{(n+1)/4} (-1)^k (n+1-4k) \binom{n+1}{2k} B_{n+1-2k} B_{2k} - 2 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{2\pi k} \left(1 + \frac{4\pi k}{n-1}\right) - 1}{k^n (e^{2\pi k} - 1)^2} \quad (89)$$

(Cohen 2000).

Defining

$$S_{\pm}(n) \equiv \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^n (e^{2\pi k} \pm 1)}, \quad (90)$$

the first few values can then be written

$$\zeta(3) = \frac{7}{180} \pi^3 - 2 S_{-}(3) \quad (91)$$

$$\zeta(5) = \frac{1}{294} \pi^5 - \frac{72}{35} S_{-}(5) - \frac{2}{35} S_{+}(5) \quad (92)$$

$$\zeta(7) = \frac{19}{56700} \pi^7 - 2 S_{-}(7) \quad (93)$$

$$\zeta(9) = \frac{125}{3704778} \pi^9 - \frac{992}{495} S_{-}(9) - \frac{2}{495} S_{+}(9) \quad (94)$$

$$\zeta(11) = \frac{1453}{425675250} \pi^{11} - 2 S_{-}(11) \quad (95)$$

$$\zeta(13) = \frac{89}{257432175} \pi^{13} - \frac{16512}{8255} S_-(13) - \frac{2}{8255} S_+(13) \quad (96)$$

$$\zeta(15) = \frac{13687}{390769879500} \pi^{15} - 2 S_-(15) \quad (97)$$

$$\zeta(17) = \frac{397549}{112024529867250} \pi^{17} - \frac{261632}{130815} S_-(17) - \frac{2}{130815} S_+(17) \quad (98)$$

$$\zeta(19) = \frac{7708537}{21438612514068750} \pi^{19} - 2 S_-(19) \quad (99)$$

$$\zeta(21) = \frac{68529640373}{1881063815762259253125} \pi^{21} - \frac{4196352}{2098175} S_-(21) - \frac{2}{2098175} S_+(21) \quad (100)$$

(Plouffe 1998).

Another set of related formulas are

$$\zeta(3) = \frac{\pi^3}{28} + \frac{16}{7} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3 (e^{\pi n} + 1)} - \frac{2}{7} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3 (e^{2\pi n} + 1)} \quad (101)$$

$$\zeta(5) = 24 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^5 (e^{\pi n} - 1)} - \frac{259}{10} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^5 (e^{2\pi n} - 1)} - \frac{1}{10} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^5 (e^{4\pi n} - 1)} \quad (102)$$

$$\begin{aligned} & - \frac{7\pi^5}{1840} + \frac{328}{115} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^5 (e^{\pi n} - 1)} - \frac{419}{460} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^5 (e^{2\pi n} - 1)} - \frac{9}{115} \\ \zeta(5) = & \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^5 (e^{\pi n} - 1)} + \frac{261}{1840} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^5 (e^{6\pi n} - 1)} - \frac{9}{1840} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^5 (e^{12\pi n} - 1)} \end{aligned} \quad (103)$$

$$\zeta(7) = \frac{304}{13} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^7 (e^{\pi n} - 1)} - \frac{103}{4} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^7 (e^{2\pi n} - 1)} - \frac{19}{52} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^7 (e^{4\pi n} - 1)} \quad (104)$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{64}{3} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^9 (e^{\pi n} - 1)} + \frac{441}{20} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^9 (e^{2\pi n} - 1)} - 32 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^9 (e^{3\pi n} - 1)} - \\ \zeta(9) = & \frac{4763}{60} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^9 (e^{4\pi n} - 1)} + \frac{529}{8} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^9 (e^{6\pi n} - 1)} - \frac{1}{8} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^9 (e^{12\pi n} - 1)} \end{aligned} \quad (105)$$

(Plouffe 2006).

Multiterm sums for odd $\zeta(n)$ include

$$\zeta(5) = 2 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^5 \binom{2k}{k}} - \frac{5}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1} H_{k-1}^{(2)}}{k^3 \binom{2k}{k}} \quad (106)$$

$$\zeta(7) = \frac{5}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^7 \binom{2k}{k}} + \frac{25}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1} H_{k-1}^{(4)}}{k^3 \binom{2k}{k}} \quad (107)$$

$$\zeta(9) = \frac{9}{4} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^9 \binom{2k}{k}} - \frac{5}{4} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1} H_{k-1}^{(2)}}{k^7 \binom{2k}{k}} + 5 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1} H_{k-1}^{(4)}}{k^5 \binom{2k}{k}} + \frac{45}{4} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1} H_{k-1}^{(6)}}{k^3 \binom{2k}{k}} - \frac{25}{4} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1} H_{k-1}^{(2)} H_{k-1}^{(4)}}{k^3 \binom{2k}{k}} \quad (108)$$

$$\zeta(11) = \frac{5}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k^{11} \binom{2k}{k}} + \frac{25}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1} H_{k-1}^{(4)}}{k^7 \binom{2k}{k}} - \frac{75}{4} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1} H_{k-1}^{(8)}}{k^5 \binom{2k}{k}} + \frac{125}{4} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1} [H_{k-1}^{(4)}]^2}{k^3 \binom{2k}{k}} \quad (109)$$

(Borwein and Bradley 1997, 1997; Bailey *et al.* 2006, p. 71), where $H_n^{(r)}$ is a generalized [harmonic number](#).

G. Huvent (2002) found the beautiful formula

$$\zeta(5) = -\frac{16}{11} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{[2(-1)^n + 1] h_n}{n^4}, \quad (110)$$

A number of sum identities involving $\zeta(n)$ include

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} [\zeta(n) - 1] = 1 \quad (111)$$

$$\sum_{n=2,4,6,\dots}^{\infty} [\zeta(n) - 1] = \frac{3}{4} \quad (112)$$

$$\sum_{n=3,5,7,\dots}^{\infty} [\zeta(n) - 1] = \frac{1}{4} \quad (113)$$

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (-1)^n [\zeta(n) - 1] = \frac{1}{2}, \quad (114)$$

Sums involving integers multiples of the argument include

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [\zeta(2n) - 1] = \frac{1}{4} \quad (115)$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [\zeta(3n) - 1] = \frac{1}{2} \left[-(-1)^{2/3} H_{\left(\frac{2-i}{3}\right)/2} + (-1)^{1/3} H_{\left(\frac{2+i}{3}\right)/2} \right] \quad (116)$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [\zeta(4n) - 1] = \frac{1}{8} (7 - 2 \coth \pi), \quad (117)$$

where H_n is a [harmonic number](#).

Two surprising sums involving $\zeta(x)$ are given by

$$\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k \zeta(k)}{k} = \gamma \quad (118)$$

$$\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{\zeta(k) - 1}{k} = 1 - \gamma, \quad (119)$$

where γ is the [Euler-Mascheroni constant](#) (Havil 2003, pp. 109 and 111-112). Equation (118) can be generalized to

$$\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-x)^k \zeta(k)}{k} = x\gamma + \ln(x!) \quad (120)$$

(T. Drane, pers. comm., Jul. 7, 2006) for $-1 \leq x \leq 1$.

Other unexpected sums are

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\zeta(2n)}{n(2n+1)2^{2n}} = \ln \pi - 1 \quad (121)$$

(Tyler and Chernhoff 1985; Boros and Moll 2004, p. 248) and

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\zeta(2n)}{n(2n+1)} = \ln(2\pi) - 1, \quad (122)$$

(121) is a special case of

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\zeta(2k, z)}{k(2k+1)2^{2k}} = (2z-1)\ln\left(z-\frac{1}{2}\right) - 2z + 1 + \ln(2\pi) - 2\ln\Gamma(z), \quad (123)$$

where $\zeta(s, a)$ is a [Hurwitz zeta function](#) (Danese 1967; Boros and Moll 2004, p. 248).

Considering the sum

$$S_n = \sum_{k=2}^{n-2} \frac{\zeta(k)\zeta(n-k)}{2^k}, \quad (124)$$

then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = \ln 2, \quad (125)$$

where $\ln 2$ is the [natural logarithm of 2](#), which is a particular case of

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=2}^{n-2} \zeta(k)\zeta(n-k)x^{k-1} = x^{-1} - \psi_0(-x) - \gamma, \quad (126)$$

where $\psi_0(z)$ is the [digamma function](#) and γ is the [Euler-Mascheroni constant](#), which can be derived from

$$\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \zeta(k)x^{k-1} = -\psi_0(1-x) - \gamma \quad (127)$$

(B. Cloitre, pers. comm., Dec. 11, 2005; cf. Borwein *et al.* 2000, eqn. 27).

A generalization of a result of Ramanujan (who gave the $m = 1$ case) is given by

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{[k(k+1)]^{2m+1}} = -2 \sum_{k=0}^m \zeta(2k) \frac{2m+1-2k}{2m+1-2k} \quad (128)$$

(B. Cloitre, pers. comm., Sep. 20, 2005).

An additional set of sums over $\zeta(n)$ is given by

$$C_1 = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{\zeta(n)}{n!} \quad (129)$$

$$= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{I_1 \left(2 \sqrt{u} \right) - \sqrt{u}}{(e^u - 1) \sqrt{u}} du \quad (130)$$

$$= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{{}_0\tilde{F}_1 \left(; 2; u \right) - 1}{e^u - 1} du \quad (131)$$

$$\approx 1.078189 \quad (132)$$

$$c_2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\zeta(2n)}{n!} \quad (133)$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{1/n^2} - 1 \quad (134)$$

$$= \int_0^1 \frac{{}_0F_2 \left(; \frac{3}{2}, 2; \frac{1}{4} u^4 \right)}{e^u - 1} du \quad (135)$$

$$\approx 2.407447 \quad (136)$$

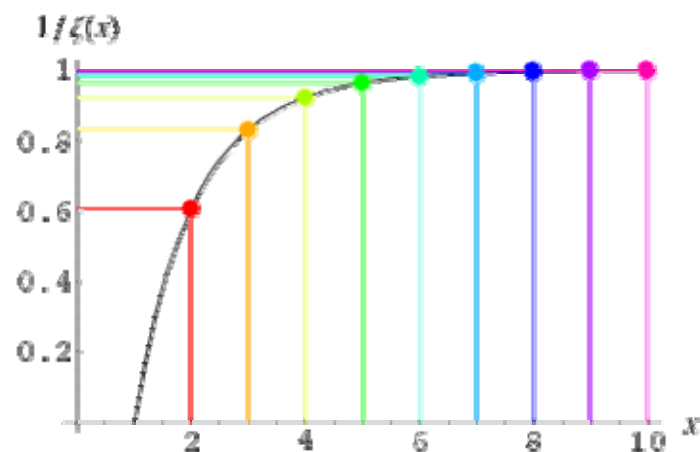
$$c_3 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\zeta(2n)}{(2n)!} \quad (137)$$

$$= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{{}_0F_1 \left(; 2; -u \right) - {}_0\tilde{F}_1 \left(; 2; u \right)}{2(1 - e^u)} du \quad (138)$$

$$\approx 0.869002. \quad (139)$$

(Sloane's [A093720](#), [A076813](#), and [A093721](#)), where $I_n(z)$ is a [modified Bessel function of the first kind](#),

${}_p\tilde{F}_q$ is a [regularized hypergeometric function](#). These sums have no known [closed-form](#) expression.



The inverse of the Riemann zeta function $1/\zeta(p)$, plotted above, is the asymptotic density of p th-powerfree numbers (i.e., [squarefree](#) numbers, [cubefree](#) numbers, etc.). The following table gives the number $Q_p(n)$ of p th-powerfree numbers $\leq n$ for several values of n .

p	$1/\zeta(p)$	$Q_p(10)$	$Q_p(100)$	$Q_p(10^2)$	$Q_p(10^4)$	$Q_p(10^5)$	$Q_p(10^6)$
2	0.607927	7	61	608	6083	60794	607926
3	0.831907	9	85	833	8319	83190	831910
4	0.923938	10	93	925	9240	92395	923939
5	0.964387	10	97	965	9645	96440	964388
6	0.982953	10	99	984	9831	98297	982954

SEE ALSO: [Abel's Functional Equation](#), [Berry Conjecture](#), [Critical Line](#), [Critical Strip](#), [Debye Functions](#), [Dirichlet Beta Function](#), [Dirichlet Eta Function](#), [Dirichlet Lambda Function](#), [Euler Product](#), [Harmonic Series](#), [Hurwitz Zeta Function](#), [Khinchin's Constant](#), [Lehmer's Phenomenon](#), [Montgomery's Pair Correlation Conjecture](#), [p-Series](#), [Periodic Zeta Function](#), [Prime Number Theorem](#), [Psi Function](#), [Riemann Hypothesis](#), [Riemann P-Series](#), [Riemann-Siegel Functions](#), [Riemann-von Mangoldt Formula](#), [Riemann Zeta Function \$\zeta\(2\)\$](#) , [Riemann Zeta Function Zeros](#), [Stieltjes Constants](#), [Voronin Universality Theorem](#), [Xi-Function](#)